

1 Thermal evolution of the western South Atlantic and the 2 adjacent continent during Termination 1

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12 13 **Abstract**

14 During Termination 1, millennial-scale weakening events of the Atlantic meridional
15 overturning circulation (AMOC) supposedly produced major changes in sea surface
16 temperatures (SST) of the western South Atlantic, and in mean air temperatures (MAT) over
17 southeastern South America. It was suggested, for instance, that the Brazil Current (BC)
18 would strengthen (weaken) and the North Brazil Current (NBC) would weaken (strengthen)
19 during slowdown (speed-up) events of the AMOC. This anti-phase pattern was claimed to be
20 a necessary response to the decreased North Atlantic heat piracy during periods of weak
21 AMOC. However, the thermal evolution of the western South Atlantic and the adjacent
22 continent is so far largely unknown. Here we address this issue, presenting high temporal
23 resolution SST and MAT records from the BC and southeastern South America, respectively.
24 We identify a warming in the western South Atlantic during Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1), which
25 is followed first by a drop and then by increasing temperatures during the Bølling-Allerød, in-
26 phase with an existing SST record from the NBC. Additionally, a similar SST evolution is
27 shown by a southernmost eastern South Atlantic record, suggesting a South Atlantic-wide
28 pattern in SST evolution during most of Termination 1. Over southeastern South America, our
29 MAT record shows a two-step increase during Termination 1, synchronous with atmospheric

1 CO₂ rise (i.e., during the second half of HS1 and during the Younger Dryas), and lagging
2 abrupt SST changes by several thousand years. This delay corroborates the notion that the
3 long duration of HS1 was fundamental to drive the Earth out of the last glacial.

4 5 **1 Introduction**

6 The thermal bipolar seesaw describes the warming occurring in the Southern Hemisphere due
7 to diminished northward heat transport within the Atlantic Ocean when the Atlantic
8 meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) is weakened (Mix et al., 1986; Stocker, 1998).
9 This mechanism is particularly efficient for perturbations of the AMOC through positive
10 anomalous freshwater fluxes in the high latitudes of the North Atlantic (Crowley, 1992;
11 Manabe and Stouffer, 1988). Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1) is probably the best example for a
12 freshwater-forced AMOC reduction (McManus et al., 2004). It has been suggested that the
13 southward flowing Brazil Current (BC) might redirect the excess heat to the South Atlantic
14 during times of AMOC slowdown (Crowley, 2011; Maier-Reimer et al., 1990). Yet, little is
15 known about the thermal evolution of the western South Atlantic and the adjacent continent
16 during Termination 1. The few available oceanic (e.g., Carlson et al., 2008) and continental
17 (e.g., Bush et al., 2004) records do not show the necessary temporal resolution to
18 appropriately resolve HS1. The lack of high temporal resolution records from the BC (Clark
19 et al., 2012), for instance, hinders the evaluation of the previously hypothesized anti-phase
20 behavior between the BC and the North Brazil Current (NBC) during periods of a stalled
21 AMOC (Arz et al., 1999; Schmidt et al., 2012; Chiang et al., 2008).

22 Here we address this issue using an oceanic and a continental temperature record based on
23 Mg/Ca analyses in planktonic foraminifera and lipid analyses in continentally-derived organic
24 matter, respectively. Our records come from a single marine sediment core collected off
25 southeastern South America under the influence of the BC and spanning Termination 1 with
26 high temporal resolution. Our data provide evidence for millennial-scale fluctuations in the
27 oceanic temperature record associated to changes in AMOC strength, and a two-step increase
28 in the continental temperature record associated to changes in atmospheric CO₂.

1 **2 Regional setting**

2 **2.1 Western South Atlantic**

3 Upper level circulation in the subtropical western South Atlantic is dominated by the
4 southward-flowing BC (Fig. 1A) (Peterson and Stramma, 1991; Stramma and England, 1999).
5 The BC originates between 10 and 15°S from the bifurcation of the Southern South Equatorial
6 Current (SSEC). At the bifurcation, the SSEC feeds both the BC and the northward flowing
7 NBC (also termed the North Brazil Undercurrent (Stramma et al., 1995) between the
8 bifurcation and ca. 5°S). Around 37°S the BC converges with the northward-flowing Malvinas
9 Current (Olson et al., 1988), where both currents turn southeastward and flow offshore as the
10 South Atlantic Current and the northern branch of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current,
11 respectively. The position of the Brazil-Malvinas Confluence varies seasonally between ca.
12 34 and 40°S, with a northward penetration of the Malvinas Current during austral winter and
13 early spring and a southward shift of the BC during austral summer and early autumn (Olson
14 et al., 1988). In its uppermost 100 m, the BC transports Tropical Water (>20 °C and >36 psu)
15 in the mixed layer, and from ca. 100 until 600 m the BC transports South Atlantic Central
16 Water (6–20°C and 34.6–36 psu) in the permanent thermocline (Locarnini et al., 2010;
17 Antonov et al., 2010).

18 The deficit in the southward BC transport relative to what would be expected from the wind
19 field is a consequence of the northward-directed upper branch of the thermohaline circulation
20 (Stommel, 1957; Peterson and Stramma, 1991). The formation of North Atlantic Deep Water
21 in the high latitudes of the North Atlantic requires a net transfer of thermocline water from the
22 South Atlantic to the North Atlantic together with net northward fluxes of intermediate and
23 bottom waters (Rintoul, 1991; Peterson and Stramma, 1991). Thus, under modern conditions
24 the NBC receives the larger portion (ca. 12 Sv) of the SSEC volume transport if compared to
25 the BC (ca. 4 Sv) (e.g., Stramma et al., 1990).

26 **2.2 Southeastern South America**

27 Throughout the year atmospheric circulation over southeastern South America is dominated
28 by northerly winds (Fig. 1B) (Kalnay et al., 1996). During Southern Hemisphere summer, the
29 South Atlantic Convergence Zone, a northwest-southeast-oriented convective band along the
30 northeastern boundary of the La Plata River drainage basin (LPRDB), and the South

1 American Low-Level Jet, a northwesterly low-level flow that transports moisture from the
2 western Amazon to the LPRDB, are key features of the South American summer monsoon
3 (Carvalho et al., 2004; Zhou and Lau, 1998). During Southern Hemisphere winter,
4 equatorward incursions of mid-latitude cold dry air result in cyclonic storms (Vera et al.,
5 2002). Precipitation in the LPRDB is dominated by Southern Hemisphere summer rainfall
6 associated to the South American summer monsoon (Fig. 2) (Zhou and Lau, 1998; Xie and
7 Arkin, 1997). Correspondingly, maximum La Plata River discharge occurs in late Southern
8 Hemisphere summer (Fig. 2). Winter precipitation triggered by occasional northward
9 migration of extratropical cyclones results in less pronounced rainfall (Vera et al., 2002).
10 Histograms of long-term mean average monthly precipitation display a strong Southern
11 Hemisphere winter minimum (Fig. 2), particularly in the north-western sector of the LPRDB,
12 which supplies most of the particulate load of the La Plata River (Depetris and Kempe, 1993;
13 Depetris et al., 2003).

14 Air temperatures at low atmospheric levels over South America are dominated by the equator-
15 to-pole thermal gradient (Fig. 1B) (Garreaud et al., 2009). The meridional temperature profile
16 is rather flat between the equator and 20°S, centered around 20°C. To the south of 20°S,
17 temperatures gradually decrease to 0°C over the southern tip of the continent. Zonal
18 departures from this meridional gradient are relatively small to the east of the Andes, as is the
19 case for the LPRDB.

20

21 **3 Material and methods**

22 **3.1 Marine sediment core**

23 We investigated sediment core GeoB6211-2 (Schulz et al., 2001; Wefer et al., 2001) collected
24 from the continental slope off southeastern South America (32.51°S / 50.24°W / 657 m water
25 depth / 774 cm long) (Figs. 1A, 2). The gravity core was raised at the Rio Grande Cone, a
26 major sedimentary feature in the western Argentine Basin (Schulz et al., 2001). Because our
27 focus here is Termination 1 we analyzed the section from 86 until 583 cm core depth that
28 corresponds to the period from 10.2 until 19.3 cal ka BP (see Section 4.1 below).

29 One meter long sections of core GeoB6211-2 were longitudinally split and described onboard,
30 and then stored at 4°C. Visual inspection of core GeoB6211-2 does not provide evidence for
31 depositional or erosive disturbance (Wefer et al., 2001). Onshore, the last deglaciation section

1 of the core was sampled at 1 cm intervals. Samples for radiocarbon, Mg/Ca and stable oxygen
2 isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) analyses were wet sieved, oven-dried at 50°C, and the residues from the 150
3 μm size sieve were stored in glass vials. Hand-picking of foraminiferal tests was performed
4 under a binocular microscope. Samples for lipid analyses were stored at 4°C until processing.

5 **3.2 Radiocarbon analyses and age model**

6 The age model of core GeoB6211-2 is based on nine accelerator mass spectrometry
7 radiocarbon ages (Table 1, Fig. 3). Five ages are based on tests of shallow dwelling
8 planktonic foraminifera *Globigerinoides ruber* (pink and white) and *Globigerinoides*
9 *sacculifer*, while the remaining four ages are based either on mixed planktonic foraminifera
10 (i.e., two ages) or epibenthic bivalve shells (i.e., two ages). Apart from the age obtained at
11 315 cm core depth, all ages were previously published by Chiessi et al. (2008) and Razik et al.
12 (2013). For each sample, we collected around 10 mg of CaCO_3 from the sediment fraction
13 larger than 150 μm . One of the samples was measured at the *National Ocean Sciences*
14 *Accelerator Mass Spectrometry Facility* at Woods Hole (USA), while the other eight were
15 measured at the *Leibniz-Laboratory for Radiometric Dating and Stable Isotope Research* at
16 Kiel (Germany). All radiocarbon ages were calibrated with the calibration curve Marine13
17 (Reimer et al., 2013) with the software Calib 7.0 (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993). Following the
18 arguments from Chiessi et al. (2008) we decided not to use a specific reservoir age to the
19 radiocarbon ages based on epibenthic bivalve shells. Also, no additional marine reservoir
20 correction was applied because our core site is located far from upwelling zones and
21 significantly to the north of the Brazil-Malvinas Confluence, both being places where
22 corrections are typically necessary (Reimer and Reimer, 2001). All ages are indicated as
23 calibrated years before present (cal a BP; present is 1950 AD), except where noted otherwise.
24 To construct the age model, we linearly interpolated the calibrated ages. For each dated depth
25 we used in the interpolation the mean value from the 1σ range of the calibrated age.

26 **3.3 Mg/Ca analyses and sea surface temperatures**

27 Around 40 tests of *G. ruber* (white, sensu stricto according to Wang (2000)) within the size
28 range 250–350 μm were used for Mg/Ca analyses. Analyses were performed at approximately
29 every cm between 86 and 123 cm core depth, and at approximately every four cm below 123
30 cm core depth. Different spacing was applied to compensate for the lower sedimentation rates
31 in the section 86-123 cm core depth as compared to the section 123-583 cm core depth (see

1 Section 4.1 below). After gently crushing the tests, shell fragments were cleaned according to
2 the standard cleaning protocol for foraminiferal Mg/Ca analyses suggested by Barker et al.
3 (2003) and slightly modified by Groeneveld and Chiessi (2011). Before dilution, samples
4 were centrifuged for 10 min (6000 rpm) to exclude any remaining insoluble particles from the
5 analyses. Samples were diluted with Seralpur water before analysis with an inductively
6 coupled plasma – optical emission spectrometer (ICP-OES) (Agilent Technologies, 700
7 Series with autosampler (ASX-520 Cetac) and micro-nebulizer) at the *MARUM – Center for*
8 *Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Germany*. Instrumental precision of
9 the ICP- OES was monitored by analysis of an in- house standard solution with a Mg/Ca of
10 2.93 mmol mol⁻¹ after every five samples (long-term standard deviation of 0.026 mmol mol⁻¹
11 or 0.91 %). To allow inter-laboratory comparison we analyzed an international limestone
12 standard (ECRM752–1) with a reported Mg/Ca of 3.75 mmol mol⁻¹ (Greaves et al., 2008).
13 The long-term average of the ECRM752–1 standard, which was routinely analyzed twice
14 before each batch of 50 samples in every session, is 3.78 mmol mol⁻¹ (1σ = 0.066 mmol mol⁻¹
15 ¹). Analytical error based on three replicate measurements of each sample for *G. ruber* was
16 0.14 % (1σ = 0.004 mmol mol⁻¹) for Mg/Ca. To convert Mg/Ca into sea surface temperatures
17 (SST) we used the calibration equation of Anand et al. (2003) for *G. ruber* (white) in the size
18 range 250–350 μm with no pre-assumed exponential constant:

$$19 \quad Mg / Ca = 0.34 \exp(0.102 * SST) \quad (1)$$

20 The propagation of uncertainties typically results in 1σ error of about 1°C for SST (Mohtadi
21 et al., 2014).

22 According to Hönisch et al. (2013), the small sensitivity of *G. ruber* Mg/Ca to changes in
23 salinity (i.e., 3.3 +/- 1.7 % per salinity unit) supports the use of this paleotemperature proxy
24 given the range of salinity change in our study area (see Section 4.3 below).

25 We measured Mg/Ca in tests of *G. ruber* (white) because it dwells in the uppermost water
26 column and reflects mixed layer conditions (Chiessi et al., 2007). Moreover, *G. ruber* (white)
27 records austral hemisphere summer conditions at our core site (Fraile et al., 2009a; Lombard
28 et al., 2011), with no significant change in seasonal preference during the Last Glacial
29 Maximum (LGM) (Fraile et al., 2009b). Furthermore, the mean Mg/Ca based SST (i.e.,
30 23.1°C) obtained for the uppermost two samples of multicore GeoB6211-1 (collected in the
31 same site as gravity core GeoB6211-2) compares favorably with the modern mean summer
32 SST in the top 20 m of the local water column (i.e., 24.1°C) and differs considerably from

1 modern mean winter SST (i.e., 17.8°C), corroborating the austral hemisphere summer signal
2 recorded by *G. ruber* (white) (Chiessi et al., 2014).

3 **3.4 Stable oxygen isotope analyses and sea surface salinities**

4 Ten hand-picked tests of *G. ruber* (white, sensu stricto according to Wang (2000)) within the
5 size-range 250–350 µm from approximately every cm of core GeoB6211-2 were used for
6 δ¹⁸O analyses. Results between 448 and 123 cm core depth were previously published by
7 Chiessi et al. (2009). Stable oxygen isotope analyses were performed on a Finnigan MAT 252
8 mass spectrometer equipped with an automatic carbonate preparation device at the *MARUM –*
9 *Center for Marine Environmental Sciences, University of Bremen, Germany*. Isotopic results
10 were calibrated relative to the Vienna Peedee belemnite (VPDB) using the NBS19 standard.
11 The standard deviation of the laboratory standard was lower than 0.07 ‰ for the measuring
12 period.

13 To calculate the δ¹⁸O of continental-ice-volume-corrected surface sea water (δ¹⁸O_{ivc-ssw}), a
14 proxy for relative sea surface salinity, we used: (i) our *G. ruber* Mg/Ca SST and δ¹⁸O; (ii) the
15 paleotemperature equation from Mulitza et al. (2003) for *G. ruber* (white):

$$16 \quad SST(^{\circ}C) = -4.44 * (\delta^{18}O_{G.ruber} - \delta^{18}O_{sw}) + 14.20 \quad (2)$$

17 (iii) the VPDB to Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water conversion factor from Hut (1987);
18 (iv) the sea level curve from Lambeck and Chappell (2001); and (v) the global average change
19 in δ¹⁸O_{sw} since the LGM from Schrag et al. (2002). The sea level curve from Lambeck and
20 Chappell (2001) is consistent with the timing of meltwater pulse 1A reported by Deschamps
21 et al. (2012) (14.5 and 14.6 cal ka BP, respectively). The propagation of uncertainties
22 typically results in 1σ error of about 0.3 ‰ for δ¹⁸O_{ivc-ssw} (Mohtadi et al., 2014).

23 **3.5 Lipid analyses and continental mean air temperatures**

24 Lipid analyses were performed at approximately every 6 cm. Lipid extraction of freeze-dried
25 powdered samples was performed by the use of ultrasonic probes. Extracts were saponified
26 and further separated on Bond-Elut SiO₂ columns. Polar fractions containing glycerol dialkyl
27 glycerol tetraethers (GDGTs) were eluted with 2 mL MeOH. Prior to analysis by high
28 performance liquid chromatography / atmospheric pressure chemical ionization – mass
29 spectrometry (HPLC/APCI-MS), samples were filtered through a 4 µm pore size PTFE filter

1 and dissolved in hexane/isopropanol (99:1; v/v). An Agilent 1200 series HPLC/APCI-MS
2 system equipped with a Grace Prevail Cyano column (150 mm x 2.1 mm; 3 μ m) was used,
3 and separation was achieved in normal phase using the method described by Hopmans et al.
4 (2004).

5 Mean air temperature (MAT) was estimated according to Peterse et al. (2012). GDGTs with
6 the following protonated molecular ion masses were quantified: 1022 (Ia), 1020 (Ib), 1018
7 (Ic); 1036 (IIa), 1034 (IIb), 1032 (IIc); 1050 (IIIa). Ratios of peak areas were used to calculate
8 the Methylation Branched Tetraether (MBT') and Cyclisation Branched Tetraether (CBT)
9 indices as follow:

$$10 \quad MBT' = \frac{(Ia + Ib + Ic)}{(Ia + Ib + Ic + IIa + IIb + IIc + IIIa)} \quad (3)$$

$$11 \quad CBT = -\log \left[\frac{(Ib + IIb)}{(Ia + IIa)} \right] \quad (4)$$

12 Index values calculated using equations (3) and (4) were subsequently converted to MAT
13 estimates according to:

$$14 \quad MAT(^{\circ}C) = 0.81 - 5.67 * CBT + 31.0 * MBT' \quad (5)$$

15 The production of GDGTs by some uncharacterized microbial community in marine
16 sediments has gained recent attention (e.g., Zhu et al., 2011). For in situ production in the
17 marine realm, the authors consistently describe an increase in the relative abundance of those
18 GDGTs containing cyclopentane moieties (e.g., GDGT Ic and GDGT IIc) as well as a
19 decrease in the relative abundance of the compounds GDGT Ia and GDGT IIa. We carefully
20 screened our results for a similar behavior.

21 Temperature estimates are thought to reflect mean annual air temperature (Peterse et al.,
22 2012). During Termination 1, our core site received terrigenous material discharged from the
23 La Plata River drainage basin (LPRDB) as attested by Nd isotopes (Lantzsich et al., 2014).
24 Within the LPRDB, most of the suspended load (Depetris et al., 2003) and particulate organic
25 matter (Depetris and Kempe, 1993) originates from the Bermejo River sub-basin, located in
26 the northwest domain. The amount of river suspended load corresponds to the discharge
27 (Depetris et al., 2003), and most of the particulate organic matter is soil-derived (Depetris and
28 Kempe, 1993). Thus, we expect our MAT record to represent a LPRDB-integrated signal with
29 a predominant contribution from its north-western domain.

1

2 **4 Results**

3 **4.1 Radiocarbon analyses and age model**

4 The investigated section (i.e., 86-583 cm core depth) of core GeoB6211-2 recorded the period
5 between 10.2 and 19.3 cal ka BP (Table 1, Fig. 3). The Marine13 calibration curve produced
6 very similar ages (i.e., difference smaller than 0.2 kyr) if compared to the previously
7 published values (Chiessi et al., 2008; Razik et al., 2013) calibrated with Marine04 (Hughen
8 et al., 2004) and Marine09 (Reimer et al., 2009). Thus, the age model used here is very
9 similar to the age models published by Chiessi et al. (2008) between 19.3 and 14.1 cal ka BP,
10 and by Razik et al. (2013) between 14.1 and 10.2 cal ka BP.

11 Sedimentation rates of the investigated section of core GeoB6211-2 show a two-step decrease
12 from the LGM to the early Holocene (Fig. 3). Mean values decrease from ca. 160 to 80 cm
13 kyr⁻¹ at 18.45 cal ka BP, and from ca. 80 to 10 cm kyr⁻¹ at 14.1 cal ka BP.

14 Considering the sampling strategy and the sedimentation rates for core GeoB6211-2, the
15 mean temporal resolution is ca. 30 yr for Mg/Ca analyses, ca. 10 yr for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses, and ca.
16 80 yr for lipid analyses for the period before 18.45 cal ka BP, ca. 60 yr for Mg/Ca analyses,
17 ca. 15 yr for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses, and ca. 70 yr for lipid analyses for the period between 18.45 and
18 14.1 cal ka BP, and ca. 120 yr for Mg/Ca analyses, ca. 105 yr for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ analyses, and ca. 555
19 yr for lipid analyses for the period after 14.1 cal ka BP.

20 **4.2 Mg/Ca analyses and sea surface temperatures**

21 Mg/Ca from *G. ruber* range from 2.50 to 3.60 mmol mol⁻¹ and are equivalent to 19.5 and 23.1
22 °C, respectively (Fig. 4B). Reconstructed SST increase since the LGM (averaging 20.6°C)
23 until ca. 18 cal ka BP, remaining roughly constant (averaging 21.9°C) until ca. 16 cal ka BP.
24 A marked SST drop reaching minimum value (20.4°C) at ca. 15.5 cal ka BP ends the period
25 of relatively stable SST. A double-peak structure culminating at ca. 15 cal ka BP (23.0°C) and
26 ca. 13 cal ka BP (22.9°C) was followed by low temperatures (averaging 21.7°C) until ca. 11.9
27 cal ka BP. After that, the record is characterized by oscillating SST (averaging 22.2°C) SST.
28 Thus, the deglacial SST rise is ca. 1.6°C.

1 **4.3 Stable oxygen isotope analyses and sea surface salinities**

2 Values of *G. ruber* $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ show a stepwise decrease from 0.75 ‰ during the LGM to -0.06 ‰
3 during the early Holocene (Fig. 4C). There are three major steps and they occurred at ca. 15.5,
4 13.5 and 11.5 cal ka BP.

5 Ice-volume corrected $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ssw}}$ values range from 0.88 to 2.15 ‰ (Fig. 4D). From the LGM
6 until ca. 14 cal ka BP, temporal changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$ are similar to the changes described for
7 SST. After that, the record is marked by roughly constant values (averaging 1.65 ‰) until
8 11.5 cal ka BP and a rather large variability around 1.47 ‰ during the early Holocene.

9 **4.4 Lipid analyses and continental mean air temperatures**

10 We first examined our data set for indications of marine in-situ production of GDGTs as
11 described in section 3.5, which was not the case (Chiessi et al., 2015b). Then, we calculated
12 continental MAT values that range from 11.5°C at 18.0 cal ka BP to 14.9°C at 11.5 cal ka BP
13 (Fig. 4E). Reconstructed MAT show a small gradual increase from the base of the record until
14 ca. 16.5 cal ka BP when a sharp increase of ca. 1.1°C takes place. Temperatures remain
15 relatively stable until ca. 12.5 cal ka BP when an increase of ca. 1.0°C within ca. 1 kyr was
16 recorded. After that, stable MAT characterize the record until the early Holocene. Although
17 our MAT record does not cover the LGM, the deglacial MAT rise calculated using the
18 averaged value for the oldest and youngest 500 yr values of our time series is 2.5°C. The
19 marked decrease in the mean temporal resolution of our MAT record after 14.1 cal ka BP that
20 shifts from ca. 70 years to ca. 555 years is worthy of note. This has to be considered while
21 interpreting the MAT trends described for the period after 14.1 cal ka BP.

22

23 **5 Discussion**

24 The two major decreases in sedimentation rates found in GeoB6211-2 are remarkably
25 synchronous (within age model uncertainties) with outstanding events of sea-level rise related
26 to meltwater pulses that occurred at ca. 19 and 14.6 cal ka BP (Deschamps et al., 2012;
27 Yokoyama et al., 2000). The sea-level drop preceding the LGM shifted the coastline towards
28 our core site. With the resulting narrow continental shelf, the large sediment supply of the La
29 Plata River was directed to the Rio Grande Cone via the La Plata paleo-valley, that was
30 responsible for the high sedimentation rates typical for the lowermost section of core

1 GeoB6211-2 (Fig. 3) (Chiessi et al., 2008; Lantsch et al., 2014). The stepwise rise in sea-
2 level following the LGM caused abrupt displacements of the coastline towards the continent
3 trapping a large amount of the La Plata River sediment supply on the shelf and controlling the
4 stepwise decrease in sedimentation rate at our site (Chiessi et al., 2008; Lantsch et al., 2014).
5 Because of the high sedimentation rates (i.e., ca. 100 cm kyr⁻¹) found between the LGM and
6 14.1 cal ka BP, core GeoB6211-2 is particularly well suited to investigate HS1.

7 **5.1 Sea surface temperatures and salinities of the western South Atlantic** 8 **during Termination 1**

9 The high SST reconstructed for our western South Atlantic site between 18 and 16 cal ka BP
10 as well as the peak in SST at ca. 15 cal ka BP (Fig. 4B) fall within HS1, as defined by
11 Sarnthein et al. (2001). It has been suggested that during HS1 a strong slowdown of the
12 AMOC (Fig. 5B) (McManus et al., 2004) produced by a positive anomalous freshwater
13 discharge into the high latitudes of the North Atlantic (Bond et al., 1992) would have been
14 responsible for a decreased cross equatorial heat transport in the Atlantic (Fig. 5A) (Bard et
15 al., 2000). Under a sluggish AMOC, the residual heat not transported to the North Atlantic
16 would be trapped in the Southern Hemisphere (Broecker, 1998; Crowley, 1992). Many water
17 hosing model experiments that show a strong decrease in AMOC strength suggested that the
18 Southern Hemisphere warming should have affected the surface layer of the BC (Kageyama
19 et al., 2013; Stouffer et al., 2006). This warming has been suggested for experiments under
20 both LGM and pre-industrial boundary conditions. Here we show the first record that
21 corroborates this suggestion (Fig. 4B). We propose that the surface layer of the BC acted as a
22 conduit and storage volume for part of the heat not transported to the North Atlantic during
23 HS1 that was eventually shunted towards higher latitudes in the South Atlantic (Barker et al.,
24 2009; Anderson et al., 2009). Moreover, the marked drop in our SST record reaching
25 minimum values at ca. 15.5 cal ka BP could be related to an intervening warm spell registered
26 within HS1 in the North Atlantic mid-latitudes (Martrat et al., 2014). We hypothesize that not
27 only millennial-scale changes associated to Termination 1 (e.g., HS1) affected the BC, but
28 also centennial-scale fluctuations (e.g., internal structure of HS1) were registered. However,
29 we primarily discuss the millennial-scale events because of age model uncertainties.

30 Interestingly, the other high temporal resolution Mg/Ca based SST record from the western
31 South Atlantic covering Termination 1 shows similar changes in SST during HS1 (Figs. 1A,
32 5C) (Weldeab et al., 2006). This core (i.e., GeoB3129-1/3911-3) was collected off NE Brazil

1 at 4.61°S, thus under the influence of the NBC. The similarity in SST between both western
2 South Atlantic records goes beyond HS1, and is also valid for the SST drop with minimum
3 values at ca. 14 cal ka BP, and peak SST at ca. 13 cal ka BP, during the Bølling-Allerød (BA).
4 Thus, our SST record (from the BC) together with the SST record from Weldeab et al. (2006)
5 (from the NBC) suggest a generally in-phase behavior of the BC and the NBC regions during
6 HS1 and the BA. This contradicts the BC-NBC anti-phase relationship suggested by Arz et al.
7 (1999), at least concerning SST since we have no proxy to assess current strength.

8 It is worthy of note that Arz et al. (1999) based their suggestion exclusively on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records
9 of planktonic foraminifera. The more negative excursion in foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ than those
10 authors reported during HS1 for the cores collected under the influence of the BC (i.e.,
11 GeoB3229-2, GeoB3202-1) if compared to the less negative excursion reported for the cores
12 under the influence of the NBC (i.e., GeoB3104-1, GeoB3117-1, GeoB3129-1/3911-3,
13 GeoB3176-1) supported the notion that the sluggish AMOC would have triggered a
14 weakening in the NBC and a strengthening in the BC (Fig. 1A). This would have been
15 responsible for the low HS1 meridional gradient in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records published by Arz et al.
16 (1999).

17 Based on absolute SST and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$ values from the NBC (Weldeab et al., 2006) and the
18 BC (this study) we are now able to show that the HS1-LGM SST ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$) anomaly at the
19 NBC site amounts to ca. 2.5°C and 0.5 ‰ respectively, while at our BC site it is limited to ca.
20 1.3°C and 0.3 ‰ respectively. Thus, the NBC showed larger SST and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$ increases if
21 compared to the BC during HS1. Since temperature and $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{sw}}$ influence foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
22 in opposite directions, the signal of the stronger warming at the NBC was dampened by the
23 larger increase in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$, preventing the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in *G. ruber* to change (assuming a 0.2
24 ‰ °C⁻¹; (Mulitza et al., 2003)). So far, this stands for no BC-NBC anomaly in foraminiferal
25 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ during HS1. Nevertheless, our BC site is located ca. 12° downstream the sites
26 investigated by Arz et al. (1999) in the BC. Because the N-S SST gradient in the western
27 South Atlantic was larger than the one for $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$ during HS1, it is expected that a larger
28 warming at the southern sites studied by Arz et al. (1999) overprinted the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$ effect,
29 and produced the reported negative excursion in foraminiferal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.

30 Together with the NBC record, our SST reconstruction provides evidence that the western
31 South Atlantic was indeed affected by Northern Hemisphere rapid climate change during

1 Termination 1. However, the thermal response of the surface layer of the western South
2 Atlantic cannot be described as an anti-phase in SST between the BC and the NBC regions
3 (Arz et al., 1999), but rather as a widespread and in-phase increase in SST.

4 The low SST from our record during the Younger Dryas (YD) do not agree with the high
5 temperatures reported by Weldeab et al. (2006) for the same event (Fig. 5C, D). The
6 inconsistency of the YD SST signal in the western South Atlantic may be due to: (i) the
7 smaller amplitude of the AMOC slowdown that characterized the YD if compared to HS1
8 (McManus et al., 2004; Ritz et al., 2013); (ii) the shorter duration of the YD if compared to
9 HS1 (EPICA Community Members, 2006; Rasmussen et al., 2006; Sarnthein et al., 2001)
10 related to the time needed for the South Atlantic to equilibrate after an anomalous freshwater
11 pulse in the high latitudes of the North Atlantic; and (iii) the different boundary conditions of
12 the YD if compared to those present during HS1 (Clark et al., 2012). Numerical model
13 experiments provide key insights to these three non-exclusive possibilities. First, water hosing
14 model experiments that retain an active and relatively strong AMOC indeed showed a much
15 weaker expression of the bipolar seesaw, if compared to simulations in which the AMOC
16 strongly decreases (Kageyama et al., 2013; Otto-Bliesner and Brady, 2010). Second, the
17 reduction of the AMOC intensity due to freshwater perturbation increases with increasing
18 duration and amount of the freshwater perturbation (Rind et al., 2001; Prange et al., 2002).
19 Third, freshwater discharge to different geographic regions in the North Atlantic has been
20 shown to trigger different responses in the AMOC (Roche et al., 2009; Otto-Bliesner and
21 Brady, 2010). Thus, all three possibilities may have acted together or independently
22 producing a different response of the western South Atlantic during the YD and HS1.

23 In addition to the bipolar seesaw, another mechanism that acts to cool the western South
24 Atlantic during specific slowdown events of the AMOC seems to exist. This mechanism may
25 be related to a change in the wind field, more precisely to a weakening of the subtropical high
26 pressure cell (Prange and Schulz, 2004). Based on climate model results and proxy records
27 from the Benguela upwelling region, Prange and Schulz (2004) suggested a weakening of the
28 South Atlantic subtropical anticyclone in response to a reduced cross-equatorial Atlantic
29 Ocean heat transport. This would result in a weakening of the BC and its associated heat
30 transport from the tropics and hence a cooling at our core site. Which mechanism dominates
31 (i.e., bipolar seesaw or wind field) may depend on boundary conditions and freshwater
32 forcing function.

1 A similar thermal evolution spanning most of Termination 1 (i.e., HS1 and BA) is not only a
2 pervasive feature of the western South Atlantic (this study; Weldeab et al., 2006), but also
3 includes the southernmost eastern South Atlantic, as reconstructed from a core raised at
4 41.10°S / 7.80°E / 4981 m water depth (Fig. 5E) (Barker et al., 2009). The high temporal
5 resolution Mg/Ca based SST record from the southernmost eastern South Atlantic also
6 presents high SST during HS1 that is followed by a marked drop at ca. 14 cal ka BP and
7 increasing temperatures towards the onset of the YD (Barker et al., 2009). The striking
8 similarity of the three high temporal resolution (i.e., 150 yr or less between adjacent samples)
9 Mg/Ca based SST records from the South Atlantic (this study; Weldeab et al., 2006; Barker et
10 al., 2009) not influenced by continental margin upwelling (Farmer et al., 2005) or continental
11 freshwater discharge (Weldeab et al., 2007) suggest an emerging South Atlantic-wide pattern
12 in SST evolution during most of Termination 1. Still, the view of the YD as a replicate of HS1
13 seems not to hold for the western South Atlantic.

14 Recently, Weber et al. (2014) suggested that Antarctic meltwater pulses may have cooled the
15 upper water column of the South Atlantic. Indeed, our sea surface temperature record shows
16 minor (i.e., ca. 0.5°C) decreases around the two most prominent events of increased flux of
17 iceberg-rafted debris at the Scotia Sea (a proxy for Antarctic meltwater pulses) recorded
18 during Termination 1 (i.e., Antarctic Ice Sheet discharge (AID) event 7 between 16.91 and
19 15.75 cal ka BP, and event AID6 between 14.86 and 13.94 cal ka BP) (Chiessi et al., 2015a).
20 Thus, Antarctic meltwater pulses may have contributed to the variability of SST from the
21 subtropical domain of the Brazil Current on top of the mechanisms already described.

22 **5.2 Continental mean air temperatures over southeastern South America** 23 **during Termination 1**

24 Most of the warming in our step-like structured MAT record takes place during the second
25 half of HS1 and during the YD, but due to the marked decrease in temporal resolution of our
26 MAT record after 14.1 cal ka BP we raise a note of caution while interpreting the temperature
27 rise during the YD (Fig. 4E) (Sarnthein et al., 2001; Rasmussen et al., 2006). Our MAT
28 record is remarkably similar to deglacial rise in atmospheric CO₂ and Antarctic temperatures
29 (Fig. 6C, D, E) (EPICA Community Members, 2006; Monnin et al., 2004). Not only the
30 timing of the two pulses of MAT increase in our record (i.e., ca. 16.5 and 12.5 cal ka BP) is
31 synchronous with intervals of marked increases in global atmospheric CO₂ and Antarctic
32 temperatures, but also the periods of relatively stable MAT are contemporaneous with periods

1 of a small rate of global atmospheric CO₂ and Antarctic temperature increase. The two pulses
2 of sharp increase in deglacial atmospheric CO₂ also occurred simultaneously with increased
3 upwelling in the Southern Ocean (Anderson et al., 2009). As suggested by Toggweiler et al.
4 (2006), warming around Antarctica may have increased upwelling through a poleward shift in
5 the Southern Westerlies and a corresponding increase in northward Ekman transport of
6 surface waters. Still, the trigger for the changes in upwelling in the Southern Ocean probably
7 resided in the high latitudes of the North Atlantic (i.e., HS1 and the YD) and was transmitted
8 to the Southern Hemisphere via changes in atmospheric (Lee et al., 2011) or oceanic (Knutti
9 et al., 2004) circulation.

10 Since atmospheric circulation in the LPRDB is dominated by northerly winds (Fig. 1B)
11 (Kalnay et al., 1996), deglacial evolution of continental surface air temperature in the region
12 is also expected to follow the mean warming trend of low latitude regions in South America.
13 However, high temporal resolution and continuous MAT records from tropical South America
14 to the east of the Andes spanning most of Termination 1 are, to our knowledge, still absent,
15 and highlight the uniqueness of our record (Shakun et al., 2012). The pollen-derived
16 temperature record from Lake Consuelo (13.95°S), eastern Peru, is probably the temperature
17 record with the highest resolution in the region (Fig. 6B) (Bush et al., 2004). The large
18 variability and the low temporal resolution of that record for Termination 1 hampers any
19 detailed correlation to our MAT record (Fig. 6B, C). Thus, a putative link in deglacial surface
20 air temperature evolution between tropical and subtropical South America remains elusive.

21 The general agreement between our MAT record and the deglacial rise in atmospheric CO₂
22 content (Monnin et al., 2004) (Fig. 6C, D) suggests that greenhouse gas concentrations
23 exerted a strong control on the evolution of LPRDB MAT during Termination 1.

24 Additionally, Antarctic meltwater pulses may have decreased MAT over southeastern South
25 America (Weber et al., 2014). The modeled cooling amounts to ca. 1.0°C over the
26 southernmost portion of the LPRDB. Given age model uncertainties, the two most prominent
27 events of increased flux of iceberg-rafted debris at the Scotia Sea (i.e., AID7 and AID6;
28 Weber et al., 2014) partially correlate with negative anomalies in our MAT record (Chiessi et
29 al., 2015a). Thus, Antarctic meltwater pulses may have contributed to the variability of MAT
30 over the LPRDB in addition to changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration.

1 **5.3 Combining sea surface temperatures in the western South Atlantic and** 2 **continental mean air temperatures on the adjacent continent during** 3 **Termination 1**

4 Our SST record suggests that the South Atlantic, and the BC more specifically, was of
5 paramount importance for the southward propagation of the thermal bipolar seesaw signal of
6 HS1 (Fig. 5). Indeed, the western South Atlantic was more sensitive to AMOC forcing than
7 lowland South America, which appears to be more susceptible to atmospheric CO₂ changes
8 (Figs. 5 and 6). Thus, our SST and MAT records sum up to other lines of evidence supporting
9 the notion that global continental air temperature closely tracked the increase in atmospheric
10 CO₂ concentration during Termination 1, and that variations in the AMOC caused a
11 seesawing of heat between the hemispheres mainly impacting the oceans in the Southern
12 Hemisphere (Shakun et al., 2012).

13 Assuming no significant delay in the transport of the continental temperature signal to our
14 core site (Weijers et al., 2007; Schefuss et al., 2011), our records allow establishing a phase
15 relationship between changes in AMOC strength related to the onset of HS1 and the rise in
16 atmospheric CO₂. According to our records, the decrease in AMOC strength already impacted
17 SST in the western South Atlantic as early as ca. 19 cal ka BP, while the rise in atmospheric
18 CO₂ only affected MAT at ca. 16.5 cal ka BP. As suggested by Denton et al. (2010), the long
19 duration of last deglaciation stadials was of fundamental importance to produce the necessary
20 large oceanic CO₂ release via the Southern Ocean (Anderson et al., 2009). Thus, increasing
21 Northern Hemisphere summer insolation alone was insufficient to terminate the last
22 glaciation, and the impact of rising atmospheric CO₂ was a key factor to complete the last
23 deglaciation (Denton et al., 2010; Shakun et al., 2012).

24 Interestingly, our SST and MAT records present different amplitudes in deglacial temperature
25 rise. Similarly to the oceanic and continental temperature records reported by Weijers et al.
26 (2007), our oceanic temperatures (i.e., 1.6°C) showed a smaller amplitude if compared to our
27 continental temperatures (i.e., 2.5°C) (Fig. 4B, E). The deglacial amplitude of our SST record
28 is very similar to global compilations (i.e., 1-2°C) (e.g., MARGO Project Members, 2009) and
29 regional reconstructions (i.e., 1-2°C) (Carlson et al., 2008; Toledo et al., 2007), even
30 considering the lower temporal resolution of those reconstructions if compared to our record.

1 On the other hand, the deglacial amplitude of our MAT record is remarkably smaller than the
2 amplitude of the few other available continental records for tropical South America, namely
3 5-7°C from Behling (2002) and 5-9°C from Bush et al. (2004). Nevertheless, pollen-based
4 tropical and subtropical temperature reconstructions should be interpreted with caution since
5 changes in moisture availability may also impact the recorded signal.

6 The difference between oceanic and continental warming during Termination 1 reported in
7 this study agrees with climate model simulations that suggest an average continental deglacial
8 warming in the tropics ca. 1.5 times higher than the deglacial warming of the tropical oceans
9 (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2006; Braconnot et al., 2012). The land/sea warming ratio is usually
10 explained through differences in evaporation between land and ocean, and through land-
11 surface feedbacks (Braconnot et al., 2012).

12

13 **6 Conclusions**

14 Our SST record from the BC in the western South Atlantic shows a marked positive anomaly
15 during HS1. This is the first record that corroborates model suggestions that the surface layer
16 of the BC acted as an important conduit and storage volume for part of the heat not
17 transported to the North Atlantic under a sluggish AMOC. Thus, the BC was of paramount
18 importance in propagating southwards the thermal bipolar seesaw signal of HS1. Moreover,
19 the marked similarity to a SST record from the NBC suggests an in-phase thermal evolution
20 of the BC and the NBC during HS1 (and the BA), contradicting previous assumptions of a
21 BC-NBC anti-phase. Similar changes in SST are not only a pervasive feature of the western
22 South Atlantic but also include the southernmost eastern South Atlantic, suggesting a South
23 Atlantic-wide pattern in SST evolution during most of Termination 1. Over southeastern
24 South America, our MAT record shows that most of the deglacial warming occurred during
25 the second half of HS1 and during the YD. Changes in MAT are remarkably synchronous
26 with atmospheric CO₂ rise, suggesting that greenhouse gas concentrations exerted a strong
27 control on South American surface temperatures during Termination 1. The ca. 2.5 kyr lag of
28 MAT rise if compared to SST rise after the LGM corroborates the notion that the long
29 duration of HS1 was fundamental to drive the Earth out of the last glacial.

30

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12

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30

1 Table 1. Accelerator mass spectrometer radiocarbon ages and calibrated ages used to
 2 construct the age model of core GeoB6211-2.

Lab ID	Core depth (cm)	Species	Radiocarbon age $\pm 1 \sigma$ error (yr BP)	1σ calibrated age range (cal ka BP)	Calibrated age (cal ka BP)	Additional age used in the age model (cal ka BP)	References
NOSAMS75186	86	<i>G. ruber</i> and <i>G. sacculifer</i>	9370 \pm 40	10.234 - 10.168	10.2		Razik et al. (2013)
KIA35163	95	<i>G. ruber</i> and <i>G. sacculifer</i>	9920 \pm 70	10.997 - 10.762	10.9		Razik et al. (2013)
	98					10.85 ^a	Razik et al. (2013)
KIA35162	101	<i>G. ruber</i> and <i>G. sacculifer</i>	9810 \pm 110	10.891 - 10.582	10.75		Razik et al. (2013)
KIA30526	123	<i>G. ruber</i> and <i>G. sacculifer</i>	12600 \pm 70	14.180 - 13.985	14.1		Chiessi et al. (2008)
KIA30525	218	<i>G. ruber</i> and <i>G. sacculifer</i>	13340 \pm 80	15.599 - 15.306	15.45		Chiessi et al. (2008)
KIA35159	315	Mixed planktonic foraminifera ^b	14520 \pm 30	17.388 - 16.985	17.2		This study
KIA30524	358	Mixed planktonic foraminifera ^b	14860 \pm 90	17.750 - 17.484	17.6		Chiessi et al. (2008)
KIA30531	448	<i>Yoldia riograndensis</i>	15590 \pm 100	18.576 - 18.333	18.45		Chiessi et al. (2008)
KIA30530	583	<i>Yoldia riograndensis</i>	16400 \pm 120	19.479 - 19.143	19.3		Chiessi et al. (2008)

3 ^aInterpolated value between the calibrated radiocarbon ages at 95 and 101 cm depth.

4 ^bMixed planktonic foraminifera contained *G. ruber* (pink and white), *G. sacculifer*, *G. bulloides*, *G. siphonifera*, *T. quinqueloba*, *G. glutinata*, *G. uvula*, *G. conglobatus*, and *G. falconensis*.

6

1 **Figure 1.** Location of the marine sediment core investigated in this study and other archives
2 discussed in the text. **(A)** Annual mean sea surface temperatures (color shading, °C)
3 (Locarnini et al., 2010), and main annual mean surface ocean currents in the western South
4 Atlantic (black arrows) (Peterson and Stramma, 1991; Stramma and England, 1999). Thin
5 white lines depict the main tributaries of the La Plata River. Numbers indicate the locations of
6 the following archives: (1) GeoB3104-1 and GeoB3117-1 (Arz et al., 1999); (2) GeoB3129-
7 1/3911-3 (Arz et al., 1999; Weldeab et al., 2006); (3) Lake Consuelo (Bush et al., 2004); (4)
8 GeoB3202-1 and GeoB3229-2 (Arz et al., 1999); (5) mean location of the sites described by
9 Behling (2002); (6) SAN76 (Toledo et al., 2007); (7) KNR159-5-36GGC (Carlson et al.,
10 2008); (8) GeoB6211-2 (this study). ACC: Antarctic Circumpolar Current; BC: Brazil
11 Current; MC: Malvinas Current; NBC: North Brazil Current; SAC: South Atlantic Current;
12 SSEC: Southern South Equatorial Current. **(B)** Annual mean air temperature (color shading,
13 °C) (Legates and Willmott, 1990), and annual mean low-level atmospheric circulation (black
14 arrows) (Kalnay et al., 1996). Dashed black line depicts the La Plata River drainage basin.
15 This figure was partly produced with Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2014).

16

17 **Figure 2.** Histograms of the mean annual cycle of precipitation at selected stations in the La
18 Plata River drainage basin (Xie and Arkin, 1997), and mean annual cycle of the La Plata
19 River discharge on the lower right panel (Berbery and Barros, 2002). The color shading in the
20 central panel depicts annual mean sea surface temperatures (°C) (Locarnini et al., 2010). The
21 number “1” in the central panel indicates the location of marine sediment core GeoB6211-2
22 (this study). This figure was partly produced with Ocean Data View (Schlitzer, 2014).

23

24 **Figure 3.** Age model and sedimentation rates for marine sediment core GeoB6211-2.

25

26 **Figure 4.** Proxy records for the western South Atlantic and southeastern South America
27 spanning Termination 1 based on marine sediment core GeoB6211-2 together with ice core
28 temperature records. **(A)** North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP members, 2004) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
29 plotted versus the Greenland Ice Core Chronology 2005 (GICC05) (Rasmussen et al., 2006).
30 **(B)** GeoB6211-2 *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) Mg/Ca and Mg/Ca based sea surface
31 temperatures. **(C)** GeoB6211-2 *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) stable oxygen isotope ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)

1 (partially from Chiessi et al. (2009)). **(D)** GeoB6211-2 continental-ice-volume-corrected
2 oxygen isotopic composition of surface sea water ($\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ivc-ssw}}$), a proxy for salinity. **(E)**
3 GeoB6211-2 Methylation Branched Tetraether (MBT') and Cyclisation Branched Tetraether
4 (CBT) based mean air temperature (MAT). **(F)** EPICA Dronning Maud Land (EPICA
5 Community Members, 2006) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ plotted versus its original chronology. Black symbols at
6 the bottom of the panel depict calibrated radiocarbon ages used to produce the age model for
7 GeoB6211-2. Grey vertical bars depict Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1) (Sarnthein et al., 2001) and
8 the Younger Dryas (YD) (Rasmussen et al., 2006). BA: Bølling-Allerød; EH: early Holocene.

9

10 **Figure 5.** Millennial-scale variability of sea surface temperatures of the Brazil Current
11 spanning Termination 1 compared to available circum-Atlantic records. **(A)** SU8118 $\text{U}^{\text{K}'}_{37}$
12 based sea surface temperatures (Bard, 2000). **(B)** OCE326-GGC5 $^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$ based record of
13 the strength of the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (McManus et al., 2004). **(C)**
14 GeoB3129-1/3911-3 *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) Mg/Ca based sea surface temperatures
15 (Weldeab et al., 2006). **(D)** GeoB6211-2 *Globigerinoides ruber* (white) Mg/Ca based sea
16 surface temperatures. **(E)** TN057-21 *Globigerina bulloides* Mg/Ca based sea surface
17 temperatures (Barker et al., 2009). **(F)** Southern Hemisphere proxy temperature stack (Shakun
18 et al., 2012). Grey vertical bars depict Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1) (Sarnthein et al., 2001) and
19 the Younger Dryas (YD) (Rasmussen et al., 2006). BA: Bølling-Allerød; EH: early Holocene.

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21 **Figure 6.** Millennial-scale variability of the mean air temperature of southeastern South
22 America spanning Termination 1 compared to selected available records. **(A)** Southern
23 Hemisphere proxy temperature stack (Shakun et al., 2012). **(B)** Consuelo Lake pollen based
24 temperature anomalies relative to modern (Bush et al., 2004). **(C)** GeoB6211-2 Methylation
25 Branched Tetraether (MBT') and Cyclisation Branched Tetraether (CBT) based mean air
26 temperature (MAT). **(D)** EPICA Dome C (Monnin et al., 2004) atmospheric CO_2 plotted
27 versus its original chronology. **(E)** EPICA Dronning Maud Land (EPICA Community
28 Members, 2006) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ plotted versus its original chronology. Grey vertical bars depict
29 Heinrich Stadial 1 (HS1) (Sarnthein et al., 2001) and the Younger Dryas (YD) (Rasmussen et
30 al., 2006). BA: Bølling-Allerød; EH: early Holocene.

