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NGRIP CH₄ concentration from 120 to 10 kyr before present and its relation to a δ^{15} N temperature reconstruction from the same ice core

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During the last glacial cycle, Greenland temperature showed many rapid temperature variations, the so called Dansgaard-Oeschger (DO) events. The past atmospheric methane concentration closely followed these temperature variations, which implies that the warmings recorded in Greenland were probably hemispheric in extent. Here we substantially extend and complete the North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP) methane record from Termination 1 back to the end of the last interglacial period with a mean time resolution of 54 yr. We relate the amplitudes of the methane increases associated with DO events to the amplitudes of the NGRIP temperature increases derived from stable nitrogen isotope (δ^{15} N) measurements, which have been performed along the same ice core. We find the sensitivity to oscillate between 5 parts per billion by volume (ppbv) per °C and 18 ppbv °C⁻¹ with the approximate frequency of the precessional cycle. A remarkably high sensitivity of 25.5 ppbv °C⁻¹ is reached during Termination 1. Analysis of the timing of the fast methane and temperature increases reveals significant lags of the methane increases relative to NGRIP temperature for the DO events 5, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 19, and 20. We further show that the relative interpolar concentration difference of methane is $4.6 \pm 0.7\%$ between the DO events 18 and 19 and 4.4 ± 0.8 % between the DO events 19 to 20, which is in the same order as in the stadials before and after DO event 2 around the Last Glacial Maximum.

1 Introduction

Methane (CH_4) is a potent greenhouse gas with preindustrial atmospheric concentrations changing between 350 and 750 ppbv over the last 800 thousand years (kyr) before present (BP) (Loulergue et al., 2008). This statement is based on the measurements along polar ice cores, a unique archive to reconstruct the range of the past atmosphere. Human activity has increased the atmospheric abundance of CH_4 from the preindustrial Holocene level of 750 ppbv to around 1800 ppbv through the last 200 yr

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(Etheridge et al., 1998). The maximum increase rate under the anthropogenic influence of 17 ppbv yr⁻¹ was observed in 1981 (Etheridge et al., 1998). Ice core measurements over the last glacial cycle revealed numerous fast and strong variations in the CH₄ concentration, when only natural sources have been present. However, the maximum 5 increase rate observed during the last glaciation and deglaciation of up to 2.5 ppbv yr⁻¹ (Chappellaz et al., 2013) is far below the maximum increase rate under the anthropogenic influence. Although atmospheric CH₄ concentrations can be readily measured using polar ice cores, important questions concerning the location and strength of the different sources and sinks and the sensitivity of the emissions to climate change are still open.

The major natural sources of CH₄ are wetlands (Spahni et al., 2011), where archaea produce CH₄ by the degradation of organic material under anaerobic conditions (e.g. Bridgham et al., 2013). The absence of molecular oxygen is crucial for methanogenesis, underlining the importance of water in the source regions acting as a gas barrier. Given anoxic conditions in wetland areas the CH₄ production rate generally increases with increasing temperature (Christensen et al., 2003; Walter et al., 2001; Ringeval et al., 2013; Zürcher et al., 2013). The amount of CH₄ released to the atmosphere is thus sensitive to the temperature at the wetland source location. Precipitation determines wetland extent and water saturation of the soil and thus also influences the global CH₄ source strength (Bloom et al., 2010). Bottom-up models of methane emission further suggest that net primary productivity regulates the carbon pool available for methanogenesis, and thus CH₄ production and emissions (Melton et al., 2013; Wania et al., 2012). After its emission, CH₄ is mixed in the global atmosphere within a few years, leading to a relatively uniform concentration distribution. Under present day conditions, it takes on average 8.7 ± 1.3 yr to decrease the CH₄ concentration in the atmosphere by a factor e (Denman et al., 2007), through oxidation in the troposphere by its major sink, the OH radical. We assume a minor influence of variations in the sink strength to the atmospheric CH₄ budget during the last glacial cycle, in line with recent results of atmospheric chemistry modeling studies (Levine et al., 2011, 2012).

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Both, the strongest source and sink strengths are found in the tropical regions, but also boreal wetlands contribute substantially to the global emissions (Spahni et al., 2011). The Northern Hemisphere dominates the emissions due to its larger land area compared to the Southern Hemisphere, which leads to asymmetry of the latitudinal source distribution and to an interpolar concentration difference also documented based on the past atmospheric composition in bipolar ice core studies (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2012; Brook et al., 2000; Chappellaz et al., 1997).

During the last glacial cycle, Greenland temperature experienced many rapid and strong variations (NGRIP Project Members, 2004), the so called DO events (Dansgaard et al., 1982). While the northward heat transport by the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) of the ocean plays a key role in producing such variations (Stocker and Johnsen, 2003), also more regional processes, such as the sudden collapse of the sea ice coverage in the Nordic Sea, may contribute to the amplitude and speed of the changes (Li et al., 2010; Petersen et al., 2013). It has been shown that the correlation between Greenland temperature and CH₄ concentration is extraordinarily strong (Huber et al., 2006; Brook et al., 1996) and that therefore the warmings recorded in Greenland likely have a hemispheric extent (Voelker, 2002; Clement and Peterson, 2008).

Qualitative temperature reconstructions are available from stable water isotope (δ^{18} O, δ D) measurements along polar ice cores. However, quantitative temperature estimates based on the relationship between δ^{18} O and temperature are limited for Greenland ice due to the influence of precipitation seasonality and source temperature changes (Krinner et al., 1997; Boyle, 1997). The isotopic composition of nitrogen trapped in the air bubbles in the ice is able to quantitatively constrain the magnitude of the fast temperature increases (Severinghaus et al., 1998; Severinghaus and Brook, 1999; Lang et al., 1999). Nitrogen is an inert gas and its isotopic composition (δ^{15} N) in the atmosphere is thus assumed to be constant over time. Due to gravitational fractionation in the firn column of an ice sheet, δ^{15} N is increased at the bottom of the firn where air bubbles are enclosed in the ice (lock-in depth) compared to the atmospheric

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concentration. A rapid temperature increase at the surface of an ice sheet leads to the establishment of a temperature gradient in the firn. Because gases diffuse in the firn about ten times faster than heat, the temperature gradient initiates thermal gas diffusion and leads to a further increase in $\delta^{15}N$ at the lock-in depth compared to the atmospheric value (Severinghaus et al., 1998) providing a quantitative physical thermometer for fast surface temperature changes on the ice sheet in the past. Neglecting the small difference of diffusion coefficients in air between ^{15}N of N_2 and CH_4 , $\delta^{15}N$ will have no age difference with respect to CH_4 and is therefore, in contrast to the stable water isotope temperature proxy, ideally suited for studies on timings and phase relationships (Severinghaus et al., 1998).

Here, we substantially extend and complete the CH_4 record of the NGRIP ice core from Termination 1 (~ 10 kyr BP) back to the end of the last interglacial period (~ 120 kyr BP). In Sect. 2 the measurement system for CH_4 concentrations is described and the new and earlier published NGRIP CH_4 data are merged to a consistent concentration scale. In Sect. 3 the new high resolution CH_4 record from NGRIP is presented and related to the $\delta^{15}N$ data (Kindler et al., 2013; Huber et al., 2006; Landais et al., 2004, 2005; Capron et al., 2010a, b, 2012) and the NGRIP temperature reconstruction based on these $\delta^{15}N$ data (Kindler et al., 2013). In particular, we compare the magnitude of the CH_4 increases and the NGRIP temperature increases at the onset of DO events and further investigate the timing between CH_4 and $\delta^{15}N$ increases. Our discussion in Sect. 4 focuses on the implication of our new results on the evolution of the wetland CH_4 sources over the last glacial cycle. Conclusions are given in Sect. 5.

2 Methods

At Bern, in order to determine CH_4 concentrations, the air of ice samples of about 40 g is extracted by a melt-refreeze step and analysed by gas chromatography (e.g. Chappellaz et al., 1997; Flückiger et al., 2004). For NGRIP the samples correspond to a depth interval of about 5 cm. The thermal conductivity detector for the main air

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components (N_2 , O_2 and Ar) and the flame ionization detector for CH_4 are calibrated at hourly intervals with two standard gases (1050 and 408 ppbv). Each calibration is checked by a measurement with a third standard gas. The current standard gas is in use since 2010, and a total of 507 standard measurements show a mean concentration with standard deviation of 529.1 ± 3.1 ppbv, which implies long term stability of the calibration scale. Measurements with standard gases from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) show that the Bern scale is approximately 1% above the NOAA scale. Blank measurements with air free ice and standard gas reveal a process blank of 10.8 ± 4.6 ppbv. This offset is determined for each extraction vessel separately and is subtracted from each measurement on natural ice. The precision of the measurements on natural ice is determined by reproducibility measurements of natural ice samples at 22 NGRIP depths. In each of the 22 depths, we measured a series of 5 adjacent samples randomly distributed over the different extraction vessels and duration of the measurement series. The standard deviation of the residuals of the 107 reproducibility samples is 5.9 ppbv. Note that 3 measurements have been excluded due to badly sealed vessels. The measured concentrations are not corrected for the ~ 4 ppbv depletion due to gravitational fractionation in the firn column of an ice sheet, in line with previously published work (e.g. Baumgartner et al., 2012; Schilt et al., 2010a, b; Spahni et al., 2005; Huber et al., 2006). 163 new measurements of the NGRIP core were performed at Laboratoire de Glaciologie et Géophysique de l'Environnement (LGGE) in Grenoble, in parallel to 103 measurements on the Vostok core covering the same time period (Bender et al., 2006). The same technique as in Bern was used but with a standard gas including 499 ppbv of CH₄ (Chappellaz et al., 1997). The standard deviation of the residuals calculated on NGRIP (Vostok) duplicates or triplicates is 2.6 ppbv (4.3 ppbv), respectively.

To check for offsets against previously published NGRIP sections (Capron et al., 2010b, 2012; Schilt et al., 2010b; Huber et al., 2006; Flückiger et al., 2004) an extensive set of remeasurements has been performed together with the new measurements. We subtract the previously measured concentrations, which are obtained by interpolation

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to the depth of the remeasurements, from the concentration of the remeasurements (summary in Table 1). 41 remeasurements are 2.9 ± 1.9 ppbv (mean of the residuals and standard error of the mean) higher compared to measurements performed in 2004. The values published by Huber et al. (2006) are thus consistent with the new data on the 2σ level. 43 remeasurements reveal an offset of 14.5 ± 1.4 ppbv compared to measurements performed in 2002 (Flückiger et al., 2004) and 31 remeasurements show an offset of 8.4 ± 2.9 ppbv compared to another series of measurements in 2002 (Schilt et al., 2010b). Further, intercomparison of 188 measurements with the CH₄ lab from LGGE Grenoble (Capron et al., 2010b, 2012) yield a current offset of 12.2 ± 1.2 ppby, which suggests an increase in the Bern-Grenoble correction compared to the last determined value of 6 ppbv (Spahni et al., 2005). The 163 measurements from 2001-2002 by LGGE published in this study are 26.5 ± 1.0 ppbv lower compared to the new measurements from Bern over the same section. Based on this remeasurement statistics, we assume a consistent level of Bern concentrations since the year 2004. NGRIP concentrations measured before 2004 (Flückiger et al., 2004; Schilt et al., 2010b) and concentrations from LGGE Grenoble (Capron et al., 2010b, 2012 and new data) are increased by the specified values to bring all NGRIP concentrations on a common

3 Results

scale.

Figure 1 presents 1094 new CH_4 measurements along the NGRIP ice core. The new measurements cover the time intervals of the DO events 5–8, the DO events 13–14, and the DO events 18–25. Together with the previously published 1008 values (Baumgartner et al., 2012; Capron et al., 2010b, 2012; Schilt et al., 2010b; Huber et al., 2006; Flückiger et al., 2004) this completes the NGRIP record from Termination 1 back to the end of the last interglacial period (Marine Isotope Stage – MIS – 5.5, also called the Eemian). The mean time resolution of the record is 54 yr, which is in the same order as

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the width of the gas age distribution of enclosed air in the NGRIP ice core as calculated after Schwander et al. (1993) and Spahni et al. (2003).

The new dataset provides the most detailed profile obtained by discrete measurements of the evolution of the CH_4 concentration during the last glacial cycle, and can be compared with continuous CH_4 measurements performed on the North Greenland Eemian Ice Drilling (NEEM) ice core (Chappellaz et al., 2013). It shows that the northern concentrations of CH_4 varied in the range between 360 and 780 ppbv during the last glacial cycle (Fig. 2). Apart from the early Holocene and the end of the Eemian, typical interglacial concentrations of more than 640 ppbv are only reached during the DO events 17, 21, 23, and 24, which occur relatively early during the glaciation and also during the Bølling Allerød (BA) period. Similarly, concentrations of lower than 420 ppbv are only reached at the end of the last glacial, in the time period between 30–17 kyrBP around the last glacial maximum (LGM). Before that, the Greenland CH_4 concentration never falls below a relatively stable threshold of 420 ppbv. In fact, 68 % of all the measurements are found in between 460 and 620 ppbv, i.e. within a range of 160 ppbv, with the most frequent concentration to be around 500 ppbv (Fig. 2).

3.1 Methane and NGRIP temperature

The CH_4 concentration shows pronounced variations along with Greenland temperature over the last glacial cycle. Here we use the NGRIP temperature (red curve in Fig. 1) as calculated by Kindler et al. (2013), who applied the firn densification and heat diffusion model from Schwander et al. (1997). In brief, the model input parameters, which are the accumulation rate and the temperature based on $\delta^{18}O$ data, were modified until the measured $\delta^{15}N$ could be reproduced by the model. For more details on the calculation of the temperature record we refer to Kindler et al. (2013).

Figure 1 shows that almost every fast temperature variation has a counterpart in the CH_4 concentration. One exception is found in the temperature peak between the DO events 14 and 15, where no CH_4 variation is found, which is attributed to insufficient data resolution (Huber et al., 2006). Indeed a small CH_4 peak associated with

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Interestingly, during some time periods of slow variations in NGRIP temperature and CH₄ concentration, a decoupling between these two quantities can be observed. During some interstadial periods, e.g. the BA period, temperature shows a decreasing trend over several thousand years, while the CH₄ concentration stays at a rather stable level (Fig. 1). A similar pattern is visible during DO events 7 and 22 and during the first part of DO event 8. Decoupling is also visible during certain stadial periods. In the two thousand years before the onset of the BA period, the slow increase in the CH₄ concentration occurs at a stable NGRIP temperature level. In contrast, the slow early CH₄ increases before the DO events 8 and 12 are positively correlated with the temperature increases. So while a general synchrony between CH₄ and NGRIP temperature exists, a one-to-one coupling cannot be expected as the temperature record is representative for local temperature changes in Greenland, while CH₄ sources respond to climate changes in boreal and tropical regions.

3.2 Amplitudes of CH₄ and temperature

The unambiguous attribution of each fast temperature increase to a fast CH_4 increase allows us to compare the magnitudes of the increases. Here, we define the effective CH_4 -to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity μ for the fast increases of the DO events as:

$$\mu = \frac{\Delta \text{CH}_4}{\Delta T},\tag{1}$$

where ΔCH_4 and ΔT are the amplitudes of the fast CH_4 and temperature increases (Fig. 3), respectively. Note that this reflects a covariance of CH_4 concentration to temperature amplitudes at the NGRIP site and should not be mixed up with a local temperature.

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perature sensitivity of CH_4 emissions to the temperature in the wetland source areas. The parameter μ may significantly underestimate the increase in CH_4 emissions as a response to a one degree wetland source temperature warming, since NGRIP temperature amplitudes are influenced by polar amplification (Serreze and Barry, 2011). The underestimation might be particularly strong when the CH_4 sources are not located in high northern latitudes. Note further that other drivers than temperature, such as precipitation and net primary productivity, regulate the total wetland extent and might thus also determine the variations in μ (see Sect. 4.2). Our ice core derived values for μ represent valuable constraints for modelling simulations. Typically, bottom-up wetland CH_4 emission models first simulate a temperature and precipitation distribution over the Northern Hemisphere (e.g. Hopcroft et al., 2013), which allows a direct comparison or calibration of the Greenland temperature simulated in the model to NGRIP temperature increases (Kindler et al., 2013).

 ΔCH_4 and ΔT are calculated using splined approximations to the CH $_4$ data and the temperature reconstruction (Kindler et al., 2013) with cut-off periods of 100 yr. We define empirical thresholds of 0.5 ppbv decade $^{-1}$ and 0.05 °C decade $^{-1}$ in the first derivative of the splines as criteria for the start and end points of the fast increases for every onset of a DO event. The amplitude is then calculated in between these two points. Peaks associated with main events or between main events (see Fig. 1) are named as p16, p17, p18, p23, and p24 and are always preceding the main event with the indicated number. Note that due to problems in the definition of the spline, the start points of the increases in CH $_4$ were set manually for the DO events 19 and 21. The DO events 2 and 25 were excluded from the calculation due to problems in the attribution of the peaks. The results for ΔCH_4 , ΔT , and μ for all the other DO events are summarised in Table 2.

Figure 3 shows that the relation between ΔT and ΔCH_4 is not linear. Huber et al. (2006) report different sensitivity states for the DO events 9–12 compared to the DO events 15–17. Here we find the sensitivity to vary between ~ 5 and $\sim 18\,\mathrm{ppbv}^{\circ}C^{-1}$ for all the DO events throughout the last glacial period. The sensitivity of the transition

3.3 Timing of CH₄ and δ^{15} N

Methane and the stable water isotope records from Greenland revealed unambiguously that there is a close relationship between northern temperature and CH_4 at the onset of DO events. But what is the exact timing of the fast temperature and the CH_4 increases? Due to the age difference of the ice and the gas in a certain depth (Δ age), it is difficult to determine a lead or a lag based on a temperature proxy in the ice phase (water isotopes) and a direct atmospheric parameter stored in the air enclosures in the ice (CH_4). Here, we use the gas phase temperature proxy from stable nitrogen isotopes $\delta^{15}N$ to investigate the timing of the fast temperature and CH_4 increases (Severinghaus et al., 1998). This precludes any uncertainty associated with gas age/ice age differences.

For both, the δ^{15} N and the CH₄ record, we define the onset of a DO event by the two neighboring data points in between which the first significant increase is visible (see example for DO event 5 in Fig. 4). For both gas proxies, the start of the increase is assumed to be between the ages of the two selected time points ($t_{\text{CH}_4,\text{old}}$, $t_{\text{CH}_4,\text{young}}$ for CH₄, $t_{\delta^{15}\text{N},\text{old}}$, $t_{\delta^{15}\text{N},\text{young}}$ for δ^{15} N), with equal probabilities for all ages within this range. The range of possible lags of CH₄ compared to temperature is then constrained by the two age differences:

$$lag_{min} = t_{\delta^{15}N, young} - t_{CH_4, old},$$
 (2)

$$Iag_{\text{max}} = t_{\delta^{15}\text{N,old}} - t_{\text{CH}_4,\text{young}}.$$
 (3)

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The rate of increase between the selected points is always higher than 1.5 ppbv decade⁻¹ for CH₄ and 0.0018 permil decade⁻¹ for δ^{15} N. For CH₄, we consider as significant increase if the concentration difference Δc of the two selected data points is greater than 3σ (i.e. with σ equal to 5.9 ppbv such as deduced from our reproducibility test described in Sect. 2; the same criterion is applied for LGGE measurements over the DO events 18–20 and 23–25). In case of doubt $(2\sigma < \Delta c < 3\sigma)$, we involve a third data point, at the expense of a higher uncertainty range of the starting point. This was the case for the YD/PB and the DO events 4, 7, 10, 19, 23, and 24. For δ^{15} N we use a weaker criterion assuming significant increases if one data point is outside of the uncertainty range of the other data point, because the uncertainty is currently set to 0.02 % (Huber et al., 2006), which is a rather conservative estimate. Again, in case of doubt, a third data point is taken into account. This was the case for YD/PB and the DO events 16, and 18. The DO events 2, 3, 22, and 25, as well as p23 and p24, are excluded from the calculations either due to problems in the attribution of the peaks (very low amplitude) or due to a noisy baseline before the event.

We find significant lags of the CH₄ increases compared to temperature increases for the DO events 5, 9, 10, 11, 13, 15, 19, 20, and p18 (see red curve in Fig. 5 for a cumulative probability density function – pdf). For the remaining events, namely for the YD/PB, the BA, and the DO events 4, 6, 7, 8, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18, 21, 23, 24, as well as the peaks p16 and p17, a zero lag is within the equally distributed range of estimated lags (see black curve in Fig. 5). The results are summarised in Table 3. Note that the symmetric shape of the pdf for the phase relationship for all DO events comes about by our conservative lead/lag estimate. In particular we assume that the true onset of the temperature and CH₄ increase lies anywhere between the two samples defining the respective onsets. If we instead just count the DO events for which the last CH₄ sample with stadial concentration precedes the last sample with stadial temperature in δ^{15} N, then this takes place in 4 out of all 25 cases. Accordingly, a lag of CH₄ relative to temperature is more likely than vice versa. We can not exclude a small lead of the CH₄ increase for most of the DO events, but there exists a clear tendency to lags, with

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a mean value of 56 ± 19 yr over all DO events (expected value and standard error of the mean from brown curve in Fig. 5).

Note that using $\delta^{15}N$ data to investigate the timing of Greenland temperature and CH_4 is not straightforward. First, there is a difference in the gas diffusion constants of 5 CH₄ and nitrogen in the firn column. Buizert et al. (2012) (Supplement) specify values for the relative diffusion constants for the NEEM site of 1.367 for CH₁ and 1.275 for nitrogen relative to the diffusion constant of carbon dioxide (CO₂). This implies that CH₄ diffuses 7 % faster than nitrogen, in agreement with Severinghaus et al. (1998). However, since the time of the gas to diffuse through the total firn column is only about 10 yr (Schwander et al., 1993), the difference in the diffusion constant will cause an offset in the order of only 1-3 yr at the very start of the DO event increase and is negligible compared to the uncertainty of the leads and lags we observe. Second, heat conduction in the firn column causes the thermal gradient between the surface and the close-off depth to vanish after a certain time, which is equivalent to the stabilisation of the $\delta^{15}N$ level at the amount of its gravitational component. However, the thermal conduction in the firn is about 10 times slower than the diffusion of gas. We thus assume that this effect has no influence on the shape of the $\delta^{15}N$ signal at the very start of the increase. Third, the $\delta^{15} N$ is influenced by the diffusive column height and thus by its gravitational enrichment. Apart from temperature, the diffusive column height is influenced by the accumulation rate of the site (Herron and Langway, 1980). A significant increase in the accumulation rate some hundreds of years before the increase in temperature would increase the diffusive column height and thus increase the gravitational part of $\delta^{15}N$ without any change in the temperature. However, on the example of DO event 8, Thomas et al. (2009) showed that the increase in accumulation rate occurs just 2 yr earlier with respect to temperature. Based on their results, we assume that the Greenland accumulation rate and temperature increase occur within a few years for all the DO events, which we consider a reasonable first order approximation.

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The 163 new NGRIP measurements from LGGE Grenoble have been analysed together with the samples from the Antarctic Vostok ice core (Bender et al., 2006) within the same measurement campaign and in the same laboratory and cover approximately the same time interval (80-60 kyr BP). This allows us to precisely estimate the interpolar concentration difference (IPD) of CH₄ within this time interval using the same approach as described by Baumgartner et al. (2012). Figure 6 shows that the fast increases of the DO events 18, 19, and 20 can be identified in both the NGRIP and the Vostok data, which defines tie points for CH₄ synchronisation. However, in between these sharp DO events, no further CH₄ tie points are found. We thus calculate the IPD as a mean over the time interval between two sharp DO event peaks, which yields 20.7 ± 3.0 ppbv $(4.6 \pm 0.7\%)$ between DO events 18 and 19 and 19.6 ± 3.7 ppbv $(4.4 \pm 0.8\%)$ between DO events 19 and 20, where the numbers in parenthesis are the respective values of the relative interpolar concentration difference (rIPD). Between DO events 17 and 18 the IPD appears to be lower 11.2 ± 5.8 ppbv (2.6 ± 1.4%) but has a relatively high uncertainty because the NGRIP data from LGGE cover half of the stadial only, which introduces a high synchronisation uncertainty of the first NGRIP data point to the Vostok record. Older than DO event 20, a rIPD reconstruction is not possible since the time resolution of the Vostok record over DO event 21 does not permit a precise synchronisation. Also, we do not estimate a peak interstadial rIPD during the very short lasting DO events 18, 19, and 20, since the attenuation of the atmospheric variation (Spahni et al., 2003) is much stronger in the Vostok ice core compared to the NGRIP ice core. If the NGRIP data are attenuated according to the conditions of the firn at the Vostok site (light blue line in Fig. 6 is the output from the firn model, Schwander et al., 1993; Spahni et al., 2003), the amplitudes of the three DO events are substantially reduced. Estimates of temperature and accumulation rate at the Vostok site between 80-60 kyr BP, which are important parameters in the firn model regarding the gas enclosure process, are taken from Petit et al. (1999) and Siegert (2003). Note

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that by taking mean IPD values over rather long periods, potential short periods of very low rIPD around 64, 70, and 74 kyr BP might be overlooked. However, two of those appear to have higher IPD values after taking the attenuation into account, while the third example around 70 kyr BP would need additional information on synchronisation to make more detailed statements.

Discussion

The discussion focuses on the implication of our results on the evolution of the wetland CH₄ sources over the last glacial cycle. The new NGRIP CH₄ record is compared to CH₄ records from Antarctica in Sect. 4.1 and the variations in the CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity μ are discussed in Sect. 4.2. Section 4.3 suggests a potential influence of the atmospheric CO_2 concentration on the wetland CH_4 sources and finally, Sect. 4.4 discusses the timing of CH₄ and NGRIP temperature.

Information from the interpolar difference

The CH₄ concentrations reconstructed from Greenland and Antarctica are different by some percent, which yields valuable information on the latitudinal distribution of the CH₄ sources (Fig. 7b). Baumgartner et al. (2012) found a relatively stable positive rIPD of about 3-7% around the LGM (32-11 kyrBP, in green) and revised the zero rIPD estimate from Dällenbach et al. (2000) during the LGM. The rIPD results between 80-60 kyr BP (in green) from the NGRIP and Vostok ice cores presented in this study (Sect. 3.4) show relatively small rIPD in the same order as the values in the stadials before and after DO event 2 from Baumgartner et al. (2012). For the DO events 3-12, Dällenbach et al. (2000) suggested a relative increase of the northern source compared to the southern source from stadial to interstadial based on the rIPD. Here, we merge the existing ice core CH₄ data from EPICA Dronning Maud Land (EDML) (Baumgartner et al., 2012; Capron et al., 2010b; EPICA Community Members, 2006;

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Schilt et al., 2010b) and Talos Dome Ice Core (TALDICE) (Buiron et al., 2011; Stenni et al., 2011; Schilt et al., 2010b) (red curve in Fig. 7a) and look at the rIPD based on this combined Antarctic record and our new NGRIP record from Greenland (blue curve in Fig. 7a). Very short events, whose amplitudes could have been affected differ-5 ently by attenuation processes in the different firns (Spahni et al., 2003; Baumgartner et al., 2012), are excluded. In the mean over all DO events, we confirm the statement from Dällenbach et al. (2000) and support a northward shift of the CH₄ sources during the transition from stadial (blue) to interstadial (red) conditions. However, the rIPD as calculated from NGRIP. EDML and TALDICE does not show a continuous reduction over the last glacial cycle as might be expected from the growth of the ice sheets and the associated suppression of the boreal source strength. Note that we refrain from making more detailed statements due to the offsets between the different NGRIP sections (see Sect. 2) and also due to offsets between measurements of Bern and LGGE in the EDML and the TALDICE records. The published records from EDML and TALDICE have been corrected for the 6 ppbv offset between Bern and LGGE (Spahni et al., 2005), however, comparison of all available data reveals remaining mean offsets of another 6.2 ± 1.2 ppbv for TALDICE, and 6.4 ± 1.0 ppbv for EDML for ages younger than 50 kyr BP and 11.9 ± 0.8 ppbv for ages older than 50 kyr BP. We applied these additional offset corrections to bring all values on the Bern reference scale and note that, apart from EDML for ages older than 50 kyr BP, the total offset corrections are well in line with the 12.7 ± 1.1 ppbv offset derived from recently measured NGRIP data at Bern and LGGE over the DO events 23-25 (see Sect. 2). We underline the necessity of analysing in the future both Greenland and Antarctic ice core samples over one single measurement campaign to enable focusing on the rIPD as recently performed by Baumgartner et al. (2012) and in this study over the DO events 18–20 (Sect. 3.4).

Variations in the CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity

The CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity μ (Fig. 7c) shows covariation to northern low-latitude summer insolation (Fig. 7d) implying a non-linear response of the increases

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in CH₄ emissions to temperature increases recorded at the NGRIP site at the onset of DO events. The precessional component visible in μ mainly comes from the CH₄ DO event amplitudes (Fig. 7a), which correlate to tropical or northern mid-latitude summer insolation (Flückiger et al., 2004; Brook et al., 1996). The magnitude of the temperature increases at the NGRIP site itself are not influenced by orbital parameters. Given the local climate dominance on Greenland temperature changes, it is surprising that the connection to northern low-latitude summer insolation is sustained after the inclusion of the NGRIP temperature amplitudes by calculating μ . If we would just randomly choose the NGRIP temperature increase in the range between 8-15°C (Fig. 3) for each DO event, the connection of μ and northern low-latitude summer insolation would be lost. This may imply that, from one DO event to the other, the relative change in NGRIP temperature amplitude is also representative for the relative temperature change in major parts of the Northern Hemisphere wetland area.

The range of μ (5.0–25.5 ppbv °C⁻¹) obtained from our data compares well to a sensitivity experiment from a wetland CH₄ emission model simulation (6.3–24.1 ppbv °C⁻¹) by Hopcroft et al. (2011), who applied different idealised climate states. Hopcroft et al. (2013) performed a similar experiment for the BA, p17, and the DO events 8 and 11, resulting in sensitivities of 12.2, 11.5, 9.6, and 8.5 ppbv °C⁻¹, respectively. The deviation to our μ values for the specified events is +29, -10, +57, and -41 %, respectively. Hopcroft et al. (2011, 2013) notice that their model generally underestimates the total CH_4 amplitudes, however, it also underestimates the Greenland temperature variations calculated from a fresh-water hosing experiment. The largest deviations are found for the DO event 11 and p17, which occur around extreme northern summer insolation states (Fig. 7d). In comparison, the deviations during the DO event 8 and the BA, which occur during moderate northern summer insolation states, are smaller. Although the different insolation states are taken into account by Hopcroft et al. (2013), it is possible that the influence of northern summer insolation has to be refined in the model.

Based on the connection of CH₄ amplitudes with low-latitude northern summer insolation, Flückiger et al. (2004) concluded that the seasonal distribution of insolation is

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crucial for wetland CH₄ emission strength at the onset of DO events. The precessional influence is also visible in cave speleothem δ^{18} O records (Fig. 7g), a proxy for monsoon strength in northern mid-latitudes (Wang et al., 2001, 2008). Apparently, the rapid Greenland DO event temperature variations have counterparts in mid-latitude precipitation records, which implies a far-field influence of extratropical warming on these important CH₄ wetland regions (Chiang and Friedman, 2012). The fast increases in precipitation are in connection with latitudinal shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and the monsoon systems (Chiang, 2009; Broccoli et al., 2006; Bozbiyik et al., 2011), which moves the necessary amount of moisture from the southern to the CH_a-source rich northern mid-latitudes. Variations in the monsoon strength could drive the non-linear variations in μ via total wetland area and length of emission seasons.

Temperature changes at the onset of DO events reconstructed from NGRIP (Kindler et al., 2013) and used for the calculation of μ reflect changes in mean annual temperatures from stadial to interstadial conditions. In contrast, most important for wetland CH₄ productivity is the averaged temperature at the wetland source location during the warmest months of the year. The amplitude of the seasonal temperature variation, i.e. maximum annual temperature minus mean annual temperature, depends on the amplitude of the seasonal variation in insolation at a given latitude. While the stadial CH₄ baseline does not appear to be strongly modulated by insolation, it is the evolution of the peak interstadial concentration baseline which leads to the covariance of the CH₄ amplitudes and northern summer insolation (Flückiger et al., 2004). Thus the non-linear variations in μ could also be introduced by variations in the difference of maximum annual temperature minus mean annual temperature at mid-latitude wetland source locations during interstadial periods. Note that the peak of μ between 30– 40 kyrBP appears to lead the June-July-August (JJA) northern summer insolation by about 5 kyr, while it is in phase with April-May-June (AMJ) northern spring insolation (dashed line in Fig. 7d). This could reflect the contribution of different emission regions in the Northern and Southern Hemisphere, which correlate to different seasonal insolations at their latitudes (Singarayer et al., 2011, Supplement).

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The transition YD/PB during Termination 1 shows an unusually high CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity and belongs, together with the DO events 21, 24, and p17, to the four events with the highest CH₄ amplitudes (Fig. 3). The four events have in common that they are preceded by the four strongest increases visible in the sea level record during the last glacial (Fig. 7h, Rohling et al., 2009; Grant et al., 2012). A strong increase in sea level in a rather short time interval will cause inundation of coastal areas, which were potentially covered by vegetation before. Due to the flooding, the vegetation will die and provide organic material for CH₄ production, leading to the establishment of coastal wetlands. We thus hypothesise that for the YD/PB transition, the DO events 21, 24, and p17, the preceding sea level rise contributed to the very strong CH_4 amplitudes and relatively high μ values within their respective sensitivity state. On longer timescales, however, a higher sea level could also reduce CH₄ emissions since it reduces the total land area (Peltier, 2004). Further, saltier water might mitigate CH₄ emissions through sulfate-reducing bacteria competing with methanogenic archaea (Pester et al., 2012).

From 120 to 20 kyr BP we observe an overall decrease in the maxima and minima of μ , indicated by the dashed regression lines in Fig. 7c. Looking at the insolation curve it is notable that the local maxima in northern summer insolation decrease in parallel to the maxima in μ . Following the argument above, the decrease of the maxima in μ could be a consequence of decreasing wetland extent and/or decreasing summer temperature relative to mean annual temperature at the northern low latitude CH₄ source regions. On the other hand, the local minima in northern summer insolation tend to increase during the glacial, which is not strictly in line with the minima of μ . However, the minimum of μ around 75 kyr BP appears to be lower than the minimum around 45 kyr BP. Southward expansion of the permafrost regions, which would suppress parts of the boreal CH₄ sources, is another reason to expect a decrease in the sensitivity over the last glacial. However, this scenario seems to be inconsistent with our rIPD reconstruction (Fig. 7b), which does not show a continuous reduction over the last glacial as would be expected from a reduced boreal source strength. Another pos**CPD**

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sible candidate which could have a slowly changing influence along with glaciation is the decreasing CO_2 concentration (Fig. 7f, Bereiter et al., 2012; Lüthi et al., 2010; Ahn and Brook, 2007, 2008; Monnin et al., 2001), which is discussed in the next paragraph. In principle, other CH_4 sources than wetlands such as biomass burning could also be responsible for the slow decrease in μ during glaciation, although biomass burning accounts for a rather small fraction of the CH_4 emissions today (Spahni et al., 2011) and biomass burning reductions were not necessarily connected to glacial conditions for all ecosystems (Daniau et al., 2013). Moreover, latest $\delta^{13}CH_4$ measurements over the last glacial cycle show an overall decoupling of CH_4 concentrations and its carbon isotopic signature (Möller et al., 2013) that would be at odds with a major influence of (isotopically heavy) biomass burning emissions on the global CH_4 budget.

4.3 Coupling of CH₄ and CO₂ concentrations

The strength of net primary productivity (NPP) is of central importance for wetland CH_4 emissions, since CH_4 is produced only if organic material is available (Bridgham et al., 2013). Due to the influence of the atmospheric CO_2 concentration on NPP, various bottom-up modelling studies underline the importance of the CO_2 concentration on the CH_4 emission flux. Singarayer et al. (2011) attribute one third of the glacial-interglacial change in the CH_4 concentration to CO_2 effects, either by fertilisation effects or by CO_2 inferred climate change. Melton et al. (2013) also highlight that a high CO_2 concentration facilitates stomatal closure of plants, which reduces the water loss by plants and thus increases the wetland extent. In the most sensitive model, they find a 160 % increase in CH_4 emission flux relative to modern as a result from a stepwise CO_2 increase from 300 to 857 ppmv. Using their modern model CH_4 flux of 264 $Tg CH_4$ yr⁻¹ (1 $Tg = 10^{12} g$) the 160 % increase translates to 428 $Tg CH_4$ yr⁻¹, which is equal to an increase in the CH_4 flux of 0.8 $Tg CH_4$ yr⁻¹ per ppmv of CO_2 . Using a conversion factor from mass to concentration of 2.91 $Tg CH_4$ ppbv⁻¹ (Steele et al., 1992) and solving the steady state mass balance equation with a mean atmospheric lifetime for CH_4 of 8.7 yr

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(Denman et al., 2007) leads to a sensitivity of 2.3 ppbv $\mathrm{CH_4}$ (ppmv $\mathrm{CO_2}$)⁻¹. Accordingly, a maximum effect of 156 ppbv would be expected for the $\mathrm{CO_2}$ decrease from the early glacial (260 ppmv) to the late glacial (200 ppmv) (see Fig. 7f).

Figure 8 shows a comparison of the CH₄ concentration from NGRIP and the CO₂ 5 concentration from various ice cores (Bereiter et al., 2012; Lüthi et al., 2010; Ahn and Brook, 2007, 2008; Monnin et al., 2001) during stadial and interstadial periods. When plotting CH₄ against CO₂ it must be kept in mind that the fast increases in CH₄ concentrations are clearly not driven by the CO₂ concentration. The focus here lies on comparing mean stadial and interstadial levels of CH₄ and CO₂. We attribute to each stadial and interstadial NGRIP CH₄ value a CO₂ concentration, which is calculated by interpolation of the composite CO₂ record to the age of the CH₄ data point. The data points are grouped according to ages younger or older than 70 kyrBP, which corresponds to the age of the MIS5-4 transition observed in the CO₂ data (Fig. 7f). There exists a relatively good correlation for ages younger than 70 kyr BP, especially for interstadial concentrations. We find a sensitivity of 4.3 ppbv CH₄ (ppmv CO₂)⁻¹ for interstadial and 2.3 ppbv CH₄ (ppmv CO₂)⁻¹ for stadial conditions, which is higher than the minimum and maximum slopes from the different models for modern conditions (Melton et al., 2013) indicated with the purple dashed lines in Fig. 8. Note that the sensitivity to CO₂ changes also depends on the absolute level of CO₂. Vegetation and CH₄ production fertilization by CO₂ is today (~ 400 ppmv of CO₂) most certainly closer to saturation than during the last glacial period (~ 200 ppmv of CO₂). From Fig. 8 it becomes clear that although the CO₂ concentration is not the driver of the fast CH₄ increases, it still could be a limiting factor for the amplitudes of these increases. In this view, CO2 could be seen as a reason for the slowly decreasing μ values by suppression of the CH₄ source strength during the last glacial described in Sect. 4.2.

The parallel evolutions of CH_4 and CO_2 concentrations can also be illustrated on the specific time periods before the DO events 8, 12, and, 17, which are preceded by a slow increase in the CH_4 concentration before the fast CH_4 increase (Fig. 9). At the same time a slow CO_2 increase is visible in line with the major Antarctic Isotope

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Maximum (AIM) events (Bereiter et al., 2012). Comparing the magnitude of these slow CH₄ and CO₂ increases reveals a sensitivity of 3–5 ppbv CH₄ (ppmv CO₂)⁻¹, which is in the same order as in Fig. 8. As mentioned in Sect. 3.1, the DO events 8 and 12 are also preceded by a slow northern temperature increase (see Fig. 1) of about 2–3 °C. Assuming a 50 ppbv increase in CH₄ over these periods (Fig. 9) implies a CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity of 17–25 ppbv °C⁻¹, which is relatively high compared to the μ values at the fast increases of DO events 8 and 12. Therefore, it seems unlikely that the magnitude of the slow CH₄ increases can be explained by temperature alone, which would support a direct influence of the increasing CO₂ concentration by increasing biomass production or by increasing wetland extent. A further very promi-

nent example of coinciding slow CH_4 and CO_2 increases is found before the onset of the BA period. In contrast to the DO events 8 and 12, the early increase is not visible in NGRIP temperature (Fig. 1). The 120 ppbv increase in CH_4 corresponds to 40 ppmv in CO_2 , which is 3 ppbv CH_4 (ppmv CO_2)⁻¹ and thus about the same as in Fig. 9 for the DO events 8, 12, and 17. Similarly, the gradual decreases of CH_4 in the interstadials 12, 14, and in the DO event group 15–17 are accompanied by decreasing CO_2 concentrations. The similar magnitudes for the different intervals strongly suggests an influence of the CO_2 concentration on the stadial/interstadial CH_4 concentration baseline during

MIS3–2. Earlier than MIS3, the connection seems to be less apparent. Especially in the transition from MIS5 to MIS4, where a pronounced decrease is visible in CO₂, no corresponding response in the CH₄ concentration is found. This may either imply that

the effect is overcompensated by other processes (e.g. Sunda Shelf exposure due to drop in sea level) or that the CH_4 production was limited by other factors than CO_2

4.4 Timing of CH₄ and NGRIP temperature

during MIS5.

Figure 7e shows the timing of the fast NGRIP temperature and CH₄ increases for all considered DO events, with the events showing a significant lag displayed in red. Our

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reconstruction for DO event 21 is consistent with Vallelonga et al. (2012), who also used the gas phase temperature proxy $\delta^{15} N$ to compare with high-resolution CH_4 data on NGRIP ice and estimate a maximum lag for this event of 69 ± 5 yr with a most probable lag of only a few decades. The processes which could lead to a lag of the CH₄ increases compared to NGRIP temperature increases at the onset of DO events are not well understood. One can think of two extreme CH₄ source evolution scenarios leading to a lag of CH₄. In the first case, where the stadial CH₄ sources are maintained after the start of Greenland warming, all the important additional CH₄ sources causing the stadial-interstadial concentration increase must be delayed by at least the time of the corresponding lag. Otherwise, if there were any important additional sources showing an immediate response to Greenland warming, we would expect the CH₄ concentration to achieve at least parts of its DO event increase instantenously. In the second case a breakdown of parts of the stadial CH₄ sources immediately after the Greenland warming leads to the reduction in emissions compensated by the immediate response of the new sources. Due to the short atmospheric lifetime of CH₄, this process of source compensation could potentially pretend a lag of the CH₄ response to northern warming. In the following we will discuss why we think the second scenario is more likely.

Modelling studies suggest an immediate increase in Northern Hemisphere temperature as a reaction to high-latitude northern warming (e.g. Menviel et al., 2011; Renold et al., 2010). Accordingly, an immediate response of the existing CH₄ wetland source regions would be expected in agreement with the majority of the DO events (Fig. 7e. black). Also an immediate response of boreal wetland CH₄ sources to a rapid cooling is supported in a North Atlantic freshwater hosing experiment by a dynamic vegetation model study (Zürcher et al., 2013). A recent global CH₄ wetland emission model study simulates slightly different temporal evolutions of tropical compared to boreal wetland CH₄ source responses to a DO event warming (Ringeval et al., 2013), but the global increase starts when the first source increases, which is at the same time as the Greenland temperature increase in the same model run (Hopcroft et al., 2011).

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On the other hand, the concept of latitudinal shifts in the position of the ITCZ at stadial-interstadial transitions (e.g. Bozbiyik et al., 2011; Chiang, 2009; Chiang and Friedman, 2012; Chiang et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2004), which is visible in the speleothem records (Fig. 7g, Wang et al., 2001, 2008), supports a replacement of the stadial by new interstadial CH₄ source regions by displacing the precipitation belts important for the existence of wetlands. Although a comparison of the timing of Greenland temperature and change in tropical moisture is not possible due to relative dating uncertainties between ice core and speleothem records, deuterium excess measurements along the NGRIP ice core for the BA and YD/PB show rapid shifts within a few years, pointing to very fast reorganisation of the atmospheric circulation (Steffensen et al., 2008). In agreement, modelling studies suggest an immediate increase in tropical precipitation as a reaction to high-latitude northern warming (Menviel et al., 2011; Renold et al., 2010), which implies that the lag in the CH₄ increase is probably not due to the time needed to rearrange the global precipitation pattern. A northward shift of the CH₄ sources is also supported by our rIPD reconstruction (Fig. 7b) for most of the DO events. Based on the rIPD a particularly strong northward shift is expected for the DO events 10-11, which are two of those events showing a significant lag compared to NGRIP temperature. The two-box model from Baumgartner et al. (2012) indeed predicts a ~ 50% decrease in the southern hemispheric source strength from stadial to interstadial for such a rIPD configuration, which requires compensation by new source regions before the fast DO event increase of the CH₄ concentrations can start. Looking at CH₄ increase rates, Chappellaz et al. (2013) find maximum increase rates for DO events during the last glacial of 0.6–2.5 ppbv yr⁻¹ based on CH₄ measurements from continuous flow analysis along the NEEM ice core. In line with the theory of source compensation, the events showing a significant lag belong to the group of smaller increase rates. It is further apparent that, with the exception of DO event 15, the CH₄ amplitudes of the events showing a lag are relatively small, which means that the orbital configuration was favorable for southern hemispheric emissions before the onset of the DO event (Flückiger et al., 2004). Loosing the southern emissions due to north-

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ern warming by drastic source replacement could contribute to the very low amplitudes. A drastic replacement of stadial CH₄ sources could further explain a lag of CH₄ by the time needed to transform existing vegetation to wetlands at the new source locations and also to thaw permafrost at high boreal regions. In this context one might argue that 5 a high lag of CH₄ compared to Greenland temperature implies a more drastic latitudinal dislocation of the CH₄ source regions and unfavorable conditions for CH₄ emissions in the Southern Hemisphere.

Comparison of the CH₄/temperature lags with CO₂ data (Fig. 7f, Bereiter et al., 2012) reveals that lags in the CH₄ concentration tend to appear with DO events occurring at relatively low CO₂ concentrations. Note that the variations in CO₂ are closely linked to Antarctic temperature (Bereiter et al., 2012), implying high concentration of CO₂ at the approximate time of the major AIM events (also called A events). The DO events 5, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 15, which show significant lags in the CH₄ increase compared to northern temperature all occur in between major AIM events (CO₂ minima). Conversely, YD/PB, the BA, and the DO events 8, 12, 14, 16, 17, 21, 23, and 24, which occur around major AIM events (CO₂ maxima), tend to show smaller lags around zero in the CH_4 concentration compared to northern temperature. The temperature of the Southern Hemisphere could potentially influence the atmospheric circulation pattern by determining the degree of northward ITCZ shifts at the onset of DO events. Chiang and Friedman (2012) point out the influence of interhemispheric sea surface temperature gradients on tropical rainfall. Changes in AMOC strength related to millennial scale climate variability influence sea surface temperature gradients (Wang et al., 2004). Very cold Antarctic temperatures might shift the ITCZ to more northern latitudes, since the mean position of the ITCZ is biased to the warmer hemisphere (Chiang et al., 2003). A more drastic northward displacement of the CH₄ source for events showing a lag would be in line with the discussion before. A direct influence of the CO₂ concentration on the timing of the fast interstadial temperature and CH₄ increases seems unlikely, especially because the CO₂ concentration variations associated with major AIM events are relatively small (20-40 ppmv, Bereiter et al., 2012).

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We have presented new high resolution CH₄ measurements, which complete and extend the NGRIP record from Termination 1 back to the end of the last interglacial period. We related the amplitudes of the CH₄ increases at the onset of DO events to a temperature record measured along the same ice core (Kindler et al., 2013). The CH₄-to-NGRIP temperature sensitivity shows variations between 5–18 ppbv °C⁻¹ along with the precessional cycle likely due to variations in temperature or wetland extent at the northern low latitude source regions, and additional modulation of CH₄ source strength by atmospheric CO₂. Calculation of the timing of CH₄ and NGRIP temperature, where we used the $\delta^{15}N$ data of N_2 for temperature (Kindler et al., 2013; Huber et al., 2006; Landais et al., 2004, 2005; Capron et al., 2010a, b, 2012), revealed a tendency to lags of the CH_4 increases of about 56 \pm 19 yr on average. We hypothesise that the DO events showing a higher lag are characterised by stronger northward shifts of the source regions, in line with colder Southern Hemisphere temperature causing a stronger northward displacement of the ITCZ. Bottom-up emissions models, which incorporate the processes of ITCZ shifts and transformation from vegetation to wetland area, might be able to simulate the temporal evolution of CH₄ emissions at a DO event transition. We showed that the relative interpolar concentration difference of methane, which is a further important constraint for modelling studies, is 4.6 ± 0.7 % between the DO events 18 and 19 and 4.4±0.8% between the DO events 19 to 20, which compares well with the rIPD before and after DO event 2 (Baumgartner et al., 2012). With future bipolar measurements over the DO events 5-17, and the DO events 21-25, a reliable rIPD record will be available throughout the last glacial.

Supplementary material related to this article is available online at http://www.clim-past-discuss.net/9/4655/2013/cpd-9-4655-2013-supplement.zip.

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Table 1. Concentration offsets of new data measured in Bern during the years 2010-2012 compared to previously measured data along the NGRIP ice core.

Reference study	Climatic period	n #	Mean (ppbv)	Median (ppbv)	SD (ppbv)	SE (ppbv)	Year of analysis
Huber et al. (2006)	DO 15-17	41.0	2.9	2.4	12.2	1.9	2004
Schilt et al. (2010b)	T1	31.0	8.4	8.0	16.1	2.9	2002
Flückiger et al. (2004)	DO 9-12	43.0	14.5	15.7	9.3	1.4	2002
Capron et al. (2010b, 2012)	DO 23-25	188.0	12.2	13.0	16.5	1.2	2009-2012
new data LGGE	DO 18-20	153.0	26.5	26.4	12.4	1.0	2001–2002

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Table 2. Methane amplitude ΔCH_4 (ppbv), temperature amplitude ΔT (°C), and sensitivity (ppbv°C⁻¹) for the fast increases of DO events.

 ΔT (°C)

(ppbv°C⁻¹)

DO

 ΔCH_4

(ppbv)

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0	260.2	10.2	25.5
1	118.2	12.5	9.4
3	63.8	12.6	5.0
4	91.3	12.3	7.4
5	91.6	12.3	7.5
6	100.4	9.3	10.8
7	155.8	11.2	13.9
8	128.7	10.1	12.8
9	75.9	6.3	12.1
10	95.7	13.5	7.1
11	85.9	14.1	6.1
12	87.4	12.6	6.9
13	63.8	8.3	7.6
14	145.9	12.5	11.6
15	148.1	9.7	15.3
16	92.0	6.6	14.0
p16	116.0	10.0	11.6
17	144.0	10.4	13.8
p17	182.7	12.7	14.4
18	113.5	10.1	11.2
p18	44.8	8.3	5.4
19	69.8	13.9	5.0
20	97.4	12.2	8.0
21	222.1	13.5	16.5
22	50.9	5.3	9.6
23	99.3	9.8	10.1
p23	126.6	7.0	18.1
24	177.0	15.0	11.8
p24	41.6	4.8	8.6

Table 3. Depth interval $[d_{young}, d_{old}]$, time interval $[t_{young}, t_{old}]$, and lag interval $[lag_{min}, lag_{max}]$ calculated from Eqs. (2) and (3) at the begin of the fast increases in CH₄ and δ^{15} N at the onset of DO events.

DO	d _{CH₄,young} (m)	d _{CH₄,old} (m)	$d_{\delta^{15} \mathrm{N,young}} \ \mathrm{(m)}$	$d_{\delta^{15} \mathrm{N,old}} \ \mathrm{(m)}$	t _{CH₄,young} (yr)	t _{CH₄,old} (yr)	$t_{\delta^{15} \mathrm{N,young}} \ \mathrm{(yr)}$	$t_{\delta^{15}\mathrm{N,old}}$ (yr)	lag _{min} (yr)	lag _{max} (yr)
0	1518.0	1519.7	1517.5	1519.8	11533.2	11 585.7	11519.4	11 589.9	-66	57
1	1631.3	1633.0	1631.4	1634.7	14 653.5	14711.3	14 657.7	14778.6	-54	125
4	1912.9	1914.6	1913.6	1915.0	28 572.5	28 682.7	28 611.9	28714.2	-71	142
5	1974.0	1975.1	1975.5	1976.3	32 309.8	32 422.7	32 465.5	32 555.9	43	246
6	1996.0	1997.1	1995.0	1996.1	33 642.3	33 721.5	33 581.9	33 649.1	-140	7
7	2029.0	2031.2	2029.3	2030.1	35 387.3	35 525.1	35 402.6	35 450.7	-122	63
8	2088.0	2088.4	2087.7	2089.8	38 400.8	38 424.4	38 383.6	38 509.3	-41	109
9	2117.5	2119.2	2119.6	2120.5	40 435.8	40 560.9	40 592.8	40 669.1	32	233
10	2140.6	2142.3	2142.7	2144.6	41 748.9	41 875.3	41 908.1	42 083.5	33	335
11	2173.0	2174.2	2174.5	2176.6	43 654.0	43 730.5	43 754.5	43 972.1	24	318
12	2236.4	2236.9	2236.6	2237.1	47 459.5	47 496.5	47 476.5	47512.0	-20	52
13	2269.3	2270.4	2270.7	2271.7	49 792.5	49 873.4	49 899.5	49 980.0	26	188
14	2357.9	2358.9	2357.1	2358.2	55 144.4	55 245.3	55 077.7	55 173.2	-168	29
15	2377.7	2378.8	2379.1	2380.2	56 591.9	56 685.3	56 717.0	56 821.2	32	229
16	2410.1	2410.7	2409.9	2411.9	58 815.0	58 859.6	58 802.5	58 943.4	-57	128
p16	2413.4	2414.0	2413.2	2414.2	59 051.2	59 110.1	59 037.0	59 130.2	-73	79
17	2425.5	2426.1	2425.3	2426.3	59 869.5	59910.4	59 856.6	59 922.5	-54	53
p17	2431.6	2432.7	2431.9	2432.8	60 203.2	60 294.1	60 228.4	60 309.2	-66	106
18	2474.4	2476.1	2474.0	2477.3	64772.1	64 963.6	64743.7	65 128.2	-220	356
p18	2515.1	2515.7	2515.8	2516.2	70 277.4	70 356.6	70 368.7	70 442.0	12	165
19	2542.3	2543.7	2543.7	2545.5	72 897.3	73 003.7	73 008.1	73 298.3	4	401
20	2586.1	2586.6	2586.6	2587.3	77 121.8	77 167.1	77 170.9	77 259.6	4	138
21	2692.3	2693.4	2693.3	2693.9	85 365.7	85 429.7	85 428.0	85 468.1	-2	102
23	2896.0	2897.2	2896.9	2897.4	104 696.8	104 820.2	104 783.7	104 849.2	-36	152
24	2945.2	2946.1	2945.3	2945.8	109 121.3	109 245.8	109 130.8	109 209.7	-115	88

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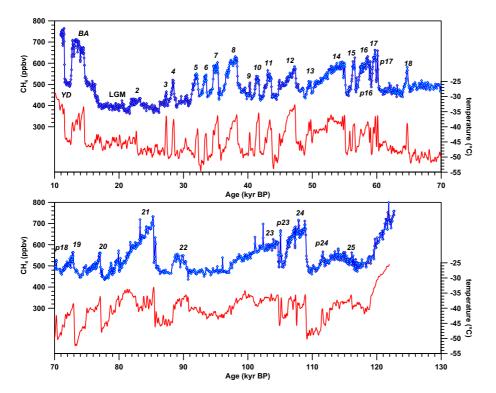


Fig. 1. NGRIP methane and temperature from Termination 1 back to the end of the last interglacial period. Methane concentrations in grey (Baumgartner et al., 2012; Capron et al., 2010b, 2012; Schilt et al., 2010b; Huber et al., 2006; Flückiger et al., 2004) and blue (new data), temperature in red (Kindler et al., 2013). δ^{18} O derived temperature was calibrated by NGRIP δ^{15} N data (Kindler et al., 2013; Huber et al., 2006; Landais et al., 2004, 2005; Capron et al., 2010a, b, 2012). The records are shown on the gas age scale calculated by Kindler et al. (2013) based on the ss09sea06bm ice age scale (NGRIP Project Members, 2004; Andersen et al., 2006; Johnsen et al., 2001). Numbers of DO events are displayed in italics.

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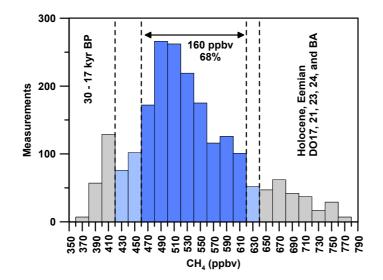


Fig. 2. Histogram of NGRIP methane measurements over the last glacial cycle (120–10 kyr BP). 68 % of all measurements (dark blue) have a concentration between 460 and 620 ppbv with the most frequent concentration to be found around 500 ppbv. Concentrations below 420 ppbv are only found in the time interval between 30-17 kyr BP around the LGM. Excluding the Holocene and the end of the Eemian, concentrations higher than 640 ppby occur only in DO events 17, 21, 23, 24, and the BA.

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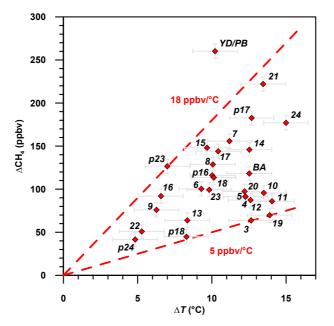


Fig. 3. Comparison of methane and NGRIP temperature amplitudes at the fast DO event increases. The calculations are done as described in Sect. 3.2. Names of DO events and other peaks are displayed in italics. Events with names starting with "p" always precede the main event with the indicated number. The red dashed lines show the enveloping minimum and maximum sensitivities observed for DO events during the last glacial.

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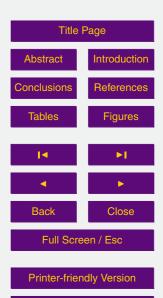


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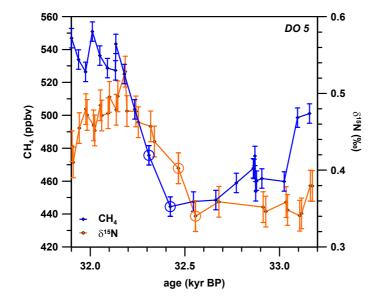


Fig. 4. Timing of CH₄ and δ^{15} N for DO event 5. CH₄ from NGRIP in blue, δ^{15} N (Kindler et al., 2013) in orange measured on the same ice core. The selected data points, where the first increase is visible, are indicated by open circles.

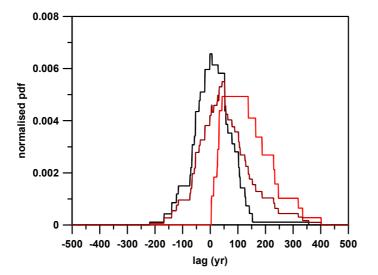


Fig. 5. Normalised probability density function (pdf) of lags between methane and NGRIP temperature for DO events showing a significant lag (red), for DO events showing no significant lag (black), and for all DO events together (brown).

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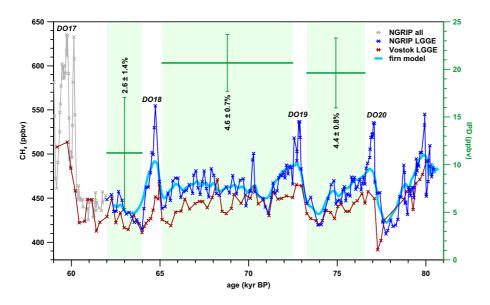
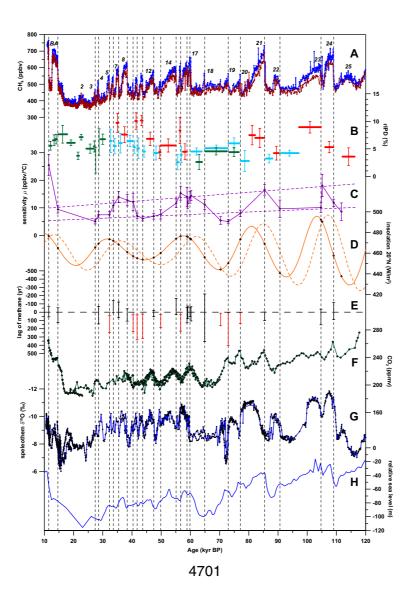


Fig. 6. Interpolar concentration difference of methane calculated in the stadial periods between 80-60 kyr BP. The samples from Greenland (new data from NGRIP in blue) and Vostok (red, Bender et al., 2006) have been measured during the same measurement series and in the same laboratory (LGGE Grenoble). The absolute interpolar concentration difference (IPD) is shown in green, the relative interpolar concentration difference (rIPD) is given in numbers. The methane data from NGRIP which are not from LGGE and shown in grey (new data and Huber et al., 2006) are shifted to the LGGE scale in this plot (see Sect. 2 for details to the offset corrections). The thick blue line represents the firn model output (Schwander et al., 1993; Spahni et al., 2003), where the NGRIP data have been attenuated to Vostok conditions.



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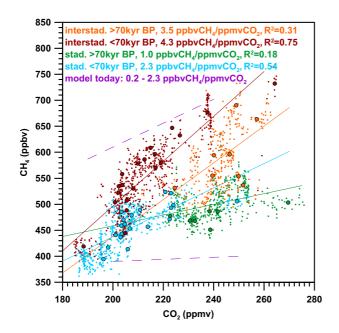


Fig. 8. Comparison of methane and carbon dioxide concentrations during stadial and interstadial periods of the last glacial. NGRIP CH₄ data points plotted against CO₂ concentration (interpolated from merged CO₂ record, Bereiter et al., 2012; Lüthi et al., 2010; Ahn and Brook, 2007, 2008; Monnin et al., 2001). The large points represent the mean stadial/interstadial levels. The estimated range of the effect of a CO₂ increase on wetland CH₄ emissions from models based on today's conditions are indicated by the purple dashed lines (Melton et al., 2013), where the intercept with the ordinate was chosen arbitrarily. The results of the linear regression, which is based on the small data points, are given in the legend of the figure.

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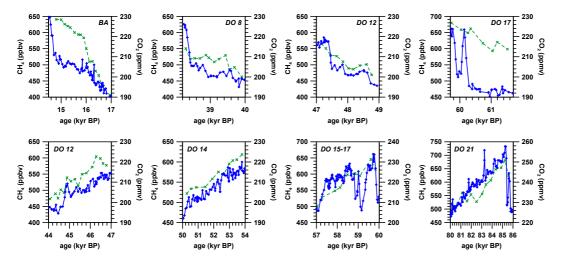


Fig. 9. Covariance of trends in methane and carbon dioxide concentrations in specific time intervals. CH_4 from NGRIP in blue, and CO_2 in green (Bereiter et al., 2012; Lüthi et al., 2010; Ahn and Brook, 2007, 2008; Monnin et al., 2001). The upper panels show the slow increases of CH_4 and CO_2 preceding the BA, and the DO events 8, 12, and, 17. The lower panels show the slow decreases of CH_4 and CO_2 during the DO events 12, 14, 17–15, and 21. Note the different scalings of the x-axes and the offsets in the y-axes.

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