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supporting information to

2 Wind-driven evolution of the North Pacific subpolar gyre over the last

## 3 deglaciation

William R Gray<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Robert CJ Wills<sup>3</sup>, James WB Rae<sup>2</sup>, Andrea Burke<sup>2</sup>, Ruza F Ivanovic<sup>4</sup>, William HG
 Roberts<sup>5</sup>, David Ferreira<sup>6</sup>, Paul J Valdes<sup>7</sup>

6 <sup>1</sup>Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement (LSCE/IPSL), Gif-sur-Yvette, France

- <sup>7</sup> <sup>2</sup>School of Earth and Environmental Science, University of St Andrews, UK
- 8 <sup>3</sup>Department of Atmospheric Sciences, University of Washington, USA
- <sup>9</sup> <sup>4</sup>School of Earth & Environment, University of Leeds, UK
- 10 <sup>5</sup>Geography and Environmental Sciences, Northumbria University, UK
- 11 <sup>6</sup>Department of Meteorology, University of Reading, UK
- 12 <sup>7</sup>School of Geographical Sciences, University of Bristol, UK
- 13
- 14 \*corresponding author: william.gray@lsce.ipsl.fr
- 15

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18 Other supporting information not included in this file - Dataset S1, Table S2

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## 20 Using planktic foraminiferal $\delta^{18}O$ to trace the gyre boundary

21 The  $\delta^{18}$ O of the planktic foraminiferal calcite ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub>) is a function of the  $\delta^{18}$ O 22 of seawater ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>water</sub>, which is closely related to salinity), and the temperature 23 dependant fractionation between calcite and water ( $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite-water</sub>); specifically, the 24 fractionation between calcite and water is described by a fractionation factor ( $\alpha_{calcite-}$ 

25 
$$_{\text{water}} = [{}^{18}\text{O}/{}^{16}\text{O}]_{\text{calcite}} / [{}^{18}\text{O}/{}^{16}\text{O}]_{\text{water}})$$
 which is related to temperature via,

26 
$$1000 ln\alpha_{calcite-water} = 18.03(10^3 T^1) - 32.42$$

- 27 where T is temperature in Kelvin (Kim and O'Neil, 1997).
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Our ability to use the planktic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  to trace the gyre boundary 29 30 comes from the dominance of the temperature signal over that of  $\delta^{18}O_{water}$  in driving the meridional pattern of  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub> across the basin; the temperature signal is 4-5 times 31 32 greater than the  $\delta^{18}O_{water}$  signal (Figure 1). As the spatial temperature pattern across the 33 basin is primarily governed by the gyre circulation, with the steepest meridional temperature gradient (and thus meridional  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$  gradient) at the gyre boundary, we 34 can use the meridional profiles of temperature (and thus  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ ) to track the 35 36 movement of the gyre boundary. Coupled climate models demonstrate a very tight coupling between the LGM-PI change in latitude of gyre boundary (defined where 37 38 barotropic stream function = 0) and LGM-PI change in the latitude of maximum 39 latitudinal gradient in sea surface temperature (SST) (Figure S1). As no mechanism exists to drive changes in  $\delta^{18}O_{water}$  of the same magnitude as the changes in  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite-}$ 40 41 water fractionation from the large temperature difference between the gyres (Figure 1d), the temperature signal will always dominate over the  $\delta^{18}O_{water}$  signal in determining the 42 spatial pattern of  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub> (Figure 1e) across the basin and the maximum meridional 43 44  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub> gradient (Figure 1f); thus, while there are likely to be local changes in  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>water</sub> across the basin, the steepest part of the meridional  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$  gradient will always be 45 determined by temperature, allowing us to use meridional profiles of  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  to track 46 47 the position of the gyre boundary through time.





**Figure S1** Modelled zonal mean LGM-pre-industrial (PI) change in latitude of gyre boundary (defined where barotropic stream function = 0) versus LGM-PI change in latitude of maximum meridional gradient in sea surface temperature (SST) within a 5° moving window; the close relationship demonstrates past changes in the position of the maximum gradient in SST/Lat (and thus  $\sim \delta^{18}O_{calcite}/Lat$ ) can be used to trace changes in the position of the gyre boundary.

55 We model the compiled  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$  data (see below) as a function of latitude, 56 using a Gaussian generalized additive model (GAM) (Wood, 2011; Wood *et al.*, 2016) 57 in the *mgcv* package in R (R core Team) at 100 yr timesteps from 18.5 to 10.5 ka (the 58 time interval/resolution for which we have sufficient spatial and temporal coverage in 59 our dataset; Figure 1),

$$\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}} = \beta_0 + f(\text{Lat}) + \varepsilon$$

61 where  $\beta_0$  is the intercept term,  $\varepsilon$  is random error, and f(Lat) is a smooth function, which

62 can be represented as the sum of the underlying basis functions,

63 
$$f(Lat) = \sum_{j=1}^{k} b_j(Lat)\beta_j$$

64 where  $b_j$  is the evaluation of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  basis function at the value of Lat, and  $\beta_j$  is the 65 estimated coefficient or weight of that basis function. We sum over the weighted values 66 of k basis functions (j = 1, 2, ..., k), which comprise of reduced rank thin plate regression splines (Wood, 2011; Wood et al., 2016; Simpson, 2018). Here, *k* was set to
8, although the value of *k* has little effect on the smooth function. The smooth function
is estimated by minimising the penalised sum of squares; the penalty term imposes
smoothness by calculating the integrated square of the second derivative of the spline
(Wood, 2011; Wood et al., 2016; Simpson, 2018),

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$$penalty = \lambda \int f''(Lat)^2 dLat$$

with the smoothness parameter ( $\lambda$ ) controlling the extent to which the penalty term contributes to the likelihood of the model, with larger  $\lambda$  giving a smoother function (Wood, 2011; Wood et al., 2016; Simpson, 2018). The smoothness parameter was determined using Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML, Reis and Ogden, 2009; Wood *et al.*, 2016). Uncertainty envelopes on the fitted models (Figure 2) represent the 68% and 95% Bayesian credible intervals. The reader is directed to Simpson (2018) for a detailed overview of GAM methodology.

<sup>81</sup>Figure S2 (below) GAM fits to  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  data as a function of latitude at 500 year timesteps from 18.582to 10.5 ka (colours indicate age); the GAM fit to Holocene  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  data (10.5 ka) is shown in dark grey.83The portion of the curve within the latitudinal band used to calculate the shift in gyre position (see Fig.84S5) is shown by the solid line; at each timestep we calculate the latitudinal shift that minimises the85Euclidean distance (along the y-axis) between the solid part of the coloured curve and the solid part of86the grey curve. Data are the combined east-west dataset (marked ALL on Figure 4). Note, the87reconstruction in Figure 5 uses time-steps of 100 years; here we show the meridional profiles at time-88steps of 500 years for illustrative purposes.





**Figure S3** As figure S2, however data are from west of 180°.





94 We calculate the change in gyre boundary position over deglaciation as the 95 latitudinal shift ( $x^{\circ}$ ) that minimises the Euclidean distance (L<sup>2</sup>) between the Holocene 96 (taken as 10.5±0.5 ka)  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub>~latitude GAM fit and the GAM fit to each time step, 97 within a latitudinal band spanning the gyre boundary; this latitudinal band is centred around the maximum gradient in  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  versus latitude in the Holocene data within 98 99 a 5° moving window (36.1 °N). In the combined dataset from the east and west, and 100 the data from the west only, we calculate the latitudinal shift using a 5° latitudinal band 101 (i.e. 33.6 to 38.6 °N), and we note the size of this latitudinal band has only a negligible 102 effect on our results (Fig. S5); as the gyre boundary (and thus meridional temperature and  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub> gradient) is more diffuse in the east, we use a slightly larger window of 103 104 10° (i.e. 31.1 to 41.1 °N).



106Figure S5 method used to calculate the shift in gyre boundary position (a) at each time step (here LGM,10718.5 ka) we calculate the gyre boundary shift as the latitudinal shift ( $x^\circ$ , in 0.1 ° increments from 0 to 10108degrees) that minimises the Euclidean distance (b) within a specified latitudinal band (grey box in (a)109between the GAM fit to the timestep (solid line) and the Holocene (dashed line) in data is calculated.110The coloured lines in (a) show the LGM GAM fit shifted north in 0.5° increments, and the coloured dots111in (b) show the Euclidean distance from the Holocene line at each increment, with the colour indicating112the degree to which the curve has been shifted.



## 114

Figure S6 (a) calculated change in the position of the gyre boundary using different sizes of latitudinal band (between 1° and 9°) in which the Euclidean distance between the GAM fits is calculated; the size of latitudinal band (the grey box in figure S5a above) has very little effect on the results.

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119 We note that the steepest part of the Holocene curve (~36.1 °N) using the 120 combined dataset from the east and west, is further south than the zonal mean position 121 of the gyre boundary today (~40 °N). This is due to the westward bias within the dataset 122 (i.e. there are many more sites in the west relative to the east within the dataset), and 123 the gyre boundary is located slightly further south in the west relative to the zonal mean; 124 the maximum meridional gradient in mean annual SST is found at ~36 °N along the 125 western margin of the basin (Boyer et al., 2013), in good agreement with our 126 reconstruction.

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We also note that if we use a totally different method to calculate the change in position of the gyre boundary, simply calculating the change in latitude in the steepest part of the meridional  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$  gradient (within a 5° moving window), we arrive at a very similar estimate of a ~2.6° southward shift between the Holocene and LGM. This method is more prone to anomalous values at the latitudinal extremes; hence we opt for the method of calculating the latitudinal shift that minimises the Euclidean distance 134 between timesteps within a defined latitudinal band described above. The agreement

135 between the two methods is, however, reassuring.

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# 137 Planktic for a miniferal $\delta^{l8}O_{calcite}$ compilation

We compiled all available planktic for miniferal calcite  $\delta^{18}$ O from cores across the 138 139 North Pacific. Compiled records include  $\delta^{18}$ O measured on G. ruber, G. bulloides, and 140 *N. pachvderma*. All data were kept on the original age models, except in the case when data were only available on uncalibrated <sup>14</sup>C age models, in which case the <sup>14</sup>C data 141 142 were recalibrated using INTCAL13 (Reimer et al., 2013) using an average of the 143 modern reservoir age at each site and a regional glacial increase of +400 years with large uncertainties ( $\pm 500$  years). All  $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$  data along with the core, location, water 144 145 depth, species, sediment depth, age, and original data reference are given in Table S1. 146 We only include cores spanning the interval between 10.5 to 18.5 ka with an average resolution of >1 point per ka; the average resolution of the individual cores during 147 148 deglaciation is ~1 point/125 years. We exclude core EW0408-26/66JC from the 149 compilation (Praetorious and Mix, 2014); this core is located in close proximity to the 150 terminus of a glacier, and comparing the  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  data of this core to other cores within the subpolar gyre demonstrates planktic for aminiferal  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  data from this core 151 primarily reflect local meltwater changes, rather that wider oceanographic conditions 152 153 in the subpolar gyre (Figure S7). The compiled dataset is given in Dataset S1 and will 154 be available on Pangea.



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156Figure S7 Foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  from the subpolar gyre over deglaciation. A GAM fit with to all the<br/>data (excluding core EW0408-26/66JC) is shown by the purple line, with 68% Bayesian credible interval<br/>shaded. Data from core EW0408-26/66JC (Praetorius and Mix, 2014) is shown in green.159

160 Seasonality of planktic foraminifera

161 Our approach assumes that any change in seasonal bias relating to the habitat preference 162 of foraminifera are small relative to the change in temperature due to the movement of 163 the gyre boundary. The validity of this approach is supported by sites where  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ 164 has been measured on more than one species of foraminifera, such as core ODP Site 165 893 or MD02-2489 (Figure 1 and Figure 2). At these sites, foraminiferal species with 166 habitat temperature preferences that are known to be different (G. bulloides and N. 167 pachyderma, e.g. Taylor et al., 2018) show very similar changes down core, with a 168 Holocene-LGM change that is identical (within error); this suggests any changes 169 relating to changes seasonal bias are likely to be insignificant in our reconstruction. 170

## 172 Sea surface temperature and %Opal data

We compiled Mg/Ca and U<sup>K'</sup><sub>37</sub> sea surface temperature (SST) data from across the 173 North Pacific (Mg/Ca: Reitdorf et al., 2013; Gebhardt et al., 2008; Rodriguez Sanz et 174 175 al., 2013; Taylor et al., 2015; Sagawa et al., 2006; Sagawa et al., 2008; Pak et al., 2012; Kubota et al., 2010; Gray et al, 2018. U<sup>K'</sup><sub>37</sub>: Minoshima et al., 2007; Seki, 2004; Harada 176 177 et al., 2004; Harada, 2006; Harada et al., 2008; Inagaki et al., 2009; Herbert et al., 2001; 178 Sawada et al., 1998; Yamamoto et al., 2004; Isono et al., 2009). All age models are as given in the original publication. All Mg/Ca and UK'37 data were recalibrated (see 179 180 below) and the temperature change during the LGM (Figure 2c) is given as a difference 181 to both proxy temperature in the Holocene, and to mean annual climatological 182 temperature from the WOA13 (Boyer et al., 2013).

183 While the direct temperature sensitivity of Mg/Ca in planktic foraminifera is ~6% per 184 °C (Gray et al., 2018b; Gray and Evans, 2019), due to the effect of temperature on pH 185 through the disassociation constant of water (K<sub>w</sub>), the 'apparent' Mg/Ca temperature 186 sensitivity is higher (Gray et al., 2018b). Thus, we calculate the change in temperature 187 from the change in Mg/Ca at each site using a temperature sensitivity of 8.8%, derived 188 from laboratory cultures (Kisakürek et al., 2008), which encompasses both the direct 189 temperature effect and the temperature-pH effect, with a Mg/Ca-pH sensitivity of ~ -190 8% per 0.1 pH unit (Lea et al., 1999; Russell et al., 2004; Evans et al., 2016; Gray et 191 al., 2018b; Gray and Evans, 2019). Mg/Ca is also influenced by salinity, with a 192 sensitivity of ~3-4% per PSU (Hönisch et al, 2013; Gray et al., 2018b; Gray and Evans, 193 2019). As we are primarily interested in (qualitative) changes in meridional SST pattern, we make no attempt to account for the whole ocean effects of salinity or pH 194 195 downcore. The combined effect of the whole-ocean increase in salinity (due to sea 196 level), and the increase in surface ocean pH (due to lower atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>) means

197 changes in temperature derived from changes in Mg/Ca are likely to be cold-biased by 198  $\sim 1.5 \,^{\circ}$ C during the LGM (Gray and Evans, 2019). For U<sup>K'</sup><sub>37</sub>, the change in temperature 199 at each site was calculated using the calibration of Prahl et al., 1988; the temperature 200 range in this study is too low to be substantially effected by the non-linearity of U<sup>K'</sup><sub>37</sub> 201 (e.g. Tierney and Tingley, 2018).

202 We analyse the North Pacific %Opal compilation of Kohfeld and Chase (2011) 203 to look for qualitative changes in the meridional pattern of productivity over the last 204 deglaciation. Due to the high nutrient supply from upwelling, productivity in the SPG is an order of magnitude higher than the STG. A southward expansion of the gyre 205 206 boundary should thus result in an increase in productivity within the transition zone; 207 transition zone sites show a  $\sim$ 25% increase in %Opal on both sides of the basin during 208 the LGM (Figure 2d) consistent with nutrient-rich subpolar waters moving further south 209 during the LGM and increasing local productivity.



Figure S8 Opal Mass Accumulation Rate data from core KH99-03 in the SPG (Narita et al., 2002) and core NCG108 in the transition zone (Maeda et al., 2002). Dashed lines show mean value for each marine isotope stage (MIS). Grey shading shows MIS 1, 3 and 5. Transition zone and subpolar waters show an anti-phased relationship in Opal MAR over the last glacial cycle.

## 215 General Circulation Models

216 We assess differences in North Pacific barotropic stream function, wind stress 217 curl, zonal wind stress, and SST between LGM and pre-industrial conditions as 218 represented by four coupled climate models (CCSM4, CNRM-CM5, MPI-ESM-P and 219 MRI-CGCM3). All models are part of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 220 phase 5 (CMIP5, Taylor et al., 2012). We only used the four models where both wind 221 stress and barotropic stream function data are available. Orbital parameters, 222 atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations, coastlines and ice topography for the LGM 223 simulations are standardized as part of the Paleoclimate Model Intercomparison Project 224 phase 3 (PMIP3) (Braconnot et al. 2012, Taylor et al. 2012). Ensemble means are 225 computed by first linearly interpolating to a common grid, and are 4-model means of 226 100-year climatologies; uncertainties in these centennial averages due to internal 227 variability are negligible.

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229 Using a single model (HadCM3) we look at runs where the model greenhouse 230 gas, ice sheet albedo, ice sheet topography are changed individually ('Green Mountains, 231 White Plains') as described in Roberts and Valdes (2017). The 'Green Mountains, 232 White Plains' runs use the ICE5G ice sheet reconstruction (Peltier et al., 2004), whereas 233 the deglacial 'snapshot' runs (below) use the ICE6G ice sheet reconstruction (Peltier et 234 al., 2015). The change in gyre boundary position with each forcing are as follows: GHG = -0.5 °N; Albedo = -0.5 °N; Topography = -0.05 °N; Albedo + Topography = -2.4 °N; 235 236 ALL (although with the smaller ICE6G ice sheet) = -3.4 °N.

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We also explore changes through time over the deglaciation using a series of HadCM3 equilibrium-type simulations where all forcings and model boundary

240 conditions are changed at 500-year intervals broadly adhering to the PMIP4 last 241 deglaciation protocol (Ivanovic et al., 2016). These simulations use the ICE6GC ice 242 sheet reconstruction and 'melt-uniform' scenario for ice sheet meltwater; i.e. freshwater 243 from the melting ice sheets is NOT routed to the ocean via coastal outlets. Instead, 244 water is conserved by forcing the global mean ocean salinity to be consistent with the change in global ice sheet volume with respect to present. Note, these deglacial 245 246 simulations are not transient, but are equilibrium-type experiments that begin from the end of the 1750-year long simulations run by Singarayer et al. (2011). At each 500-year 247 248 interval (21.0 ka, 20.5 ka, 20.0 ka...0.5 ka, 0.0 ka), all boundary conditions and forcings 249 are updated according to the more recent literature (presented by Ivanovic et al., 2016) 250 and held constant for the full 500-year duration of the run. The climate means and 251 standard deviations used here are calculated from the last 50 years of each simulation 252 (i.e. year 451-500, inclusive). More information on these runs can be found in the 253 supplement to Morris et al. (2018), noting that we use the raw model output and not the 254 downscaled and bias-corrected data used in the previous publication. Zonal mean 255 changes in SST anomaly (from global mean), barotropic stream function, and zonal 256 wind stress at each time step are shown below (Fig. S9).



Figure S9 Deglacial evolution of zonal mean (a) SST anomaly (relative to global mean) (b) barotropic
 stream function (c) zonal wind stress in the HadCM3 simulations.

#### 262 Eastern boundary test

To test if there is an influence of coastal upwelling on the data in the east (i.e. a signal 263 264 of some other control on latitudinal temperature anomaly [and thus latitudinal  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>calcite</sub> 265 anomaly] besides change in gyre position) we compare the ensemble mean SST along 266 the eastern boundary of the basin (taken as the first oceanic grid point west of land 267 during the LGM) to the zonal mean, and zonal mean east of the dateline (Fig. S10). 268 The models show no indication of a strong influence of coastal upwelling, which would 269 manifest as an anomalous cooling relative to the zonal mean. This analysis suggests 270 coastal upwelling is unlikely to be having a significant effect on our results, although 271 the simulated coastal upwelling may be poorly represented due to the resolution of the 272 models.





274 Figure S10 (a) LGM and PI SST anomaly (from global mean), and (b) LGM-PI SST anomaly in different 275 276 longitudinal bins; zonal mean (grey), zonal mean east of the dateline (180°, blue), along the eastern boundary of the basin (green), and 5° seaward from the eastern boundary of the basin (orange). Note, the 277 gyre boundary s located slightly further north along the eastern margin relative to the zonal mean and 278 279 zonal mean east of the dateline.

280 HS1 Freshwater test

281 The release of large amounts of freshwater into the eastern subpolar North Pacific has 282 been suggested over deglaciation, at ~17.5 ka (Maier et al 2018). The release of 283 freshwater into the eastern subpolar North Pacific is evident in an increase in the

284	$\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ difference between the mixed-layer dwelling species G. bulloides and the
285	slightly deeper-dwelling species N. pachyderma in core MD02-2489 (54.39°N, -
286	148.92°E ) at this time; during this interval G. bulloides becomes ~0.6 $\%$ more depleted
287	than N. pachyderma. To test if this release of freshwater may be influencing our gyre
288	boundary reconstruction we re-run the gyre-boundary analysis, however removing the
289	G. bulloides data from core MD02-2489; the results are identical to the gyre boundary
290	reconstruction including the G. bulloides data demonstrating that the effect of
291	freshwater release has very little effect on our gyre boundary reconstruction. This is
292	because the change in $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ from the freshwater release (~0.6 ‰, equivalent to ~2
293	PSU freshening) is very small compared to the large change in $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$ resulting from
294	the temperature difference between the gyres (~5.5 ‰). Localised freshwater inputs,
295	while having a large effect locally, do very little to change the pattern of $\delta^{18}O_{\text{calcite}}$ at
296	the basin scale.
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Core	Lat (°N)	Lon (°E)	Species	Reference
MD02-2489	54.39	-148.92	N. pachyderma	Gebhardt et al 2008
MD02-2489	54.39	-148.92	G. bulloides	Gebhardt et al 2008
PAR87A-10	54.36	-148.46	G. bulloides	Zahn et al 1991
PAR87A-10	54.36	-148.46	N. pachyderma	Zahn et al 1991
PAR87A-02	54.29	-149.61	G. bulloides	Zahn et al 1991
PAR87A-02	54.29	-149.61	N. pachyderma	Zahn et al 1991
MD02-2496	48.97	-127.03	N. pachyderma	Taylor et al 2015
MD02-2496	48.97	-127.03	G. bulloides	Taylor et al 2015
ODP1017	34.32	-121.60	G. bulloides	Pak et al 2012
ODP893	34.23	-120.04	N. pachyderma	Hendy et al 2002
ODP893	34.23	-120.04	G. bulloides	Hendy et al 2002
MD02-2503	34.28	-120.04	G. bulloides	Hill et al 2006
AHF-28181	33.01	-119.06	G. bulloides	Mortyn et al 1996
MD05-2505	25.00	-112.00	G. ruber	Rodríguez-Sanz et al 2013
SO201-2-101	58.88	170.68	N. pachyderma	Reitdorf et al 2013
SO201-2-85	57.51	170.41	N. pachyderma	Reitdorf et al 2013
SO201-2-77	56.33	170.70	N. pachyderma	Reitdorf et al 2013
SO201-2-12	53.99	162.36	N. pachyderma	Reitdorf et al 2013
MD01-2416	51.27	167.73	N. pachyderma	Gebhardt et al 2008
MD01-2416	51.27	167.73	G. bulloides	Gebhardt et al 2008
VINO-GGC37	50.28	167.70	N. pachyderma	Keigwin 1998
LV29-114-3	49.34	152.88	N. pachyderma	Reitdorf et al 2013
KT90-9_21	42.45	144.32	G. bulloides	Oba and Murayama 2004
GH02-1030	42.00	144.00	G. bulloides	Sagawa and Ikehara 2008
CH84-14	41.44	142.33	G. bulloides	Labeyrie 1996
CH84-04	36.46	142.13	G. bulloides	Labeyrie 1996
MD01-2420	36.07	141.82	G. bulloides	Sagawa et al 2006
MD01-2421	36.02	141.78	G. bulloides	Oba and Murayama 2004
KY07_04_01	31.64	128.94	G. ruber	Kubota et al 2010
A7	27.82	126.98	G. ruber	Sun et al 2005
ODP184-1145	19.58	117.63	G. ruber	Oppo and Sun 2005

Table S1 Compiled planktic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}O_{calcite}$  records. The compiled will be made available on Pangea.

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