

# Millennial variations of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> during the early Holocene (11.7–7.4 ka)

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**Abstract.** We present a new high-resolution record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> from the Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica over the early Holocene (11.7–7.4 ka) that quantifies natural CO<sub>2</sub> variability on millennial timescales under interglacial climate conditions. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> decreased by ~10 ppm between 11.3 and 7.3 ka. The decrease was punctuated by local minima at 11.1, 10.1, 9.1 and 8.3 ka with amplitude of 2–4 ppm. Although the explanations of carbon cycle mechanisms remains uncertain due to insufficient paleoclimate records and model simulations, these variations correlate with proxies for solar forcing and local climate in the South East Atlantic polar front, East Equatorial Pacific and North Atlantic. Additional CO<sub>2</sub> measurements using better-quality ice cores and carbon cycle models are needed to confirm the observation.

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## 1 Introduction

20 Future climate and ecosystem changes due to the continual increase of atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations caused by human activities are inevitable (IPCC, 2013). Understanding the links between the carbon cycle and climate become important for accurate projection of future climate change. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is controlled by carbon exchange with ocean and land reservoirs, and increased CO<sub>2</sub> in the future and consequent changes in the earth system will in turn impact CO<sub>2</sub> levels via feedbacks (Friedlingstein et al., 2006). Due to the limited duration of direct measurements of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, which only started in 1957 (Keeling, 1960), our understanding of the carbon cycle dynamics is limited on longer time scales. Air bubbles occluded in Antarctic ice cores allow us to reconstruct ancient air and may help us better understand the mechanisms that control atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Ahn and Brook, 2008, 2014; Bereiter et al., 2012; Higgins et al., 2015; Lüthi et al., 2008; Marcott et al., 2014; Nehrbass-Ahles et al., 2020; Petit et al., 1999).

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Understanding the carbon cycle during interglacial periods is particularly useful because climate boundary conditions are similar to those of the near future. Previous work on late Holocene CO<sub>2</sub> records shows centennial CO<sub>2</sub> variability linked with climate, but the control mechanisms remain unclear, in part due to the potential mixture of natural and anthropogenic sources

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and sinks (Ahn et al., 2012; Bauska et al., 2015; Etheridge et al., 1996; Goosse, 2010; Indermühle et al., 1999; Rubino et al., 2013; Ruddiman, 2003, 2007). By contrast, CO<sub>2</sub> records for the early Holocene (11.7 to 7.3 ka) should reflect only natural CO<sub>2</sub> variability due to a smaller human population (Ruddiman, 2003).

35 The early Holocene (11.7–7.0 ka), is known as a relatively stable period in comparison with glacial periods. Several authors have linked centennial to millennial variability in the early Holocene to changes in solar forcing, including studies of the eastern equatorial Pacific (Marchitto et al., 2010), North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001) and the Southern Ocean (Nielsen et al., 2004) with responses in proxy records at ~11.1, 10.1, 9.1 and 8.3 ka linked to solar variability (Bond et al., 2001; Marchitto et al., 2010). A weaker (stronger) solar activity has been linked with increased (decreased) ice-rafted debris in North Atlantic

40 (Bond cycle), dominant El-Niño-like conditions (La Niña-like conditions) in the eastern equatorial Pacific, weaker (stronger) Asian monsoons, expansion (reduction) of sea ice in the Southern Ocean and colder (warmer) sea surface temperature in the Southern Ocean (Bond et al., 2001; Marchitto et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2004; Reimer et al., 2004; Vonmoos et al., 2006). However, it is not clear what mechanisms are involved (Bond et al., 2001; Darby et al., 2012; Marchitto et al., 2010).

Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on millennial time scales is mainly controlled by exchange with oceanic reservoirs and terrestrial carbon

45 stocks. Existing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records from EPICA Dome C (Dome C) show little variability of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> on millennial time scales from 10.9 to 7.3 ka (Monnin et al., 2001; Monnin et al., 2004). However, high-frequency signals might be muted due to gas trapping processes at this low-accumulation site (Spahni et al., 2003).

In this study, we measured 99 samples of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with ages between 11.7 and 9.0 ka from the Siple Dome ice core. This new record complements the existing Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record for 9.0–7.3 ka (Ahn et al., 2014). With this record, we

50 investigate the relationship between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and climate variations on centennial and millennial time scales. Siple Dome benefits from an accumulation rate 4.2 times higher than at EDC and 1.8 times higher than at Taylor Dome (Table 1). A conservative estimate for the width of the gas age distribution in the Siple Dome record gives ~42 yrs for the early Holocene (Ahn et al., 2014). Thus, the Siple Dome ice core allows high temporal resolution and higher quality gas data with a more precise age scale and signals that are much less muted by the gas trapping process. The temporal resolution on average during

55 the early Holocene reaches ~30 yr as compared to ~80 yr in the EDC record.

## 2 Methods

### 2.1 CO<sub>2</sub> measurements

247 individual ice samples from 99 depth intervals were measured by needle cracker dry extraction and gas chromatography methods at Seoul National University (SNU) (see Figure S1 in SI (Supplementary Information)). We adopted the well-

60 established measurement methods from Oregon State University (OSU) (Ahn et al., 2009) with minor modifications including sharpening of the tips of ice-crushing pins to increase the gas extraction efficiency, and use of a newer model Agilent 7890 gas chromatograph (GC).

Briefly, ice samples were cut and trimmed carefully with a band saw in a  $-21^{\circ}\text{C}$  walk-in freezer at SNU. All visible cracks were removed to eliminate potential  $\text{CO}_2$  alteration by trapping modern air. An ice sample of  $\sim 8\text{--}10$  g was placed in a double walled vacuum chamber maintained at about  $-35^{\circ}\text{C}$  using cold ethanol circulation between the walls of the chamber while flowing ultra-pure of  $\text{N}_2$  gas (99.9999%) into the chamber. The ice sample was crushed in the cooled chamber by 91 steel needles moving straight up to down using a linear motion (bellows) vacuum feedthrough. The liberated air from the ice was collected for 3 min in a sample tube in a cryogenic system maintained at 11 K. The  $\text{CO}_2$  mixing ratio was determined by the Agilent 7890A GC equipped with a flame-ionization detector, using a Ni catalyst which converts  $\text{CO}_2$  to  $\text{CH}_4$  before measurement. Sample air was injected into a stainless steel sample loop and the extracted air from each ice sample was analysed twice. The GC system was calibrated daily with a standard air tank (293.25 ppm  $\text{CO}_2$ , WMOX2007 mole fraction scale, calibrated by US National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Global Monitoring Division). To examine the linearity of the GC, ice samples from five different depth intervals ( $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations of 239–251 ppm) were analysed with two different air standards (188.9 and 293.3 ppm  $\text{CO}_2$ , respectively). The average difference in the results using the different standards was  $0.4 \pm 0.9$  ppm ( $1\sigma$ ) (Table S1 in SI).

## 2.2 Age scale of the Siple Dome ice core records

The Siple Dome samples are placed on the improved Siple Dome chronology developed by Yang et al. (2017), which is aligned with the Greenland Ice Core Chronology, 2005 (GICC05) using the synchronization of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$  time series. Abrupt  $\text{CH}_4$  changes have been shown to be synchronous within about 50 yrs with abrupt climate changes in Greenland during the last glacial period (Baumgartner et al., 2014; Rosen et al., 2014). Using this principle, abrupt changes in the composite Siple Dome  $\text{CH}_4$  data were aligned with abrupt changes in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ice}}$  from the NGRIP ice core (North Greenland Ice Core Project members, 2004; Rasmussen et al., 2006) at the 8.2 ka event and end of the Younger Dryas (Yang et al., 2017). For the time period of 11.64–8.10 ka, ages were updated from the original chronology of Severinghaus et al. (2009) by interpolating the age offsets at the tie points (Yang et al., 2017). For the time intervals outside of 11.64–8.10 ka, the age difference was set constant with the difference at the closest tie point. The modified gas ages are younger than the Severinghaus et al. (2009) ages by less than  $\sim 110$  yrs.

## 3 Results

### 3.1 The new high-resolution $\text{CO}_2$ record during the early Holocene

We obtained 99 data points that cover 622.14–539.06 m at SNU, corresponding to 11.7–9.0 ka (Figure 1). To extend the record to 7.4 ka, we made a composite dataset using a previous  $\text{CO}_2$  record from the Siple Dome ice core covering 9.0–7.4 ka measured by the needle cracker system at OSU (Ahn et al., 2014) (Figure 1). Between 2 and 6 replicates (2.6 and 2.4 on average for SNU and OSU data, respectively) from individual depth intervals were analysed. The standard error of the mean of replicates

from the same depth interval was 0.8 and 0.5 ppm on average for SNU and OSU data, respectively, ranging from 0.01 to 1.75 ppm. The sampling resolution is ~30 yrs for 11.7–9.0 ka and ~15 yrs for 9.0–7.3 ka.

95 To make a composite record of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, we tested for bias between the two data sets. Siple Dome samples from 7 depth intervals between 538.55–490.16 samples were analysed at both laboratories (Ahn et al., 2014). The SNU measurements were higher than the OSU measurements by 0.3±0.7 ppm (1σ) on average, indicating that the SNU and OSU results agree well (Table S2 in SI). The small offset of 0.3 ppm was added to OSU data before combining them with the SNU results.

### 3.2 Comparison with existing CO<sub>2</sub> records for the early Holocene

100 The new atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Siple Dome was compared to the existing CO<sub>2</sub> data from Dome C measured using the needle cracker at University of Bern (UB) (Monnin et al., 2001; Monnin et al., 2004) and the existing CO<sub>2</sub> data from the WAIS Divide ice core measured by the needle cracker at OSU (Marcott et al., 2014) (Figure 2A). On multi-millennial time scales, the baseline levels of the Siple Dome and WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> records (Marcott et al., 2014) are higher than those from Dome C (Flückiger et al., 2002; Monnin et al., 2004) record (Figure 2A and Figure 2C). The CO<sub>2</sub> offset between the Dome C and  
105 Siple Dome ice cores is 3–6 ppm (Figure 2A and Figure 2C).

The offset between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> data in this study and other CO<sub>2</sub> data sets could be related to differences in the analytical methods used to make the measurements. To examine the inter-laboratory analytical offset, several Taylor Dome ice samples were analysed at OSU (Ahn et al., 2014). The OSU results were higher than those at UB by 1.5 ppm on average. Taking the analytical offset between OSU and SNU of 0.3±0.7 ppm (1σ) into consideration, the 3–6 ppm CO<sub>2</sub> offset between the Siple  
110 Dome record (measured at OSU and SNU) and Dome C or Taylor Dome (measured at UB) cannot be entirely attributed to experimental offset.

To compare the new record to the existing records on millennial time scales, we calculate the Pearson correlation coefficient between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> and existing CO<sub>2</sub> records. For this calculation, we use the Siple Dome and existing CO<sub>2</sub> record which were smoothed and high pass filtered at 1/1800 yr (see Section 3.3 for detailed information). The offsets between existing CO<sub>2</sub>  
115 records and our data are also calculated (Figure 2C). We use 250-yr running means of CO<sub>2</sub> records for this calculation.

The Correlation coefficient between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> and WAIS divide CO<sub>2</sub> during 11.45–9.02 ka is 0.02 (p =0.28) (Figure 2B). The CO<sub>2</sub> offset between WAIS divide record and Siple Dome record is quite random (Figure 2A and 2C) because of scattering in the WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> record during the early Holocene period. The WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> data during the early Holocene was reconstructed from the ice just below the bubble clathrate transition zone (BTCZ). Previous studies raised an  
120 issue about the possibility of high frequency noise of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record in the ice just below the BTCZ (Lüthi et al., 2010; Shackleton et al, 2019). This phenomenon might be related to gas fractionation effect because of clathrate layering during bubble-clathrate transformation. Gas content starts to be fractionated in the BCTZ because of the differential permeation of gas species when bubbles have transformed to clathrates. CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the first layer of clathrates is more enriched with higher bubble-to-clathrate permeation rates. Below the BCTZ, gas content slowly homogenizes again through molecular

125 diffusion (Bereiter et al., 2009), which can cause high frequency noise to the ice below the BCTZ. Thus, the WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> data is not sufficient to discuss millennial variabilities of the early Holocene.

The CO<sub>2</sub> record from the Siple Dome is roughly correlated with the CO<sub>2</sub> record from Dome C during 11.45–7.45 ka ( $r=0.42$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). We observe the CO<sub>2</sub> offset of 3–8 ppm in the 250-yr running means. The CO<sub>2</sub> offset between Dome C record and Siple Dome record decreases continuously from 11.7 ka to 7 ka with small variations at around 9.3 and 8.3 ka (Figure 2). The  
130 small variations of Dome C CO<sub>2</sub> record (1.4 ppm, compared to 3.0 ppm for Siple Dome) can be explained by the lower sampling resolution (~80 yrs for Dome C vs. ~20 yrs for Siple Dome) and a stronger damping effect on CO<sub>2</sub> concentration change at Dome C due to the slower gas trapping process at Dome C (Spahni et al., 2003).

The millennial CO<sub>2</sub> variations in the ice cores could be attributed to different degrees of in-situ CO<sub>2</sub> production in ice. The in-situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> caused by carbonate-acid reactions (Anklin et al., 1997; Barnola et al., 1995; Delmas, 1993; Neftel et  
135 al., 1988; Smith et al., 1997a; Smith et al., 1997b) and oxidation of organic acids (Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000). Although Antarctic ice cores have relatively low concentrations of carbonates and lower site temperatures compared to Greenlandic ice cores (Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000), it is estimated that the in-situ production of CO<sub>2</sub> for Antarctic ice cores is smaller than 1.5 ppm (Bereiter et al., 2009). If the chemical alteration is the main cause of the millennial-scale CO<sub>2</sub> variations, we may expect to observe CO<sub>2</sub> age offsets among different cores because of dissimilar ice age-gas age differences. However, no available  
140 data set supports this possibility.

To further evaluate the in-situ CO<sub>2</sub> production, we considered potential reactions. First, we compared the CO<sub>2</sub> with non-sea-salt Ca (nssCa) content in the ice to check the carbonate-acid reaction in the ice. The concentration of nssCa is mainly controlled by dust delivery but it also can be produced partially by the carbonate-acid reaction in ice. Thus, we examined the concentration of nssCa ion in the Siple Dome and Dome C ice. The nssCa records do not correlate well with the filtered  
145 millennial CO<sub>2</sub> variations in both Siple Dome ( $r = -0.33$ ) and Dome C ( $r = 0.15$ ) records during the early Holocene (Figures S2 and Figure S3 in SI). In addition, the nssCa trends in Dome C and Siple Dome ice do not agree (Figures S2 and Figure S3 in SI), but millennial CO<sub>2</sub> variations do. Second, we checked the CO<sub>2</sub> production by oxidation of organic compounds (e.g.,  $2\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{HCHO} \rightarrow 3\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$ ) in ice (Tschumi and Stauffer, 2000). The Dome C site is located further from the ocean than Siple Dome and we therefore expect lower organic content in the Dome C ice. Concentrations of organic compounds at our  
150 sampling depths are not available. However, the concentration of oxidant H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on the top 2.5–100 m in the Siple Dome core is below the detection limit of ~0.02 μM (McConnell, 1997), although 0.02 μM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> still has potential to produce CO<sub>2</sub> and can increase the mixing ratio in bubbles by 5 ppm given sufficient supply of organic compounds (Ahn et al., 2004).

In summary, the existing Dome C CO<sub>2</sub> record covering the early Holocene share similar trends in the Siple dome CO<sub>2</sub> record despite an offset in longer term means of a few ppm. We note that CO<sub>2</sub> offsets of several ppm among different ice cores are  
155 common features in different time intervals such as the last millennium (Ahn et al., 2012; Monnin et al., 2004; Rubino et al., 2019; Siegenthaler et al., 2005) and Marine Isotope Stage 3 (Ahn et al., 2008; Bereiter et al., 2012) although they share the same trends of CO<sub>2</sub> change on multi-centennial to multi-millennial time scales. Thus, it is likely that the millennial CO<sub>2</sub> variations during the early Holocene in the Siple Dome and Dome C cores reflect atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> changes.

### 3.3 Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations on the millennial time scale during the early Holocene

160 Figure 1 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> record from Siple Dome during the early Holocene. CO<sub>2</sub> increased by ~8 ppm between 11.7 and 11.3 ka and then decreased by ~10 ppm from 10.9 to 7.3 ka. The rapid CO<sub>2</sub> increase at 11.7–11.3 ka might be associated with abrupt warming in the North Atlantic and abrupt strengthening of Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation at the end of the last glacial termination (Marcott et al., 2014; Monnin et al., 2001). The long term CO<sub>2</sub> trend is generally similar to that of the major water isotope ( $\delta D$ ) variations in Antarctic ice cores reflecting Antarctic temperature variations (Figure S4 in SI).

165 The Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record shows millennial variability of ~2–4 ppm with local minima at 11.1, 10.1, 9.1 and 8.3 ka (Figure 1). These variations resemble variability in other paleoclimate records that has been linked to solar cycle variations on these time scales (Figures 3 and S5).

To examine the relationship between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and the other paleoproxy data sets on millennial time scales, the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record was smoothed and high pass filtered at 1/1800 yr due to two necessities. First, it is likely that high-frequency variabilities of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record (decadal-scale variations and centennial-scale variations) are high frequency noise of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record. Thus, we smoothed data sets to eliminate high-frequency variability. Before making a 250-yr running mean, we made a 1-yr interpolation, because sample spacing between data points covering the early Holocene is not constant. Second, to eliminate multi-millennial drift of CO<sub>2</sub> record, the data was high pass filtered at 1/1800 yr, following previous methods by Bond et al. (2001) and Marchitto et al., (2010). The proxy records were also processed in the same way as the CO<sub>2</sub> record to remove high-frequency variability and long-term drift.

175 We evaluated uncertainties of the smoothed and high pass filtered CO<sub>2</sub> record using Monte Carlo simulation. Random sampling was made from a probability distribution for each measured value and its standard deviation. We repeated this series of simulations 10,000 times, which is shown as  $2\sigma$  in Figure 1 (see SI for detailed information).

We calculated correlation coefficients between the filtered CO<sub>2</sub> and climate proxy series to understand their relationship with atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3, see SI for methods). To calculate correlation coefficients between records, we selected data from 11.45 ka to 7.45 ka. Correlation coefficients, their significance, and maximum correlation lags are shown in Figure 4 and Table 2. The CO<sub>2</sub> record from the Siple Dome is anti-correlated with the stacked IRD record in the North Atlantic (Bond et al., 2001) ( $r = -0.49 \pm 0.1$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $120 \pm 155$  yrs), SST record in the eastern equatorial Pacific indicating El Niño-like or La Niña-like conditions ( $r = -0.41 \pm 0.13$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $50 \pm 219$  yrs) (Marchitto et al., 2010), and sea ice in the Southern Ocean ( $r = -0.35 \pm 0.17$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $190 \pm 228$  yrs) (Nielsen et al., 2004). On the other hand, the CO<sub>2</sub> record is positively correlated with summer sea-surface temperature (SSST) in the Southern Ocean ( $r = 0.35 \pm 0.17$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $52 \pm 228$  yrs) (Nielsen et al., 2004). The results may imply a tentative link between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations and climate change on millennial time scales. The time lags might be caused by age uncertainties of the proxy records and/or response time of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> to climate change (Bauska et al., 2015; Bereiter et al., 2012; Carvalhais et al., 2014).

190 The anti-correlations we find are between the Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record and the <sup>14</sup>C production rate ( $r = -0.49 \pm 0.12$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $-20 \pm 148$  yrs) and <sup>10</sup>Be flux ( $r = -0.52 \pm 0.08$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $110 \pm 63$  yrs). This suggests that CO<sub>2</sub> and solar activity

co-vary on millennial time scales (Figure 4 and Table 2). These observations imply that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations might be influenced by climate change driven by solar activity on millennial time scales during the early Holocene (11.7–7.0 ka) (Figure 4 and Table 2).

195 There are two outliers at ~11.08 and 10.83 ka, which are far from the 250-running mean (Figure 1). Since the two outliers can enlarge the amplitude of actual CO<sub>2</sub> change, the data were processed except for the two values (Figures S7). The Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record except for two data points at ~11.08 and 10.83 ka was smoothed and high pass filtered at 1/1800 yr. With this processed data, we calculated correlation coefficients between the filtered CO<sub>2</sub> and climate proxy series again (Table S3). The relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> data except for two outliers at ~11.08 and 10.83 ka and climate proxies is similar to the relationship  
200 between original CO<sub>2</sub> record and climate proxies, which shows that two outliers do not highly impact our interpretation.

## 4 Discussion

### 4.1 Possible carbon cycle control mechanisms in the Early Holocene

Understanding a link between climate variations and solar activity on millennial time scales during the early Holocene is important to decipher carbon cycle mechanisms. However, the climate mechanisms have not yet been deciphered. A possible  
205 mechanism is that changes of solar activities may impact on stratospheric ozone concentrations, which can change stratospheric and tropospheric circulation patterns (Meehl et al., 2009). Higher solar activity may enhance the precipitation in the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) (Meehl et al., 2009; van Loon et al., 2007). Consequently, the intensified moisture at those areas would increase trade wind strength and upwelling in the East Equatorial Pacific region. These conditions would lead to Na Niña like climate states on millennial time scale (Marchitto et  
210 al., 2010). This change in the East Equatorial Pacific might have affected the North Atlantic (Darby et al., 2012).

If the CO<sub>2</sub> variations we observe are affected by solar variabilities via climate, a number of mechanisms could be involved, including the terrestrial or marine carbon cycles, or both. We discuss three possibilities here. First, a close relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> and climate proxies in Antarctica (Jouzel et al., 2007) on multi-millennial time scales (Figure S4) suggests that CO<sub>2</sub> variations on these time scales might be principally controlled by Southern Ocean processes. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> can be  
215 controlled by temperature and salinity in the ocean (the solubility pump); solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> is greater in cooler and fresh surface waters (Broecker, 2002; Takahashi et al., 1993). The formation of deep water occurs in polar regions with high water density, where surface waters are cold, thus, the oceanic uptake of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> through this mechanism is stronger in polar regions (Sigman and Boyle, 2000). We observed a tentative link between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and summer sea surface temperature (SSST) from the polar front region of the South East Atlantic on millennial time scales (Nielsen et al., 2004), which implies that lower  
220 SSST in the Southern Ocean might have lead to the reduction of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.

Increased sea ice extent might have blocked release of CO<sub>2</sub> from CO<sub>2</sub>-rich deep water to the atmosphere, and therefore decreased atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration as previously suggested for glacial-interglacial CO<sub>2</sub> variations (Stephens and Keeling, 2000). Our Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record is negatively correlated with the sea ice extent in the Southern Ocean, although the sea ice extent reconstruction shown in Figure 3 represents only the east Atlantic region of the Southern Ocean.

225 Oceanic processes associated with El Niño-like and La Niña-like climate variation could also impact the carbon cycle. Marine sediment cores from the East Equatorial Pacific show that solar activity proxies are well correlated with El Niño-like and La Niña-like climate variations in the East Equatorial Pacific SST proxy record (Marchitto et al., 2010). The East Equatorial Pacific is the region where CO<sub>2</sub>-rich deep water upwells. Increased upwelling during La Niña-like conditions and resulting increased CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing have been suggested for the CO<sub>2</sub> increase during the last deglaciation (Kubota et al., 2014). Siple  
230 Dome CO<sub>2</sub> is anti-correlated with SST in the East Equatorial Pacific on millennial time scales (Figure 2), which may imply that La Niña-like climate can lead to higher CO<sub>2</sub> values.

Terrestrial carbon is involved with photosynthesis and respiration in plants, and with soil respiration (microbial and root respiration). Thus, terrestrial carbon is mostly controlled by temperature and precipitation (Davidson et al., 2000; Mielnick and Dugas, 2000). On multi-millennial time scales, when temperature in Greenland increases from 10.9 to 7.4 ka, atmospheric  
235 CO<sub>2</sub> decreases. Expansion of vegetation in the Northern Hemisphere may partially contribute to the decrease in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Indermühle et al., 1999).

A recent high resolution study for the last 1,200 yrs shows that centennial CO<sub>2</sub> variability was mainly controlled by terrestrial carbon, most likely in the high latitude of the Northern Hemisphere (Bauska et al., 2015). The stacked IRD from the North Atlantic may be used for an indicator of cool conditions in the North Atlantic (Bond et al., 1992; Bond et al., 2001). The strong  
240 relationship between IRD and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> indicates that colder climate in the North Atlantic may lower atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> by impacting terrestrial carbon stocks during the early Holocene.

$\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{ice}}$  from the North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP) ice core (Rasmussen et al., 2006) indicating temperature in Greenland also reveal millennial local minima at similar time intervals as those of CO<sub>2</sub> (~11.4, 10.9, 10.2, 9.3 and 8.2 ka), however, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature in Greenland are mismatched at the earliest early Holocene and ~8.2 ka. Thus,  
245 there is no significant linear relationship between CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature in Greenland on millennial time scales, and our calculation indicates that CO<sub>2</sub> leads temperature in Greenland on millennial time scales, though the correlation is still too small to assume any relationship ( $r = 0.21 \pm 0.07$ , CO<sub>2</sub> time lag of  $-130 \pm 63$  yrs).

Temperature in Greenland during the early Holocene might be partially influenced by the internal climate system or/and by low-latitude solar forcing indirectly. Two main cooling events in Greenland are recorded at ~11.4 and ~8.2 ka (Rasmussen et al., 2007). The well-known 8.2 ka cooling event is mainly influenced by the collapse of the Laurentide ice sheet (Merz et al., 2015) rather than by solar forcing; when temperature was colder in Greenland at ~11.4 ka, solar forcing was higher, not  
250 reaching a minimum at until ~11.2 ka. It is also elusive whether solar forcing has an influence on climate in Greenland at ~11.4



ka (Mekhaldi et al., 2020). In short, a linkage between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and climate change during the early Holocene remains uncertain due to insufficient paleoclimate records and model simulations.

255 In this study, we observed that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is highly anti-correlated with the <sup>14</sup>C production rate and <sup>10</sup>Be flux on millennial time scales with CO<sub>2</sub> time lag during the early Holocene (Figure 3). The local minima of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> highly match with the local maxima of the <sup>14</sup>C production rate and <sup>10</sup>Be flux (minima in solar activity) at ~11.1, 10.1 and 8.3 ka. The phenomena might be related to large variations in solar activity. However, the relationship between solar forcing and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is different at ~9.1 ka. The <sup>14</sup>C production rate and <sup>10</sup>Be flux are positively correlated with CO<sub>2</sub> at ~9.1 ka on  
260 sub-millennial time scales, indicating that atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was in a local minimum at ~9.1 ka when solar forcing was relatively high.

We also check the correlation of CO<sub>2</sub> with solar activity during the last 2,000 years on centennial time scales (Figure S8). A positive correlation between solar forcing and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> is observed during the Little Ice Age (LIA). There are two periods in which sunspots were exceedingly rare. During the Maunder sunspot minimum (1647–1715 CE), total solar irradiance (TSI) was reduced by  $0.85 \pm 0.16 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ . Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records from Antarctic ice cores commonly show a decrease trend during this period (Ahn et al., 2012; Monnin et al., 2004; Siegenthaler et al., 2005; Rubino et al., 2019). During the Spörer Minimum (1450–1550 CE), TSI record during this period also shows a decrease trend. However, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> decrease is not significant in Law Dome and EPICA Dronning Maud Land (EDML) records (Monnin et al., 2004; Siegenthaler et al., 2005; Rubino et al., 2019), while WAIS divide ice record shows a decrease during this period (Ahn et al., 2012) (Figure  
270 S8 in SI). However, atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> decrease drastically at ~1600 CE when TSI shows a local maximum, which is similar to the relationship between solar forcing and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> at ~9.1 ka. To conclude, it is vague how solar forcing is related with atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variations on millennial time scales.

Comparing the early and last Holocene requires attention due to different boundary conditions during these two periods and anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> during the late Holocene (e.g., Ruddiman, 2003, 2007). Variations of solar forcing are large on a centennial time scale during the Early Holocene. Thus, the solar output effect might be enhanced since the climate system is not responded linearly (Mohtadi et al., 2016). However, due to a decrease in summer insolation and the small variation of solar forcing during 7–1 ka (Berger, 1978), solar forcing might play a less important role during the late Holocene. Further studies are needed to understand the relationship between atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> and solar forcing on shorter time scales during the early Holocene with more proxy records and numerical models.

## 280 **5 Conclusion**

In this study, we present a 30 yr-resolution CO<sub>2</sub> record during the early Holocene. Our data show that millennial atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> variability of 2–4 ppm correlates with several climate proxies such as IRD in the North Atlantic, sea ice extent in the Southern Ocean, El Niño-like condition in the East Equatorial Pacific, all of which appear to coincidentally occur with solar activity minima (Bond et al., 2001; Marchitto et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2004; Reimer et al., 2004; Vonmoos et al., 2006).

285 The relationships with the proxies are consistent with changes in several different mechanisms that could impact atmospheric  
CO<sub>2</sub> on millennial time scales including changing CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing from the Southern Ocean and the East Equatorial Pacific,  
and changing terrestrial carbon storage in the Northern Hemisphere. Our new observations may improve our understanding of  
the relationship between interglacial climate and carbon cycles on millennial time scales in the absence of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub>  
perturbations. Further study should focus on clearly deciphering the millennial CO<sub>2</sub> control mechanisms with improved paleo  
290 proxy records and carbon cycle models.

*Data availability.* Data available in the Supplement. All data will be available on PANGAEA (Paleoclimatology database  
websites).

295 *Author contributions.* The research was designed by JS, JA and EB. The CO<sub>2</sub> measurements were performed by JS with  
contributions from HL and JA. The data analyses were led by JS and JCB with contributions from JMS and JA. JS wrote the  
manuscript with inputs from all authors.

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

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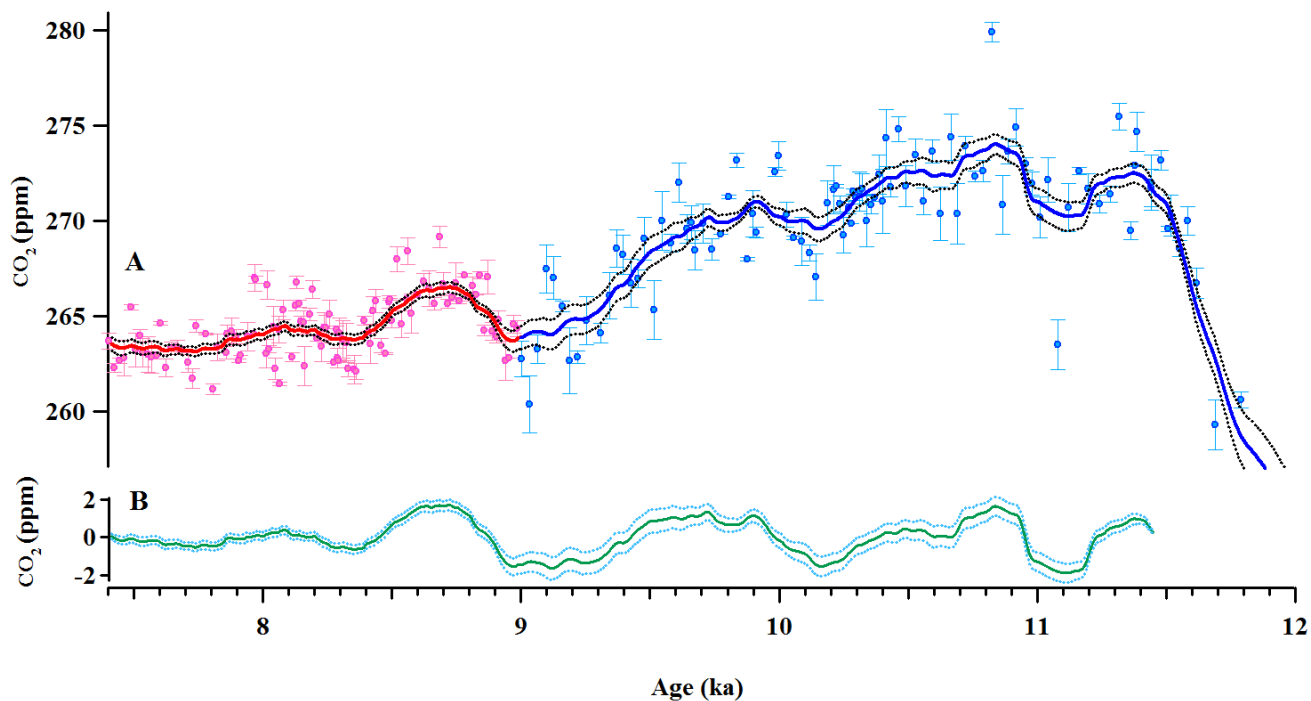
**Table 1.** Glaciological characteristics of Antarctic ice cores.

Core name	Mean Annual Temperature (°C)	Mean Accumulation Rate as Water Equivalent (g cm <sup>-2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup> as water equivalent)	References
Siple Dome	-25.4	12.4	Hamilton (2002); Severinghaus et al. (2001); Taylor et al. (2004)
Taylor Dome	-42	7	Waddington and Morse (1994)
EPICA Dome C	-54	3	Schwander et al.(2001); EPICA Dome C 2001-02 Science and Teams (2002); Tabacco et al.(1998)
WAIS Divide	-31	20	Banta et al.(2008); Morse et al.(2002)

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**Table 2.** Correlation between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record and climate proxy records. Column A shows correlation coefficients between CO<sub>2</sub> and proxies with CO<sub>2</sub> time lags. Column B shows correlation coefficients between CO<sub>2</sub> and proxies without CO<sub>2</sub> time lag. “With MC” are mean values from the simulations taking age uncertainties into account. “Without MC” is the classic calculation of correlation, without taking age uncertainty into account. Significance of the lag correlations was assessed against 1,000 repetitions of the lag correlation calculation using synthetic data stochastically generated to have the same red noise characteristics as the original series.

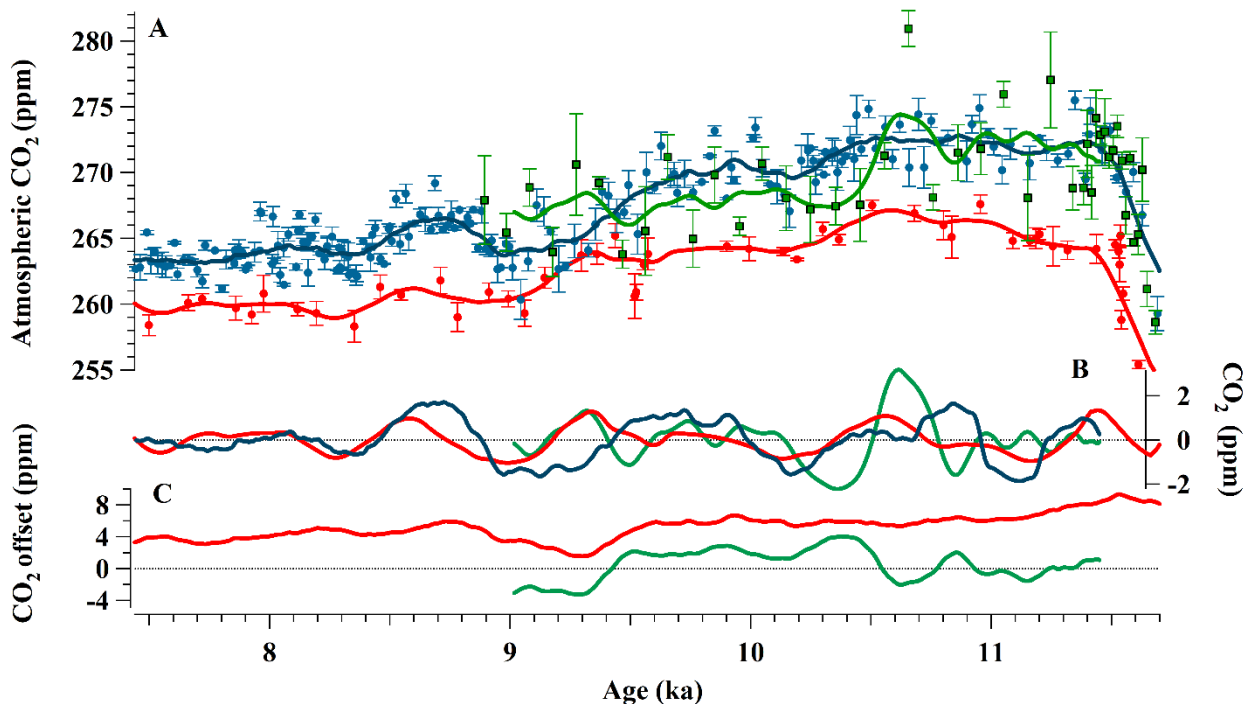
Proxy records (Reference)	A: Correlation between CO <sub>2</sub> and proxies with CO <sub>2</sub> time lag (yrs)				B: Correlation between CO <sub>2</sub> and proxies without CO <sub>2</sub> time lag	
	With MC		Without MC		With MC	Without MC
	r (p-value)	Time lag	r (p-value)	Time lag	r (p-value)	r (p-value)
CO <sub>2</sub> - <sup>14</sup> C production rate Marchitto et al.(2010); Reimer et al.(2004)	-0.49± 0.12 (0.3192)	-20±148	- 0.76 (0.0003)	50	-0.48 (0.007)	-0.70 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - <sup>10</sup> Be flux from Greenland ice core Finkel and Nishiizumi (1997); Marchitto et al. (2010); Vonmoos et al. (2006)	-0.52± 0.08 (0.2847)	110±63	- 0.61 (0.0087)	110	-0.29 (0.05)	-0.32 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - IRD from the North Atlantic region Bond et al. (2001); Marchitto et al. (2010)	-0.49± 0.1 (0.3084)	120±155	- 0.73 (0.0009)	170	-0.33 (0.05)	-0.21 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - SST from eastern equatorial Pacific Marchitto et al. (2010)	-0.40± 0.13 (0.337)	50±219	- 0.61 (0.009)	80	-0.38 (0.04)	-0.55 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - Sea ice in the Southern Ocean Nielsen et al. (2004)	-0.35± 0.17 (0.2899)	190±228	- 0.57 (0.0151)	100	- 0.24 (0.17)	-0.48 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - SST in the Southern Ocean Nielsen et al. (2004)	0.35± 0.17 (0.3070)	52±228	0.57 (0.0144)	30	0.35 (0.06)	0.56 (< 0.001)
CO <sub>2</sub> - NGRIP δ <sup>18</sup> O Rasmussen et al. (2006)	0.21± 0.07 (0.2684)	-130±63	0.11 (0.3411)	270	0.09 (0.5)	0.06 (0.2)



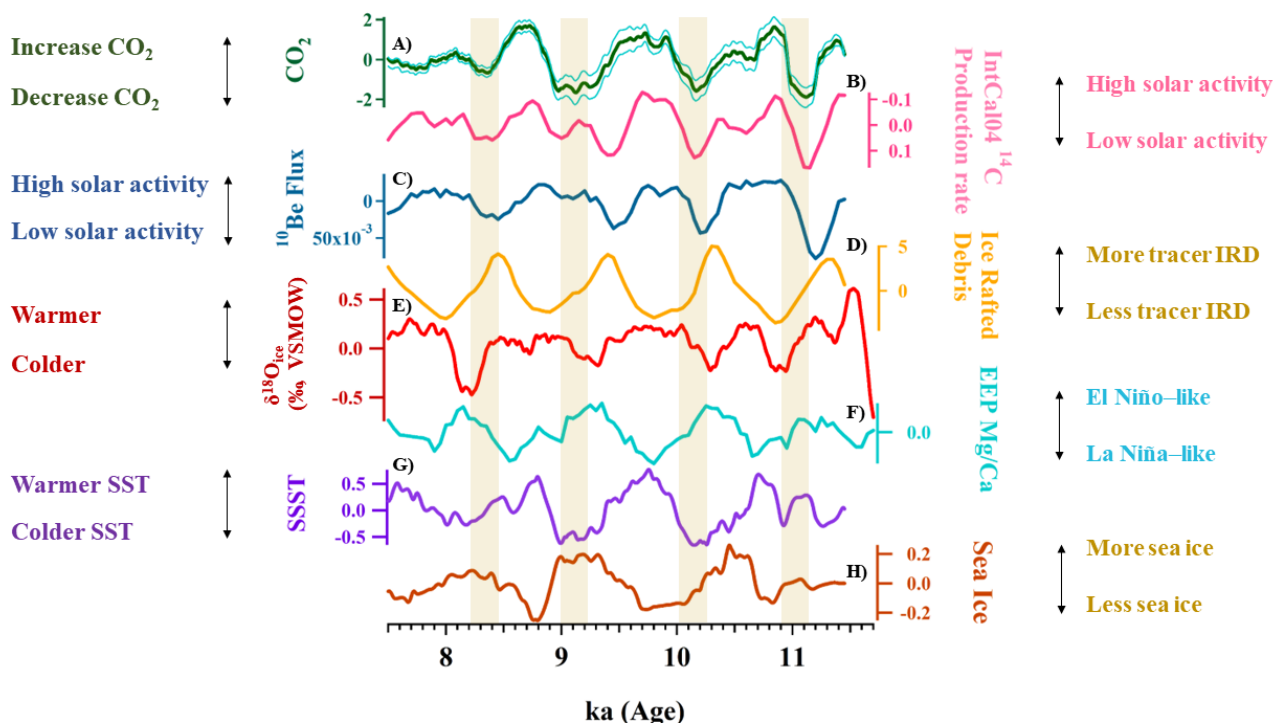
**Figure 1.** High-resolution atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records obtained from Siple Dome ice core, Antarctica during the early Holocene.

510 A. Pink and blue circles are Siple Dome ice core records obtained at Oregon State University (Ahn et al., 2014) and Seoul National University (this study), respectively. Lines represent 250-yr running means and dotted lines, 2 $\sigma$  uncertainties calculated from Monte Carlo simulation. For the simulation, we produced 10,000 different sets of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations which vary randomly with Gaussian propagation in their uncertainties. B. Green line indicates 250-yr running means of the original Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> data processed by high-pass filtering at 1/1800 yr<sup>-1</sup>. Blue line indicates 2 $\sigma$  uncertainties of the 250-year mean

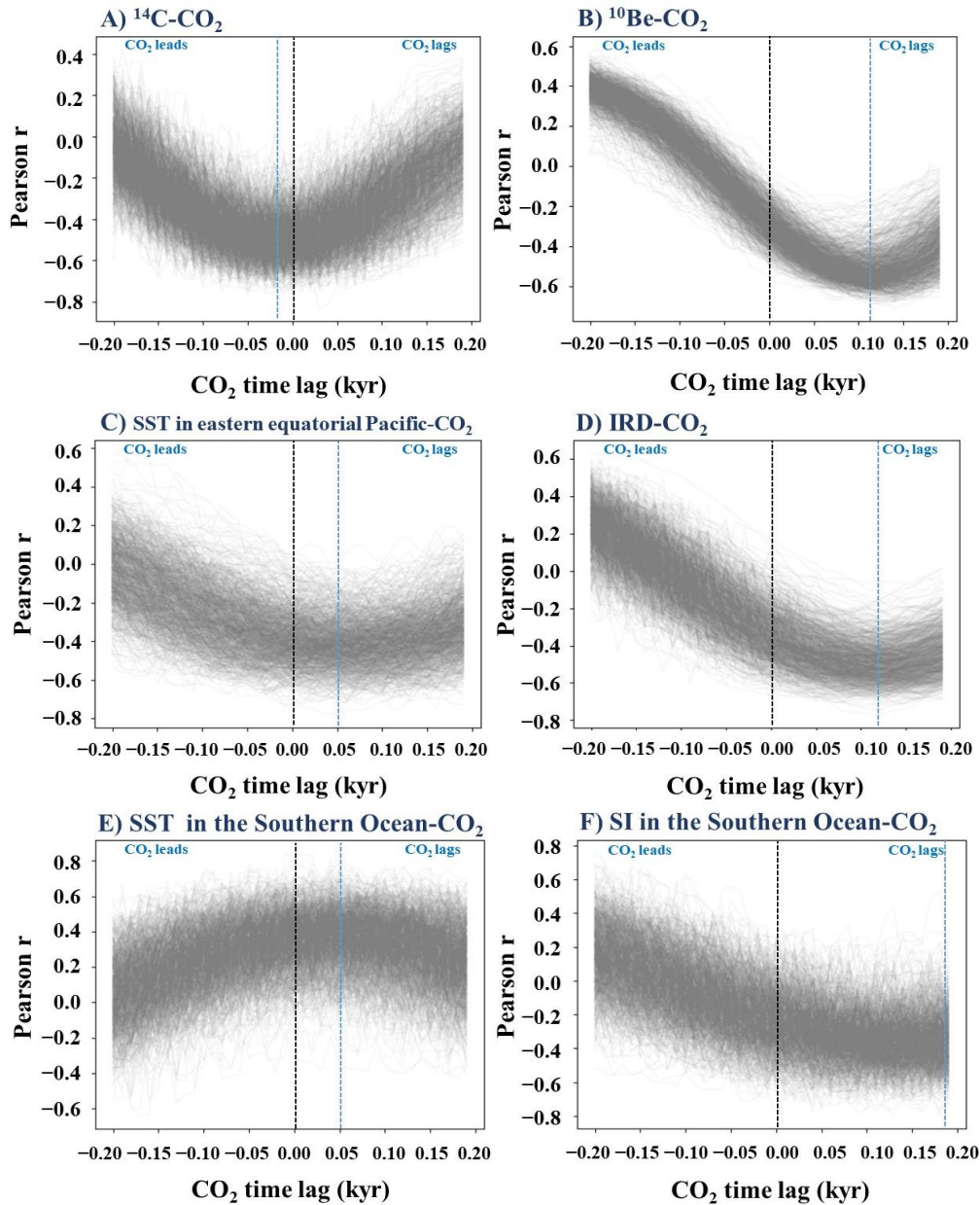
515 value, and cannot be used to interpret variations on shorter timescales.



**Figure 2.** A. Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> records. Red dots: Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Dome C ice core. Red line: 250-yr running means of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Dome C ice core. Blue dots: Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Siple Dome ice core. Blue line: 250-yr running means of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Siple Dome ice core. Green dots: Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from WAIS Divide ice core. Green line: 250-yr running means of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from WAIS Divide ice core. B. Blue line indicates 250-yr running means of the original Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> data processed by high-pass filtering at 1/1800 yr<sup>-1</sup>. Green line indicates 250-yr running means of the original WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> data processed by high-pass filtering at 1/1800 yr<sup>-1</sup>. Red line indicates 250-yr running means of the original WAIS Divide CO<sub>2</sub> data processed by high-pass filtering at 1/1800 yr<sup>-1</sup>. C. CO<sub>2</sub> offset between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record and other published CO<sub>2</sub> records. Red line: CO<sub>2</sub> offset between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record and Dome C CO<sub>2</sub> record. Green line: CO<sub>2</sub> offset between Siple Dome CO<sub>2</sub> record and WAIS divide CO<sub>2</sub> record.



**Figure 3.** Comparison of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> with climatic proxy records over the early Holocene. The records were smoothed at ~250 yrs and high-pass filtered at 1/1800 yr<sup>-1</sup>. A) Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> record from Siple Dome (in this study). Dotted lines, 2σ uncertainties calculated from Monte Carlo simulation. B) <sup>14</sup>C production rate from IntCal04 Δ<sup>14</sup>C data (Marchitto et al., 2010; Reimer et al., 2004). C) <sup>10</sup>Be flux record from ice core on the GICC05 timescale (Finkel and Nishiizumi, 1997; Marchitto et al., 2010; Rasmussen et al., 2006; Vonmoos et al., 2006). D). IRD stacked records from the North Atlantic regions on untuned calibrated <sup>14</sup>C age model (Bond et al., 2001; Marchitto et al., 2010). E) North Greenland Ice Core Project (NGRIP) ice core isotope ratio on the GICC05 timescale (Rasmussen et al., 2006). F) Sea surface temperature from the eastern equatorial Pacific indicating El Niño-like or La Niña-like conditions (Marchitto et al., 2010). The data was radiocarbon dated by accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS), which was recalibrated by the Marine09 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2009). G) Sea surface temperature from the Polar Front of the Southern Ocean on the chronology of Mortyn et al. (2003) (Nielsen et al., 2004). H) Sea ice presence from the Polar Front of the Southern Ocean on the chronology of Mortyn et al. (2003) (Nielsen et al., 2004).



**Figure 4.** Correlation coefficients between CO<sub>2</sub> and proxies with CO<sub>2</sub> time lag calculated from Monte Carlo simulation. Vertical lines in black indicate zero time lag. Vertical lines in blue indicate maximum correlation coefficients between CO<sub>2</sub> and proxies with CO<sub>2</sub> time lag. A) <sup>14</sup>C production rate and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. B) <sup>10</sup>Be flux and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. C) SST in the eastern equatorial Pacific and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. D) IRD from the North Atlantic and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. E) SST in the East Equatorial Pacific indicating El Niño-like or La Niña-like conditions and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>. F) SI in the East Equatorial Pacific and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>.