

Abrupt warming of the equatorial intermediate Pacific during Heinrich Stadial 1

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Abstract :

The Pacific intermediate water is essential for global ocean heat storage and transfer and connected to the higher latitude sea areas. Its thermohaline evolution and relationship to high latitudes on millennium scales, however, are both poorly understood. In this study, we used sediment core KX22–4 in the western equatorial Pacific to reconstruct the thermohaline and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations in the intermediate water over the past 28,000 years based on Mg/Ca, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements of deep dwelling planktonic foraminiferal species. The results show that during Heinrich Stadial 1, the temperature of intermediate water rapidly increased by roughly 6 °C and was simultaneous with the Southern Ocean surface water, carrying a typical Antarctic signature along with the saltier and reduced $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signals. The Southern Hemisphere climatic development and the advection of the thermal anomaly into the tropical intermediate Pacific via the Southern Ocean intermediate water are thought to be closely coupled.

Highlights

► We reconstructed the thermohaline and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations of equatorial Pacific intermediate waters over the past 28,000 years. ► The temperature of the Pacific intermediate water rose by ~6 °C and accompanied by a salt enrichment in Heinrich Stadial 1. ► The thermohaline and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of intermediate water show a temporal correspondence to Southern Ocean surface water.

Keywords : western equatorial Pacific, intermediate water, Heinrich Stadial 1, thermohaline evolution.

1 Introduction

The reconstruction of intermediate water characteristics is crucial for understanding the changes in ocean heat and carbon transport in the Earth's climate system (Marshall and Speer, 2012). The warming "hiatus" in the surface ocean was intended, in the context of present global warming, to reflect a portion of the "lost" heat concealed by the ocean deep (Meehl et al., 2011). Recent observations demonstrated that the Southern Ocean absorbs three quarters of the extra heat produced by greenhouse gases, which is then transported northward to the ocean interior via the overturning circulation, changing the temperature and heat content of tropical intermediate water (Bourgeois et al., 2022). The change in water heat content in the tropical Pacific directly regulates the El Niño-Southern Oscillation, Pacific Decadal Oscillations, heat waves and typhoons in the northwest Pacific Ocean, affecting the climate change in the East Asia and possibly the entire world (Meehl et al., 2011; Cheng et al., 2022).

According to recent observations, the intermediate water in the equatorial Pacific is mainly originated from the subduction of Subantarctic mode water (SAMW) and Antarctic intermediate water (AAIW) (Toggweiler et al., 1991; Bostock et al., 2010; Bostock et al., 2013), which together make up the contemporary Southern Ocean intermediate water. While for the millennium events in the last deglaciation, the origin of the intermediate water in the equatorial Pacific is uncertain. According to some studies, the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) weakened or even collapsed during northern hemisphere cold events (McManus et al., 2004), Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1, ~15.0–18.0 ka) and Younger Dryas (YD, ~12.9–11.7 ka), which reduced northward heat transport in the northern Atlantic and increased heat accumulation in the Southern Ocean

(Toggweiler and Lea, 2010), and the resulting surface warming was then entered the SAMW and AAIW via northward subduction (Pahnke et al., 2008). Based on benthic foraminiferal proxies, the intermediate waters of northern tropical Atlantic (Poggemann et al., 2018), southwestern Atlantic (Umling et al., 2019) and northern Indian Ocean (Ma et al., 2020) experienced significant warming in HS1, which was attributed to the invasion of the southern source water driven by an enhanced Southern Ocean meridional circulation (Bryan et al., 2010; Poggemann et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2018). Simulation results showed that during the HS1, warming induced southward southern atmosphere westerlies would enhance Drake Passage upwelling and form a strong Ekman pumping, thereby strengthening the supply of the Antarctic surface water to the AAIW (Downes et al., 2011). Nevertheless, benthic foraminiferal Cd/Ca and ϵ_{org} records from the tropical Atlantic showed suppressed and contractive AAIW, given its function as a return flow of the AMOC (Came et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2012; Gu et al., 2017). Meanwhile, other studies have revealed that during HS1, an augmented north Pacific intermediate water (NPIW) (Gray et al., 2018; Gong et al., 2019; Zou et al., 2020) punctured southward even to south of Tasmania (Struve et al., 2022), as a “seesaw” in the ventilation of the intermediate Atlantic and Pacific (Freeman et al., 2015). In the northwest subtropical Pacific, two reconstructions observed fast warming intermediate water temperature (IWT) during HS1 and interpreted it as a warming in the NPIW (Kubota et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2020), but another reconstruction (Sagawa et al., 2011) recorded no quick IWT warming during HS1. Only two IWTs from the Indonesian (Rosenthal et al., 2013) and eastern Pacific Oceans (Kalansky et al., 2015) were recreated in the equatorial Pacific for the Holocene, which constrained our understanding of the history of IWT in the tropical Pacific for a longer timescales.

In this study, temperature, salinity and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of the intermediate water in the western equatorial

Pacific were reconstructed using Mg/Ca and stable isotopes of deep dwelling planktonic foraminifera *Globorotalia crassaformis* and *Globorotalia truncatulinoides* dextral, with the goal of probing the thermohaline evolution of the western equatorial Pacific intermediate water during the last deglaciation and its potential linkages to high latitudes.

2 Oceanographic settings

The core site in this study is situated in the central western Pacific warm pool (Fig. 1), with a mean annual sea surface temperature (SST) exceeding 28.5°C. The intermediate water in the area is currently largely affected by the SAMW and AAIW (Toggweiler et al., 1991; Bostock et al., 2010; Bostock et al., 2013), with the NPIW occasionally having an impact (Struve et al., 2022). Most of the NPIW (300–700 m water depth, 34.2–34.3 psu, $26.7–26.8\sigma_\theta$) only reaches 7°N in the Philippine Sea because of the bifurcation latitude of North Equatorial Current and basin-wide wind forcing, although the south-sourced waters may reach 11°N (Talley, 2008; Wang et al., 2015). As they subduct equatorward from the mid-high latitude formation zones along the isopycnic, the SAMW and AAIW affect the thermohaline and nutrient properties of equatorial intermediate water largely from 500 to 1500 m water depth, with a salinity of 34.5–34.6 psu and a density of $27.2\sigma_\theta$ (Bostock et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015) (Fig. 1). As a result, the study area is a crucial location where north and south sources of water dispute.

3 Materials and Methods

3.1 Sediment samples

The sediment samples were collected with 1 cm interval from the giant piston Core KX22-4 (0.03°S, 159.24°E, Fig.1) recovered from the Ontong–Java Plateau during Cruise KX08-973 of the

R/V “Science-1 Vessel” (Zhang et al., 2017). The water depth is 2362 m, well above the lysocline in the equatorial Pacific, which is about 3.5 km (Parker and Berger, 1971). The core sediments are consisted of approximately 85% calcareous ooze, without obvious bioturbation (Zhang et al., 2017). This work focuses on the last deglacial interval that since 28 ka, and the age model was based on seven AMS ^{14}C dating points using planktonic foraminifera *Trilobatus sacculifer* (Tab. 1) (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022).

3.2 Stable isotope and Mg/Ca analyses

Two subsurface planktonic foraminiferal species *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* were picked for the reconstruction of intermediate waters. About 30 specimens per sample within a size fraction of 355–500 μm were prepared for stable isotope analyses and Mg/Ca measurements. Pretreatment and analysis procedures followed the method described by Zhang et al., 2017. For isotope measurements the crushed foraminiferal testes were treated with peroxide and acetone, and dried at 60°C. The oxygen and carbon isotopes were measured by Finnigan-MAT253 mass spectrometer equipped with an automatic carbonate preparation device (Kiel III) at the State Key Laboratory of Marine Geology, Tongji University with a standard deviation of 0.07‰. Isotope results were calibrated into PDB scale by the NBS-19 standard.

The Mg/Ca cleaning procedure followed the treating processes without a reductive step (Barker et al., 2003). The Mg/Ca ratio was measured using Inductively Coupled Plasma-Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES, Icap6300 radial; Thermo-Fisher) at the Institute of Oceanology, Chinese Academy of Science. The analytical precision of the Mg/Ca ratio was 0.44% (1 σ , RSD). Al/Ca, Fe/Ca and Mn/Ca were measured alongside with Mg/Ca to monitor the cleaning efficiency. None of these ratios shows a correlation to Mg/Ca, indicating that the samples were not contaminated.

Furthermore, many studies from the warm pool have confirmed that the effect of salinity on Mg/Ca is negligible in this low salinity area (Arbuszewski et al., 2010; Hollstein et al., 2017). Based on the foraminiferal shell weight measurement of core KX22-4 (Zhang et al., 2021), no obvious dissolution effect was detected. Given the resistance to dissolution of *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* (Schiebel and Hemleben, 2017), the Mg/Ca-based temperature variations are robust.

3.3 Temperature and salinity reconstructions

Equation of Cléroux et al. (2011): $Mg/Ca=0.78 \times \exp(0.052 \times T)$ with an uncertainty of $\pm 2^\circ C$ and Zhang et al. (2022): $Mg/Ca=0.69 \times \exp(0.09 \times T)$ with an uncertainty of $\pm 1^\circ C$ were applied to calculate the temperature for *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides*, respectively. They fit the temperature in situ very well (Fig. 2) (Zhang et al., 2021). The reconstructed Holocene IWTs from *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* match the published temperature records at comparable water depths based on benthic foraminifera from the eastern tropical Pacific (Kalansky et al., 2015) and Indonesian oceans (Rosenthal et al., 2013) (Fig. 3b).

The residual seawater $\delta^{18}O$ ($\delta^{18}O_{sw-iv}$) was calculated using the empirical equation $T=16.5 - 4.8 \times (\text{shell } \delta^{18}O \text{ (PDB)} - \text{seawater } \delta^{18}O \text{ (SMOW)})$ with a factor 0.27‰, which is the conversion from PDB to SMOW scale (Bemis et al., 1998). $\delta^{18}O_{sw-iv}$ might indicate the salinity fluctuation after the ice volume change (Spratt and Lisiecki, 2016) was corrected.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Variations of the temperature in the intermediate water

Based on the comparison of foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ values of the late Holocene samples (<5 ka) with the predicted $\delta^{18}O$ equilibrium values ($\delta^{18}O_{eq}$), the apparent calcification depths of crusted *G.*

crassaformis and *G. truncatulinoides* are at ~330 m and 540 m water depths, respectively (Zhang et al., 2022). The water depth from 300 to 700 m is also the main overlaps of intermediate waters from the north and the south (Bostock et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2015). No obvious vertical migration has been found in *G. crassaformis* (Cléroux and Lynch-Stieglitz, 2010) and *G. truncatulinoides* (Rebotim et al., 2019), and they could be used in paleoenvironment reconstruction of the intermediate water (Steph et al., 2009; Tapia et al., 2015).

Since the last deglacial period, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ fluctuation of deep dwelling species *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* has displayed a pattern that is quite distinct from those of surface water (*Globigerinoides ruber* and *T. sacculifer*) and thermocline species (*Pulleniatina obliquiloculata* and *Neogloboquadrina dutertrei*) (Fig. 3a). Deep dwelling species exhibited an opposite enriched $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (~0.80‰) trend. In contrast to the continuous warming of the surface and thermocline waters during the deglaciation, the IWTs based on *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* rose rapidly in HS1 (about 6.0°C and 3.6°C warming with a 3.4 kyr interval, respectively, Fig. 3b; about 3.15°C and 2.12°C if the averages of time intervals of 14.76–17.00 ka and 18.15–19.30 ka were applied), which is significantly larger than the surface and thermocline warming (almost 1.1°C and 2.8°C, respectively).

Despite the absence of the direct deglacial IWT reconstruction in the equatorial Pacific, this substantial warming in the intermediate water of equatorial Pacific during HS1 is also observed in the intermediate waters of the northern Indian Ocean (7.5°N, 1,254 m water depth) (Ma et al., 2020) and western tropical Atlantic (~11°N, 852 m water depth) (Poggemann et al., 2018). Benthic foraminiferal Mg/Li increased by 1.1 mol/mmol, equivalent to ~5.5°C warming during HS1 in the northern Indian Ocean (Ma et al., 2020), which is compatible with reconstructions made in the

southwest Atlantic ($\sim 27^{\circ}\text{S}$, 1,108–1,268 m) (Umling et al., 2019). In the meantime, the benthic foraminiferal Mg/Ca recorded a $\sim 6.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ warming in the western tropical Atlantic (Poggemann et al., 2018) and northwest Atlantic ($\sim 49^{\circ}\text{N}$, 1,251 m water depth) (Marcott et al., 2011). Based on the Mg/Ca of *G. truncatulinoides*, a 3°C warming in the 150–450 m depth during HS1 was also detectable in the south Pacific ($\sim 46^{\circ}\text{S}$) (Tapia et al., 2015). Additionally, the average vertical thermal gradients, the temperature difference between the surface and thermocline water (ΔT_{upper}) and between the thermocline and intermediate water (ΔT_{lower}), decreased during HS1 (Fig. 3b), partly as a result of the fast warming in the ocean internal. This indicates that during HS1, when the northern hemisphere was cold, the interior equatorial Pacific was storing heat as the Southern Ocean (Toggweiler and Lea, 2010; Riethdorf et al., 2013; Gray et al., 2018; Praetorius et al., 2020). The global ocean heat content, which was reconstructed using ice core inert gas records, likewise showed an increase in the ocean heat content during HS1 (Baggenstos et al., 2019).

The different evolutions of intermediate waters from the upper waters illustrate that the intermediate water would more closely mirror the properties of higher latitude source regions (Wong et al., 1999). In this study, the IWT data from core KX22-4 were compared to the SST records in high latitude source areas in the northwest Pacific (Riethdorf et al., 2013; Gray et al., 2018), northeast Pacific (Praetorius et al., 2020) and southeast Pacific (Haddam et al., 2018) (Fig. 1, 4a-d). The equatorial Pacific IWT records revealed an Antarctic-style HS1 warming (Fig. 4c). At the beginning of HS1 (about 18 ka), temperatures in the southeast Pacific surface and western equatorial Pacific intermediate water both started to rise synchronously and peaked around the same time (about 15 ka), with a similar temperature fluctuation of 6°C . Although a similar SST rise was seen in the north high latitude during the HS1, it temporally lagged and started at ~ 16 ka and peaked at

~14.5 ka (Fig. 4a, b). Similarly, no discernible warming was found even in the northwest Pacific intermediate waters (Sagawa et al., 2011). Warming of AAIW in the tropical western Atlantic during HS1 and YD were induced by major AMOC perturbations resulting in the pronounced accumulation of heat in the surface Southern Ocean (Poggemann et al., 2018). Previous studies also argued for the transfer of the Southern Ocean surface temperature signature via intermediate waters into 7°S in the western Indian Ocean (Romahn et al., 2014). Nonetheless, the deeper IWT reconstructed by *G. truncatulinoides* abruptly declined at the height of the shallow one induced by *G. crassaformis* (Fig. 4c). The shallow one is more impacted by subtropical water mixing than the deeper one, which is more affected by the Southern Ocean's higher latitude. Higher latitude source regions would be more sensitive and show earlier change during the evolution of the Southern Ocean, resulting in phase diversity between the IWT reconstructions from *G. truncatulinoides* and *G. crassaformis*. Furthermore, near the end or latter part of HS1, the increased and warmer shallow NPIW would augment tropical warming (Fig. 4a, b), mismatching the deeper reconstruction.

4.2 The southern influence to the intermediate water

The $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw-iv}}$ reconstructions from *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* at core KX22-4 showed a 1.37–1.90‰ enrichment during HS1 (Fig. 4g), indicating a rapid rise in salinity as the temperature rose. It might represent a source water replenishment with high salinity and temperature in HS1. As the subducted waters transport along the isopycnic surface, similar changes should occur upstream and downstream of the water mass, as the same fluctuations in temperature (~6°C) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw-iv}}$ (~2.0‰). Similar to the temperature, the southeast Pacific surface water displayed an isochronous salifying (~2.0‰) (Haddam et al., 2020) with the equatorial intermediate water, while the salifying in northwest Pacific surface (Riethdorf et al., 2013) lagged (Fig. 4f). The enrichment

of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* (Fig. 3a) during HS1 suggested that salinity played a more important role than temperature in forcing the subduction of the warm, salty surface water from high latitudes to the equatorial Pacific, as shown by the TraCE model (Liu et al., 2009) in Fig. 5a that a strong positive salinity anomaly existed in the south Pacific at 500 m water depth in HS1. This is also demonstrated by a 2.0‰ $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw-iv}}$ enrichment (lose of buoyancy) in the sea surface salinity of the southeast Pacific. When the southern Pacific subtropical gyres moved southward, it could cause the mid-high latitude subduction zones to become warmer and saltier during HS1 (Chiang et al., 2018) and amplify our proxies reconstruction of intermediate water.

The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of intermediate water species *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* in core KX22-4 showed depleted values during HS1 (Fig. 4k), and this signal has been noted widely from the high to low latitudes, and has been treated as a global signal that primarily originates from the deep ocean ventilation or air-sea exchange. On the one hand, the outgassing in the western equatorial Pacific during HS1 as seen by the positive $p\text{CO}_2$ (Fig. 4j) (Palmer and Pearson, 2003) would hamper the depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal from the atmosphere to the ocean. On the other hand, the nearby productivity (Liang and Liu, 2016) was elevated during HS1 (Fig. 4l), which would increase $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value of the upper water and be in contrast with our records (Fig. 4k). As a result, we believe that the deep ocean ventilation is more likely to be responsible for this depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ signal.

A number of depleted $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records from eastern equatorial Pacific (Stott et al., 2009; de la Fuente et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2020) and off the coast of Baja California (Marchitto et al., 2007; Basak et al., 2010; Sánchez and Carriquiry, 2022) suggested a significant increase in thermocline and intermediate water intrusion from the south. Besides, the low-latitude Pacific has experienced a decline in the influence of northern intermediate water masses since ~17 ka, according

to the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and ϵNd signatures of benthic foraminifera (Max et al., 2017). A reduction in seawater $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and SST during HS1 was also predicted by diatomic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data from the northeast Pacific, which would be harmful to the NPIW subduction (Maier et al., 2018). Our intermediate water $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data and *Globorotalia inflata* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record from the southwest Pacific (Schiraldi et al., 2014) (Fig. 4m) both showed a 0.4‰ decrease during HS1. Covariations in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Stott et al., 2009) and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ (Basak et al., 2010) between the equatorial Pacific and the Southern Ocean suggest thermocline and intermediate layer penetration during HS1. According to the findings of an isotope enabled ocean model with various geotracers ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, ϵNd , $^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$) (Gu et al., 2020), more AAIW occupied the 500–700 m water depth in the equatorial western Pacific during HS1 than the last glacial maximum and Antarctic Cold Reversal (14.7–12.9 ka) (Fig. 6). When the Southern Ocean overturning circulation increased during HS1, ^{13}C rich deep water may be transported to the Southern Ocean surface and equator (Gong et al., 2021a). The radiocarbon depleted intermediate waters and significant $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{atm}}$ depletion of atmospheric CO_2 during HS1 (Fig. 4i) were caused by enhanced upwelling of a long isolated carbon reservoir (Romahn et al., 2014). Meanwhile, the warmer IWT would diminish the solubility of oceanic CO_2 , contributing to deep CO_2 release and driving the global greenhouse warming (Palmer and Pearson, 2003). Additionally, the depleted $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ observed in the surface and thermocline waters was speculated to reflect the isotopic signal of the upwelled underlying intermediate water (Oppo and Fairbanks, 1989; Linsley and Dunbar, 1994; Li et al., 2002).

Following the HS1, all reconstructed IWTs declined during the Antarctic Cold Reversal, but the ΔT s climbed (Fig. 3b), which might be attributed to a decrease in heat input and/or an increase in internal thermal release. During the Antarctic Cold Reversal, the IWT cooled almost

simultaneously with the SST cooling in the southeast Pacific (Fig. 4c, d). Global sea level calculation revealed that a significant rate of sea level rise occurred during a 500-year period around 14.6 ka, which was mostly attributable to an Antarctic meltwater pulse (Weaver et al., 2003). This would freshen the Southern Ocean's surface water while weakening the AAIW formation and its relevant source of the low-latitude intermediate water.

During the YD, both IWTs and ΔT s failed to detect secondary warming in the Southern Ocean. This may be owing to the poor resolution of our sample, but an IWT based on *G. crassaformis* revealed a modest warming trend from 13 to 10 ka. Such weaker intermediate water warming at low latitude in YD is also observed in IWT reconstruction from the subtropical to tropical western Atlantic (Poggemann et al., 2018; Umling et al., 2019) and northern Indian Ocean (Ma et al., 2020). The intermediate water $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw-iv}}$ data indicated a reduction across the YD period, correlating to a decrease in surface water salinity in the southeast Pacific (Fig. 4g, h). This would weaken subduction and result in a temperature difference signal, indicating that IWT at core KX22-4 did not detect the warming signal from the south (Fig. 4c). According to $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ data from the northern Arabian Sea, the age of the intermediate water during YD is younger than that during HS1, suggesting a relatively weak penetration during YD (Bryan et al., 2010). The ϵNd signals from Indian Ocean (Yu et al., 2018), Atlantic Ocean (Pahnke et al., 2008) and Pacific Ocean (Basak et al., 2010) likewise exhibited a lower AAIW in the YD than HS1, with the Pacific showing the greatest decrease (Basak et al., 2010). TraCE model results predicted lower seawater salinity and density in YD than HS1 at 500 m water depth in the south Pacific (Liu et al., 2009) (Fig. 5). When compared to HS1, the AMOC dropped less during YD (McManus et al., 2004; Ritz et al., 2013), indicating less overturning in the Southern Ocean (Siani et al., 2013; Dumont et al., 2020) (Fig. 4n). The $^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$

and $\Delta\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ data suggested that the south Pacific overturning circulation peaked during HS1 (Ronge et al., 2021b). Furthermore, meltwater episodes in the Southern Ocean triggered by higher sea level and warmer YD may limit the production of SAMW and AAIW.

In addition, because of the low sedimentation rate in the sampling location, our results of millennia scale fluctuations are subjected to inaccuracy. The likelihood of mechanical disturbances (such as bioturbation and winnowing) harmed the results of this study, which must be emphasized in any citations or discussions. The possible present of bioturbation implies that the amplitude of temperature rise during HS1 may larger than observed in this study, while it will not affect the observed rising trend which involves 5–6 data points step by step for both species. More research is required in this area to test the reconstruction of the intermediate water.

5 Conclusions

$\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and Mg/Ca ratio of deep dwelling planktonic foraminifera *G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides* were analyzed from core KX22-4 in the equatorial western Pacific, in order to reconstruct the evolution of the intermediate water since 28 ka. The findings indicated that high latitude millennial-scale events might leave an impression on the equatorial Pacific intermediate water and alter its inner water properties. The ocean's interior was significantly changed during the HS1, the northern hemisphere cooling interval, and contributed to the global warming during the later portion of the deglaciation. Meanwhile, the strengthening of the Southern Ocean overturning circulation resulted in the release of old respired carbon from the deep, further amplifying the greenhouse effect. We hypothesize that if global warming continues, heat absorption in the Southern Ocean would enhance the warming of the ocean interior and cause more carbon to enter the atmosphere, accelerating the global warming.

Data Availability Statement

The data are available at Pangaea (<https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.947087>) and the supporting materials. Model data used to produce the results in this study can be obtained from <https://zenodo.org/record/7260087> (doi:10.5281/zenodo.7260087). Codes for TRACE are publicly available at <https://www.earthsystemgrid.org/project/trace.html>.

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Tab. 1. Radiocarbon dates of core KX22-4 (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022). The radiocarbon ages were converted to calendar ages using the CALIB 8.1.0 program and updated MARINE20 calibration (Heaton et al., 2020), taking the local reservoir ($\Delta R=20\pm 177$ yr) from the most-nearby ages of modern seawater (<http://calib.org/marine>) into account.

Depth (cm)	Lab code	Uncorrected ^{14}C age (yr B.P. $\pm 1\sigma$)	Local reservoir (ΔR) (yr, $\pm 1\sigma$)	Calendar age (yr B.P.)	Range (1σ) (yr B.P.)
5-6	OS-101065	4120 \pm 25	20 \pm 177	3964	3717-4210
13-14	OS-101066	5770 \pm 25	20 \pm 177	5961	5755-6167
26-27	OS-101067	9820 \pm 25	20 \pm 177	10569	10300-10838
30-31	Beta-566811	12610 \pm 40	20 \pm 177	14042	13755-14328
35-36	Beta-566812	13840 \pm 40	20 \pm 177	15849	15597-16102
39-40	OS-101068	17700 \pm 65	20 \pm 177	20448	20214-20682
49-50	OS-101081	23800 \pm 85	20 \pm 177	27160	26985-27334

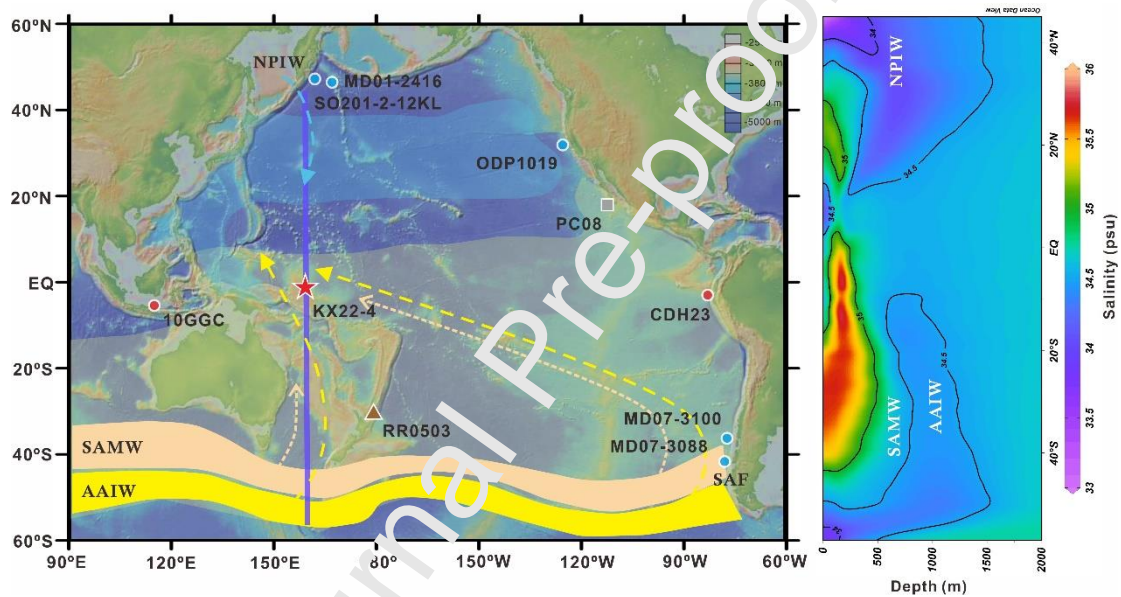


Fig. 1. The distribution of intermediate waters in the modern Pacific Ocean. The yellow and sand bands in the left panel represent the formation zones of the Antarctic intermediate water (AAIW) and Subantarctic mode water (SAMW) in the Southern Ocean, respectively, and the transparent yellow area marks the regions under their influence. The blue transparent area marks the modern extent of the north Pacific intermediate water (NPIW) (Talley, 2008). The dashed lines indicate possible transmission paths of intermediate waters. The red star represents the location of core KX22-4 in this study. The red circles mark intermediate water temperature records within the Holocene. The blue cycles mark the sea surface temperature records for comparison. The brown triangle represents the location of the *G. inflata* $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data. Gray square represents the location of the $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ data. The map is a Mercator projection

generated by the online map generator at <http://www.geomapapp.org/MSInstall.html>. The right panel shows a meridional salinity profile marked as the bold blue line in the left panel, which is created using Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2015) based on the World Ocean Atlas 2018 salinity data (Zweng et al., 2018).

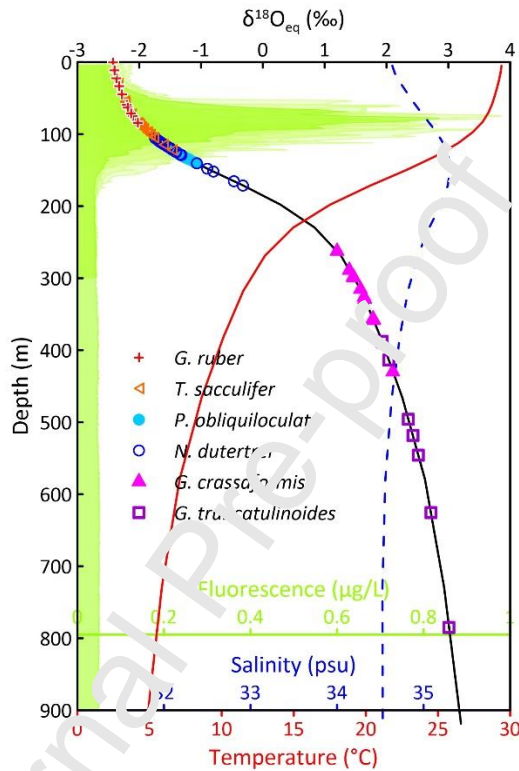


Fig. 2. The calcification depth estimated (Zhang et al., 2022). The temperature and salinity data are come from SODA reanalysis dataset (v2.2.4, http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/datadoc/soda_2.2.4.php). The predicted $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{eq}}$ then were calculated by the empirical equation $\text{SST} = 16.9 - 4.38 \times (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{eq}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} + 0.27) + 0.1 \times (\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{eq}} - \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}} + 0.27)^2$ (Shackleton, 1974). The chlorophyll concentration data are combined the in situ data from 155°E-165°E, 2°S-2°N (Bonnet et al., 2009).

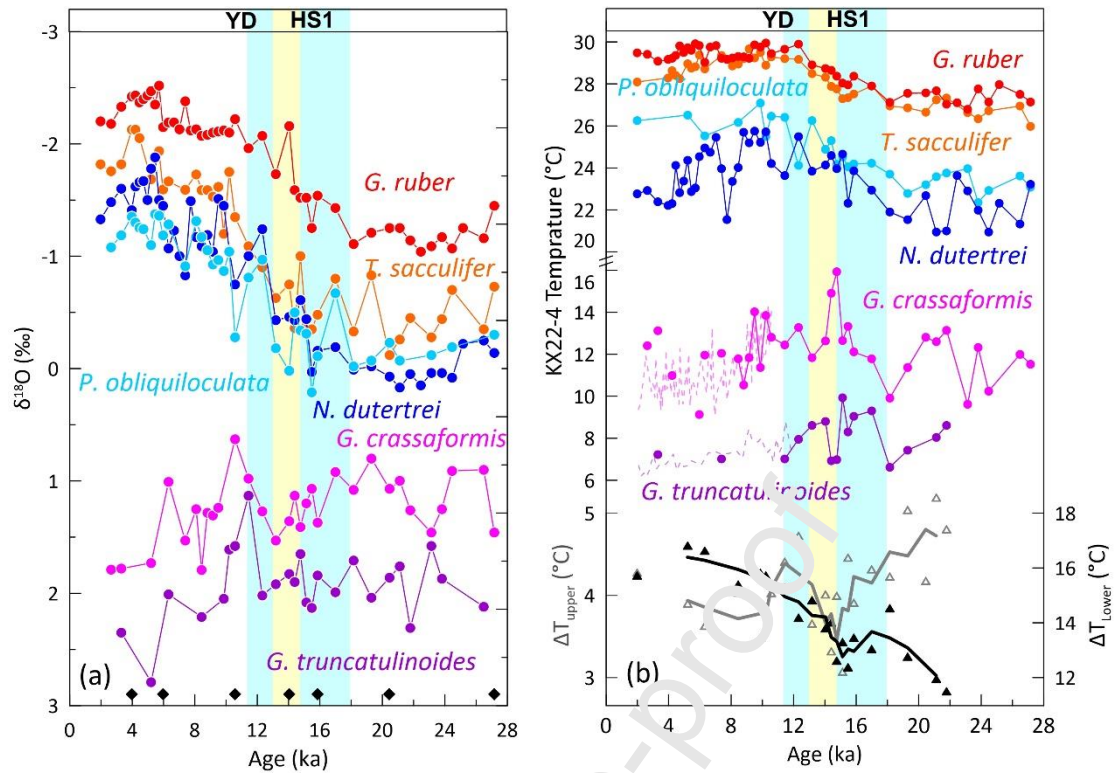


Fig. 3. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and seawater temperature reconstruction based on planktonic foraminifera dwelling at various water layers at core KX22-4 in western equatorial Pacific. (a) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records of surface water (*G. ruber* and *T. sacculifer*) (Zhang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2022), the thermocline water (*N. dutertrei* and *P. obliquiloculata*) (Zhang, 2016; Zhang et al., 2021) and intermediate waters (*G. crassaformis* and *G. truncatulinoides*) (this study). Black diamonds mark the AMS ^{14}C dating points. (b) Seawater temperatures based on Mg/Ca of multiple planktonic foraminifera (Zhang, 2016; Zhang et al., 2022), as well as the vertical temperature difference between the surface and thermocline water mean values (ΔT_{upper}) (gray triangles), and between the thermocline and intermediate water mean values (ΔT_{lower}) (black triangles). The gray and black lines are three point moving averages. The dashed lines in magenta and purple represent published IWT reconstructions from 374 m water depth in the eastern tropical Pacific (Kalansky et al., 2015) and 649 m water depth in Indonesian oceans (Rosenthal et al., 2013) based on benthic foraminifera, respectively.

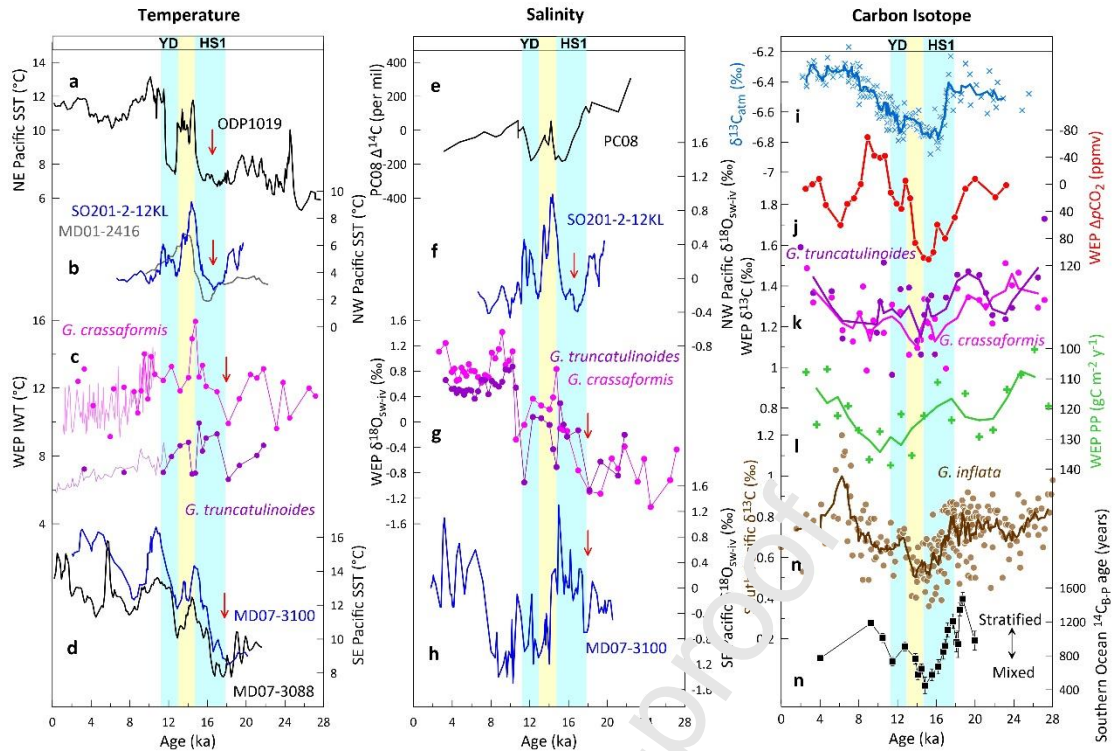


Fig. 4. Comparisons of the temperature, salinity and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ records of the intermediate water from the western equatorial Pacific (WEP) with published records in the northern and southern high latitudes. The cores include ODP1019 in the northeast Pacific (Praetorius et al., 2020) (a), SO201-2-12KL and MD01-2416 in the northwest Pacific (Riethdorf et al., 2013; Gray et al., 2018) (b, f), KX22-4 in the WEP (c, g, k) and MD07-3100 and MD07-3088 in the southeast Pacific (Haddad et al., 2018) (d, h). The $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$ data comes from core PC08 on the open margin off the west coast of southern California (Marchitto et al., 2007) (e). Atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ derived from Antarctic ice cores (Schmitt et al., 2011) (i). Calculated $\Delta p\text{CO}_2$ between the surface water and atmospheric $p\text{CO}_2$ from core ERDC-92 in the western equatorial Pacific (WEP) (Palmer and Pearson, 2003) (j). Reconstructed primary productivity (PP) from core KX21-2 (157.98° E, 1.42° S) in the western equatorial Pacific (Liang and Liu, 2016) (l). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of *G. inflata* from the southwest Pacific (Schiraldi et al., 2014) (m). Ventilation ages ($^{14}\text{C}_{\text{B-P}}$) from Core MD07-3088 in the southeast Pacific as a proxy of Southern Ocean ventilating intensity (Siani et al., 2013) (n). The red arrows in the panels reflect the approximate times when the increases begin.

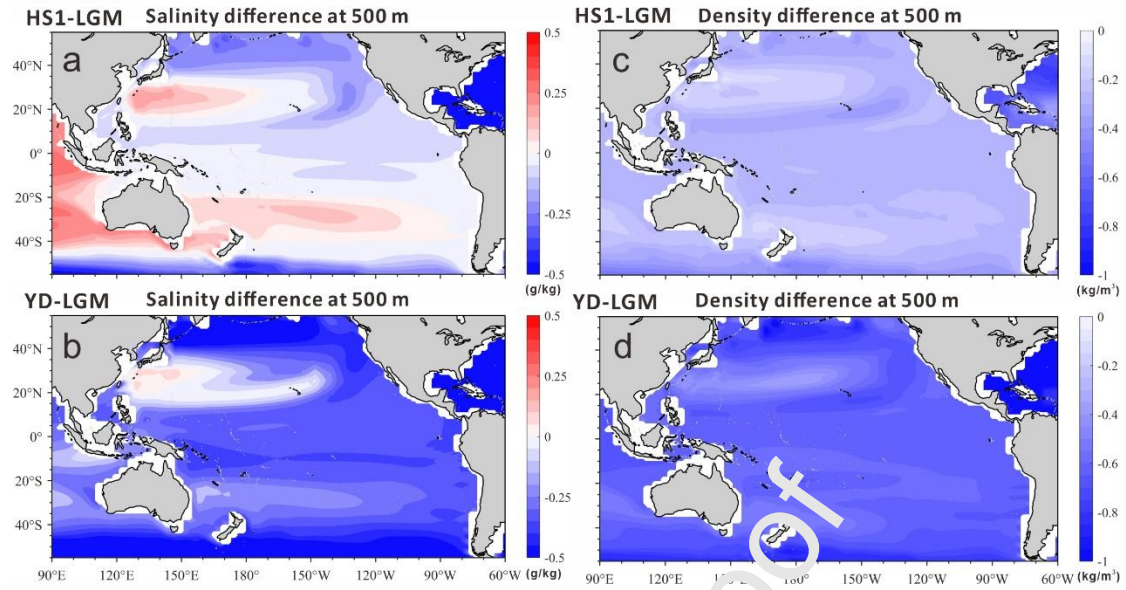


Fig. 5. Modeled salinity (a, b) and density (c, d) differences in HS1 (15 ka) and YD (12 ka) compared to LGM (20 ka) at 500 m water depth by TraCE model (Liu et al., 2007).

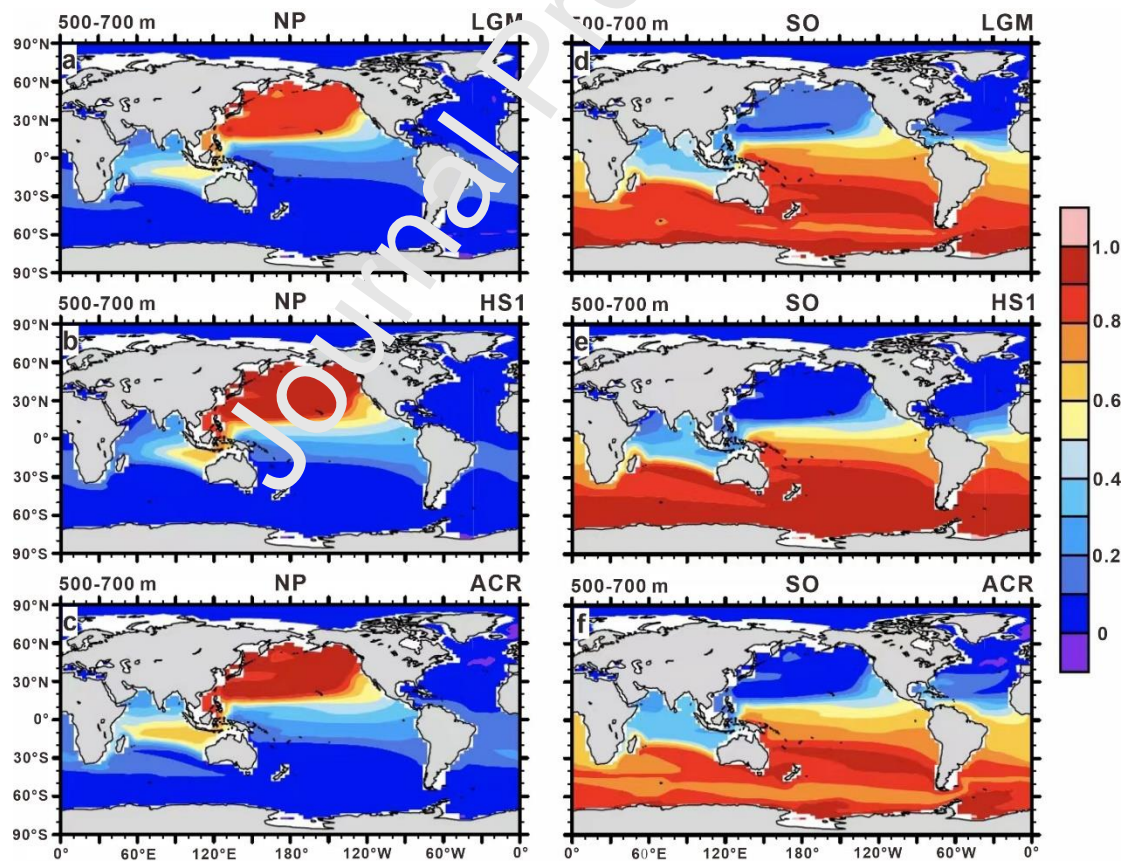


Fig. 6. The proportion of water masses from the north Pacific (NP) (a - c) and Southern Ocean (SO) (d - f) at 500 - 700 m water depth during the last glacial maximum (LGM), Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1) and Antarctic

Cold Reversal (ACR) modeled by C-iTraCE (Gu et al., 2020). The identification of the distribution of water masses is facilitated by passive dye tracers, which released at surface and fixed with the value at 1 in the SO and 0 outside SO for SO dye (right) and fixed at 1 at NP and 0 outside NP for NP dye (left) (Gu et al., 2020).

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Declaration of interest statement

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Highlights:

- We reconstructed the thermohaline and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ variations of intermediate water in the equatorial Pacific over the past 28,000 years.
- The temperature of the Pacific intermediate water rose by $\sim 6^\circ\text{C}$ and accompanied by a salinity enrichment in Heinrich Stadial 1.
- The thermohaline and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of intermediate water show a temporal correspondence to Southern Ocean surface water.

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