



# CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluctuations during the penultimate deglaciation

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**Abstract.** Deglaciations are characterized by the largest natural changes in methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) concentrations of the past 800 thousand years. Reconstructions of millennial to centennial-scale variability within these periods are mostly restricted to the last deglaciation. In this study, we present composite records of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations from the EPICA Dome C ice core covering the penultimate deglaciation at temporal resolutions of ~100 years. Our data permit the identification of centennial-scale fluctuations standing out of the overall transition to interglacial levels. These features occurred in concert with reinvigorations of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) and northward shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone. The abrupt CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O rises at ~134 and ~128 thousand of years before present (hereafter ka BP) are assimilated to the fluctuations accompanying the Dansgaard–Oeschger events of the last glacial period, while rising N<sub>2</sub>O levels at ~130.5 ka BP are assimilated to a pattern of increasing N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations that characterized the end of Heinrich stadials. We suggest the 130.5-ka event to be driven by a partial reinvigoration of the AMOC. Overall, the CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O fluctuations during the penultimate deglaciation exhibit modes of variability that are also found during the last deglaciation. However, trace gas responses may differ for similar type of climatic events, as exemplified by the reduced amplitude and duration of the 134-ka event compared to the fluctuations of the Bølling–Allerød during the last deglaciation.

## 1 Introduction

Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) are the second and third most potent well-mixed gases in terms of radiative forcing ( $0.48 \pm 0.05 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$  and  $0.17 \pm 0.03 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ , respectively) after carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) (Myhre et al., 2013). The impact of these trace gases on the Earth's radiative balance in the future depends also on the sensitivity of natural sources to anthropogenic warming. Time periods of climate change in the past provide natural templates to study this coupling (Fischer et al., 2018). Reconstructions of trace gas concentrations before the instrumental era are only enabled by analyzing the composition of air trapped in tiny bubbles in polar ice cores, reflecting the atmospheric composition at the time the bubbles were formed. Ice core records of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations combined with temperature reconstructions documented the natural variability of the trace gases and their coupling to climate change during the glacial cycles of the past 800 thousand years. The overall increase in concentrations accompanying deglaciations represent the largest recurring changes (Spahni et al., 2005; Loulergue et al.,



2008; Schilt et al., 2010a). Records spanning the last deglaciation (Termination I (TI), 18–11 thousand of years before present  
25 (hereafter ka BP), where *present* is defined as 1950 Common Era) showed that this overall increase appears as a sequence  
of millennial and centennial fluctuations superposed, for CH<sub>4</sub>, on longer-term gradually rising concentrations (Marcott et al.,  
2014; Rhodes et al., 2015; Fischer et al., 2019). Records resolving short-term fluctuations within deglaciations are limited to  
TI, owing to the availability of multiple high-accumulation ice cores.

The aim of this study is to extend the deglacial record to the penultimate deglaciation (Termination II (TII), 140–128 ka BP).  
30 We present high-resolution CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O composite datasets from the EPICA Dome C (EDC) ice core including 150 new  
measurements covering the time interval from 145–125 ka BP, combined with the published data of Loulergue et al. (2008)  
and Schilt et al. (2010a). We increased the sampling density of the aforementioned records by a factor ~3.5 and ~5 to obtain  
mean resolutions of 100 and 115 years for CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O, respectively, on the order of the mean width of the gas age distribution  
(GAD) at EDC (estimated at ~170 years for TII using the approach of Nehrbass-Ahles et al. (2020)). In addition, we present  
35 a coarse resolution record of N<sub>2</sub>O isotopic composition ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$ ), used to assess the integrity of the N<sub>2</sub>O  
measurements. Overall, our data allow us to study the extent to which the evolution of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations differ  
between the last two deglaciations.

Millennial fluctuations observed within TI belong to a mode of variability, most notably exemplified in the frame of the  
Dansgaard–Oeschger (DO) events of the last glacial, where CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations respond to Greenland temperature  
40 fluctuations. The DO-like mode of variability is characterized by abrupt increases in CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations (~50–260 ppb in a  
few centuries), synchronous or slightly lagging the onsets of interstadial Greenland warming by a few decades (Baumgartner  
et al., 2014; Huber et al., 2006; Rosen et al., 2014), while N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations exhibit concomitant fluctuations reaching up  
to ~60 ppb (Flückiger et al., 2004; Schilt et al., 2010a, 2013). In addition, particularly low N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations are observed  
during Heinrich stadials (HS), extended stadials defined by the occurrence of massive iceberg discharges through Hudson Strait  
45 into the North-Atlantic (Hemming, 2004). At the end of the HS, N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations start increasing centuries to millennia  
before the Greenland temperature and CH<sub>4</sub> rises (Schilt et al., 2013) (*Late stadial* increase). This mode of variability has been  
evidenced for the HS during the last glacial period (Schilt et al., 2013) and the last deglaciation (Fischer et al., 2019; Schilt  
et al., 2014).

The centennial CH<sub>4</sub> fluctuations within TI belong to a mode of variability found in HS 1,2,4 and 5 (*Intra-stadial* variability).  
50 This pattern consists of short-lived increases reaching amplitudes of ~30–55 ppb and characteristic timescales of ~100–300  
years, associated with large iceberg discharges in the North-Atlantic (Rhodes et al., 2015).

DO-like and intra-stadial CH<sub>4</sub> fluctuations are likely driven by changes in tropical wetland emissions (Rhodes et al., 2015;  
Bock et al., 2017), where CH<sub>4</sub> is produced by the decomposition of organic matter under anaerobic conditions. Changes in  
geologic and pyrogenic emissions as well as changes in the sink strength play only a minor role (Dyonisius et al., 2020; Bock  
55 et al., 2010, 2017; Levine et al., 2012; Hopcroft et al., 2017). Wetland emissions are controlled by climate (precipitation,  
temperature, and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration), modulating wetland extent, emission rates, and ecosystem composition  
(Van Groenigen et al., 2011; Melton et al., 2013; Bloom et al., 2010). Changes in tropical wetland emissions during DO-like  
events are linked to the strengthening of monsoonal precipitation in the Northern Hemisphere (NH) tropics, enhancing wetland



emission rates (Bock et al., 2017). Increased NH tropical precipitation is associated to northward shifts of the Intertropical  
60 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) in response to changes in heat distribution by the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation  
(AMOC) (Broccoli et al., 2006; Alley, 2007). On the other hand, intra-stadial fluctuations are believed to result from southward  
shifts of the ITCZ, strengthening monsoonal precipitation in the Southern Hemisphere (SH) tropics, leading to an increase in  
wetland emissions there (Rhodes et al., 2015).

DO-like N<sub>2</sub>O variability is likely driven by changes in emission from the terrestrial and marine biospheres, where N<sub>2</sub>O  
65 is emitted as a by-product of nitrification and intermediate product of denitrification (Joos et al., 2019, 2020; Fischer et al.,  
2019; Schilt et al., 2014). Terrestrial emissions are controlled by climate (precipitation, temperature, and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
concentration) and available land area (Joos et al., 2020; Van Groenigen et al., 2011). During TI, the response of terrestrial  
sources to DO-like fluctuations is believed to result from temperature and precipitation changes (Joos et al., 2020), appeared  
70 in phase with Greenland warming, and lasted maximum ~200 years (Fischer et al., 2019). Marine emissions are linked to  
the strength of the AMOC, modulating oxygen concentrations in the upper ocean and the amount of organic matter converted  
into minerals at depth. During DO-like events, marine emissions are believed to be stimulated mainly by deoxygenation in the  
upper ocean as a consequence of the reinvigoration of the AMOC (Joos et al., 2019). Finally, the late stadial N<sub>2</sub>O increases  
during TI is driven exclusively by marine emissions (Fischer et al., 2019; Schilt et al., 2014), maybe resulting from a long-term  
75 reorganization of the nitrate and oxygen concentrations following the preceding AMOC collapse (Schmittner and Galbraith,  
2008).

## 2 Methods

The results presented in this study are derived from two different instruments. The  $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  data were  
measured with the device described in Schmitt et al. (2014), while CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations were performed with a newly  
developed analytical system, firstly deployed for this measurement campaign. In the following, we present this new system  
80 with an emphasis on the major differences compared to the previous version of the instrument used at the University of Bern.

Our new measurement system combines a custom-made extraction unit with a gas chromatograph (GC) equipped with a  
thermal conductivity detector (air), a flame-ionization detector (CH<sub>4</sub>) and an electron capture detector (N<sub>2</sub>O). The system is  
optimized for the measurement of small amount of analytes, enabling to use as little as ~20 g of EDC ice core samples. The  
major modifications compared to the previous version of the instrument are the change from a melt-refreeze extraction method  
85 (e.g. Flückiger et al., 1999, 2002, 2004; Spahni et al., 2005; Schilt et al., 2010a, b; Baumgartner et al., 2012; Schilt et al.,  
2013; Baumgartner et al., 2014; Loulergue et al., 2008) to a continuous extraction under vacuum, according to the procedure  
described in Schmitt et al. (2014), as well as the complete renewal of the standardization procedure.

In our extraction unit, air released from the ice during the melting phase (immersion in a water bath at ~293 K) is contin-  
uously adsorbed on an activated charcoal trap held at 77 K using liquid nitrogen. This extraction technique ensures low CH<sub>4</sub>  
90 and N<sub>2</sub>O partial pressures above the meltwater, minimizing dissolution during the melting, thereby avoiding the need for a  
refreezing step. To calibrate our measurements, we use a set of three standard gases provided by the National Oceanic and



Atmospheric Administration, covering the typical glacial-interglacial concentration range for CH<sub>4</sub> (358.88 ± 0.16 ppb, 838.59 ± 0.28 ppb, and 1729.30 ± 0.34 ppb) and N<sub>2</sub>O (187.10 ± 0.12 ppb, 194.13 ± 0.12 ppb, and 300.20 ± 0.12 ppb). The standards are referenced to the World Meteorological Organisation mole fraction scales: WMOX2004A scale (CH<sub>4</sub>) and NOAA-2006A (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Dlugokencky et al., 2005; Hall et al., 2007).

To increase the sample throughput, standard gases are injected directly into the GC system, bypassing the extraction line employed for ice core samples. We periodically inject standards over gas-free ice samples to account for contamination along the extraction line, determined as the mean offset between the two injection pathways (line offset). For CH<sub>4</sub>, the line offset depends linearly on concentrations ( $R^2 = 0.99$ ) leading to a downward revision of our measured values by up to 5 ppb (for concentrations ranging between 350 and 700 ppb). For N<sub>2</sub>O, the line offset is constant and leads to a downward revision of the measured values by 4 ppb.

The construction of composite records is complicated by offsets between the datasets, where our results appear  $29 \pm 7$  ppb (CH<sub>4</sub>) and  $18 \pm 2$  ppb (N<sub>2</sub>O) higher than previous data. The offset is calculated as the mean of the residuals between splines with cut-off periods of 10 thousand years fitted through the datasets. We computed splines according to Enting (1987), using the same routine as Beck et al. (2018), where each spline is the average of 1000 iterations with data points varied within a normal distribution inside their  $1\sigma$  uncertainty range. Because we are unable to experimentally compare the accuracy of different instruments using different extraction procedures, we adopt an *ad hoc* approach and subtract  $29 \pm 7$  ppb and  $18 \pm 2$  ppb from our new CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O results, respectively, to reach consistency with the datasets of Louergue et al. (2008) and Schilt et al. (2010a). For the same reason, we do not correct for gravitational and thermal fractionation in the firn.

The precision of our new data amounts to 10 ppb for CH<sub>4</sub> and 6 ppb for N<sub>2</sub>O and is calculated as the square-root of the sum in quadrature of the individual uncertainties associated with the analytical procedure, the line offset correction and the inter-dataset correction. The analytical part corresponds to the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) of standards injected over gas-free ice samples. The uncertainty of the line offset correction corresponds to the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) of the mean offset between the two injection pathways (as described above). The uncertainty of the inter-dataset correction is the standard deviation ( $1\sigma$ ) of the mean residuals between the splines. For the existing EDC data and the isotopic measurements, the precision amounts to 10 ppb (CH<sub>4</sub>), 4 ppb (N<sub>2</sub>O), 0.22 ‰ ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$ ), and 0.34 ‰ ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$ ) (Louergue et al., 2008; Schilt et al., 2010a; Schmitt et al., 2014).

### 3 Results

Our centennial-scale records show the progressions of the overall  $\sim 370$  ppb and  $\sim 60$  ppb increase in CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentration, respectively, over the penultimate deglaciation (Fig. 1). Our CH<sub>4</sub> data identifies an outlier at 139.9 ka BP, in the dataset by Louergue et al. (2008),  $\sim 80$  ppb higher than adjacent samples. The N<sub>2</sub>O data appear substantially more scattered in the early part of the record, especially around the penultimate glacial maximum ( $\sim 145$ – $140$  ka BP), where several high-amplitude spikes reach up to  $\sim 300$  ppb. This scatter tends to decrease with younger ages. The spikes appear in the interval where the isotopic composition of N<sub>2</sub>O becomes enriched in  $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  (up to 21 ‰) and depleted in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  (down to 41 ‰),



125 compared to the relatively steady values in the range of  $\sim 11$ – $14$  ‰ and  $\sim 45$ – $47$  ‰, respectively, observed for 125–136 ka BP (Fig. 1).

Our records display several fluctuations standing out in the overall evolution of the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations (Fig. 1). For  $\text{CH}_4$ , we distinguish between periods of relatively gradual increase and periods marked by more abrupt fluctuations based on mean rates of change observed in the ice core record over the corresponding time period. Abrupt  $\text{CH}_4$  rises are identified at  
130  $\sim 134$  and  $\sim 128$  ka BP. The 134-ka event exhibits an increase at a mean rate of 34 ppb per century, in the interval from  $\sim 134.0$  to 133.8 ka BP, and a decrease at a mean rate of 23 ppb per century, in the interval from  $\sim 133.8$  to 133.6 ka BP. During the rising limb, concentrations increase from  $\sim 440$  ppb to  $\sim 510$  ppb before declining back to  $\sim 460$  ppb. The 128-ka event consists of a  $\sim 190$  ppb increase (from  $\sim 530$  to 720 ppb, about half of the deglacial change) proceeding in  $\sim 300$  years ( $\sim 128.9$ – $128.6$  ka BP). This feature exhibits the highest mean growth rate observed in our deglacial  $\text{CH}_4$  record (mean of 61 ppb per century).  
135 Beside the 134 and 128-ka events,  $\text{CH}_4$  was also released relatively fast during the initial deglacial rise ( $\sim 139.6$ – $138.7$  ka BP, mean of 7 ppb per century) compared to the other time periods of more gradual increases (mean of 3 ppb per century from  $\sim 135.6$  to 134.0 ka BP and from  $\sim 132.0$  to 128.9 ka BP). However, the mean growth rate at this time is still well below those of the abrupt fluctuations.

The evolution of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations alternates between periods of plateaus and well-marked fluctuations (Fig. 1). Similar  
140 to  $\text{CH}_4$ , a feature is resolved at  $\sim 134$  ka BP, exhibiting the highest rate of change observed in our deglacial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  record (mean of 12 ppb per century during the rising limb). Concentrations increased in  $\sim 200$  years (134–133.8 ka BP) from  $\sim 210$  to 240 ppb before stabilizing for  $\sim 200$  years and declining from  $\sim 133.6$  ka BP onwards. The decay phase lasted for  $\sim 1000$  year ( $\sim 133.6$ – $132.6$  ka BP) at a mean rate of 3 ppb per century. The 128-ka event is also imprinted in our  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  record ( $\sim 129.0$ – $128.2$  ka BP) and is characterized by rising concentrations from  $\sim 240$  to  $\sim 270$  ppb at a mean growth rate of 3 ppb per century.  
145 In addition, an increase is identified at  $\sim 130.5$  ka BP ( $\sim 130.5$ – $129.8$  ka BP), where concentrations rose from  $\sim 220$  to 245 ppb at a mean growth rate of 3 ppb per century. The 130.5-ka and 128-ka events are separated by a plateau that lasted 800 years.

Overall, the improved resolution of our records allowed us to identify features hidden in the current  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  EDC datasets. In particular, the 134-ka event and the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  increase at  $\sim 130.5$  ka BP are resolved for the first time. Retrieving  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations from the same samples enable us to study the relative phasing of both trace gases in the course of these  
150 events without age uncertainty. At the onset of the 134 and 128-ka events, the rise in both trace gases occur simultaneously. In contrast, the 130.5-ka event in the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  record is not accompanied by a concomitant fluctuation in  $\text{CH}_4$  concentrations.

#### 4 Discussion

Interpreting our records in terms of atmospheric variability requires a closer inspection of the extreme values observed in the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  records. The  $\text{CH}_4$  data point at 139.9 ka BP is measured in the section characterized by the widest GAD in  
155 our record. Using the tentative approach of Nehrbass-Ahles et al. (2020) yields a mean width of the GAD estimated at  $\sim 220$  years for the interval from 139 to 141 ka BP. The adjacent data points are 160 years older and 173 years younger than the extreme measurement, i.e., the timescale of the hypothetical fluctuation at 139.9 ka BP is smaller than the GAD. This feature



is therefore unlikely to represent atmospheric variability and has to be considered as an outlier, likely resulting from the analytical procedure. Such signals may also result from layered bubble trapping (Rhodes et al., 2016; Fourteau et al., 2017, 160 2020). However, the outlier is measured in a period of otherwise stable concentrations, where neither early nor late pore closures are expected to generate an anomaly (Rhodes et al., 2016; Fourteau et al., 2017). Secondly, similarly high concentrations are not observed in our record before the 134-ka event. This would imply an age anomaly (between the layers enclosing gas of abnormal age and the layers enclosing gas of the corresponding age) that is unrealistically high compared to the characteristic age anomaly reported by Fourteau et al. (2017) for the Vostok ice core ( $\sim 200$  years). Accordingly, we regard this measurement 165 as an analytical outlier at this point and exclude it from further analysis.

The large variability observed in the early part of the  $N_2O$  record (Fig. 1) is unlikely to reflect atmospheric fluctuations given the atmospheric lifetime of  $N_2O$  of  $116 \pm 9$  years (Prather et al., 2015). Elevated concentrations and disproportionately high  $N_2O$  variability have been observed in many instances for ice samples rich in dust in both Antarctic and Greenland ice cores and are attributed to in situ production (Flückiger et al., 1999; Sowers, 2001; Flückiger et al., 2004; Spahni et al., 170 2005; Schilt et al., 2010a, 2013; Fischer et al., 2019). Measurements in the Vostok ice core by Sowers (2001) demonstrated this excess  $N_2O$  production to have a strong imprint on both  $\delta^{15}N(N_2O)$  and  $\delta^{18}O(N_2O)$ . For some of our EDC samples we observe the same systematic deviations as for the Vostok samples of that period, with  $\delta^{15}N(N_2O)$  and  $\delta^{18}O(N_2O)$  values that are heavier and lighter, respectively, than the typical atmospheric value. The coupling with dust is the basis of an empirical artifact detection method, applicable to EDC samples, considering measurements for depth intervals where dust concentrations 175 exceed an arbitrary threshold of  $300 \mu g kg^{-1}$  as affected by in situ production (Spahni et al., 2005; Schilt et al., 2010a). We follow this approach and define 134.5 ka BP, a slightly younger age than the last value considered as unbiased by Schilt et al. (2010a), as the boundary for the section affected by artifacts. In summary, we refrain from interpreting  $N_2O$  data points older than 134.5 ka BP as reflecting atmospheric variability.

The younger part of our records are used to study the nature of the  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  fluctuations during TII and to compare 180 with TI (Fig. 2). For such comparisons, we take the WAIS Divide ice core record (WD) (Rhodes et al., 2015) and the composite dataset of Fischer et al. (2019) as benchmarks for  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  concentrations, respectively, in the last deglaciation. The nature of the fluctuations is assessed by analyzing the amplitude and timescale of the individual features as well as the background climate in which they occur, inferred from complementary climate proxies (Fig. 3).

A feature common to TI and TII is the pronounced increase in  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  concentrations to interglacial levels at the end 185 of the respective deglaciation. The 128-ka event marking the onset of the Last Interglacial (LIG) appears as an analogue of the rise at the end of the Younger Dryas (YD), marking the onset of the Holocene.  $CH_4$  and  $N_2O$  concentrations reached in the early interglacial times are approximately similar for the LIG and the Holocene ( $\sim 720$ – $740$  ppb and  $\sim 270$  ppb, respectively). The WD data show the onset of the  $CH_4$  rise at the end of the YD to start from lower values ( $\sim 480$  ppb compared to  $\sim 530$  ppb at  $\sim 128$  ka BP) making this increase larger in magnitude by  $\sim 70$  ppb. Moreover, the somewhat shorter timescale of this 190 increase (less than 200 years compared to  $\sim 300$  years at  $\sim 128$  ka BP in our data) and the overshoot at the end of the event can, at least partly, be explained by the smaller extent of smoothing in the WD data compared to our records (Rhodes et al., 2015;



Nehrbass-Ahles et al., 2020). For  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ , the amplitude and duration of the two events are approximately similar, exhibiting a  $\sim 30$  ppb rise (from  $\sim 240$  to  $270$  ppb) in  $\sim 800$ – $900$  years.

At the end of the YD and at  $\sim 128$  ka BP,  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations rise in parallel with the main resumption of the AMOC, indicated by the evolution of the isotopic ratio of neodymium 143 and 144 ( $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ ) (Deaney et al., 2017; Böhm et al., 2015), and the associated northward shift of the ICTZ indicated by the evolution of the isotopic composition of speleothem calcite ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$ ) (Cheng et al., 2009, 2016) (Fig. 4), in a manner consistent with DO-like variability. The abrupt  $\text{CH}_4$  rise reflects the response of terrestrial emissions likely from NH tropical wetlands. The simultaneity of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  increase indicates that terrestrial emissions contributed, at least partly, to the 128-ka event, similar to what has been demonstrated for TI on the basis of an isotopic deconvolution (Fischer et al., 2019). The data of Deaney et al. (2017) suggest the main AMOC resumption to have occurred at this time. Therefore, it can be assumed that marine sources also played a role, consistent with what has been shown for the end of the YD (Schilt et al., 2014; Fischer et al., 2019). Higher resolution measurements of the isotopic composition of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  combined with a deconvolution, similar to Schilt et al. (2014) and Fischer et al. (2019), are needed to quantitatively determine the relative contribution of the sources during the 128-ka event.

The 128-ka event is preceded by a phase of rising  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations in the interval from 130.5 to 129.8 ka BP at the end of HS11 (135–130 ka BP) (Marino et al., 2015) (Fig. 1). This is reminiscent of the pattern of late stadial increases, where  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations rose before DO-like Greenland temperature and  $\text{CH}_4$  changes (Schilt et al., 2013). The timescale of the 130.5-ka event is in the range of the duration typically observed for these episodes ( $\sim 0.5$ – $2$  millennia) (Schilt et al., 2013). On the other hand, the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  growth rate during our event appears slightly larger ( $\sim 3$  ppb compared to  $\sim 1$  ppb per century).

The evolution of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations from 130.5 ka BP to the onset of the 128-ka event is remarkably coeval, within dating uncertainty, with the variability of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$  and of the isotopic composition of atmospheric oxygen ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$ ) (Landais et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2009) (Fig. 4), also displaying an initial period of change followed by plateaus. At this timescale,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  reflect changes in the low latitude hydrological cycle driven by shifts in the ICTZ (Landais et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2009). Taken at face value, they indicate a small intensification of the tropical hydroclimate at  $\sim 130.5$  ka BP prior to the DO-like fluctuation at  $\sim 128$  ka BP. This intensification has been interpreted as a transition from a HS to a DO stadial (Landais et al., 2013) and might be a consequence of the partial AMOC resumption reported in Böhm et al. (2015). In fact, the isotopic ratios of protactinium 231 and thorium 230 ( $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$ ), reflecting the overturning rate of the AMOC, shows a decline to interglacial values substantially earlier than the decrease in  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  occurring around  $\sim 128$  ka BP (Böhm et al., 2015) (Fig. 3). The decoupling of the two oceanic tracers during part of TII has been interpreted as a change in the AMOC regime from the *off* mode, characteristic of HS (suppressed convection of northern-sourced water, extremely reduced overturning rates, high  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ , and high  $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$ ) to the *cold* mode (shallow convection, vigorous overturning rate, high  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$ , and low  $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$ ) (Böhm et al., 2015), prevailing around glacial maxima. Additional evidence arguing for a partial resumption of the AMOC is given by the evolution of the isotopic composition of atmospheric nitrogen ( $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2)$ ), a proxy for Antarctic temperature, displaying a marked leveling off at  $\sim 130.5$  ka BP, consistent with a SH temperature response to a slightly enhanced northern heat advection by the AMOC (Landais et al., 2013; WAIS Divide Project Members, 2015; EPICA Community Members, 2006; Stocker and Johnsen, 2003; Pedro et al., 2018; Buizert et al., 2018) (Fig. 4).



Taking the evidences together, we propose that the 130.5-ka event constitutes a response to the transition from a HS to a DO stadial, where the rise in concentrations is associated with the partial AMOC resumption. The lack of a concomitant CH<sub>4</sub> fluctuation suggests that only changes in marine sources contributed to the N<sub>2</sub>O increase. Overall, the 130.5-ka event fits into the framework of the late stadial events (Schilt et al., 2013, 2014; Fischer et al., 2019) and can be viewed as an analogue of the late HS1 rise during TI. However, the N<sub>2</sub>O emission rate was slightly larger than evidenced for HS1 (as well as for similar events during the last glacial period). The attribution of the 130.5-ka feature to the pattern of late stadial increases would be strengthened by additional measurements of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$ , allowing the unambiguous identification of the dominant source contributing to this event.

Turning to the 134-ka event, its occurrence within HS11 and the properties of the CH<sub>4</sub> increase (duration and amplitude) are reminiscent of the intra-stadial pattern of variability evidenced by Rhodes et al. (2015). Intra-stadial fluctuations resolved in the WD ice core fully developed within ~200–300 years (Rhodes et al., 2015). The broader GAD of the EDC ice core (~170 years for our record) implies that any such intra-stadial features have to appear strongly dampened in our data. This is supported by continuous CH<sub>4</sub> measurements in the Vostok ice core, demonstrating the absence of the characteristic overshoot resolved in the WD ice core for the HS4 intra-stadial fluctuation (Fourteau et al., 2020; Rhodes et al., 2015). Therefore, the sharpness and amplitude of the 134-ka event is not consistent with the picture of a substantially smoothed version of an intra-stadial fluctuation. The ~70 ppb rise would translate into a WD signal exceeding by far the amplitude range (~30–55 ppb) of the HS1, HS2, HS4 and HS5 fluctuations (Rhodes et al., 2015). Secondly, intra-stadial CH<sub>4</sub> variability is also characterized by abrupt CO<sub>2</sub> jumps, millennial-scale increase in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  and the absence of concomitant N<sub>2</sub>O variability (Bauska et al., 2016, 2018; Marcott et al., 2014; Fischer et al., 2019; Schilt et al., 2013, 2010a; Guillevic et al., 2014). The simultaneous occurrence of the CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O pulses at ~134 ka BP and the lack of any fluctuation in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  record (Landais et al., 2013) contradict these observations (Fig. 3 and 4). The 134-ka event is therefore likely to have resulted from different mechanisms than those driving intra-stadial variability and, consequently, cannot be considered as an analogue of the 16.15-ka event that developed within HS1 (Fig. 2).

On the other hand, simultaneous rises of atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations are observed during DO-like fluctuations. In the last glacial cycle, interstadials typically lasted for ~1500 years with durations ranging from 240 to 14,380 years for Greenland Interstadial 3 and Greenland Interstadial 23, respectively (Rasmussen et al., 2014). The onset of these interstadials were accompanied by increases in concentration ranging from 50 to 260 ppb (CH<sub>4</sub>) and from 10 to 40 ppb (N<sub>2</sub>O) (Baumgartner et al., 2014; Schilt et al., 2013; Flückiger et al., 2004). The amplitude and duration of the CH<sub>4</sub> pulse at ~134 ka BP (~400 years, ~70 ppb) are well comparable to those observed for DO3, DO6, DO9, and DO10, where amplitudes are smaller or equal to 100 ppb (Baumgartner et al., 2014) and durations are shorter than 700 years (Rasmussen et al., 2014). For N<sub>2</sub>O, the amplitude of the 134-ka event compares well with those of DO-like fluctuations (Flückiger et al., 2004).

Associating our event to a DO-like pattern of variability requires evidence for a northward shift of the ICTZ and reinvigoration of the AMOC. Synchronous with the 134-ka event, within dating uncertainty, we observe a short-lived negative excursion in speleothem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$  records (Cheng et al., 2006) (Fig. 4) as well as fluctuations in proxies reflecting salinity and runoff intensity in the Bay of Bengal (Nilsson-Kerr et al., 2019). These data indicate a transient strengthening of the tropical monsoon





systems consistent with a northward shift of the ICTZ. Concerning the behavior of the AMOC, we are not aware of studies elaborating on a possible reinvigoration at this time. Nevertheless, oceanic tracers exhibit a small and short-lived fluctuation in the time interval 133–132 ka BP (on the timescale of Böhm et al. (2015)) before reaching their maximum HS11 values (Böhm et al., 2015). On the updated chronology of the sediment core ODP Site 1063 (Deaney et al., 2017), the negative excursion in the  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  record of Böhm et al. (2015) coincides with a comparably small value in the data of Deaney et al. (2017) (Fig. 3). However, the revised chronology places the excursion in  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  and  $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$  substantially earlier (onset at  $\sim 137.4$  ka BP, corresponding to a shift by  $\sim 4.9$  thousand of years with respect to the timescale of Böhm et al. (2015)) than the 134-ka event (Fig. 3 and 4). Since the timescale of the sediment core is tuned to the Antarctic Ice Core Chronology (AICC2012) (Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013) within 400 years, the fluctuations resolved in the ice and marine cores shall, in principle, not be considered as synchronous. However, the alignment with the AICC2012 is performed using only one tie point between  $\text{CH}_4$  and the isotopic composition of planktonic foraminifera (at  $\sim 128.7$  ka BP, corresponding to the abrupt  $\text{CH}_4$  increase into the LIG) (Deaney et al., 2017). Therefore, we keep the possibility open that the two timescales are less tightly aligned away from the tie point and suggest that an occurrence of the excursions in oceanic proxies synchronous with the fluctuations of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$  and trace gases might still be possible. DO-like variability is typically also imprinted in the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2)$  record from Antarctic ice cores as well as in the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  record. However, changes in these proxies are generally subtle compared to those of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$ , especially for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  (Landais et al., 2010). Accordingly, the duration or amplitude of the 134-ka event might not have been sufficient to produce a discernible signal in the records of Landais et al. (2013) (Fig. 3). Taking the proxy evidences together, we speculate that a brief and small-scale resumption of the AMOC might have occurred within HS11, accounting for the northward ICTZ shift and the rise in atmospheric  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations, consistent with the picture of DO-like variability. We acknowledge that our interpretation is limited by the relatively coarse resolution of  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  and  $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$  as well as by the uncertainty arising from cross-dating sediment and ice core records. It should finally be noted that the simultaneity of the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  increase and the duration of the rising phase is consistent only with a contribution from terrestrial  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  sources (Fischer et al., 2019).

Should our interpretation hold, the 134-ka event can be considered as a short DO-event, contrasting with the marked Bølling–Allerød (BA) fluctuation during TI (Fig. 2). This raises the question of why the oceanic circulation was unable to recover in the same way as during the BA. Because the 134-ka event coincides, within dating uncertainty, with the occurrence of Meltwater Pulse 2B (MWP–2B) (Fig. 3), it would be tempting to link the quenching of the emerging interstadial at  $\sim 134$  ka BP to freshwater forcing. MWP–2B constitutes the major melting event in the course of TII. As a matter of fact, it contributed  $\sim 70$  m of sea-level rise ( $\sim 70\%$  of the deglacial change) and mainly entered into the North-Atlantic along with substantial volumes of icebergs, as indicated by the elevated occurrence of ice rafted debris recorded in sediment cores at this time (Marino et al., 2015; Grant et al., 2014; Skinner and Shackleton, 2006) (Fig. 3).

However, the concept of freshwater forcing as a trigger of AMOC shutdown (either as iceberg discharges during HS or MWPs during glacial terminations) has become a matter of intense debate. Firstly, the history of MWPs is decoupled from that of the AMOC and Greenland temperature in the course of TI (most notably exemplified by the absence of any such pulses for the YD stadial) (Tarasov and Peltier, 2005; Stanford et al., 2006). Secondly, iceberg discharge events within HS are consistently



lagging behind oceanic circulation and Greenland temperature changes (Barker et al., 2015; Henry et al., 2016). The current paradigm rather considers freshwater forcing as resulting from AMOC declines. This view is supported by modeling and experimental studies demonstrating that the interior of the ocean accumulates heat at times the AMOC collapses (Galbraith et al., 2016; Pedro et al., 2018; Bereiter et al., 2018; Baggenstos et al., 2019), constituting a potent forcing for destabilizing glacial ice sheets and producing bursts of meltwater (Flückiger et al., 2006; Marcott et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2020; Galbraith et al., 2016). In summary, we are currently unable to propose a mechanism accounting for the relative brevity of the 134-ka event.

Summarizing the evidences, we note that the outstanding fluctuations in CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations during the penultimate deglaciation are all instances of recurrent modes of variability, also evidenced during the last deglaciation as well as during the last glacial period.

## 5 Conclusions

In the present study, we increased the resolution of the deglacial CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O records, allowing us to derive composite datasets covering TII (140–128 ka BP) at average resolutions of ~100 years. Our results display fluctuations standing out of the overall transition of CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations to interglacial conditions. The most prominent one is resolved at ~128 ka BP and constitutes an analogue of the rise at the end of the YD during the last termination. We assume that terrestrial and marine sources contributed to the N<sub>2</sub>O increase at this time. Additionally, we now entirely identify the 134 and 130.5-ka event. We link the latter to the pattern of late stadial N<sub>2</sub>O increase, where changes in marine emissions are likely to be the only contributor. The former is regarded as a short DO-like fluctuation, whose timescale indicates that only terrestrial N<sub>2</sub>O sources likely contributed to the increase.

*Data availability.* Data will be made available online on the NOAA paleoclimate and PANGAEA databases.

*Author contributions.* The present study was designed by T.F.S, H.F and L.S. L.S and J.H performed the methane and nitrous oxide measurements. J.S provided the isotopic data. L.S wrote the text with inputs from all authors.

*Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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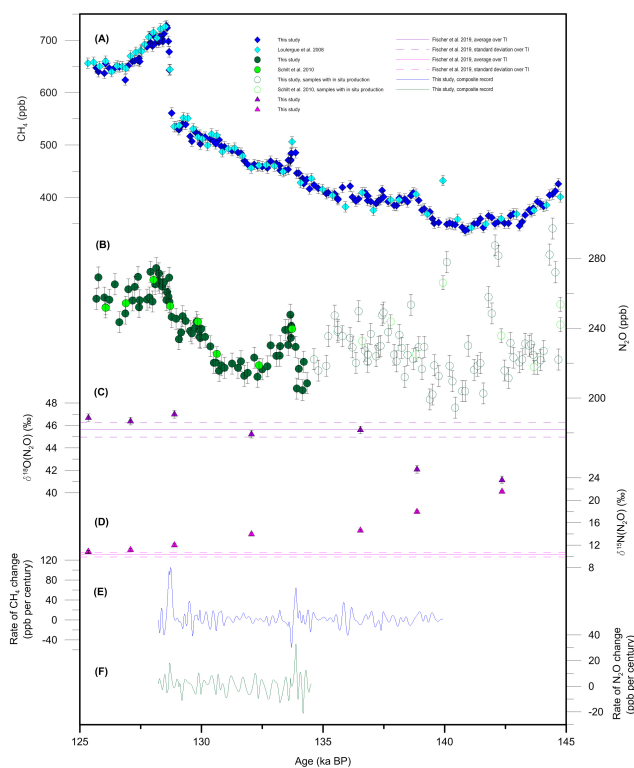


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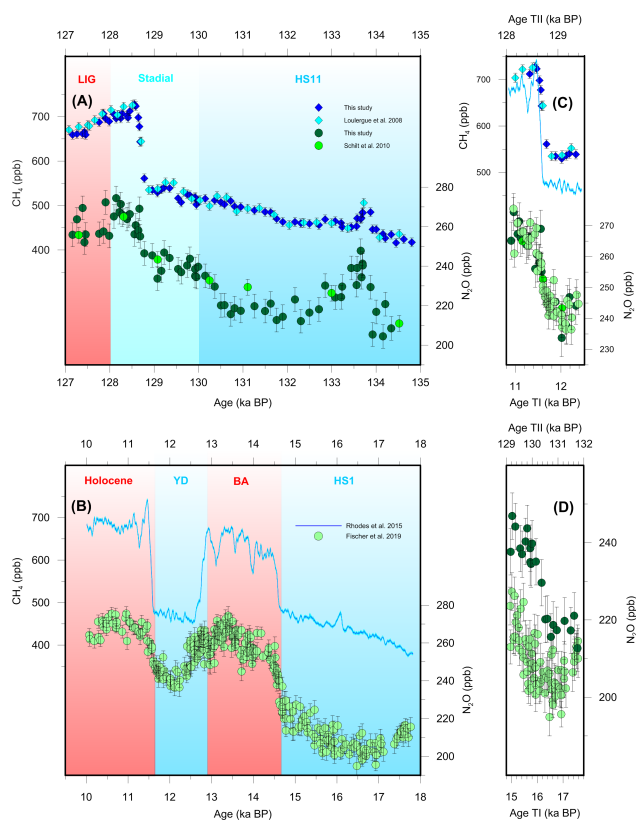




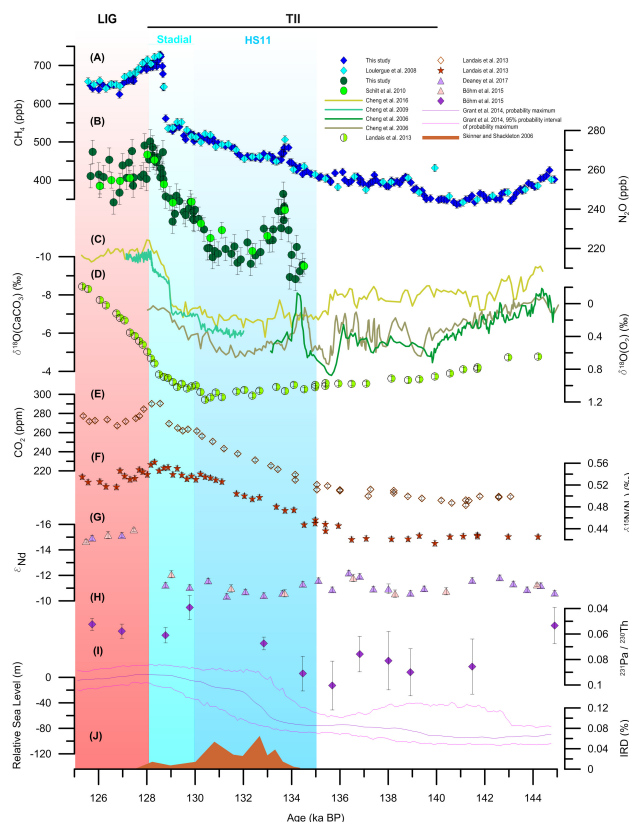
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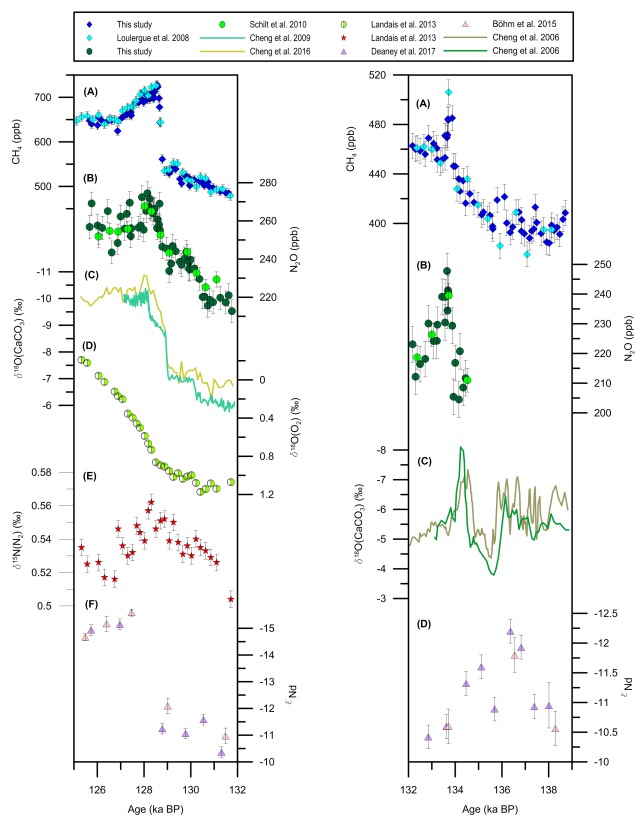
**Figure 1.** CH<sub>4</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, δ<sup>18</sup>O(N<sub>2</sub>O) and δ<sup>15</sup>N(N<sub>2</sub>O) records from the EDC ice core on the AICC2012 timescale (Bazin et al., 2013). The vertical bars represent the uncertainty of the measurements. **(A):** Composite CH<sub>4</sub> record with published data (light blue, Louergue et al. (2008)) and new measurements (this study, dark blue) after offset correction. **(B):** Composite N<sub>2</sub>O record with published data (light green, Schilt et al. (2010a)) and new measurements (this study, dark green) after offset correction. The empty symbols illustrate the data points considered as affected by in situ production. **(C):** δ<sup>18</sup>O(N<sub>2</sub>O) record. For comparison, a solid and a dashed lines are included, representing the average and standard deviation (1σ), respectively, of the isotopic values during TI. **(D):** δ<sup>15</sup>N(N<sub>2</sub>O) record, including solid and dashed lines as in (C). **(E):** Rates of CH<sub>4</sub> change, calculated by differentiating splines (Enting, 1987) (cut-off period = 200 years) fitted through the composite record. **(F):** Rates of N<sub>2</sub>O change, for the section unbiased by artifacts, calculated as in (E).



**Figure 2.** Evolution of the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations during TII and TI. The left panels show the overviews for the individual deglaciation and the right panels show in details the fluctuations compared in this study. The shadings delineate the climatic events mentioned in the text and distinguish between time of collapsed (darker blue), reduced (paler blue) and vigorous AMOC (red). **(A):** Composite  $\text{CH}_4$  (top) and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (bottom) records for TII as in Fig.1. **(B):** WD continuous  $\text{CH}_4$  record (top) (Rhodes et al., 2015), on the WAIS Divide deep ice core chronology (Buizert et al., 2015; Sigl et al., 2016), and composite  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  record (bottom) (Fischer et al., 2019), on the AICC2012 timescale (Veres et al., 2013), for TI. **(C):** Superposition of the 128-ka event with the fluctuation at the end of the YD for  $\text{CH}_4$  (top) and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  (bottom) (symbols as in **(A)** and **(B)**). **(D):** Superposition of the late HS11 and HS1  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  rises (symbols as in **(A)** and **(B)**).



**Figure 3.** Evolution of the  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  concentrations as well as this of complementary climate proxies during TII. The shadings delineate the climatic events as described in Fig. 2. The individual records are plotted on their own timescales, with the vertical bars representing the uncertainty of the measurements as reported in the references. **(A):** Composite  $\text{CH}_4$  record (this study, as in Fig.1). **(B):** Composite  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  record (this study, as in Fig.1). **(C):** Speleothems  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{CaCO}_3)$  records: Sanbao SB25 (light green) (Cheng et al., 2009), Hulu Cave MSX (khaki) (Cheng et al., 2006), Hulu cave MSP (dark green) (Cheng et al., 2006), and Sanbao-Dongge composite (pale yellow) (Cheng et al., 2016). Each speleothem record is plotted on its individual radiometric timescale. **(D):**  $\delta^{18}\text{O}(\text{O}_2)$  from the EDC ice core on the AICC2012 timescale (Landais et al., 2013). **(E):**  $\text{CO}_2$  from the EDC ice core on the AICC2012 timescale (Landais et al., 2013). **(F):**  $\delta^{15}\text{N}(\text{N}_2\text{O})$  from the EDC ice core on the AICC2012 timescale (Landais et al., 2013). **(G):** Composite  $\epsilon_{\text{Nd}}$  from the sediment core ODP Site 1063 (Deaney et al., 2017), including data points from Böhm et al. (2015) (purple) and new measurements from Deaney et al. (2017) (pale pink), on the timescale of Deaney et al. (2017). **(H):**  $^{231}\text{Pa} / ^{230}\text{Th}$  record from the sediment core ODP Site 1063 (Böhm et al., 2015), on the timescale of Deaney et al. (2017). **(I):** Relative sea level stand from the Red Sea synchronized on a radiometric timescale, including the maximum probability curve (purple) and its 95% confidence interval (magenta) (Grant et al., 2014). **(J):** Ice-rafted debris (IRD) from Skinner and Shackleton (2006) on the radiometric timescale of Marino et al. (2015).



**Figure 4.** Details of the 128 (left panel), 130.5 (left panel) and 134-kyr events (right panel) for CH<sub>4</sub> (A), N<sub>2</sub>O (B), and key climate proxies (from (C) onwards), symbols as described in Fig. 3.