Long-term variability of the western tropical Atlantic sea surface temperature driven by greenhouse gases and AMOC

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Abstract :

The long-term orbital-scale sea surface temperature (SST) variability in the tropics is thought to be mainly driven by greenhouse gases (GHG) forcing. However, few studies have investigated the drivers of such variability in the tropical Atlantic. Given the evidence of orbital-scale changes in Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) strength, one can hypothesize that AMOC variability also modulates the long-term tropical Atlantic SST through the bipolar seesaw mechanism. According to this mechanism, under weak [strong] AMOC conditions, the Southern Hemisphere is expected to warm up [cool down], while the Northern Hemisphere cools down [warms up]. Here, we investigate the long-term SST variability of the western tropical South Atlantic (WTSA), i.e., along the main pathway of the upper AMOC branch towards the equator, using a new 300 thousand years (kyr)-long Mg/Ca-based SST record. Our SST record shows glacial-interglacial variability superimposed by four remarkable long-term warm events during the three recorded glacial periods. These glacial warm events occurred between ca. 280-260, 160-143, 75-60, and 40-24 ka before present. Our results support the notion that atmospheric GHG plays a leading role in modulating the glacial-interglacial SST variability in the WTSA. However, it does not explain the occurrence of glacial warm events. Our study supports that the glacial warm events were caused by an orbital-scale bipolar seesaw mechanism operating in the Atlantic due to changes in the AMOC strength. These warm events may have been amplified by annual mean insolation driven by obliquity. Finally, we suggest that the long-term bipolar seesaw warmed the western tropical (South) Atlantic during the MIS 5/4 transition when the Earth's climate was cooling off.

Highlights

► The western tropical South Atlantic SST was reconstructed for the last 300 kyr. ► Greenhouse gases control the glacial-interglacial SST variability. ► Four long-term warm events were identified during glacial conditions. ► The warm events were caused by an orbital-scale bipolar seesaw in the Atlantic.

Keywords : Sea surface temperature, Western tropical Atlantic, Glacial cycles, Orbital-scale, Bipolar seesaw

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Ice core records show a remarkable resemblance between atmospheric CO_2 41 concentration and glacial-interglacial cycles in Antarctic temperature over the last 800 thousand 42 years (kyr) (Lüthi et al., 2008). This linkage is attributed to the fact that changes in atmospheric 43 CO₂ concentration, more broadly greenhouse gas (GHG), alter radiative forcing, thereby 44 modulating the Earth's climate on orbital-scale (Barnola et al., 1987; Genthon et al., 1987; 45 Shakun et al., 2012). As tropical latitudes are far from the direct influence of high-latitude 46 continental ice sheets, they are ideal for investigating the equilibrium response of the sea 47 surface temperature (SST) to long-term changes in GHG concentrations (Broccoli, 2000). 48 Although the annual mean SST in the tropics can also be modulated by insolation forcing (Berger 49 et al., 2010; Loutre et al., 2004; Timmermann et al., 2007), studies from the tropical Pacific 50 support the notion that the long-term SST variability is mainly controlled by glacial-interglacial 51 changes in GHG concentration (Dyez and Ravelo, 2013; Lea, 2004). In particular, a transient 52 model simulation suggests that only 18% of SST variability in the western tropical Pacific is forced 53 by non-CO₂ effects (Tachikawa et al., 2014).

54 Unlike the Pacific Ocean, the SST in the tropical Atlantic is strongly affected by the 55 strength of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), which is responsible for the

56 net cross-equatorial northward heat transport in the Atlantic Ocean. Currently, the AMOC transports ca. 0.4 Peta Watts (0.4 x 10¹⁵ Watts) across the equator (Marshall et al., 2014) along 57 58 the upper western tropical Atlantic margin, the main pathway for this cross-equatorial heat 59 transport (Zhang et al., 2011). The subsequent heat loss to the atmosphere at high latitudes of 60 the North Atlantic prompts deep convection and the formation of the North Atlantic Deep Water 61 (NADW) that flows southward in the deep ocean (Srokosz et al., 2012). The Atlantic SST responds to variations in the AMOC via the so-called thermal bipolar seesaw mechanism (Stocker and 62 63 Johnsen, 2003). When the AMOC is weak, the Southern Hemisphere is expected to warm up 64 while the Northern Hemisphere cools down; the opposite should occur when the AMOC is strong 65 (Pedro et al., 2018). Therefore, the weakening of the northward cross-equatorial heat transport 66 during the AMOC slowdown is expected to warm up the western tropical Atlantic (Crowley, 67 1992; Mix et al., 1986). Instrumental observations, model simulations, and proxy-based 68 reconstructions have corroborated the role of the AMOC in modulating the western tropical 69 Atlantic SST from decadal to millennial timescales (Crivellari et al., 2019; Pedro et al., 2018; 70 Rühlemann et al., 1999; Venancio et al., 2020; Yang, 1999; Zhang et al., 2011). However, studies 71 have pointed to oscillations in North Atlantic deep convection and AMOC strength also on long-72 term orbital-scale (Lisiecki, 2014; Lisiecki et al., 2008). Assuming these long-term variations in 73 AMOC intensity, one might expect these to have affected the western tropical Atlantic SST 74 variability through a sort of orbital-scale bipolar seesaw mechanism (e.g., Lisiecki et al., 2008).

However, the scarcity of long records with appropriate resolution encompassing several glacial cycles hinders understanding the forcings and mechanisms controlling the long-term variability of SST in the western tropical Atlantic region. This study investigates the main drivers of long-term changes in a new 300-kyr-long SST record from the western tropical South Atlantic (WTSA). Our SST record is based on the Mg/Ca ratio of planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) shells from the sediment core GL-1180. Our results corroborate that GHG concentration modulated the glacial-interglacial tropical SST variability. However, orbital-scale changes in the AMOC strength were crucial in driving the superimposed long-term SST variability
observed in western tropical (South) Atlantic records.

84 2. Study area

Our study region is located in the southern portion of the Atlantic warm pool (Fig. 1a). Modern SST in the region is 27.5 °C on average, with a seasonal amplitude of 1.3 °C (Locarnini et al., 2019). The Atlantic warm pool results from the trade wind stress over the tropical Atlantic. The wind stress piles up warm waters on the western side of the tropical Atlantic and prompts upwelling on the eastern side, causing an east-west tilt in the thermocline depth (Hastenrath and Merle, 1987).

91 The upper ocean circulation of the tropical South Atlantic is marked by the 92 northwestward-flowing South Equatorial Current (SEC). The SEC reaches the Brazilian margin 93 between 10 and 14°S (Rodrigues et al., 2007), where it bifurcates into the southward-flowing 94 Brazil Current (BC) and northward-flowing North Brazil Under Current (NBUC)/North Brazil 95 Current (NBC) (Stramma and England, 1999). This northward flow is responsible for the net 96 interhemispheric heat transport in the Atlantic as part of the upper limb of the AMOC (Lumpkin 97 and Speer, 2007; Zhang et al., 2011). In the high latitudes of the North Atlantic, namely in the 98 Nordic Seas and the Labrador Sea, the loss of buoyancy prompts the sinking of upper ocean 99 waters into the deep ocean to form the southward flowing NADW, which represents the lower 100 limb of the AMOC (Srokosz et al., 2012). Ultimately, a mix between the colder and saltier waters 101 from the Nordic Seas with fresher and warmer waters from the Labrador Sea composes the 102 lower and the upper portions of NADW, respectively.

Seasonal changes in the WTSA upper ocean circulation are linked to the latitudinal migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). The ITCZ position, in turn, is controlled by the seasonal asymmetry in the interhemispheric insolation and heat budget (Marshall et al., 2014; Schneider et al., 2014). During austral winter/spring [autumn/summer], the ITCZ position is displaced northward [southward], strengthening [weakening] southeast trade winds and the

108 SEC (Rodrigues et al., 2007). The increase in SEC transport during austral winter enhances the 109 pile-up of warm waters in the western tropical Atlantic, steepening the east-west tilt of the 110 tropical Atlantic thermocline and boosting the NBC; the opposite occurs during austral 111 summer/autumn. Accordingly, the mixed layer depth at our study site is deeper during the 112 austral winter (ca. 85 m water depth) relative to the summer (ca. 65 m water depth), with an 113 annual average around 70 m (Fig.1b) (Locarnini et al., 2019). Importantly, the latitudinal 114 displacement of fronts does not influence the study region, and there is no evidence pointing to 115 a local upwelling system.



117 Figure 1: Regional settings of the study region. a) Location of marine sediment core GL-1180 118 (white dot) and other cores discussed here (black dots): MD02-2575 (Nürnberg et al., 2008; 119 Ziegler et al., 2008); ODP 999A (Schmidt et al., 2006); GeoB1105-4 and GeoB1112-4 (Nürnberg et al., 2000) M125-55-7 (Hou et al., 2020); GL-1090 (Santos et al., 2017). The color scale depicts 120 121 modern (1955-2017) annual mean sea surface temperatures (Locarnini et al., 2019). Black 122 arrows depict the schematic surface ocean circulation: Brazil Current (BC); Caribbean Current 123 (CC); Gulf Current (GC); Loop Current (LC); North Brazil Current (NBC); North Equatorial Current 124 (NEC); South Atlantic Current (SAC); South Equatorial Current (SEC). NASG and SASG indicate the 125 North and South Atlantic Subtropical Gyres, respectively. The hatched band illustrates the 126 Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). White dotted arrows show the NE and SE trade winds. 127 The figure was partially generated using the software Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2017). b) 128 Annual average vertical temperature profile near the region of sediment core GL-1180 (Locarnini 129 et al., 2019). The dotted line indicates the annual average mixed layer depth (MLD) based on the 130 definition of Kara et al. (2000).

131 **3. Methodology**

132 **3.1. Sediment core GL-1180**

133 We investigated marine sediment core GL-1180 (Fig. 1), retrieved by the Brazilian oil 134 company Petrobras at the northeastern continental margin of Brazil (8° 27'18" S, 33° 32'53" W, 135 1037 m water depth, 1732 cm-long). The sedimentological description of the core does not 136 indicate any sedimentation disturbance, and previous studies have demonstrated the suitability 137 of this sediment core for paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic studies (Nascimento et al., 2021a, 138 2021b). Sediment samples of approximately 10 $\rm cm^3$ were taken every 2 cm throughout the core. 139 All sediment samples were wet-sieved to retain a fraction larger than 63 µm. The retained 140 material was dried at 50 °C for 24 hours and stored in acrylic flasks for the geochemical analyses 141 described below.

142 **3.2. Age model**

143 The original age model of sediment core GL-1180 is described in Nascimento et 144 al.(2021b). In brief, the age model was based on six radiocarbon ages measured in shells of 145 planktonic foraminifera (Globiderinoides ruber and Trilobatus sacculifer) and the visual alignment of the benthic stable oxygen isotopes (δ^{18} O) record of *Cibicides* sp. from sediment 146 147 core GL-1180 against the global benthic δ^{18} O stack LR04 (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). The final 148 age model was built using the software Bacon 2.3 (Blaauw and Christen, 2011). We revised the 149 original age model to improve the chronology of Marine Isotope Stages (MIS) 9a and 8 (Fig. S1-150 3). Two original tie-points dragging features of MIS 9a and 8 to younger ages were removed, and 151 a new tie point was included at 1612 cm core depth (see Text 1, Fig. S1-3, and Table S1 in 152 Supporting Information). Additionally, we recalibrated the radiocarbon ages against the 153 Marine20 calibration curve (Heaton et al., 2020). The final age model was built in Bacon 2.3 using 154 the same setup as the original one. A comparison between the original and revised age models 155 can be found in the Supporting Information, Fig. S2-3.

156 **3.3. Mg/Ca analyses in foraminifera shells**

157 We reconstructed the WTSA SST variability using the Mg/Ca composition measured in 158 shells of planktonic foraminifera Globigerinoides ruber (white). Because of its ecological 159 preferences, G. ruber (white) has been largely used in SST reconstructions of the western 160 tropical Atlantic (e.g., Nascimento et al., 2022; Santos et al., 2022; Schmidt et al., 2006, 2004; 161 Venancio et al., 2020; Weldeab et al., 2006). Several studies support that G. ruber (white) is a 162 mixed-layer dwelling foraminifera with a preference for warm waters (Kucera, 2007; Lessa et al., 163 2020; Rebotim et al., 2017; Schmuker and Schiebel, 2002) (See Text 2 in the Supporting 164 Information for details). Sediment traps moored in the WTSA show no seasonal variation in G. 165 ruber (white) flux to the seafloor (Jonkers and Kučera, 2015; Žarić et al., 2005). A global 166 planktonic foraminifera model corroborates these empirical results, suggesting that in the 167 tropics, G. ruber (white) records the annual average SST (Fraile et al., 2009). Assuming that 168 changes in environmental conditions determining calcification depth and seasonal preferences 169 of G. ruber (white) have been invariant over the studied period, our Mg/Ca-based SST 170 reconstructions are expected to record the annual average SST of the WTSA.

171 G. ruber (white) sampling resolution varied between 2 and 4 cm throughout the core. 172 Twenty shells of G. ruber (white, 250-300 µm) were handpicked per sample. Our samples 173 comprised G. ruber (white) senso strictu and senso lato morphotypes. Foraminiferal counting in 174 35 samples covering the first 30 kyr of GL-1180 indicates the prevalence of G. ruber (white) senso 175 strictu (85 ± 5%, unpublished). Assuming that this prevalence dominates downcore, we rule out 176 any substantial temperature bias related to differences in the mean calcification depths of these 177 two morphotypes (e.g., Kearns et al., 2023; Steinke et al., 2005) (see Text 2 in the Supporting 178 Information for details). The Mg/Ca analysis in the shells of G. ruber (white) followed the same 179 cleaning protocol described in Nascimento et al. (2022) and Santos et al. (2022), which was 180 based on Barker et al. (2003). Each sample was cleaned with water, methanol, hot hydrogen 181 peroxide solution, and weak acid. No reductive step was applied. After dissolution in diluted 182 HNO₃, measurements were performed using an inductively coupled plasma optical emission

183 spectrometer (ICP-OES) (Agilent Technologies, 700 Series) with an autosampler (ASX-520 Cetac) 184 at the MARUM-Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen. Fe, Mn, and Al 185 were measured to monitor contamination by Mg-Fe oxide coatings and clay minerals. The 186 calibration series consisted of one blank and five multi-element standards containing between 187 20 and 80 parts per million (ppm) of Ca prepared from a mixed standard purchased from SCP 188 Science, France. An external standard also from SCP science, as well as commercial standards 189 ECRM 752-1 (Bureau of Analysed Standards, Great Britain) and Reinstoff Nr. 3 (Bundesanstalt 190 für Materialforschung und -Prüfung, Germany) were used to verify the accuracy of the 191 measurements and to allow inter-laboratory comparison.

192 The average Mg/Ca of the external standard, which has a theoretical Mg/Ca value of 193 2.96 mmol/mol, was 2.97 ($\sigma \pm 0.01$) mmol/mol (n = 127) during our measurements. The average 194 Mg/Ca of ECRM 752-1 was 3.88 ($\sigma \pm 0.02$) mmol/mol (n=8). The certified value is 3.9 mmol/mol, 195 but some Mg contained in silicates is not released with our preparation method (Greaves et al., 196 2005). The average Mg/Ca of Reinstoff Nr. 3, which has a certified value of 0.800, was 0.811 (σ 197 \pm 0.004) (n=8). The average Al/Ca, Mn/Ca, and Fe/Ca ratios in our samples were 0.05, 0.06, and 198 0.37 mmol mol⁻¹, respectively. The low correlation between Mg/Ca and Al/Ca ($r^2 = 0.07$), Mn/Ca 199 $(r^2 = 0.11)$, and Fe/Ca $(r^2 = 0.01)$ (Fig. S4-6) suggests that our measurements are not affected by 200 clay minerals or Mg-Fe oxides coatings (see Text 3 in Supporting Information for details). 201 Samples with an AI/Ca ratio higher than 0.3 mmol mol⁻¹ or having Mg/Ca values outside 4 σ of 202 the mean were discarded (5 samples in total). As sediment core GL-1180 was retrieved from a 203 depth ca. 3000 m above the current lysocline depth in the Brazilian margin (Dittert and Henrich, 204 2000), and glacial-interglacial oscillations of the lysocline depth show a range of ca. 1000 m 205 (Curry and Lohmann, 1986), we assume no substantial effect of calcite dissolution on 206 foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios in this core. In order to compare our results to records where samples 207 were prepared using reductive cleaning, we primarily discuss SST variability rather than compare 208 absolute values.

209 The Mg/Ca ratio of G. ruber (white) shows a temperature sensitivity of ca. $6\% \pm 0.8$ per 210 $^{\circ}$ C, a salinity sensitivity of 3.3 ± 2.2 % per PSU, and a pH sensitivity of -8.3% ± 7.7 per 0.1 pH unit 211 (Gray et al., 2018). Although glacial-interglacial changes in the open ocean salinity may represent 212 only a minor effect on reconstructed SST, the bias associated with pH variations can be 213 substantial, with a combined effect on Mg/Ca-based SST reconstructions of ca. 1.5 °C (Gray and 214 Evans, 2019). Accordingly, SST was calculated using the species-specific Mg/Ca-temperature 215 equation of Gray and Evans (2019) for G. ruber (white). This equation corrects the effect of 216 salinity and pH of seawater on the Mg/Ca values of foraminifera shells. To account for the salinity 217 effect, the method considers the modern salinity of the study region plus the average ocean 218 surface salinity anomaly between the Last Glacial Maximum and modern. The salinity anomaly 219 is scaled to sea level changes using the sea level stack from Spratt and Lisiecki (2016). To account 220 for the pH effect, we applied the atmospheric CO_2 protocol, which uses an atmospheric CO_2 221 concentration stack derived from ice cores (Bereiter et al., 2015) to reconstruct past changes in 222 ocean pH. For the CO₂ protocol, we input the modern alkalinity and pCO_2 disequilibrium at the 223 study region. The input parameters were 36.3 for salinity (Zweng et al., 2019), 2380 µmol kg⁻¹ 224 for alkalinity (Lee et al., 2006), and 25 μatm for pCO₂ disequilibrium (Takahashi et al., 2009). The 225 mean 1σ uncertainty for all SST estimates derived from the Mg/Ca-SST calibration was 0.8 °C.

Using the Mg/Ca-based SST record to remove the effect of temperature on the δ^{18} O of *G. ruber* (white) from GL-1180 (Nascimento et al., 2021), we were able to calculate the δ^{18} O of seawater, which, corrected by changes in the continental ice volume ($\delta^{18}O_{SW-IVF}$), is a proxy for sea surface salinity changes (see Text 4 in the *Supporting Information* for details).

230 4. Results

GL-1180 Mg/Ca records of *G. ruber* (white) for the last deglaciation and Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5e have been previously published by Santos et al. (2022) and Nascimento et al. (2022), respectively (Fig. 2b). Here we present the complete 300 kyr-long Mg/Ca and reconstructed SST records from sediment core GL-1180 (Fig. 2b, c). These records encompass

235 the last three glacial-interglacial cycles, from MIS 9 to MIS 1, with an unprecedented mean 236 resolution for the study region of approximately 0.6 kyr among adjacent samples (Fig. 2b, c). 237 Mg/Ca values vary between 3.79 and 5.52 mmol mol⁻¹, with an average of 4.46 mmol mol⁻¹ (Fig. 238 2b). This resulted in SST ranging between 23.8 and 29.3 °C, with an average of 26.4 °C (Fig. 2c). 239 The average SST value of the three uppermost top core samples from GL-1180 (26.7 \pm 0.0 °C) 240 (Santos et al., 2022) is in excellent agreement with the pre-industrial annual average SST (26.9 241 °C) for this site (Rayner et al., 2003), indicating that our SST reconstruction is faithfully 242 representing the modern environmental conditions of the study region.

243 The SST record shows a clear glacial-interglacial pattern (Fig. 2a, c). The transition from 244 glacial MIS6 to interglacial MIS5e, i.e., glacial Termination II, shows the largest SST variation (ca. 245 3.5 °C), followed by Terminations III and I, with SST increases of ca. 3 °C and ca. 2 °C, respectively. 246 A remarkable feature of our SST record is the occurrence of four long-term warm events during 247 the last three recorded glacial intervals, hereafter called glacial warm events (GWE) (Fig. 2c). In general, these GWE show average SST values similar to the current interglacial period and were 248 249 superimposed by short-term millennial-scale SST variability (Fig. 2c). These glacial warm events 250 are observed during MIS 3/2 (GWE1), MIS 5/4 (GWE2), MIS 6 (GWE3), and MIS 8 (GWE4). These 251 GWE occurred between ca. 280-260 (GWE4), 160-143 (GWE3), 75-60 (GWE2), and 40-24 (GWE1) 252 ka. They are marked by temperatures substantially higher than the subsequent glacial maxima 253 conditions (Fig. 2c). In turn, these warm events shortened the duration of glacial maxima 254 conditions in the WTSA.

After the warm period characteristic of MIS 9a (between ca. 290 and 280 ka), the WTSA stays warm until ca. 260 ka, indicating the occurrence of the GWE4. The SST descends towards glacial conditions only at ca. 256 ka, interrupted by a millennial-scale warm peak centered at 258 255 ka. The average SST during the GWE4 was 26.4 ± 0.6 °C. The GWE3, within the MIS 6, is 259 marked by a steady SST increase, superimposed by high-frequency millennial-scale variability, 260 beginning from ca. 180 ka. The SST rises sharply at ca. 160 ka until peak temperatures of ca. 29.5

261 °C at 145 ka, after which SST decreases around 3°C back to cold glacial maximum conditions at 262 ca. 143 ka. Considering the interval between 160-143 ka, the average SST during the GWE3 was 263 26.6 ± 0.6 °C. The GWE2, between ca. 75 and 60 ka, begins at the end of MIS 5 and lasts 264 throughout MIS 4. The average SST during this period was 26.8 ± 0.7 °C, which is similar to core 265 top values (26.7 ± 0.0 °C) and ca. 1.5°C higher relative to subsequent cold conditions between 266 60 and 40 ka, when the average temperature value was 25.3 ± 0.5 °C. The GWE1 was recorded 267 during MIS 3/2, with the warming of the WTSA starting at 40 ka. Between 40 and 30 ka, GWE1 268 is marked by a high-frequency variability with notable millennial-scale SST peak at 35 ka and a 269 sharp drop at 30 ka. The SST decreases back to cold conditions only at ca. 24 ka, i.e., within the 270 Last Glacial Maximum. The average SST during the GWE1 was 26.5 ± 0.5 °C, approximately 1 °C 271 higher relative to the subsequent Last Glacial Maximum conditions in the region of GL-1180.



Figure 2: Mg/Ca ratio and Mg/Ca-based sea surface temperature (SST) record of sediment core
GL-1180 (western tropical South Atlantic) plotted against Antarctic stable hydrogen isotopes
(δD) record as a proxy for Antarctic air temperature. a) δD from European Project for Ice Coring
in Antarctica (EPICA) Dome C (Jouzel et al., 2007) on the Antarctic ice core chronology
(AICC2012) (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013). b) Mg/Ca ratio of *Globigerinoides ruber*(white). Orange, magenta, and yellow curves depict the dataset published in this study, Santos

et al. (2022), and Nascimento et al. (2022), respectively. c) *G. ruber* (white) Mg/Ca-based SST
record from sediment core GL-1180 (this study). SST was estimated using the species-specific
Mg/Ca-temperature equation for *G. ruber* (white) from Gray and Evans (2019). The curve
envelope shows the variable 1σ uncertainty (Gray and Evans, 2019). Vertical gray bars highlight
the four glacial warm events (GWE) 1 to 4. Vertical dotted lines separate Marine Isotope Stages
indicated by numbers along the top x-axis.

285 **5. Discussion**

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5.1. Mg/Ca-based SST records from tropical latitudes

287 The GL-1180 Mg/Ca-based SST reconstruction shares much of its glacial-interglacial 288 variability with Mg/Ca-based SST reconstructions from the western tropical North Atlantic ODP 289 Site 999A (Figs. 1a, 3a,b) (Schmidt et al., 2006) and the eastern tropical Atlantic cores GeoB1105-290 4 and GeoB1112-4 (Figs. 1a, 3d,e) (Nürnberg et al., 2000). On the other hand, the SST variability 291 of core GL-1180 is remarkably distinct from Mg/Ca-based SST reconstruction derived from 292 sediment core M125-55-7 (20°S) (Figs. 1a, 3b, c), also from the WTSA (Hou et al., 2020). The SST 293 record from M125-55-7 was the first published 300 kyr-long Mg/Ca-based SST record from the 294 WTSA and is the nearest record to GL-1180 with a comparable stratigraphic extent. However, 295 the SST record from M125-55-7 does not present an obvious glacial-interglacial oscillation as 296 observed in GL-1180 (Fig. 3b, c). Regional oceanographic features may be responsible for the 297 difference between the SST records from these cores. Sediment core M125-55-7 was retrieved 298 within the local Vitória Upwelling system (Aguiar et al., 2014; Schmid et al., 1995). This small 299 upwelling system probably intensifies during interglacial summer months (Lessa et al., 2019, 300 2017). This intensification would decrease the interglacial annual average SST in the region of 301 M125-55-7 by pumping up cold subsurface water to the mixed layer, dampening the glacial-302 interglacial SST contrast. Such dampening could have been further amplified if there was a 303 summer bias in the flux of *G. ruber* (white) in the recovery region of sediment core M125-55-7, 304 as implied by a sediment trap dataset (Venancio et al., 2017, 2016).



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306 Figure 3: Mg/Ca-based sea surface temperature (SST) records from the tropical Atlantic (see 307 Figure 1 for site locations). a) G. ruber (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from Site ODP 999A from 308 the western tropical North Atlantic (Schmidt et al., 2006). b) Globigerinoides ruber (white) 309 Mg/Ca-based SST record from sediment core GL-1180 (this study). SST for core GL-1180 was 310 estimated using the species-specific Mg/Ca-temperature equation for G. ruber (white) from 311 Gray and Evans (2019). The envelope of the curve shows the variable 1σ uncertainty. c) G. ruber 312 (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from sediment core M125-55-7 from the western tropical 313 South Atlantic (Hou et al., 2020). d and e) Trilobatus sacculifer Mg/Ca-based SST record from 314 sediment cores GeoB1105-4 and GeoB1112-4 from the eastern tropical Atlantic (Nürnberg et 315 al., 2000). The SST values and uncertainties, as well as the chronology of records, follow the 316 original studies. Vertical gray bars indicate glacial warm events (GWE) 1 to 4. Vertical dotted 317 lines separate the Marine Isotope Stages indicated by the numbers in the top x-axis.

A remarkable feature of our Mg/Ca-based SST reconstruction is the unusual long-term GWE. These warm events are long-term periods of high SST values relative to the subsequent glacial maxima. They occur during full glacial conditions indicated by the surface temperature record of Antarctica (Fig. 2), which closely mirrors the global temperature variability during 322 glacial cycles (Brook and Buizert, 2018). The magnitude and duration of these GWE seem to be 323 unique features of the western tropical Atlantic. In the eastern equatorial Atlantic, warm events 324 were observed during the last two glacial periods (Fig. 3c, d) (Nürnberg et al., 2000), but with 325 lower magnitude and not synchronous with the warm events found in the WTSA. SST variability 326 in the eastern equatorial Atlantic is thought to be strongly influenced by precessional changes 327 in the strength of the equatorial upwelling (McIntyre et al., 1989). In contrast, GWE similar to 328 those observed in our record were found in the SST reconstruction from ODP Site 999A (western 329 tropical North Atlantic; Schmidt et al., 2006), suggesting that these records may have been 330 modulated by the same forcing(s) (Fig. 3a, b). While the SST record from Site 999A is thought to 331 be biased toward boreal summer insolation (Schmidt et al., 2006), no evidence of such seasonal 332 bias is present in Mg/Ca-based SST record from core GL-1180 (e.g., Nascimento et al., 2022). 333 Assuming our SST reconstruction represents annual averages, climatic forcings other than 334 precessional-driven seasonal insolation must have caused the GWE in the western tropical 335 Atlantic.

5.2. Glacial-interglacial greenhouse gases variability and western tropical South Atlantic SST

338 Based on the climate sensitivity of the tropical Pacific, previous studies have shown that 339 the long-term glacial-interglacial SST variability in the tropics is strongly controlled by 340 atmospheric GHG concentration (Lea, 2004; Dyez and Ravelo, 2013; Tachikawa et al., 2014). In 341 light of these studies, we estimated the climate sensitivity of the WTSA over the last 300 kyr (Fig. 342 4b). The radiative forcing from GHG relative to pre-industrial conditions (ΔRF_{GHG}), derived from 343 atmospheric CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations (Loulergue et al., 2008; Lüthi et al., 2008), was 344 calculated at 2 kyr resolution using the equation from Ramaswamy et al. (2001). When plotted 345 together, our SST reconstruction shares an outstanding similar glacial-interglacial variability with 346 the ΔRF_{GHG} (Fig. 4b). However, remarkable deviations between these two records occur during 347 the GWE1-4. Figure 4 shows that GWE occur even when the ΔRF_{GHG} was steadily low (e.g., GWE3) 348 or decreasing (e.g., GWE1-2). Another notable decoupling between our SST record and ΔRF_{GHG}

349 occurred during MIS 1, the so-called Holocene temperature conundrum (Liu et al., 2014), which



is out of the scope of this study.

352 Figure 4: Sea surface temperature (SST) from sediment core GL-1180 plotted alongside radiative 353 forcing from greenhouse gases (ΔRF_{GHG}) and Antarctic stable hydrogen isotopes (δD) record as a 354 proxy for surface air temperature. a) Stable hydrogen isotopes (δD) from European Project for 355 Ice Coring in Antarctica (EPICA) Dome C (Jouzel et al., 2007) plotted on the Antarctic ice core 356 chronology (AICC2012) (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013) as a reference for glacial-357 interglacial temperature variations. b) Three-points running average of Globigerinoides ruber 358 (white) Mg/Ca-based SST from sediment core GL-1180 relative to climatological pre-industrial 359 SST value taken near site GL-1180 (Rayner et al., 2003) (red line); ΔRF_{GHG} calculated from CO₂ 360 (Lüthi et al. 2008) and CH₄ (Loulergue et al., 2008) (blue line) in the Antarctic ice core chronology 361 (AICC2012) (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013). The ΔRF_{GHG} is computed at two kyr-resolution 362 using the standard radiative forcing relationships (Ramaswamy et al. 2001) relative to pre-363 industrial (PI) levels of 280 ppm and 700 ppb for CO₂ and CH₄, respectively. Vertical gray bars 364 highlight the glacial warm events (GWE) 1 to 4. Vertical dotted lines separate the Marine Isotope 365 Stages indicated by the numbers in the top x-axis.

The slope between ΔRF_{GHG} and SST from GL-1180 yields a climate sensitivity of the WTSA SST of 0.56 (±0.1) °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹, with r = 0.4 (p< 0.05) (Fig. 5). This value is approximately half the climate sensitivity of ca. 1 °C observed in the tropical Pacific (e.g., Lea, 2004; Dyez and Ravelo, 2013; Tachikawa et al., 2014), but it agrees with an area-weighted climate sensitivity ca. 0.4 °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹ estimated for the latitudinal band between 0° and 10° south (Rohling et al., 2012). The lower climate sensitivity of the WTSA relative to the tropical Pacific can be partially explained by the GWE. The increased spread of SST values caused by the GWE reduces the linear regression slope, hence the WTSA climate sensitivity. No correlation between SST and ΔRF_{GHG} is observed during glacial periods (Fig. 5). On the other hand, when considering only the interglacial periods, including glacial terminations, the WTSA climate sensitivity rises to 0.72 (±0.2) °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹ (r = 0.4) (p< 0.05) (Fig. 5). The enhanced climate sensitivity of our study region during periods of elevated GHG concentration agrees with recent results from the tropical Pacific Ocean, suggesting a nonlinear sensitivity of SST to GHG (Lo et al., 2017).

379 Given a climate sensitivity of 0.72 °C (W m⁻²), an average RF_{GHG} rise of ~2.5 W m⁻² during 380 glacial terminations corresponds to an SST increase of ~2 °C in the WTSA. This value accounts 381 for over half of the SST increase during terminations II and III and the total increase during the 382 last glacial termination (Santos et al., 2022). Therefore, considering the glacial-interglacial 383 covariation between our SST and ΔRF_{GHG} and the climate sensitivity of the WTSA, we suggest 384 that the glacial-interglacial variability of atmospheric CO₂ associated with full changes in the 385 Earth's climate largely explains the glacial-interglacial pattern of the WTSA SST. This 386 corroborates the previous notion that the long-term SST in the tropics is mainly controlled by 387 GHG orbital-scale variability. However, the presence of GWE suggests that additional forcing(s) 388 are driving the WTSA SST.



389

390 Figure 5: Linear regressions between sea surface temperature anomaly (Δ SST) relative to pre-industrial (1870-1889) value and radiative forcing from greenhouse gases (ΔRF_{GHG}). We used 391 392 the climatological pre-industrial SST of 26.9°C near site GL-1180 (Rayner et al., 2003). The 393 radiative forcing is computed from standard radiative forcing relationships (Ramaswamy et al., 394 2001) relative to preindustrial levels of CO₂ (280 ppm) and CH₄ (700 ppb). CO₂ (Lüthi et al., 2007) 395 and CH₄ (Loulergue et al., 2008) records are in the Antarctic ice core chronology (AICC2012) 396 (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013). SST and greenhouse gases were interpolated at two kyr 397 resolution. Red squares depict interglacial periods and glacial-interglacial transition. Blue circles depict glacial periods. Linear regressions: (i) between the full 300 kyr-long SST and GHG records 398 399 (black dotted line); (ii) including only interglacials and glacial-interglacial transitions (red 400 squares; red line); (iii) including only glacials (blue circles; blue line).

401

5.3. Insolation forcing on western tropical South Atlantic SST

402 Obliquity is the only orbital forcing that substantially affects the annual mean insolation 403 at a given latitude (Berger et al., 2010; Loutre et al., 2004). The annual mean insolation is in anti-404 phase with obliquity within the latitudinal band between ca. 43° N-S, i.e., the mean insolation is 405 high [low] during periods of low [high] obliquity (Loutre et al., 2004). The annual mean insolation 406 has low amplitude (e.g., ca. 3 W m² around the latitude of GL-1180); however, because the upper 407 ocean integrates direct insolation forcing over several years, the annual insolation may produce 408 significant changes in the SST (Cortijo et al., 1999). For example, the annual mean insolation has 409 been previously evoked to explain mid-to-low latitudes orbital-scale SST variations (Cortijo et 410 al., 1999; Pahnke and Sachs, 2006; Santos et al., 2017). Indeed, the long-term GWE are aligned 411 to periods of high annual mean insolation (low obliquity) (Fig. 6a, d). This synchronicity could 412 point to annual mean insolation as the main driver of these events in the WTSA. The annual 413 insolation has been thought to have caused the early warming of the Brazil Current (BC) 414 preceding the last two glacial terminations, as observed in a SST reconstruction from sediment 415 core GL-1090 in the western South Atlantic (Figs. 1a, 6e) (Santos et al., 2017). In turn, the early 416 warming of the BC during MIS 6 and 3 agrees, within chronological uncertainty, with the 417 beginning of the GWE3 and 1 in GL-1180 (Fig. 6d, e), respectively, suggesting that a similar 418 mechanism controlled these records.



420 Figure 6: Western tropical Atlantic sea surface temperature (SST) records plotted alongside 421 western subtropical records. a) Obliguity as an indicator of the annual mean insolation variability 422 between ca. 43° N-S (Berger and Loutre, 1991). Low [high] obliquity indicates high [low] annual 423 mean insolation. b) Globigerinoides ruber (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from sediment core 424 MD02-2575 from the western subtropical North Atlantic (Gulf of Mexico) (Ziegler et al., 2008). 425 c) G. ruber (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from Site ODP 999A from the western tropical North 426 Atlantic (Schmidt et al., 2006). d) G. ruber (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from sediment core 427 GL-1180 (red line) (this study). SST for core GL-1180 was estimated using the species-specific 428 Mg/Ca-temperature equation for G. ruber (white) from Gray and Evans (2019). The envelope of 429 the curve shows the variable 1o uncertainty. e) G. ruber (white) Mg/Ca-based SST record from 430 sediment core GL-1090 from the western subtropical South Atlantic (Santos et al., 2017). The 431 SST values, uncertainties, and chronology of the records follow the original studies. Vertical gray 432 bars are aligned with the glacial warm events (GWE) 1 to 4. Vertical dotted lines separate the

433 Marine Isotope Stages indicated by the numbers in the top x-axis. The pink arrows illustrate the434 trend of the subtropical SST records during the GWE.

435 If the annual mean insolation was the leading cause of the GWE, these events should 436 simultaneously occur in the latitude band between ~43° N-S. However, the GWE seem to be 437 restricted to the western tropical (South) Atlantic margin, namely ODP Site 999A (Schmidt et al., 438 2006), GL-1180 (this study), and GL-1090 (Santos et al., 2017) (Fig. 6c-e). Interestingly, there is 439 no evidence of propagation of these glacial warmings along the western Atlantic north of ODP 440 999A, as implied by the high-resolution Mg/Ca-based SST record from sediment core MD02-441 2575 at 29°N in the Gulf of Mexico (Figs. 1a, 6b) (Ziegler et al., 2008). In fact, the SST from MD02-442 2575 decreases during the GWE despite the high annual mean insolation, as indicated by low 443 obliquity values (Fig 6a, b). Nürnberg et al. (2008) note that the SST records from MD02-2575 444 and ODP Site 999A deviate during glacial conditions (Fig 6b, c). The same observation seems true 445 when comparing the SST records from MD02-2575 and GL-1180 (Fig 6b, d). Therefore, whatever 446 the main forcing responsible for the GWE, it seems to prevent the northward spread of the 447 warming beyond ODP Site 999A, which would not be expected with annual mean insolation as 448 the dominant driver. Numerical simulations reinforce the controversial role of annual mean 449 insolation on tropical SST, indicating no substantial response to this forcing in the tropical Pacific 450 (Tachikawa et al., 2014; Timmermann et al., 2007). Therefore, although it would be tempting to 451 say that the annual mean insolation is the main driver of the GWE in the SST record from GL-452 1180, the available evidence suggests the opposite. Still, given the correspondence between the 453 GWE and high values of annual mean insolation, we speculate that it may have amplified the 454 warming.

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5.4. Long-term AMOC variability and the western tropical South Atlantic SST

456 Based on the benthic δ^{13} C gradient ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) between records from the Atlantic and the 457 Pacific oceans, Lisiecki et al. (2008) inferred long-term changes in the NADW formation rate over 458 the last 425 kyr. The authors suggest that the minima in $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C primarily reflect a reduction in 459 the mixing ratio between NADW and Southern Ocean Water at the mid-depth of the Atlantic due to weaker and/or shallower AMOC. Recent studies have shown that δ^{13} C is an excellent 460 461 proxy for water mass mixing, and although it is not the best indicator of AMOC advection rate, 462 it is also sensitive to the strength of the deep overturning (Muglia and Schmittner, 2021; 463 Pöppelmeier et al., 2023). In fact, despite some disagreements relative to the different resolution of records and the sensitivity of proxies, $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C shares much of its long-term variability 464 with $^{231}Pa/^{230}Th$ records, a proxy for deep AMOC strength (Fig. S7). Therefore, we use $\Delta\delta^{13}C$ as 465 466 an indicator for changes in AMOC strength. A similar approach had been previously applied by 467 Mix and Fairbanks (1985) and Raymo et al. (1990).

468 As implied in the bipolar seesaw mechanism, a decline in AMOC strength reduces the 469 northward cross-equatorial heat transport and increases low latitude SST (e.g., Mix et al., 1986; 470 Crowley, 1992; Rühlemann et al., 1999; Stocker and Johnsen, 2003). Figure 7a shows our SST record plotted against $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C. Despite the distinct temporal resolution between both records, 471 472 there is a generally good correspondence between high SST and low $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C throughout most of 473 the last 300 kyr. This agreement points to a long-term bipolar seesaw mechanism, in which 474 periods of weakened North Atlantic deep convection, as indicated by low $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C, imply a 475 reduction in the cross-equatorial heat transport toward the North Atlantic, hence warming the 476 upper WTSA. Indeed, Lisiecki et al. (2008) suggested the operation of such a mechanism by 477 showing that the SST record from ODP Site 999A, in the western tropical North Atlantic, is in anti-phase with $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C and mid-latitude North Atlantic SST record from DSDP Site 607 (Ruddiman 478 479 et al., 1989; Ruddiman and McIntyre, 1981). However, this conclusion is undermined by a 480 possible bias in the SST record from Site 999A toward boreal summer (Schmidt et al., 2006; 481 Lisiecki et al., 2008).

Given that the SST record of GL-1180 represents the annual mean, we further investigate
the hypothesis of an orbital-scale bipolar seesaw driving GWE in the WTSA by calculating the
SST gradient (ΔSST) between the GL-1180 and MD02-2575 (Ziegler et al., 2008). The Mg/Ca-

485 based SST record from MD02-2575 is also related to the annual mean temperature (Nürnberg 486 et al., 2008). This core was retrieved from the Gulf of Mexico at 29 °N (Fig. 1), directly under the 487 influence of Loop Current (LC), a major component of the upper limb of the AMOC in the North 488 Atlantic (Johns et al., 2002) (Fig. 1). During glacial periods, ΔSST between GL-1180 and MD02-489 2575 exhibits high values concurrent with weakened North Atlantic deep convection (i.e., low 490 $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) during the four GWE (Fig. 7 b). High Δ SST values during GWE agrees with the deviations 491 between the SST records from MD02-2575 and ODP 999A observed during glacial periods 492 (Nürnberg et al., 2008). Therefore, the Δ SST record further corroborates the idea that these 493 warm events were caused mainly by orbital-scale reduction of the cross-equatorial heat 494 transport by the AMOC, resulting in a thermal bipolar seesaw between the western tropical 495 (South) Atlantic and mid-latitudes of the North Atlantic. The reduction in the northward cross-496 equatorial transport is further reinforced by the build-up of salinity in the WTSA during the GWE 497 1 to 3, as indicated by the $\delta^{18}O_{SW-IVF}$ (Fig. 7d), which was calculated by correcting $\delta^{18}O$ of G. ruber 498 from GL-1180 (Nascimento et al., 2021) by the effect of SST and continental ice volume changes 499 (see Text 4 in Supporting information for details). The orbital-scale SST variability from MD02-500 2575 is thought to be mostly driven by glacial-interglacial changes in ice volume and the 501 dynamics of the ITCZ (Ziegler et al., 2008). Here, we suggest that orbital-scale SST variability in 502 the Gulf of Mexico is also affected by a long-term bipolar seesaw operating in the Atlantic. 503 Periods of strong AMOC are associated with a strong LC and enhanced advection of warm 504 Caribbean waters northward into the Gulf of Mexico. The opposite must occur during periods of 505 weak AMOC.

Along with the annual mean insolation, Santos et al. (2017) propose a long-term bipolar seesaw as an additional mechanism to explain the warming of the BC preceding the last two glacial terminations indicated by the SST record from GL-1090 (Fig. 6e). Santos et al. (2017) suggested that a long-term thermal bipolar seesaw would not require an abrupt decline or shutdown of the AMOC as during millennial North Atlantic cold events. Instead, they suggest 511 that a progressive long-term change in the AMOC strength would reorganize meridional heat 512 distribution across the Atlantic Ocean. Observational data show that subtle decadal to 513 centennial timescale variability of the North Atlantic deep convection reverberates on the 514 western tropical Atlantic SST (Vellinga and Wu, 2004; Yang, 1999; Zhang et al., 2011). Based on 515 the evidence presented here, we propose that the long-term bipolar seesaw was the main 516 mechanism driving the early warming of the BC preceding the last two glacial terminations. 517 Ultimately, we suggest that, even subtly, the long-term bipolar seesaw caused by orbital-scale 518 variability of the AMOC has interhemispheric thermal reverberations broadly recorded in the 519 western tropical (South) Atlantic margin.

520 The variability of the North Atlantic deep convection, as indicated by $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C, also seems 521 consistent with some SST features of GL-1180 during interglacial periods. For example, during the MIS5e, the WTSA cooling parallels to increasing $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C, but almost 10 kyr before the RF_{GHG} 522 523 started to decline from its interglacial plateau (~280 ppm) (Fig. 4b). This early cooling of the 524 WTSA may have been caused by enhanced NADW production towards the end of the Last 525 Interglacial period (Fig. 7a) (Crowley, 1992). Although Δ SST points to a strong AMOC since the 526 beginning of MIS 5e (Fig. 7b), evidence from the deep NE Atlantic supports a later resumption 527 of the deep overturning in the Nordic Seas and overflow of NADW into the Atlantic basin during 528 the Last Interglacial (Deaney et al., 2017; Hodell et al., 2009).

529 The millennial-scale bipolar seesaw mechanism is associated with an anti-phase 530 temperature evolution between Greenland and Antarctica, as indicated by ice core records 531 (Blunier et al., 2001; Buizert et al., 2015; Members, 2006). In contrast, no antiphase temperature 532 oscillations between Greenland and Antarctica are observed during the last two GWE in the 533 western tropical Atlantic. Glacial boundary conditions are marked by the equatorward 534 displacement of the Subtropical Front as the meridional temperature gradient between low and 535 high latitudes steepens (e.g., Bard and Rickaby, 2009; Toggweiler et al., 2006). Accordingly, we 536 assume that a substantial oscillation in the meridional heat transport by the AMOC would be

537 required to relocate the fronts and warm polar regions. This seems to be the case for the abrupt 538 millennial events (Pedro et al., 2018; Pinho et al., 2021). However, it is likely that a subtle and 539 progressive long-term weakening of the North Atlantic deep convection, as proposed here, 540 could not cause such meridional readjustment in the fronts position associated with the glacial 541 conditions. Besides, cold glacial NADW was continuously formed in high latitudes of the North 542 Atlantic, and the eventual upwelling of this water mass in the Southern Ocean favored 543 maintaining cold conditions around Antarctica (Adkins, 2013). Additionally, the GWE were 544 counterbalanced by a reduced RF_{GHG} due to low atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Ahn and Brook, 545 2008) that, together with the albedo feedback related to sea ice and continental ice sheets, may 546 have allowed the prevalence of cold conditions towards high latitudes.

547 Evidence suggests that the Southern Hemisphere descends into full glacial conditions 548 during the MIS 5/4 transition (Schaefer et al., 2015). Barker and Diz (2014) suggest synchronous 549 interhemispheric inception into glacial conditions during this transition, resulting in a global 550 cooling not characteristic of the bipolar seesaw. The MIS 5/4 transition was marked by a striking 551 decrease in atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Ahn and Brook, 2008), possibly due to a shoaling of 552 the AMOC with associated enhanced deep ocean stratification (Adkins, 2013) and higher ocean 553 primary productivity due to the increase in dust-borne iron fertilization of the Southern Ocean 554 (Kohfeld and Chase, 2017; Martínez-garcía et al., 2014). Despite this sharp decline in the 555 atmospheric CO₂ concentration, MIS 4 is approximately synchronous with the GWE2 (Fig. 7a). 556 This is consistent with previous SST reconstructions from the western tropical North Atlantic 557 (ODP Site 999A; Schmidt et al., 2006) and western South Atlantic (Santos et al., 2017; Venancio 558 et al., 2020). We suggest that the GWE2 in the western tropical (South) Atlantic during MIS 4 was caused by the orbital-scale bipolar seesaw, as implied by low $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C and high Δ SST (Fig. 7a, 559 560 b). The slowdown of the NADW during the MIS 4 is further supported by sortable silt results 561 (Thornalley et al., 2013). Therefore, evidence is accumulating that while most of the planet 562 cooled during the MIS 4/5 transition, the western tropical (South) Atlantic warmed.



563

564 Figure 7: Evidence for an orbital-scale bipolar seesaw mechanism in the Atlantic. a) Three-points running average of *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) Mg/Ca-based SST from sediment core GL-1180 565 (red line) and δ^{13} C gradient ($\Delta\delta^{13}$ C) between mid-depth records from the Atlantic and benthic 566 567 δ^{13} C records from the Pacific Ocean (green line) (Lisiecki et al.,2008). Minima in $\Delta\delta^{13}$ C reflect a 568 reduction in the mixing ratio of North Atlantic Deep Water at the mid-depth of the Atlantic due to weaker and/or shallower Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). b) The orange 569 570 line depicts the detrended Mg/Ca-based sea surface temperature gradient (Δ SST) between 571 sediment cores GL-1180 (this study) and MD02-2575 (Ziegler et al., 2008) plotted along with 572 $\Delta \delta^{13}$ C (green line). For Δ SST calculation, both SST records were estimated using the species-573 specific Mg/Ca-temperature equation for G. ruber (white) from Gray and Evans (2019) and interpolated at two kyr-resolution. c) Stable oxygen isotopes (δ^{18} O) of G. ruber (white) from GL-574 575 1180 (Nascimento et al., 2021). d) ice-volume-corrected δ^{18} O of seawater (δ^{18} O_{sw-ivc}) as a proxy 576 for relative changes in sea surface salinity (light pink line) with 3-points running average (pink). 577 Values were reconstructed from the δ^{18} O and Mg/Ca-based temperature of *G. ruber* (white) 578 from GL-1180 (Text 4 in Supporting Information). Vertical gray bars are aligned with the glacial 579 warm events (GWE) 1 to 4. Vertical dotted lines separate the Marine Isotope Stages indicated by the numbers in the top x-axis. The black arrows illustrate the trend of the $\delta^{18}O_{sw-ivc}$ record 580 581 during the GWE.

582 6. Conclusions

583 We investigated the drivers of orbital-scale variability of the western tropical South 584 Atlantic (WTSA) sea surface temperature (SST) over the last 300 kyr. Our SST reconstruction 585 shows a marked glacial-interglacial variability superimposed by recurrent long-term warm 586 events within the previous three glacial periods. Our results indicate that atmospheric GHG 587 concentration plays the leading role in modulating the glacial-interglacial WTSA SST oscillation, 588 in agreement with previous findings from the tropical Pacific. We show that the WTSA has a sensitivity of 0.56 \pm 0.1 °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹. This value increases if we exclude the glacial periods (0.72 589 590 ± 0.2 °C (W m⁻²)⁻¹), indicating that the amplitude of SST values during glacial periods reduces the 591 slope of the linear regression and the climate sensitivity of our record.

592 The presented results corroborate the idea that a long-term orbital-scale bipolar seesaw 593 operates in the Atlantic. This mechanism leads to the glacial warm events observed in the 594 western tropical Atlantic due to a reduction in the northward heat transport by the AMOC. We 595 hypothesize that these warm events were amplified by obliquity-driven annual mean insolation. 596 Because of long-term bipolar seesaw mechanisms, the western tropical and South Atlantic 597 warmed up while most of the planet cooled off during the MIS 5/4 transition. Our results imply 598 that the western tropical Atlantic is highly susceptible to changes in the strength of the AMOC, 599 not only on a millennial but also on an orbital-scale. The causes and further consequences of a 600 long-term bipolar seesaw must be better explored in future studies.

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615 8. Data Availability

616 All data presented in this manuscript are available at <u>www.pangaea.de</u>.

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