



30 following recent proxy and modelling studies of the last deglacial, which suggested that the collapse  
31 of intermediate waters in the subarctic Pacific region released ~30ppm of CO<sub>2</sub> from resumed deep  
32 water ventilation (Okazaki et al., 2010; Rae et al., 2014), interest in the subarctic Pacific Ocean as a  
33 key area for understanding global palaeoclimate has grown (Haug et al., 2005; Jaccard et al., 2005;  
34 Jaccard and Galbraith, 2018; Sigman et al., 2010). As in Southern Ocean palaeo-research,  
35 reconstructing sea-ice evolution and variability is considered of critical importance in understanding  
36 past climate transitions (Ferrari et al., 2014; Keeling and Stephens, 2000) such as the Mid Pleistocene  
37 Transition (MPT).

38 The MPT represents a global climate cooling between ~1.2 and 0.6 Ma, during which glacial-  
39 interglacial cycles shifted from obliquity-dominant 40 kyr cycles, to lower frequency eccentricity-  
40 dominant 100 kyr cycles (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). However, no significant long-term change in the  
41 external orbital forcing implies that there must have been an internal forcing which caused this  
42 response (Clark et al., 2006; McClymont et al., 2013). As there was a stepwise increase in ice volume  
43 at 0.9 Ma, termed “the 900 kyr event”, evidenced by an increase in global seawater  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (Elderfield  
44 et al., 2012), some hypotheses invoke changing ice-sheets dynamics as the key proponent for the  
45 MPT; whereby, a change in the relationship between ice-sheets and the underlying rock (Clark et al.,  
46 2006), or a changing ice-sheet response to insolation due to decreasing atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Berger et  
47 al., 1999; Hönisch et al., 2009), allowed increased ice volume and thickness. Variability in high latitude  
48 sea-ice is considered a credible mechanism for lowering atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, through its influence on  
49 suppressing polar upwelling which would reduce outgassing of CO<sub>2</sub> from the deep ocean (Kender et  
50 al., 2018; Worne et al., 2019), and/or through increasing the efficiency of the biological pump and  
51 CO<sub>2</sub> drawdown as sea-ice melt provides a micronutrient/iron supply and stimulates primary  
52 productivity (Clark et al., 2006; Martínez-García et al., 2009).

53 Alternatively, the “sea-ice switch” (SIS) hypothesis suggests that feedbacks between Northern  
54 Hemispheric sea-ice played a pivotal role in the MPT by modulating North American Ice-Sheet (NAIS)  
55 growth and stability (Gildor and Tziperman, 2001; Tziperman and Gildor, 2003). Firstly, as a result of  
56 deep-ocean cooling and changes in ocean vertical mixing, high latitude sea-ice and ice-sheet volumes  
57 increased during the MPT. This process may have been enhanced by reduced poleward heat  
58 transport and increased delivery of moisture to the subarctic following an intensification of the  
59 Walker circulation from 1.17 Ma (McClymont and Rosell-Melé, 2005). Secondly, as a result of this  
60 sea-ice expansion, reduced moisture supply over the North American continent would have slowed

61 the growth of the NAIS, forming a land versus sea-ice hysteresis model. In this case, ice-sheet decline  
62 during late-glacial/deglacial would have occurred before the maximum sea-ice extent, acting to  
63 lengthen glacial periods. The resulting reduction in ice albedo as ice-sheets declined would have  
64 caused atmospheric warming and a subsequent rapid retreat of sea-ice during late deglacial/early  
65 interglacial.

66 The Bering Sea, proximal to the NAIS, is ideally situated to examine changes in high-latitude sea-  
67 ice dynamics over the MPT. Modern surface waters in the Bering Sea are formed from relatively  
68 warmer waters that flow along the Alaskan Stream from the Gulf of Alaska and enter the Bering basin  
69 through passes in the Aleutian island arc at the southern boundary. From the south-east, surface  
70 waters then circulate anti-clockwise in the basin, forming the shelf-adjacent Bering Slope Current  
71 (BSC; Figure 1). Turbulent eddies in the BSC extend up to ~1 km water depth and cause upwelling of  
72 nutrient rich and CO<sub>2</sub> North Pacific Deep Water (NPDW), which enters in the western region of the  
73 basin through the deep Kamchatka Strait (depth >2000 m; Stabeno et al., 1999). This upwelling causes  
74 the Bering slope to become an important region for detecting past changes in high-latitude deep  
75 water nutrient upwelling and possible CO<sub>2</sub> ventilation (Worne et al., 2019). Today, the abundant  
76 nutrient supply from NPDW to the surface fuels a high productivity region known as the “green belt”,  
77 dominated by diatoms, which primarily bloom in the spring/summer (Figure 1) (Springer et al., 1996;  
78 Stabeno et al., 1999; Takahashi et al., 2011). Seasonal sea-ice melt, which has formed in the northern  
79 Bering Sea since the onset of northern hemispheric glaciation (~2.6 Ma), and is expected to have  
80 been perennial or near-perennial during Pleistocene glacials (Detlef et al., 2018; Stroynowski et al.,  
81 2015), plays a critical role in this primary productivity by promoting water column stability and  
82 allowing diatoms to remain in the photic zone and utilise available nutrients (Fukai et al., 2020; Hunt  
83 and Stabeno, 2002; Kim et al., 2012).

84 Previous sea-ice reconstructions in the Bering Sea found support for the SIS hypothesis,  
85 demonstrating increased MPT sea-ice (Stroynowski et al., 2017; Teraishi et al., 2016) and a shift in  
86 the timing of the sea-ice maxima from mid- to late glacial, to the later glacial/deglacial (Detlef et al.,  
87 2018). On the other hand, other studies have also suggested that MPT sea-ice expansion in  
88 combination with sea level declines >50 m at ~0.9 Ma, promoted brine rejection on the Bering shelf.  
89 Although in the modern day, North Pacific Intermediate Water (NPIW) represents a salinity minima  
90 that occurs at ~300-800m water depth and is sourced from the Okhotsk Sea (Talley, 2013; Yasuda,  
91 2004), previous studies suggest that during past glacial periods, Bering Sea brines sank to form glacial

92 North Pacific Intermediate Water (GNPIW) (Horikawa et al., 2010; Kender et al., 2018; Knudson and  
93 Ravelo, 2015), potentially in combination with those from the Okhotsk Sea (Max et al., 2014). GNPIW  
94 is thought to have depressed upwelling of NPDW upwelling along the Bering Shelf (Figure 1), trapping  
95 carbon and nutrient rich waters in the deep Bering Sea basin (Kender et al., 2018; Worne et al., 2019).  
96 It is proposed that the expanded GNPIW propagated across the subarctic Pacific Ocean during and  
97 after the MPT, causing region-wide suppression of vertical mixing and reducing CO<sub>2</sub> outgassing from  
98 the deep ocean (Kender et al., 2018; Worne et al., 2020). However the short time intervals and low  
99 resolution of these records (Detlef et al., 2018; Kender et al., 2018; Knudson and Ravelo, 2015;  
100 Stroynowski et al., 2017; Teraishi et al., 2016) limits a full assessment of the long term relationship  
101 between Bering Sea sea-ice, productivity and the resultant influence on regional oceanography and  
102 climate dynamics.

103 Here we present a high resolution diatom assemblage record from IODP Site U1343 in the slope  
104 region of the Bering shelf. The age model for IODP Site U1343 is particularly robust (see Section 2.1)  
105 (Asahi et al., 2016; Kender et al., 2018; Worne et al., 2020), permitting a sub-millennial scale  
106 reconstruction of sea-ice variability. Comparison of the relative and absolute abundances of sea-ice  
107 related diatoms with global climate proxies and regional nutrient upwelling and productivity records  
108 (Kim et al., 2014; Worne et al., 2020, 2019) is used to reconstruct sea-ice evolution and dynamics  
109 during the enigmatic MPT period. Using this, a full evaluation of the role of sea-ice on mechanisms  
110 for MPT development, including subarctic Pacific GNPIW expansion, ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>  
111 exchange and the SIS hypothesis between 1.2 and 0.6 Ma (marine isotope stages (MIS) 15 to 36), is  
112 made.

## 113 **2. Method**

### 114 **2.1. Core materials, age model and sedimentation rates**

115 IODP Site U1343 (54°33.4'N, 176°49.0'E, water depth ~1950 m) is situated on a topographic high  
116 which is adjacent to the continental shelf and proximal to the modern winter sea-ice edge (Figure 1).  
117 Sediments from this site are primarily composed of silt with varying amounts of clay and diatoms,  
118 with minimal input of shelf-transported materials (Takahashi et al., 2011). Regionally outstanding  
119 foraminiferal preservation at the Bering slope has provided an excellent opportunity to create a  
120 globally comparable and robust orbitally-tuned benthic foraminiferal  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  age model, with 1,323  
121 measurements at an average resolution of 730 years from 0.6 – 1.2 Ma (Asahi et al., 2016; Worne et

122 al., 2020, 2019) (Figure 2A), with a particularly high resolution section (average of 290 years) between  
123 0.85 and 1.02 Ma (Kender et al., 2018).

## 124 **2.2. Diatom assemblages**

125 Enhanced productivity at the green belt has facilitated high preservation quality of diatom fossils in  
126 sediments at IODP Site U1343 (Takahashi et al., 2011). 183 samples for diatom analysis were selected  
127 to provide a mean resolution of 3.4 kyr between 0.6 and 1.2 Ma, with a higher resolution section  
128 between 0.8 and 1.0 Ma (average resolution of 2.2 kyr). The mean resolution from 0.6 – 0.8 Ma and  
129 1.0 – 1.2 Ma is 4.9 kyr and 4.3 kyr, respectively.

130 Samples for diatom taxonomy were prepared and counted using established techniques  
131 (Battarbee, 1968; Battarbee and Kneen, 1982); ~0.015g of freeze-dried sediment was cleaned  
132 through recurrent heating with hydrogen peroxide and hydrochloric acid to remove organic matter  
133 and carbonates, respectively. Two drops of weak ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) solution was added to the final  
134 wash to help keep clay particles in suspension (and subsequent removal) and reduce clumping of  
135 diatoms frustules (Battarbee, 1968). Glass microsphere solution of a known volume was added to the  
136 cleaned sediment and then diluted in 10 ml of distilled water. Samples were then pipetted onto cover  
137 slips where they were left to settle overnight before they were mounted by heating with Naphrax®.  
138 Samples were identified to species level where possible, except for *Chaetoceros* resting and  
139 vegetative spores (RVS), which were grouped at genus level. A minimum of 300 valve counts were  
140 made across slide transects using an oil immersion lens and phase contrast at X1000 magnification.

141 To investigate the dynamics and evolution of sea-ice expansion/melt on millennial timescales,  
142 diatoms were grouped by their environmental tolerances as described by Stroynowski et al., (2017),  
143 where sea-ice associated taxa were grouped into three categories: indicators of thick pack ice (PACK),  
144 epontic or ice-dwelling species (ICE) and marginal sea-ice species (MARG), with each group  
145 representing progressively less sea-ice presence respectively (see Stroynowski et al. (2017) for  
146 further detail). Other species which are associated with the spring bloom with open waters (non-sea-  
147 ice) or other specific habitat and ecological preferences were also grouped. The groupings include  
148 pelagic species that are found in open waters, mat-forming species which often bloom in the summer  
149 months, benthic species which are shelf-dwelling, freshwater species which may have been  
150 transported from riverine inputs and coastal species, and species which are more common in the  
151 eastern shelf region and likely laterally transported in turbulent waters (Caissie, 2012; Sancetta,

152 1982; Stroynowski et al., 2017). Ordination analysis was used to confirm the control of sea-ice  
153 dynamics on the diatom assemblages using R and the vegan package (Oksanen et al., 2018; R Core  
154 Team, 2017). A detrended correspondence analysis (DCA) indicated a linear response to the latent  
155 variables, resulting in a Principal Components Analysis (PCA) being carried out with square root  
156 transformation of the percentage data to reduce the influence of dominant taxa (Supplementary  
157 Figure 1-2).

### 158 **2.3. Diatom concentration and accumulation rates**

159 In order to assess absolute abundance changes, diatom concentrations were calculated using the  
160 concentration of microsphere solution added and the dilution of each sample (Battarbee & Kneen  
161 1982) (Eq. 1)

$$162 \quad \text{Diatom concentration} = \frac{\left(\frac{X_d \cdot Y_{mi}}{X_{mi}}\right)}{Y_s} \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

163 Where  $X_d$  is the number of diatoms valves counted,  $Y_{mi}$  is the number of microspheres introduced  
164 (ml),  $X_{mi}$  is the number of microspheres counted and  $Y_s$  is the mass of dry sediment used (g).  
165 Sedimentation rates were applied to the concentration data to calculate a down-core diatom  
166 accumulation rate (DAR) (Supplementary Figure 3).

167 DAR results were also grouped ecologically to assess difference in seasonal growth rates. As  
168 *Chaetoceros* RVS is associated with the spring melt season (Caissie, 2012), which is often the most  
169 dominant season during deglacial periods, the DAR (Figure 3) for this genus reflects variability in the  
170 size of the spring bloom. All other remaining species which are intolerant of sea-ice conditions are  
171 grouped as “non-sea-ice”, which is indicative of the rate of summer/autumn productivity and is  
172 related to the remaining quantity of upwelled nutrients left remaining after the spring bloom (Fukai  
173 et al., 2020).

### 174 **2.4. Common diatom species and their ecological groupings**

#### 175 **2.4.1. PACK species**

176 The most common diatom in the cores from IODP Site U1343 was *Thalassiosira antarctica* var *borealis*  
177 (henceforth *T. antarctica*) resting and vegetative spores (RVS), which is the only species included  
178 within the PACK group. It has been shown in palaeostudies from the region to reflect thick multi-year  
179 or pack ice cover, as the resting stages (RS) are dominant in sediments from periods of low species  
180 diversity and productivity (Caissie, 2012; Limoges et al., 2018; Sancetta, 1982; Stroynowski et al.,

181 2017, 2015). Although in some modern studies, *T. antarctica* in the western Bering Sea is associated  
182 with low temperatures (Ren et al., 2014) and the sea-ice margin (Sancetta, 1981), and is shown in  
183 modern studies of the Arctic Ocean and Okhotsk Sea to bloom in the spring during the melt season  
184 (Krawczyk et al., 2012; Lafond et al., 2019; Nakamura et al., 2020; Poulin et al., 2011), evidence  
185 suggests that *T. antarctica* produces resting stages under periods of nutrient stress and/or low light  
186 intensities (Peters and Thomas, 1996), hence they are dominant in sediments deposited during  
187 periods of thick pack ice and suppressed nutrient upwelling, when substantially lower abundance of  
188 other species are not preserved in the fossil record (Caissie, 2012; Limoges et al., 2018). A significant  
189 negative correlation between assemblage diversity (Shannon's diversity index score) and the  
190 percentage abundance of *T. antarctica* RS provides support for this interpretation ( $R^2 = 0.33$ ,  $p <$   
191  $0.001$ ).

#### 192 **2.4.2. ICE and MARG species**

193 The ICE species group is dominated by *Fragilariopsis* spp., particularly *F. cylindrus*, which is related  
194 to the duration of sea-ice cover in the eastern and southern Bering Sea (Caissie et al., 2010;  
195 Stroynowski et al., 2015). The MARG group is not dominated by a single species through the entire  
196 record, but key taxa include *Porosira glacialis* and *Stellarima microtrias*. Both of these taxa are bipolar  
197 and grow in cold coastal waters adjacent to sea-ice (Hasle and Sims, 1986; Stroynowski et al., 2017).  
198 In the Southern Ocean, these species grows in the summer months and are most abundant during  
199 years with at least 7.5 months of sea-ice cover (Armand et al., 2005; Pike et al., 2009). Lower relative  
200 abundances of the ICE and MARG groups compared to other diatom studies from the Bering Sea  
201 (Caissie et al., 2010; Stroynowski et al., 2015), likely reflect the longer duration of seasonal ice cover  
202 at Site U1343 which is more proximal to the ice margin.

#### 203 **2.4.3. Non-Sea-Ice species**

204 The pelagic, mat-forming and eastern shelf groups are dominated by several species/genera.  
205 *Chaetoceros* RVS is considered a pelagic species as it thrives in the first spring bloom following sea-  
206 ice melt, however palaeo-studies more commonly associate this species with high nutrient and  
207 turbulent waters, such as well-mixed current boundaries, or in the case of green belt with BSC eddy  
208 activity and upwelling strength (Caissie, 2012; Stroynowski et al., 2017, 2015). There are three other  
209 key species in the pelagic group that have fluctuating but generally high relative abundances;  
210 *Neodenticula seminae*, an indicator of warm Alaskan Stream water which flows in from the subarctic

211 Pacific gyre (Ren et al., 2014; Sancetta, 1982; Sancetta and Robinson, 1983; Stroynowski et al., 2017,  
212 2015), *Actinocyclus curvatulus* (the dominant component of *Actinocyclus* spp.) which thrives in the  
213 low-nutrient summer dicothormal waters that follow sea-ice melt (Caissie, 2012; Katsuki and  
214 Takahashi, 2005; Sancetta and Robinson, 1983; Shimada et al., 2009; Stroynowski et al., 2015), and  
215 *Shionodiscus trifultus* which prefers colder and more stratified waters, and is today most dominant  
216 in the western side of the Bering basin (Katsuki and Takahashi, 2005; Ren et al., 2014; Sancetta, 1983;  
217 Sancetta and Robinson, 1983; Sancetta and Silvestri, 1984; Stroynowski et al., 2015).

218 The mat-forming group at Site U1343 is dominated by two genera, *Rhizosolenia* spp. (mostly *R.*  
219 *hebetata* f. *hebetata*) and *Coscinodiscus* spp. (predominantly *C. marginatus*). Both species bloom in  
220 the late summer/autumn months (August-November), requiring high nutrient availability and  
221 relatively warmer temperatures, with high abundances reflecting increased seasonality (Caissie et  
222 al., 2016, 2010; Fukai et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2014). While *C. marginatus* and other mat-forming  
223 species bloom in the lower euphotic zone to utilise nutrients during the stratified autumn and winter  
224 season (Stroynowski et al., 2015), *R. hebetata* has a competitive advantage during periods of low  
225 surface nutrient content, as it can sink below the nutricline using buoyancy-mediated migration  
226 (Kemp and Villareal, 2013; Stroynowski et al., 2015; Villareal and Carpenter, 1988).

227 From the eastern shelf/coastal grouping, the most common species are *Paralia sulcata* and  
228 *Paralia sol* (grouped together from here onward) which are epibenthic and dwell on the eastern  
229 Bering shelf, thriving in low light coastal brackish environments (McQuoid and Nordberg, 2003;  
230 Sancetta, 1982; Stroynowski et al., 2017). One species found at Site U1343 which has not previously  
231 been included in the ecological groupings of Stroynowski et al. (2017) is *Stephanopyxis turris*, which  
232 reflects either warmer water, shallower waters and/or amplified current speeds through the Aleutian  
233 passes at the southern boundary of the Bering Sea (Aizawa et al., 2005; Stroynowski et al., 2015).  
234 Relative abundance of *Paralia* spp. and *S. turris* can therefore provide insight into the circulation of  
235 the Bering Sea gyre as well as wind strength and tidal mixing.

236 As Site U1343 lies adjacent to the continental shelf, large abundances of benthic species are not  
237 expected. Common genera found at Site U1343 include *Delphineis* spp. and *Navicula* spp., although  
238 they never exceed 2% relative abundance. The most common taxa in the Freshwater group found at  
239 Site U1343 are *Aulacoseira* spp. and *Cymatosira belgica*, with previous work at IODP Site U1343  
240 finding only small peaks of neritic and freshwater species, which are interpreted as periods of  
241 negligible riverine input into the Bering Sea following low sea level (Teraishi et al., 2016).



242

### 243 3. Results & Discussion

#### 244 3.1. Diatom ecologies and environmental inference

245 There is clear glacial-interglacial variability in the diatom assemblage data with accumulation rates  
246 significant higher in interglacials ( $\bar{x} = 1,112 \times 10^6$  valves  $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{ kyr}^{-1}$ ) than glacials ( $\bar{x} = 831 \times 10^6$  valves  
247  $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{ kyr}^{-1}$ ) ( $p < 0.05$ ). The most abundant taxa, predominantly in glacial periods, was *T. antarctica* RVS  
248 (mean relative abundance = 26%; peak abundance = 64% at 0.87 Ma; Figure 2B), which has been  
249 shown to reflect thick multi-year or pack ice cover (Caissie, 2012; Limoges et al., 2018; Sancetta, 1982;  
250 Stroynowski et al., 2017, 2015). The > 94 different taxa identified in this study were grouped by the  
251 sea-ice ecological classifications in Stroynowski et al. (2017) (Table 1), with higher abundances of  
252 diatom associated with thick pack-ice (PACK), seasonal-ice (ICE) and marginal sea-ice (MARG)  
253 conditions occurring during glacials (Figure 3A-C). Results here are consistently similar with  
254 previously published low resolution data from Teraishi et al., (2016), also from IODP Site U1343,  
255 however the high resolution data presented here provides a millennial scale assessment of the fossil  
256 assemblage, including identification of peaks in the abundance of some species which are missing  
257 from the low resolution dataset, most notably the peak in PACK species at ~0.87 Ma (Supplementary  
258 Figure 4).

259 The control of sea-ice on the diatom community was confirmed through a PCA of the ungrouped  
260 relative abundance data downcore, from which a significant coefficient of determination was found  
261 between PCA axis 1 and *T. antarctica* ( $R^2 = 0.75$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Supplementary Figure 1), as well as by a  
262 PCA on the grouped percentage data which identified a sea-ice gradient (PACK > ICE > MARG) along  
263 the first axis that explains ~50% of the variability in the assemblage dataset (Supplementary Figure 2).  
264 The abundances of other non-sea-ice associated ecological groupings are considerably lower  
265 throughout the study interval (Figure 4).

#### 266 3.2. Palaeoceanographic interpretations

##### 267 3.2.1. Early-mid Pleistocene MIS 36-31 (~1.2 – 1.05 Ma)

268 Glacials MIS 36 and 34 shows increased abundances in the sea-ice groupings with predominantly  
269 marginal sea-ice conditions (high abundance of MARG), although simultaneously distinct abundances  
270 in a range of non-sea-ice species also indicates pronounced seasonality (Figure 3C, 4). Pre-MPT  
271 interglacial periods are dominated by *N. seminae*, *Actinocyclus* spp. and *Paralia* spp., with an  
272 increasing trend in *N. seminae* from 1.15 – 1.05 Ma (Figure 2C, 4D-E). Dominance of these species,

273 which thrive in warmer waters in the summer after the spring melt season, suggests a strong  
274 influence of Alaskan Stream waters transported through the Aleutian passes, stimulating increased  
275 green belt productivity under sustained strong BSC flow and NPDW nutrient upwelling (Figure 1). This  
276 is consistent with lipid biomarker sea-ice reconstruction results indicating a pronounced seasonal  
277 advance and retreat of the sea-ice margin during the early-mid Pleistocene over glacial-interglacial  
278 cycles (Detlef et al., 2018) (Figure 3E).

### 279 **3.2.2. Middle Pleistocene MIS 30-24 (~1.05 – 0.95 Ma)**

280 Increased MARG species (in particular *P. glacialis*; Figure 3C, 4AError! Reference source not found.)  
281 through MIS 30 is coincident with a significant decline in *N. seminae* (Figure 2C), returning to previous  
282 early Pleistocene abundances from mid-MIS 30 (~1.05 Ma) and declining through glacials and  
283 interglacials until mid-MIS 22. Reduced *N. seminae* suggests a decreasing influence of Alaskan Stream  
284 waters and reduced connectivity with the lower subarctic Pacific Ocean through this interval.  
285 Subsequent increases in the relative abundance of other ICE and PACK groupings during glacials, and  
286 *Chaetoceros* RVS during interglacials from ~1.0 – 0.9 Ma, are coincident with lower subarctic Pacific  
287 Ocean sea surface temperatures (SSTs) (Martinez-Garcia et al., 2010) (Figure 3A-D). This suggests that  
288 the reduced surface ocean heat capacity and the resultant increase in salinity-driven stratification,  
289 potentially enhanced by a minima in insolation during MIS 27 (Detlef et al., 2018), could have  
290 promoted sea-ice growth through this interval.

291 Continued sea-ice expansion during MIS 27 to MIS 25 (~0.98 – 0.94 Ma) is characterised by a  
292 strong spring melt-associated bloom, evidenced here as MARG species are replaced by increased  
293 relative abundance of PACK and *Chaetoceros* RVS (Figure 3A, C-D). The persistence of relatively high  
294 abundance of laterally transported species *S. turris* (~10%) in MIS 27 and eastern-shelf/coastal  
295 species *Paralia* spp. (~15%) throughout MIS 26 (~0.95 – 0.97 Ma) (Figure 4E-F), coincident with low  
296 relative abundance of *N. seminae* (Figure 2C), suggests strong surface circulation persisted in the  
297 Bering basin despite sea-ice growth and reduced Alaskan Stream inflow. As modern sea-ice  
298 distribution is controlled predominantly by northerly winds, which depend on the intensity and  
299 location of the Aleutian Low (Rodionov et al., 2007), it is highly likely that atmospheric forcing played  
300 at least some role in this southward expansion of sea-ice. This was posited by Knudson & Ravelo  
301 (2015), who hypothesised that these shifts would enhance polynya growth regions, sea-ice formation  
302 and its southerly extension. Increased windiness would also have acted to maintain gyre strength and  
303 increase BSC eddy activity, amplifying nutrient upwelling, a claim supported by high interglacial

304 productivity (high opal MAR; Figure 2F) and increased abundance of diatom taxa transported from  
305 the eastern-shelf and Aleutian passes (Kim et al., 2014).

306 One mechanism capable of explaining the observed trends is the interaction between the El-  
307 Nino Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Walker Circulation. In the modern day, ENSO is known to  
308 impact the position and intensity of the Aleutian Low in the subarctic, which in turn determines the  
309 distribution of cold air temperatures and storm tracks, and hence controls sea-ice extent in the Bering  
310 Sea (Niebauer, 1988; Rodionov et al., 2007). Specifically, the Aleutian low moves westward (south-  
311 eastward) during La Niña (El Niño) phases, advecting colder (warmer) air into the Bering Sea. Colder  
312 La Niña phases also exhibit increased storm frequency in the Bering Sea, due to a stronger zonal  
313 pressure gradient of the Walker Circulation (Niebauer, 1988). The greater pressure gradient also  
314 causes a westward shift in the western Pacific Warm Pool, causing lower sea surface temperatures  
315 and increased precipitation in East Asia.

316 Equatorial deep water cooling and an increased zonal Pacific SST gradient, which emulate La  
317 Nina-like conditions when the Walker circulation is enhanced, is thought to have begun at ~1.17 Ma  
318 (McClymont and Rosell-Melé, 2005). The diatom assemblage data from the Bering Sea supports that  
319 as the Walker circulation began to intensify at this time (McClymont and Rosell-Melé, 2005),  
320 increased wind strength initially stimulated Bering gyre circulation and enhanced the influence of the  
321 Alaskan Stream via the BSC (increased *N. seminae* from 1.15 Ma; Figure 2C). This is supported by  
322 modern evidence which shows that BSC strength is correlated with ENSO variability (Ladd, 2014).  
323 However, as Walker circulation continued to strengthen, the resultant shift in the Aleutian Low would  
324 have caused increased poleward moisture supply (increased precipitation across East Asia) and  
325 decreased heat transport to the subarctic region, promoting seasonal sea-ice growth observed from  
326 ~1.05 Ma (Figure 3B-C). Mid-MIS 30 (~1.05 Ma) may therefore represent a threshold when moisture  
327 supply was heightened and atmospheric and SSTs were low enough in the Bering Sea to uphold  
328 persistent marginal sea-ice conditions, even during interglacials.

329 Subsequently from ~0.98 Ma, continued persistence of marginal sea-ice conditions likely  
330 shoaled the eastern Aleutian passes, lowering Bering Sea SST and facilitating significant sea-ice  
331 expansion. These transitions are broadly consistent with interpretations from low-resolution lipid  
332 biomarker data (Figure 3E), also from IODP Site 1343, as well as evidence for equatorial continental  
333 cooling from ~1.05 Ma (Dupont et al., 2001; McClymont and Rosell-Melé, 2005), decreasing subarctic  
334 Pacific Ocean SST (Martinez-Garcia et al., 2010) (Figure 2E), North Atlantic bottom water temperature

335 (Sosdian and Rosenthal, 2009) and regional glacier advances (Kaufman and Manley, 2004),  
336 demonstrating Bering Sea sea-ice is responding to global climate changes.

337 Anomalous to the rest of the middle Pleistocene period and just prior to the 900 kyr event,  
338 MIS 25 (~0.96-0.94 Ma) shows high opal MAR and increased nutrient upwelling (Figure 2F, 3J) that is  
339 coincident with increased relative abundances of *N. seminae* (Figure 2C), indicating that Alaskan  
340 Stream waters likely strengthened BSC flow through this interglacial. Conflictingly, this interglacial  
341 also exhibits the maximal relative abundance of the MARG grouping and increased abundance of the  
342 ICE grouping (Figure 3B-C). Combined, minimal abundance of PACK taxa, high abundance of non-sea-  
343 ice related taxa and high opal MAR (Figure 2F, 3A, 3J, 4C-H), indicates that MIS 25 exhibited  
344 predominantly marginal sea-ice conditions with a sustained and large spring bloom, potentially  
345 facilitated by lengthened sea-ice melt seasons following increased accumulation of sea-ice during  
346 MIS 27-26. Notably high productivity and longer spring/summer blooms during this interglacial could  
347 have caused increased efficiency in the green belt biological pump, sequestering more CO<sub>2</sub> and  
348 causing the green belt to act as a net CO<sub>2</sub> sink (Worne et al., 2019). This increased interglacial CO<sub>2</sub>  
349 drawdown coincides with a global minima in atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> (Hönisch et al., 2009), and therefore  
350 could have been a contributing factor in climate cooling, in build up to the 900-kyr event (Chalk et  
351 al., 2017).

### 352 **3.2.3. The “900 kyr event”: MIS 24-22 (~0.94 – 0.87 Ma)**

353 The final development before the peak of the MPT saw a large and sudden increase in the relative  
354 abundance of *Actinocyclus* spp. and *Rhizosolenia* spp. during early MIS 24 (Figure 4D, G). Dominance  
355 of these species indicates that the Bering Sea slope region was highly stratified, with low-nutrient  
356 surface waters persistent through summer and autumn. This stratification is likely a result of large  
357 scale melting of sea-ice which accumulated from ~0.98 Ma. *R. hebetata* likely had a competitive  
358 advantage through utilising nutrients found below the nutricline through buoyancy-mediated  
359 migration (Kemp and Villareal, 2013; Stroynowski et al., 2015), while other autumn mat-forming taxa  
360 were limited to the isolated nutrient pool in the photic zone and could not survive. Furthermore, a  
361 shift in the relative abundance of sea-ice groupings to favour PACK and ICE (particularly *Fragilariopsis*  
362 spp.) taxa over MARG taxa (Figure 3A-C), suggests an increase in the number of months with  
363 significant sea-ice cover during this protracted glacial (Caissie et al., 2010). This would have shifted  
364 the melt season to later in the year (Fukai et al., 2020), causing a more highly stratified

365 summer/autumn during this 70 kyr interval, in which vertical mixing would also have been restricted  
366 and photic zone  $p\text{CO}_2$  lowered.

367 The intense stratification event during early MIS 24 is consistent with observations of  
368 decreased nutrient upwelling and productivity (Figure 2F, 3J) and may have been an important  
369 precursor to the 900 kyr event. Although sea-ice did not extend directly into the lower subarctic  
370 Pacific, Bering Sea waters freshened from sea-ice melt may have propagated southward through the  
371 western Kamchatka Strait (Figure 1) to enhance stratification across the lower subarctic Pacific  
372 region, preventing vertical mixing/upwelling and further reducing air-sea  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange regionally.  
373 Although the Southern Ocean is considered the most dominant region for ocean-atmosphere  $\text{CO}_2$   
374 balance (Sigman et al., 2010), increased green belt  $\text{CO}_2$  drawdown in MIS 25 and reduced  $\text{CO}_2$   
375 ventilation from the subarctic Pacific region in MIS 24, could have been important components in the  
376 step-change observed during the 900 kyr event.

377 The “failed” interglacial at MIS 23 is considered the tipping point after which global climate  
378 begins to oscillate on 100-kyr timescales (Elderfield et al., 2012; Kender et al., 2018; McClymont et  
379 al., 2013). Diatom assemblages show this interval is characterised by a pulse in the absolute  
380 abundance of *Chaetoceros* RVS (Figure 3I), peaks in both relative and absolute abundance of PACK  
381 and ICE species (Figure 3A-B, F-G), as well as very low species diversity (dominance of only a few  
382 species) compared to previous low productivity glacial periods (Figure 2F, 3). A small but sustained  
383 increase in the relative abundance of benthic species throughout this glacial also reflects the  
384 exposure of the Bering shelf and hence more coastal location of IODP Site U1343 (Figure 4B). A rapid  
385 sea level decline would also have shoaled the eastern Aleutian passes and severely reduced  
386 remaining inflow of the warmer Alaskan Stream into the Bering basin, further promoting SST cooling  
387 and rapid sea-ice accumulation (Figure 2D-E). Furthermore, reduced surface water flow would have  
388 lowered BSC eddy activity, causing suppressed nutrient upwelling and low productivity (Figure 2F,  
389 3J), a process supported by low non-sea-ice diatom accumulation rates through this interval (Figure  
390 3J). Instead, the prevalence of *Chaetoceros* RVS and PACK species at this time suggests the provision  
391 of a secondary nutrient supply through this interval, most likely from sea-ice-derived nutrients, which  
392 is known to be a key source in the modern day (Aguilar-Islas et al., 2008).

393 The following glacial at MIS 22 is considered to be the first of the more severe post-MPT glacial  
394 cycles (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005). The diatom accumulation rates for PACK and ICE increases during  
395 this glacial, providing evidence for significant sea-ice expansion (Figure 3F-G). As the glacial develops,

396 there is an abrupt drop in relative abundance of ICE and *Chaetoceros* RVS species at the mid-glacial  
397 (Figure 3B, D), suggesting extremely low nutrient and/or light conditions, where even epontic  
398 diatoms struggled to survive. A mid-glacial peak in the relative abundance of *Rhizosolenia* spp.  
399 supports this interpretation (Figure 4G), as the taxa would have been able to access nutrients at  
400 deeper depths and survive in low light conditions during the build-up of sea-ice. Although there is  
401 continued preservation of summer-blooming planktonic organisms (in lower abundance) such as  
402 planktonic foraminifera and silicoflagellates at IODP Site U1343 (Takahashi et al., 2011; Teraishi et  
403 al., 2016), results here suggest that the green belt was characterised by a predominantly pack ice  
404 environment during this ~40 kyr interval, with fewer ice-free summers and lower productivity.

405 Subsequently low species diversity and the dominance of PACK species at the glacial maxima,  
406 reaching its greatest relative and absolute abundance during the late-glacial of MIS 22 (Figure 3A),  
407 indicates the development and persistence of thick multi-year sea-ice. This is consistent with low-  
408 resolution Bering Sea lipid biomarker results, which suggest that extended sea-ice occurred at 0.86  
409 Ma (Figure 3E), with sea-ice maxima during the glacials of the middle Pleistocene exhibiting a shift in  
410 the timing to the late-glacial/deglacial interval (Detlef et al., 2018). The timing of this shift to a  
411 sustained pack ice environment is congruent with the glacial maxima (maximum ice-sheet growth) in  
412 the global benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  LR04 stack (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) (Figure 2B), suggesting MPT sea-ice  
413 evolution in the Bering Sea reflects a global signal.

#### 414 **3.2.4. Mid-Late Pleistocene: MIS 21-15 (~0.85 – 0.6 Ma)**

415 At the end of the 900 kyr event, the deglaciation at MIS 22/21 is characterised by a significant pulse  
416 in *N. seminae* (Figure 2C), accompanied by high relative abundance of eastern-shelf species *Paralia*  
417 spp. (Figure 4E), reaching values similar to the early Pleistocene. This provides evidence for resumed  
418 circulation in the Bering basin and restored BSC strength following sea-ice melt. A delayed deglacial  
419 peak in *Chaetoceros* RVS (Figure 3D) and persistently high abundance of coastal species *S. turris*  
420 through MIS 21 (Figure 4F) is consistent with a long sea-ice retreat period following a late-glacial sea-  
421 ice maxima (Detlef et al., 2018) and an interglacial rise in sea level, where strong surface water inflow  
422 through the Aleutian passes was maintained by increased deglacial wind strength (Gray et al., 2018;  
423 Kender et al., 2018). Re-established BSC eddy activity at the deglaciation would have caused NPDW  
424 upwelling to recommence (increased upwelling index; Figure 3J), raising nutrients which  
425 accumulated in the deep Bering basin to the photic zone and fuelling high interglacial productivity  
426 (high opal MAR; Figure 2F).

427 From MIS 21 onwards 100 kyr glacial-interglacial cycles are largely established. Longer and  
428 more severe post-MPT glacials are characterised by higher abundances of PACK taxa and increased  
429 relative abundance of benthic species (Figure 3A, 4B), depicting a more sea-ice dominant  
430 environment with lower glacial sea level stands and persistent shallowing at IODP Site U1343.  
431 Similarly, mid-late Pleistocene interglacials generally exhibit higher abundance of ICE and MARG taxa  
432 and lower non-sea-ice diatom accumulation rates (Figure 3B-C, J), indicating shorter summer/autumn  
433 seasons with more sea-ice dominant conditions relative to pre-MPT interglacials. Low abundance of  
434 *N. seminae* (Figure 2C) and *Actinocyclus* spp. (Figure 4D) after the MPT also suggests the inflow of  
435 Alaskan Stream water was never fully restored to pre-MPT values due to large declines in sea level  
436 (Figure 2C), which enabled longer winter seasons with significant sea-ice presence after the MPT.

### 437 **3.3. Assessing MPT mechanisms**

438 The SIS hypothesis suggests that large glacial sea-ice cover, linked with cold deep ocean  
439 temperatures, caused atmospheric cooling and diverted storm tracks, thereby reducing oceanic  
440 evaporation and moisture availability for ice-sheet expansion (Gildor and Tziperman, 2001). During  
441 the MPT, larger volumes of sea-ice are therefore suggested to modulate atmospheric moisture  
442 availability and hence influence land ice growth and sea level change in post-MPT glacials. Sea-ice  
443 growth is then a self-limiting process, where, as it expands, it insulates the ocean and prevents  
444 further growth (Tziperman and Gildor, 2003). In this scenario, the sea-ice maxima should persist at  
445 least into each late-deglacial, when ice-sheet retreat has begun (Detlef et al., 2018). This hypothesis  
446 could be supported by a slight shift in the timing of peaks in the *Chaetoceros* RVS accumulation rates  
447 (Figure 3I), which thrives in the melt waters which dominate deglacial periods. Prior to the 900 kyr  
448 event, peaks in the absolute abundance of *Chaetoceros* RVS directly succeed declining PACK  
449 abundance, during the late glacial/early deglacial defined by the MIS transitions of the LR04  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
450 stack (Figure 2B). However after the 900 kyr event, there is a slight but consistent delay in this peak  
451 accumulation of *Chaetoceros* RVS, occurring later in the deglacial or in the early interglacial, perhaps  
452 suggesting significant sea-ice persisted after the glacial maxima. However, the relative abundance of  
453 PACK taxa strongly resembles the LR04  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stack during post-MPT glacials, with peak abundance of  
454 PACK occurring in line with the glacial maxima (Figure 2B). Subsequently low PACK abundance and a  
455 spike in *N. seminae* at the MIS 22/21 deglacial indicates sea-ice began to retreat in line with sea level  
456 rise following ice-sheet recession (Figure 2B-C). Instead, the delay in the peak of *Chaetoceros* RVS  
457 could have been caused by an extended seasonal sea-ice retreat phase resulting from larger volumes

458 of sea-ice, evidenced by increased abundance of MARG and ICE species in the early interglacial of  
459 MIS 21 (Figure 3).

460 The similarity between Bering Sea pack ice extent and global climate is further demonstrated  
461 by reduced relative abundance of PACK species during mid-glacial MIS18, coincident with less  
462 substantial sea level drop and relatively warmer conditions (Figure 2B, D). Furthermore, high relative  
463 abundance of PACK in early MIS 16 likely reflects the colder glacial conditions indicated by the LR04  
464 stack, despite lighter benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  at IODP Site U1343 (Asahi et al., 2016; Worne et al., 2019) (Figure  
465 2B). Overall, assemblage results suggest that sea-ice evolution in the Bering Sea was mainly  
466 responding to global climate through its interaction with sea level, rather than leading climate change  
467 through initiating ice-sheet decline, as the pack ice maxima occurs during the late glacial  
468 (simultaneous with ice-sheet maxima) rather than the early deglacial. Enhanced glacial sea-ice  
469 formation after the 900 kyr event was likely a response to persistently reduced inflow of the warmer  
470 Alaskan Stream following ice-sheet growth and large sea level declines, with delayed deglacial peaks  
471 in *Chaetoceros* RVS indicating strong melt associated spring blooms which occurred in response to  
472 the retreat of larger volumes of sea-ice.

473 In line with this, when ice-sheet growth caused larger declines in sea level during the 900 kyr  
474 event, diatom assemblage evidence here demonstrates the rapid development of more extensive  
475 pack ice during MIS 24 to 22 was concurrent with the closure of the Bering Strait (Kender et al., 2018;  
476 Knudson and Ravelo, 2015). Enhanced pack ice growth at this time, and during subsequent glacial  
477 periods, corroborates the notion that increased brine rejection facilitated GNPIW expansion during  
478 the mid-late Pleistocene. If GNPIW propagated from the Bering Sea and throughout the subarctic  
479 Pacific Ocean, reduced nutrient upwelling/vertical mixing would have limited  $\text{CO}_2$  ventilation to the  
480 atmosphere across the region. Although records do not yet exist to assess the exact relationship  
481 between atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and ice-sheet dynamics over the MPT, modelling studies suggest that the  
482 subarctic Pacific region may have contributed  $\sim 30$  ppm of  $\text{CO}_2$  during deglacial periods (Rae et al.,  
483 2014).

484 Overall, the timing and duration of glacial pack ice expansion in the Bering Sea is congruent with  
485 the LR04  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stack, suggesting that MPT ice-sheet expansion was likely modulated by an alternative  
486 internal forcing such as atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  reduction, rather than subarctic sea-ice control, as  
487 suggested by the SIS hypothesis. We posit that larger Northern Hemispheric land ice volumes (and  
488 hence greater sea level changes) may have been facilitated by intensification of the Walker



489 Circulation during the early Pleistocene, supported by an initial increase in seasonal sea-ice from  
490 ~1.05 Ma. In turn, greater sea level decline as ice-sheets expanded was key to enhanced sea-ice  
491 growth and GNPIW formation during and after the 900 kyr event, through restricting warm water  
492 inflow from the Alaskan stream and outflow into the Arctic. While sea-ice growth would have limited  
493 moisture availability and diverted storm tracks, and hence influenced land ice accumulation to some  
494 degree during post-MPT glacials, we suggest that an expanded GNPIW layer was a more critical  
495 contributor to global climate change, through regulating subarctic Pacific Ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>  
496 exchange, contributing to both glacial suppression and rapid deglacial release of CO<sub>2</sub> and potentially  
497 helping to explain the “saw-tooth” shape of 100 kyr glacial-interglacial cycles.

498 Altogether, new data presented in this study supports high latitude sea-ice as a critical control on  
499 glacial-interglacial deep water upwelling through its role in intermediate water formation, which in  
500 turn responds to orbital-scale changes in global ice-sheets/sea level in the Bering Sea. This aligns with  
501 previous conclusions from the Southern Ocean which indicate that seasonal sea-ice distribution is  
502 highly sensitive to orbitally-forced ice-sheet geometry (DeConto et al., 2007). Modelling studies also  
503 indicate that Southern Ocean sea-ice is influenced by regional temperatures and winds dynamics  
504 (DeConto et al., 2007; Wolff et al., 2006), congruent with findings here which support an interaction  
505 between Bering Sea sea-ice and heat/moisture delivery to the Northern Hemisphere, through early  
506 Pleistocene atmospheric teleconnection with the tropical Pacific Ocean and intensification of the  
507 Walker circulation (McClymont and Rosell-Melé, 2005). Overall, the results here substantiate  
508 hypotheses which suggest a bipolar control of Quaternary glacial-interglacial climate change and a  
509 more significant role of subarctic Pacific oceanography in the MPT (Kender et al., 2018) than  
510 previously thought.

#### 511 **4. Conclusions**

512 Results from this study confirm that Bering Sea sea-ice is unstable and highly dynamic, responding to  
513 global climate change on a both multi-millennial and sub-millennial timescale. Using fossil diatom  
514 assemblages, we present the first millennial-scale resolution sea-ice reconstruction for the subarctic  
515 Pacific Ocean through the enigmatic MPT period. Although diatom assemblage results are broadly  
516 consistent with low-resolution Bering Sea lipid biomarker sea-ice reconstructions (Detlef et al., 2018),  
517 the higher resolution reconstruction and age model presented here demonstrates that a decline in  
518 Alaskan Stream inflow initially increased from ~1.15 Ma, in line with intensifying Walker Circulation  
519 and global atmosphere and oceanic cooling. Then from around ~1.05 Ma, SST decrease and

520 atmospheric moisture delivery were significant enough to cause marginal sea-ice expansion, which  
521 began to shift the spring melt season to later in the year and cause a shorter summer/autumn season.

522 Subsequently at 0.9 Ma, a substantial expansion of pack ice in the Bering Sea was observed,  
523 due to global continental ice-sheet growth which caused a significant sea level decline, closing the  
524 Bering Strait and significantly restricting warm Alaskan Stream water inflow. The timing of the sea-  
525 ice maxima during this 900 kyr event and in subsequent glacials appears to have been congruent with  
526 the glacial maxima (maximal ice-sheet volume and greatest sea level decline) rather than lagging it,  
527 as proposed by the SIS hypothesis. Instead, the timing and nature of Bering Sea sea-ice dynamics  
528 revealed in this study confirms that sea-ice evolution occurred in response to global climate changes  
529 throughout the Pleistocene, primarily controlled by continental ice-sheet dynamics and sea level  
530 fluctuations. Results here support that increased sea-ice and reduced BSC strength during the 900  
531 kyr event would have caused an expansion of a low nutrient GNPIW layer which stifled upwelling of  
532 NPDW and lowered primary productivity. The resultant expansion of GNPIW across the subarctic  
533 Pacific Ocean during and after the 900 kyr event, was likely a contributor to the increased duration  
534 of glacial periods (due to suppressed deep water CO<sub>2</sub> ventilation) and more rapid deglaciation  
535 (following regional collapse of GNPIW as sea levels begin to rise), alongside Southern Ocean driven  
536 CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics (Sigman et al., 2010). As a result of increased glacial sea-ice during the mid-late  
537 Pleistocene, Bering Sea export production and regional deep water upwelling likely played an  
538 important role in global ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics on glacial-interglacial timescales through  
539 the late Quaternary.

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