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Key Points:

- We use an age model based on tephra correlation and one radiocarbon date to assess the fidelity of relative paleointensity variations
- Detrital vortex state and biogenic single domain magnetite are the dominant remanence carriers, and they introduced <0.5 kyr age error
- Assessment of component-specific magnetic properties should be considered to ensure the reliability of relative paleointensity variations

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Recording Fidelity of Relative Paleointensity Characteristics in the North Pacific Ocean

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Abstract North Pacific Ocean sediments are important archives of geomagnetic field and paleoenvironmental evolutions, yet late Quaternary sedimentary sequences in the North Pacific Ocean are less explored because of generally low sedimentation rates and the challenge of dating sediments deposited below the calcite compensation depth. Core NP02 sediments from the North Pacific Ocean contain three visible tephra layers, which are identified as the To-Of, Spfa-1, and Kt-3 tephra, respectively. An age model for core NP02 is established based on tephra correlation and one radiocarbon date, which gives a mean sedimentation rate of ∼11.6 cm/kyr. Magnetic analyses suggest the dominance of two remanence carriers; detrital vortex state and biogenic single domain magnetite. Variable depth offsets between the relative paleointensity (RPI) signals carried by the two remanence carriers adds a negligible age error (<0.5 kyr) to the core NP02 RPI record. Pronounced RPI amplitude variations are observed, and the Rockall and Laschamp excursions are identified in the core NP02 RPI record based on the age model. The fidelity of the core NP02 RPI record is further verified by comparison with other RPI stacks and records, and we demonstrate that the RPI variations can assist in chronology refinement.

Plain Language Summary The North Pacific Ocean is too deep to preserve materials effectively for the oxygen isotope chronology, and sediments deposit slowly in this region. Therefore, dating is a big problem for late Quaternary sedimentary cores. In this study, core NP02 sediments from the North Pacific Ocean are studied. The To-Of, Spfa-1, and Kt-3 tephra layers are identified in core NP02 sediments based on the geochemical features. An age model for this core is reconstructed with the aid of tephra ages and one radiocarbon date. Magnetic analyses suggest that both small biogenic and relatively large detrital magnetite record geomagnetic information, and the two groups of magnetite deposit at about the same time. Based on the age model, core NP02 RPI record preserves the Rockall and Laschamp excursions, and the RPI pattern is consistent with other RPI stacks and records, which verifies core NP02 RPI fidelity. Therefore, we demonstrate that RPI variations is a promising dating tool for North Pacific Ocean sediments.

1. Introduction

As the largest ocean in the world, the Pacific Ocean preserves abundant information about geomagnetic field and paleoenvironmental evolutions (e.g., Channell & Lanci, 2014; Doell & Cox, 1971; Dunlea et al., 2017; Jacobel et al., 2017; Lanci et al., 2004; McKinley et al., 2019; Rea et al., 1998; Roberts et al., 1997; Yamazaki & Yamamoto, 2018). However, sedimentation rates in the North Pacific Ocean are generally low (e.g., Korff et al., 2016; Kyte et al., 1993; Ninkovich et al., 1966; Pettke et al., 2000; Prince et al., 1980; Rea et al., 1998), and sediments in this region are usually deposited below the calcite compensation depth (CCD), which impedes development of radiocarbon dating and continuous oxygen-isotope stratigraphy to construct precise age models to assist understanding of late Quaternary geological events. Therefore, a lot of short sedimentary cores in the North Pacific Ocean have been less investigated, and there is an impetus to provide a robust and practical way to date these sediments, and then promote the relevant studies.

Relative paleointensity (RPI) variations of Earth's magnetic field have been used as a chronological tool in marine sediments (e.g., Channell et al., 2009; Channell, Hodell, et al., 2016; Guyodo & Valet, 1996, 1999; Valet et al., 2005; Yamamoto et al., 2007). This makes RPI variations valuable in environments like the deep North Pacific Ocean (Roberts et al., 1997; Shin et al., 2019; Yamamoto et al., 2007; Yamazaki, 1999). The main advantage of the RPI approach is that dipole geomagnetic variations are recorded synchronously around the world and represent a geophysical measurement that is independent of seawater chemistry and that can be used to develop independent age constraints (Roberts et al., 2013). Paleointensity-assisted chronology studies are based on the assumption that sedimentary magnetic records contain information about the magnetic field intensity at the time of sediment deposition (Tauxe, 1993). To ensure that RPI records are not contaminated by other sedimentary magnetic signals, magnetite should be the dominant remanence carrier, the concentration of magnetite should vary downcore by less than one order of magnitude, and the grain size of magnetite should be in the 1–15 μm range (King et al., 1983; Tauxe, 1993). However, these requirements are based on the assumption that sediments contain a single magnetic mineral component rather than a mixture of several components. Recent studies suggest that magnetite with different grain sizes responds differently to the geomagnetic field during paleomagnetic signal acquisition in sediments (Chen et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2014; Roberts et al., 2012, 2013; Yamazaki, Yamamoto, et al., 2013). Biogenic and terrestrial magnetite cooccur pervasively in North Pacific Ocean sediments (Yamazaki & Ioka, 1997; Yamazaki & Shimono, 2013; Q. Zhang et al., 2018). Given that biogenic and terrestrial magnetite have different grain-size distributions, potential complexities in magnetic recording need to be considered, including the possible presence of different remanence acquisition mechanisms with different lock-in depths. Therefore, detailed assessment of magnetic grain-size characteristics should be made to test the fidelity of sedimentary RPI records. In this study, we use an independent age model for North Pacific Ocean core NP02 to assess whether RPI correlations based on magnetite components with different grain-size distributions can be used to refine the core chronology.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Core Description and Sampling

Core NP02 is a 4.35 m gravity piston core from 40.48°N, 150.1°E. It was recovered from the North Pacific Ocean abyssal plain at a water depth of 5,177 m. This location lies below the CCD, so few foraminifera are preserved. The core site is downwind of Asian dust source areas and many volcanoes in the Japanese archipelago and Kamchatka Peninsula (Weber et al., 1996) (Figure 1). Therefore, the studied sediments are composed mainly of clay with occasionally intercalated tephra layers. Cubic samples (8 cm^3) were taken continuously from the working half of core NP02 for paleomagnetic and rock magnetic analyses.

2.2. Methods

2.2.1. Magnetic Measurements

Magnetic remanence measurements were made using a 2-G Enterprises Model 760R cryogenic magnetometer with an in-line alternating field (AF) demagnetizer. The natural remanent magnetization (NRM) was measured and stepwise demagnetized to a peak field of 100 mT, in logarithmically increasing field steps of 0.1–7.7 mT. Characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) directions were determined by principal component analysis (PCA) with successive demagnetization points that define vectors directed toward the origin of demagnetization diagrams (Kirschvink, 1980). Core NP02 is not oriented, therefore, the mean ChRM declination was calculated by making a constant azimuthal rotation to all samples to yield an adjusted mean declination of 0°. An anhysteretic remanent magnetization (ARM) was imparted in a 100 mT peak field with a 0.05 mT direct current (DC) bias field, and was then demagnetized with applied fields of 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100 mT. Isothermal remanent magnetizations (IRMs) were imparted in a DC field of 1 T, which is defined here as the saturation IRM (SIRM).

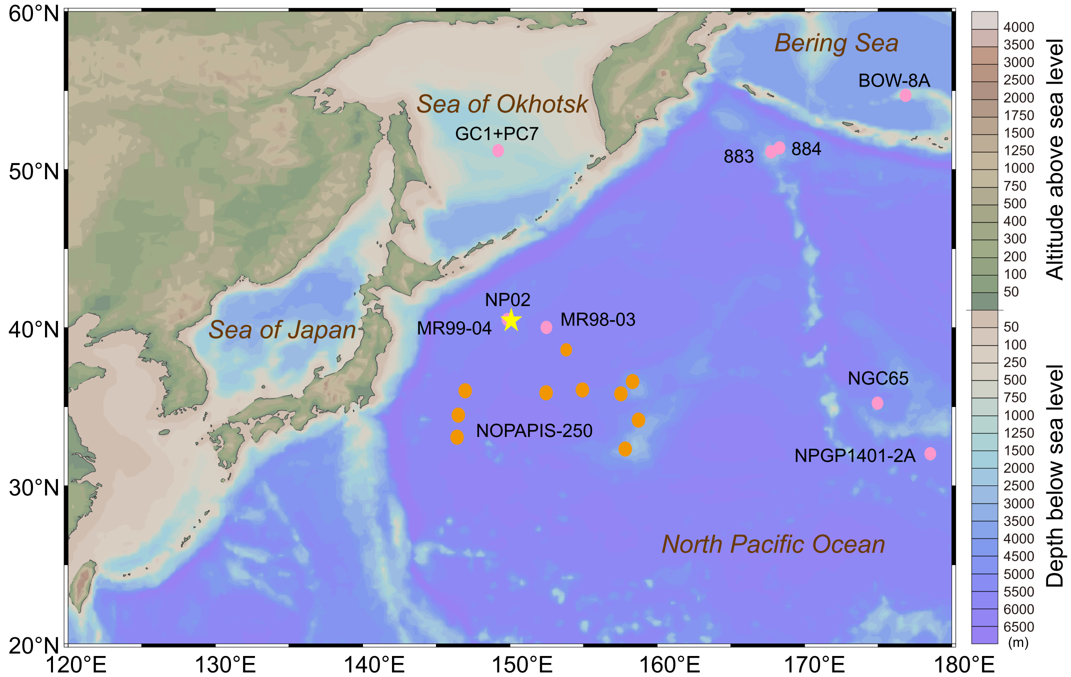

Figure 1. Map of the North Pacific Ocean with locations of core NP02 (yellow star), cores used to develop the NOPAPIS-250 stack (orange circles) (Yamamoto et al., 2007), and other Pacific cores (pink circles) relevant to this study (cores GC1 + PC7, Inoue & Yamazaki, 2010, Yamazaki et al., 2013; core BOW-8A, Okada et al., 2005; Site 883/884, Roberts et al., 1997, Roberts, 2008; MR99-04 and MR98-03, Aoki, 2000; core NGC65, Yamazaki, 1999; NPGP1401-2A, Shin et al., 2019).

Magnetic susceptibility (χ, mass specific) was measured at a frequency of 976 Hz. Temperature-dependent magnetic susceptibility (χ-T) curves for representative samples were measured in an argon atmosphere from room temperature to 700°C. χ and χ-T curves were measured using an AGICO Kappabridge MFK 1-FA system equipped with a CS-3 furnace in an argon atmosphere.

IRM acquisition curves and first-order reversal curves (FORCs) (Pike et al., 1999; Roberts et al., 2000) were measured to a maximum field of 1 T using a MicroMag Model 3900 vibrating sample magnetometer. FORC diagrams were processed with the FORCinel software v3.05 (Harrison & Feinberg, 2008), and IRM acquisition curves were decomposed following Robertson and France (1994).

2.2.2. Electron Microscope Analyses

Magnetic extracts from selected samples were carbon-coated or loaded onto a carbon-coated copper grid for electron microscope analyses. Scan electron microscope (SEM) and transmission electron microscope (TEM)/scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) observations were made with a PHENOM XL desktop SEM at 15 kV and a F200S S/TEM at 200 kV, respectively. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis was performed to determine the chemical compositions of selected areas semiquantitatively.

2.2.3. ^{14}C Dating

^{14}C dates were obtained using accelerator mass spectrometry on planktonic foraminifera (*N. pachyderma* sinistral). A probability density function of calibrated ages was calculated using ^{14}C determinations and the 1σ range from the Marine13 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013) with a reservoir age of $\Delta R = 400 \pm 50$ years based on Yoneda et al. (2007). This calibrated age distribution was analyzed subsequently using the Bayesian highest posterior density method to produce a calibrated age range determination following Lougheed and Obrochta (2016).

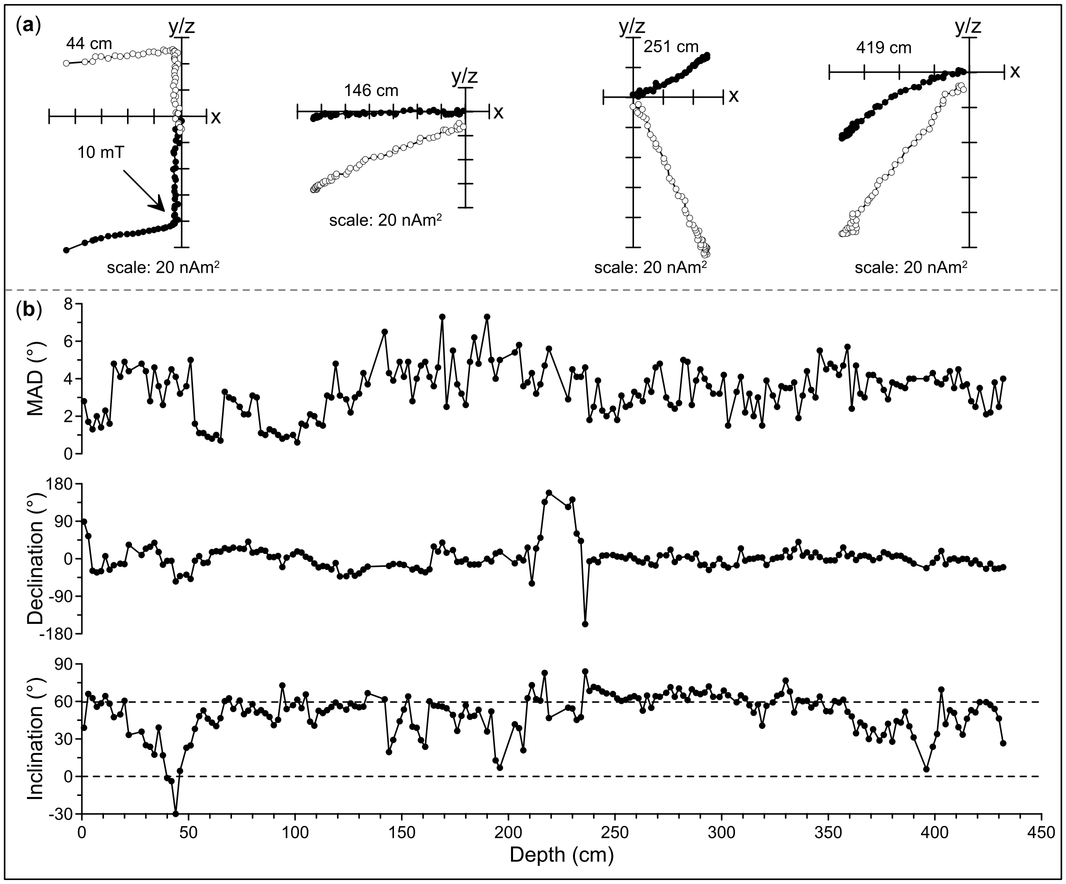

Figure 2. (a) Representative orthogonal projections of alternating field (AF) demagnetization data for sediments from core NP02. Solid (open) circles denote projections of the magnetization vector onto horizontal (vertical) planes. (b) Characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) inclinations, declinations, and Maximum angular deviation (MAD) values. Dashed lines represent the expected inclination for a geocentric axial dipole field at the site latitude and inclination = 0°, respectively.

2.2.4. Volcanic Glass Shard Analysis

Samples from the identified tephra layers were treated with H_2O_2, and then volcanic glass shards were selected, mounted, ground, and polished for electron probe microanalysis. Major element compositions were measured with a JEOL JXA-8100 electron microprobe at 15 kV accelerating voltage with 10 μm beam diameter and 6 nA beam current. Na contents were determined first to reduce the impact of its mobilization. Secondary standard glass, ATHO-G and StHS6/80-G, were used to check the precision and accuracy of the data (Jochum et al., 2006). For comparison, all data were normalized to an anhydrous basis (i.e., 100% total oxides).

3. Results

3.1. Paleomagnetic Stability

The NRM is demagnetized almost completely at 100 mT (Figure 2a), which suggests that the NRM is carried mainly by low-coercivity magnetic minerals. A secondary remanent magnetization is present in some samples and can be removed by AF demagnetization to 10 mT. ChRMs can be identified as components directed toward the origin of demagnetization diagrams up to 100 mT. Maximum angular deviation (MAD) values were calculated by PCA (Kirschvink, 1980) and are generally <5° (Figure 2b), which suggests that the ChRMs are stable and well-defined. ChRM inclinations vary about an average value of 52°, which is slightly shallower than the expected geocentric axial dipole value for this site (±59.6°). Shallower inclinations may

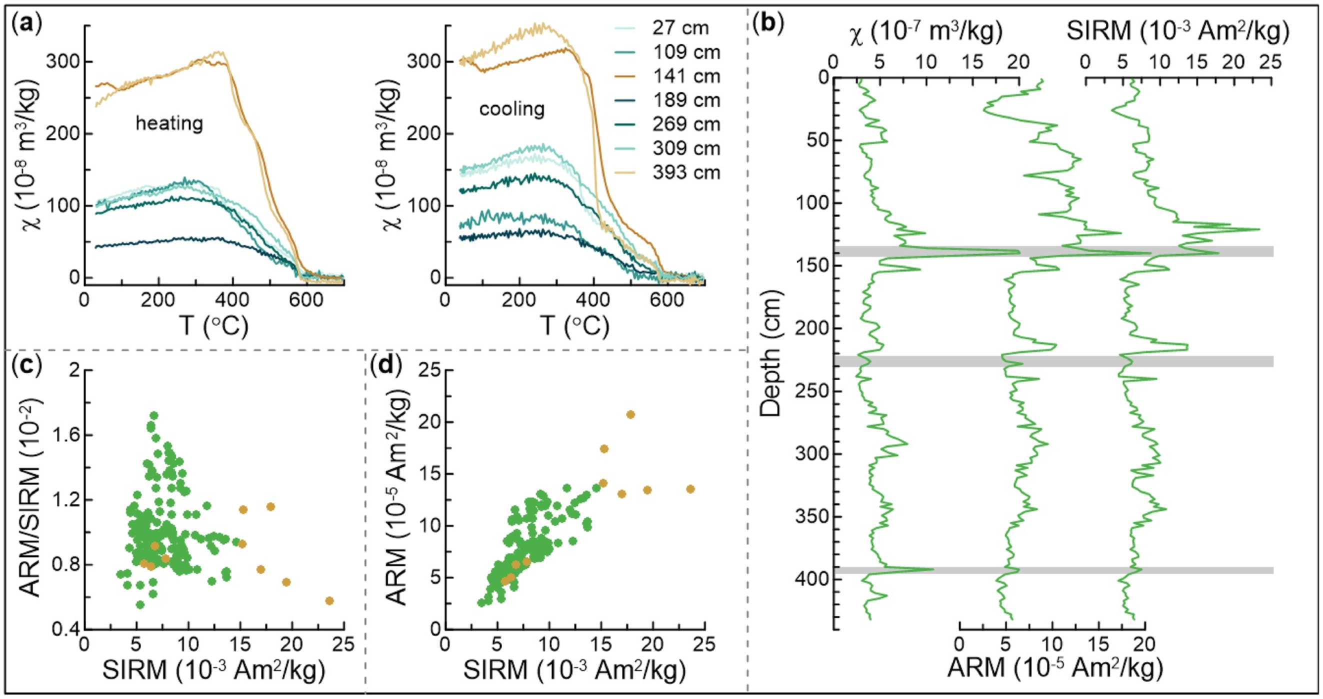

Figure 3. Rock magnetic results from core NP02. (a) Temperature dependence of magnetic susceptibility (χ-T) curves; left (right) are heating (cooling) curves (the depths of the representative samples are indicated in the legend); (b) downcore concentration parameter variations for χ, anhysteretic remanent magnetization (ARM), and saturation Isothermal remanent magnetizations (SIRM); major ash layers are indicated by gray shaded areas; (c) bi-plot of SIRM and ARM/SIRM; and (d) bi-plot of SIRM and ARM. Brown circles in (c) and (d) represent volcanic ash-containing samples.

be associated with acquisition of a depositional remanent magnetization or sediment compaction (Anson & Kodama, 1987; Arason & Levi, 1990; Roberts et al., 2013; Tauxe & Kent, 2004). Three successive reversed polarity inclination values are identified at depths of 39–45 cm, which are interpreted to represent a geomagnetic excursion.

3.2. Magnetic Mineralogy

Bulk rock magnetic results are shown in Figure 3. χ-T heating curves increase steadily from room temperature to ~300°C–400°C (Figure 3a), which indicates gradual unblocking of single domain (SD) particles and/or heating-induced ferrimagnetic mineral neoformation. χ-T curves for tephra-containing samples (i.e., at depths of 141 and 393 cm in Figure 3a) have larger χ values than other curves during both heating and cooling. The heating curve for one tephra-containing sample (141 cm) reaches a near-zero value at ~660°C, which suggests the presence of hematite. Otherwise, all heating curves decrease to near-zero values at ~580°C, which corresponds to the Curie temperature of magnetite (Dunlop & Özdemir, 1997). Downcore variations of concentration-dependent magnetic parameters (χ, ARM, and SIRM) are shown in Figure 3b. Tephra-containing samples are distinguished by anomalously high χ, SIRM, and ARM values, and were removed from our paleomagnetic record. Once these tephra-dominated intervals are removed, χ, ARM, and SIRM values vary within a factor of 5.5, 5.5, and 6.8, respectively, which suggests that the magnetite concentration is relatively homogeneous (i.e., variation of less than one order of magnitude) throughout core NP02. ARM/SIRM is used widely as a magnetic grain-size proxy. However, ARM acquisition can be affected strongly by the magnetic mineral concentration, with higher magnetite concentrations reducing ARM acquisition efficiency (King et al., 1983; Sugiura, 1979). If SIRM is used to represent the magnetic mineral concentration, a higher SIRM should produce lower ARM/SIRM values. A bi-plot of ARM/SIRM and SIRM for core NP02 does not have such a trend (Figure 3c), which indicates that the magnetite concentration has no significant effect on ARM acquisition efficiency. Therefore, ARM/SIRM can be employed here as a magnetic grain-size proxy. A bi-plot of ARM and SIRM has a linear trend with little scatter (Figure 3d), which suggests that changes in bulk magnetite grain size are relatively minor.

Although the bulk magnetic properties are relatively homogenous, component-specific analyses suggest the presence of mixed magnetic signatures in core NP02. FORC diagrams contain a ridge-like distribution along the B_c axis with little vertical spreading, along with an asymmetrically distributed component that diverges toward the B_u axis (Figures 4a–4f). The former component together with a negative contribution along the B_u axis (Figures 4a–4d) is due to SD particles with uniaxial anisotropy (Muxworthy et al., 2004; Newell, 2005), which is often associated with noninteracting biogenic SD particles (Egli et al., 2010), while the latter component is typical of detrital particles in the magnetic vortex state (Lascu et al., 2018; Muxworthy & Dunlop, 2002; Roberts et al., 2017). On the B_c axis, contours can extend to 110 mT, which indicates the presence of high-coercivity magnetic particles (e.g., Ahmadzadeh et al., 2018; Gai et al., 2020). Some FORC diagrams also contain a secondary peak near the origin (Figures 4a–4d), which indicates viscous behavior associated with particles near the superparamagnetic/stable SD (SP/SSD) threshold size (Pike et al., 2001; Roberts et al., 2000). Magnetic particles in different grain sizes were verified by the electron microscopic observations, which can be interpreted as detrital vortex and biogenic SD magnetic particles based on their characteristic morphologies and grain sizes (Figure 5). Magnetite seen in SEM images are submicrons to several microns in length, and their shapes are irregular, which are typical of detrital origin (e.g., Ao et al., 2012) (Figures 5e–5g). In comparison, biogenic magnetite seen in TEM images are several tens of nanometers, which are within the SD range. They are evidenced by the regular elongated or equant morphologies (Figures 5a–5d), and by the intact magnetosome chain structure (Figure 5b). Apart from the biogenic magnetite, SD magnetite in TEM images is also occurred as inclusions within detrital silicate host; these magnetic inclusions are clustered (Figures 5h and 5j) or dentritic textures (Figure 5i). For IRM acquisition curves, samples were not saturated at the field of 300 mT, which suggests the presence of high-coercivity magnetic minerals (Figure S1); the asymmetric gradient (Figures 4g–4l) suggests a mixing of multiple coercivity/mineral phases that is consistent with indications from the FORC diagrams. Four components are identified through IRM acquisition curve decomposition of the selected 51 samples. Component 1 ($B_{1/2}$ = 24–33 mT, DP = 0.20–0.22) and component 2 ($B_{1/2}$ = 54–69 mT, DP = 0.19–0.21) contribute more than 75% of the IRM. Considering that magnetic inclusions in silicates contribute little to remanence in oxic pelagic Pacific sediments (Usui et al., 2018), components 1 and 2 are associated with the detrital vortex state and biogenic SD components indicated in FORC diagrams, respectively. Component 3 ($B_{1/2}$ = 148–182 mT, DP = 0.20–0.23) is similar to the low-coercivity and medium-coercivity components identified in Chinese loess-paleosol sequences (Hu et al., 2013; Spassov et al., 2003; R. Zhang et al., 2016), which is interpreted to represent detrital maghemite and/or pedogenic hematite. Component 4 ($B_{1/2} < 10$ mT, DP = 0.26–0.27) may represent pedogenic magnetic particles just above the SP/SSD threshold size, which correspond to the component indicated by the secondary peak at the origin of FORC diagrams. Downcore, IRMs of components 1 and 2 vary within a factor of 4.2 and 5.8, respectively (Figure 4m).

3.3. Normalized Remanence Records

RPI values can be estimated by normalizing the NRM by a laboratory-induced magnetization, such as IRM or ARM, to compensate for magnetic mineral concentration changes. Selection of a suitable RPI normalizer depends largely on the grain-size distribution of the remanence carrier. ARM is mainly carried by finer magnetic particles, while IRM is also carried by coarser MD particles. Core NP02 samples are dominated by fine (SD and vortex state) magnetic particles, so ARM is chosen as the normalizer.

Our paleomagnetic and rock magnetic results satisfy conventional criteria for RPI studies (King et al., 1983; Tauxe, 1993), and further indicate that two components (hypothesized to be detrital and biogenic magnetite) with different magnetic grain size distributions dominate the magnetic mineral assemblage. The coercivities of the detrital and biogenic components do not overlap strongly over the 10–40 and 50–100 mT windows (blue and pink bands, respectively, in Figures 4g–4l). Therefore, demagnetization intervals of 10–40 and 50–100 mT are chosen to evaluate RPI signals recorded by the detrital and biogenic components, respectively. Due to the logarithmic spacing of demagnetization steps, the 10–40 and 50–100 mT demagnetization intervals are represented by the 10.7–41.6 mT and 52.8–100 mT measurements, respectively. The slopes of NRM/ARM derived for the detrital and biogenic components have similar RPI variations (Figure 6a), which indicates that a robust RPI signal is likely to have been recorded in core NP02 sediments, despite the presence of two magnetite sub-populations.

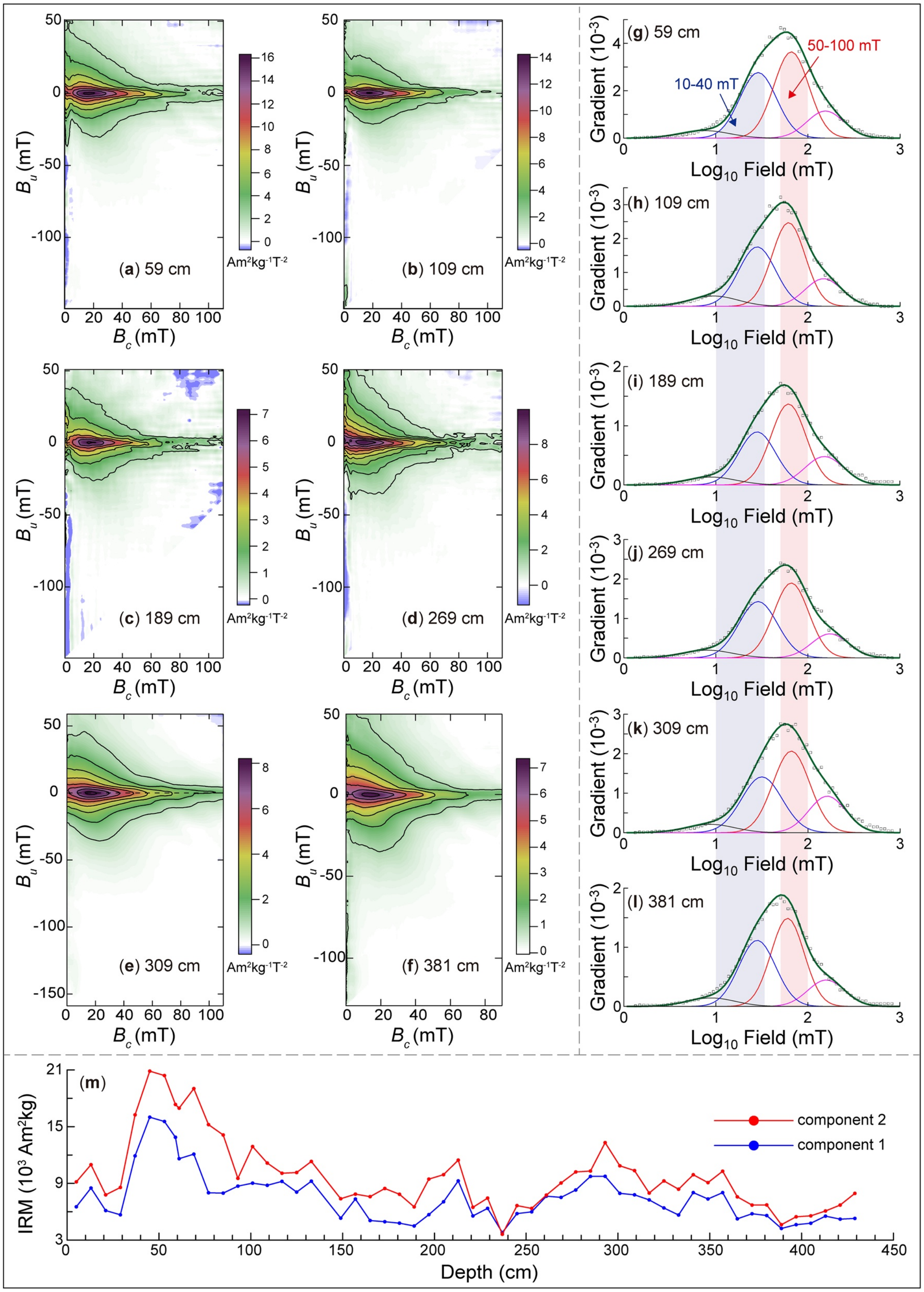

Figure 4. Magnetic properties of typical samples from core NP02. (a–f) FORC diagrams with VARIFORC (Egli, 2013) smoothing parameters of $S_{c,0} = 6$, $S_{c,1} = 9$, $S_{b,0} = 6$, $S_{b,1} = 9$; (g–l) Isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquisition curve decomposition. Blue, red, purple, gray, and green curves are for components 1, 2, 3, 4, and the sum of components, respectively; and (m) downcore variations of IRM for components 1 and 2 derived from IRM acquisition curve decomposition.

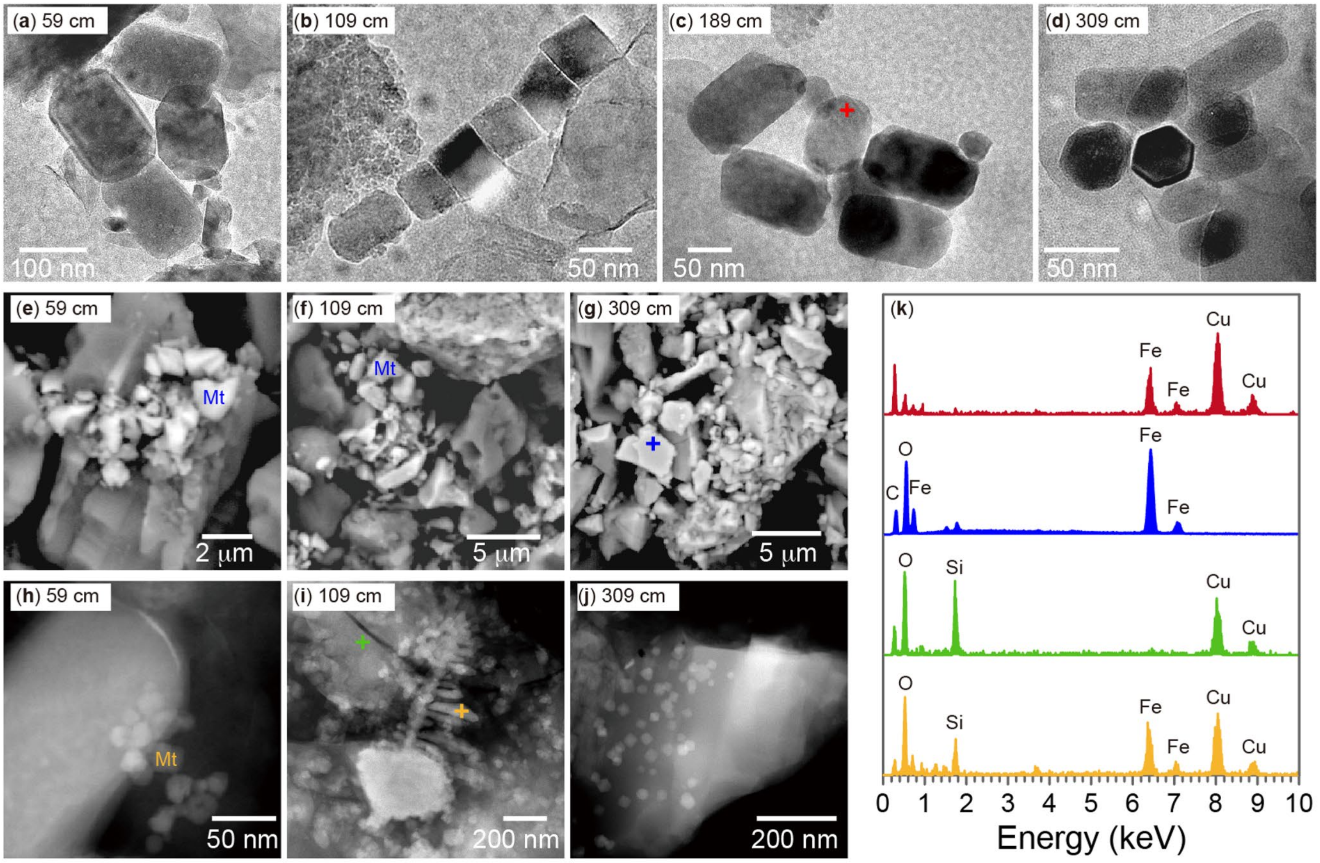

Figure 5. Electron microscope images of particles in magnetic extracts from core NP02. (a–d) Transmission electron microscope (TEM) images for biogenic magnetite; (e–g) scan electron microscope (SEM) images for detrital magnetite; and (h–j) scanning transmission electron microscope (STEM) images for magnetic inclusions within silicates. Red (c), blue (g), green and orange (i) crosses indicate selected areas for energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis, which is presented in (k). EDS analysis indicates that magnetic inclusions and their hosts are magnetite (orange spectrum) and silicates (green spectrum), respectively. The Cu peaks originate from the TEM copper grid. Magnetite particles identified by "Mt" have been verified via EDS.

3.4. Major Element Composition of Glass Shards

Three visible tephra layers are identified at depths of 137–143, 220–227, and 391–395 cm. Each tephra layer has homogeneous glass populations with relatively narrow compositional ranges (Figure 7), which excludes the possibility of tephra mixing due to bioturbation and/or simultaneous deposition. Major element compositions of the 34 analyzed glass shards fall into the rhyolite field (Figure 7a). In terms of potassium contents, tephra layers 1 (137–143 cm) and 3 (391–395 cm) belong to the low-K field while tephra layer 2 (220–227 cm) falls into the medium-K field (Figure 7b).

4. Discussion

4.1. Age Model Construction

Age models are often constructed using interpolation/regression techniques, which assume symmetrically/normally distributed age errors (Blaauw, 2010). However, ^{14}C calibrations often result in asymmetrical and multi-peaked calendar age uncertainties (Blaauw, 2010; Buck et al., 1999; Ramsey, 1995), and such asymmetrical distributions can lead to problems for age model construction. Consideration of full probability density functions can avoid such issues when estimating age-depth models (Blaauw & Christen, 2005; Lougheed & Obrochta, 2019; Ramsey, 2008). There is also an inherent depth uncertainty in sampling geological archives. For core NP02, an age model was constructed following Lougheed and Obrochta (2019)

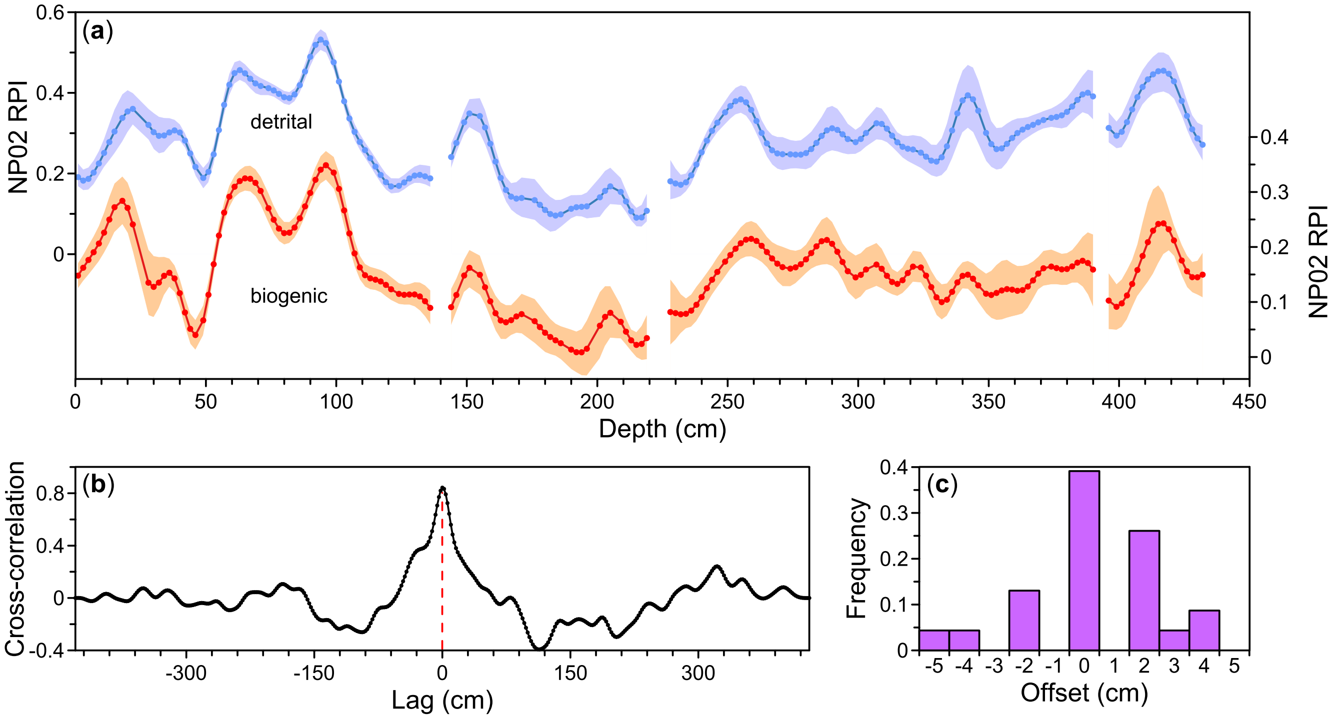

Figure 6. Relative paleointensity (RPI) estimates in core NP02. (a) RPI estimates from the detrital ($NRM_{10–40\ mT}/ARM_{10–40\ mT}$, blue curve) and biogenic ($NRM_{50–100\ mT}/ARM_{50–100\ mT}$, red curve) components with 95% confidence interval, respectively (filtered with a 15 cm cutoff); (b) cross-correlation results for the detrital and biogenic RPI estimates; and (c) distribution of relative offsets between the positions of peaks and troughs in detrital and biogenic RPI estimates.

using age constraints provided by the tephra correlation and one calibrated ^{14}C age in which probability density functions are used, with incorporation of realistic errors for both age and depth.

Tephra is a product of large and explosive volcanic eruptions, which spread widely over land, sea, and ice. Unless a volcanic ash has been reworked long after deposition, the same tephra layer in different depositional sinks has effectively an identical age—an isochron—to within about a year and is considered to be geologically synchronous (Lowe, 2011). Therefore, tephra layers are excellent stratigraphic markers and are used widely for correlating and dating sedimentary successions (e.g., Grönvold et al., 1995; Mangerud et al., 1984; Matsu'ura et al., 2014; Rutledal et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2013). In the western North Pacific

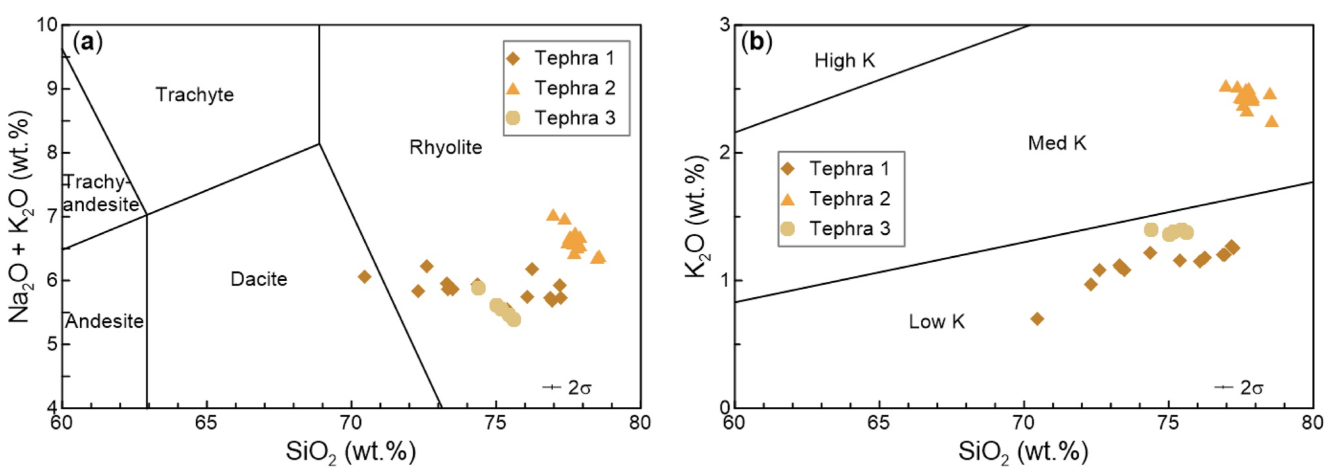

Figure 7. Geochemical characteristics of the glass shards from core NP02. (a) Classification of the total alkali-silica (TAS) diagram with composition fields from Le Bas et al. (1986); and (b) SiO_2-K_2O diagram with boundaries of high, moderate, and low-K rocks according to Gill (1981). Error bars (2σ) for the glass shards were calculated from the secondary glass standard (AHO-G).

Table 1
Average Major Element Compositions of Glass Shards From Core NP02 and Correlative Tephra Markers (Normalized)

	Tephra 1		Tephra 2		Tephra 3		To-Of [a]		Spfa-1[a]		Kt-3[a]	
	Avg.	±1σ	Avg.	±1σ	Avg.	±1σ	Avg.	±1σ	Avg.	±1σ	Avg.	±1σ
SiO_2	74.52	2.16	77.74	0.40	75.14	0.48	77.1	0.74	77.36	0.75	74.73	0.45
TiO_2	0.37	0.07	0.14	0.01	0.35	0.02	0.42	0.07	0.15	0.04	0.35	0.03
Al_2O_3	13.83	1.20	12.31	0.24	12.84	0.22	12.65	0.29	12.37	0.48	12.92	0.39
FeO	1.92	0.32	1.48	0.09	2.84	0.04	1.97	0.23	1.47	0.16	2.76	0.16
MnO	0.08	0.08	0.05	0.07	0.08	0.07	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.02	0.10	0.02
MgO	0.51	0.14	0.16	0.03	0.44	0.03	0.40	0.07	0.18	0.06	0.46	0.05
CaO	2.66	0.69	1.45	0.03	2.68	0.04	2.22	0.21	1.57	0.22	2.69	0.21
Na_2O	4.76	0.27	4.20	0.15	4.19	0.18	3.91	0.12	4.10	0.19	4.37	0.17
K_2O	1.12	0.15	2.44	0.07	1.38	0.02	1.25	0.06	2.70	0.12	1.56	0.12
P_2O_5	0.05	0.05	0.03	0.02	0.06	0.03			0.03	0.03	0.06	0.03
Total	100		100		100		100		100		100	
N	14		15		5		15		114		30	

[a]Average compositions of To-Of tephra is from Machida and Arai (2003), Spfa-1 and Kt-3 tephras are from Amma-Miyasaka et al. (2020).

Ocean, tephra layers are generally dominated by vitric material from high-SiO_2 magmas that originated in subduction-related volcanic events from the Japanese archipelago or the Kamchatka Peninsula (Horn et al., 1969; Ninkovich et al., 1966). By comparing glass shard chemistry results with data reported in previous studies, each tephra layer from core NP02 can be correlated with known Japanese sourced tephra markers. Although Na_2O contents do not overlap perfectly, major element compositions of 14 analyzed glass shards for tephra layer 1 are in good agreement with that of the To-Of tephra, which has been dated to occur in late MIS 3 (32–43.2 ka) (Machida & Arai, 2003; Matsu'ura et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2013). The glass shard chemistry of tephra layers 2 and 3 are highly consistent with that of the Spfa-1 and Kt-3 tephra, respectively (Table 1). The Spfa-1 tephra has an AMS ^{14}C age of 45.105–46.560 cal. ka BP (Uesawa et al., 2016), while Kt-3 has an uncalibrated AMS ^{14}C age of 54.616 ± 0.857 ka BP (Amma-Miyasaka et al., 2020). These tephra markers have been reported widely in the North Pacific Ocean; co-occurrences of To-Of and Spfa-1 have been reported in cores MR99-K04 and MR98-03 (Aoki, 2000), which are close to core NP02 (Figure 1).

The To-Of tephra does not provide a suitable age constraint for core NP02 because of its large age uncertainty. However, its occurrence suggests that sediments above this layer were deposited after 40 ka, a time when radiocarbon can play a role in chronology development. Therefore, discrete samples (3 cm in size) were taken from the upper 137 cm of core NP02, and were then washed, sieved, and observed under the microscope to seek foraminifera. Foraminifera are generally preserved poorly in sediments deposited below the CCD, and foraminifera (*N. pachyderma* sinistral) were only identified at a depth of 49–52 cm. A sample from this depth yielded a radiocarbon date of 28.413 (28.077–28.714, 2σ) cal. ka BP.

Ages for the upper (above 50 cm) and lower (below 395 cm) parts of core NP02 are estimated by polynomial fitting and linear regression, respectively. Based on upward extrapolation, the age estimate for the core-top (0 cm) is 21.07 ka. An absence of surficial sediments is common for gravity coring where the surface layer is removed by impact of the core on the seafloor (Adelseck & Anderson, ; Karlin, 1990; Skinner & McCave, 2003). After removal of 17 cm for the three tephra-containing sediment intervals, which are considered as instantaneous deposits, the mean sedimentation rate for core NP02 based on our age model is ~11.6 cm/kyr (Figure 8).

4.2. Core NP02 RPI Characteristics and Recording Fidelity

Remanence lock-in in sediments can lead to depth offsets between the sediment/water interface and the recorded remanence (Tauxe, 1993; Verosub, 1977). Recent analyses of remanences carried by detrital and

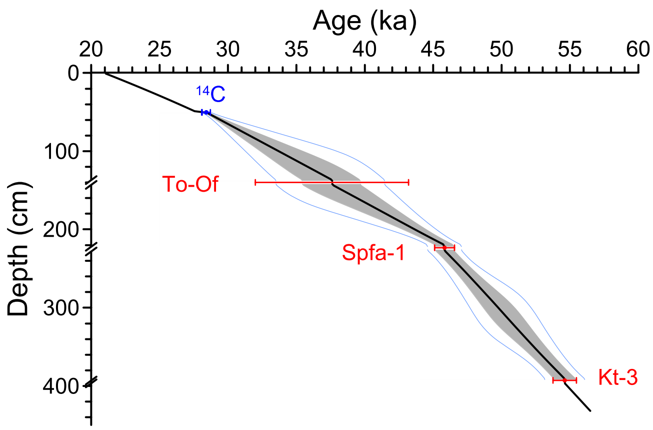

Figure 8. Age-depth model for core NP02. Ages for the upper (<50 cm), intermediate (50–395 cm), and lower (>395 cm) parts are estimated from polynomial fitting, probability density functions (Lougheed & Obrochta, 2019), and linear regression, respectively. Gray shaded areas and blue lines indicate the 1σ and 2σ confidence intervals, respectively. The radiocarbon date and tephra layers with age errors are also indicated.

biogenic components indicate that there is no relative lock-in depth offset between RPI signals recorded by these components within marine sediments (Chen et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2014). For core NP02, cross-correlation results for the detrital and biogenic components suggest no phase lag for the whole sediment sequence (Figure 6b). When comparing the depth positions of all RPI maxima and minima in the sequence, the distribution of relative lock-in depth offsets is centered on zero offset (Figure 6c), which is consistent with the cross-correlation results. However, relative lock-in variations produce a maximum depth error of 5 cm (Figure 6c). For continuous high-resolution RPI studies, any relative lock-in depth offsets could be a crucial limitation when assessing leads and lags between millennial scale climatic variations and, therefore, should be considered as part of the age uncertainty (Roberts et al., 2013). The relative depth offset induces an age error <0.5 kyr for points in the RPI record from core NP02, which should have little effect on comparisons with other RPI stacks/records. Moreover, there is no significant coherence between the RPI estimates and the normalizers, which suggests that sedimentary and/or environmental modulation of the RPI signals were negligible (Figure S2).

Core NP02 RPI estimates are plotted with respect to age in Figure 9a. The RPI minima centered at ~27 ka and ~43 ka in core NP02 are accompanied by aberrant inclinations (Figure S3), which are likely associated with the Rockall and Laschamp excursions (Bonhommet & Babkine, 1967; Bonhommet & Zähringer, 1969; Channell, Harrison, et al., 2016). The Laschamp excursion is the most pervasively documented and studied Quaternary geomagnetic excursion, which occurred at ~41 ka and lasted less than 3 kyr (Laj et al., 2000; Wagner et al., 2000). During the Laschamp excursion, inclination directional changes have been observed from locations with a broad geographical coverage (e.g., Caricchi et al., 2019; Ferk & Leonhardt, 2009; Laj et al., 2006 and references therein; Nowaczyk et al., 2012). However, geomagnetic field behavior during the Laschamp excursion over the North Pacific Ocean seems to have been different from that over the rest of the world; reversed polarity inclinations have not been recorded in NP02 (Figure S3) and other North Pacific Ocean cores (e.g., Inoue & Yamazaki, 2010; Okada et al., 2005; Roberts et al., 1997; Shin et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2020; Zhong et al., 2020). Also, a model for the Laschamp excursion predicts that the field intensity over the Pacific Ocean remained relatively high compared to most locations on Earth (Leonhardt et al., 2009). The different geomagnetic field behavior over the North Pacific Ocean during the Laschamp excursion may have resulted from a relatively large nondipole to dipole field ratio, which remains to be explored with the aid of higher-resolution records.

Core NP02 RPI variations are compared with global RPI stacks (Sint-2000, PISO-1500, and GLOPIS-75) and regional stacks from the equatorial (West Caroline Basin stack), midlatitude (the NOPAPIS-250 stack), and subarctic Pacific Ocean (Channell et al., 2009; Laj et al., 2004; Valet et al., 2005; Yamamoto et al., 2007; Yamazaki et al., 2008; Zhong et al., 2020) (Figure 9a). The RPI minimum centered at ~43 ka in core NP02 correlates with the marked RPI Laschamp excursion minimum at ~40–42 ka identified in all other stacks. The lag in recording of this RPI minimum in core NP02 may be due to age model imprecision and/or variable sedimentation rates. Before the Laschamp excursion, all records have broad RPI maxima in the ~47–55 ka interval. After the Laschamp excursion, the records have a generally increasing trend to ~30 ka. Although the reference stacks generally suggest a similar overall pattern, there are still differences in their fine detail. For example, two peaks at ~47 ka and 53 ka occur in the GLOPIS-75 stack, which are not observed in the other stacks that have a broad maximum at ~47–55 ka. Also, the subarctic Pacific stack has larger variations after the Laschamp excursion than the other stacks, particularly compared to the other regional Pacific stacks. Zhong et al. (2020) attributed the contrasting subarctic North Pacific RPI pattern to regionally variable geomagnetic field behavior. However, this large variability is not observed in the geomagnetic model of Ziegler and Constable (2015), which covers a longer time duration and suggests lower variability and less significant recording of excursions in the Pacific Ocean compared to the Atlantic Ocean (Ziegler & Constable, 2015). Given that stacking of multiple records with variable resolution can distort amplitude

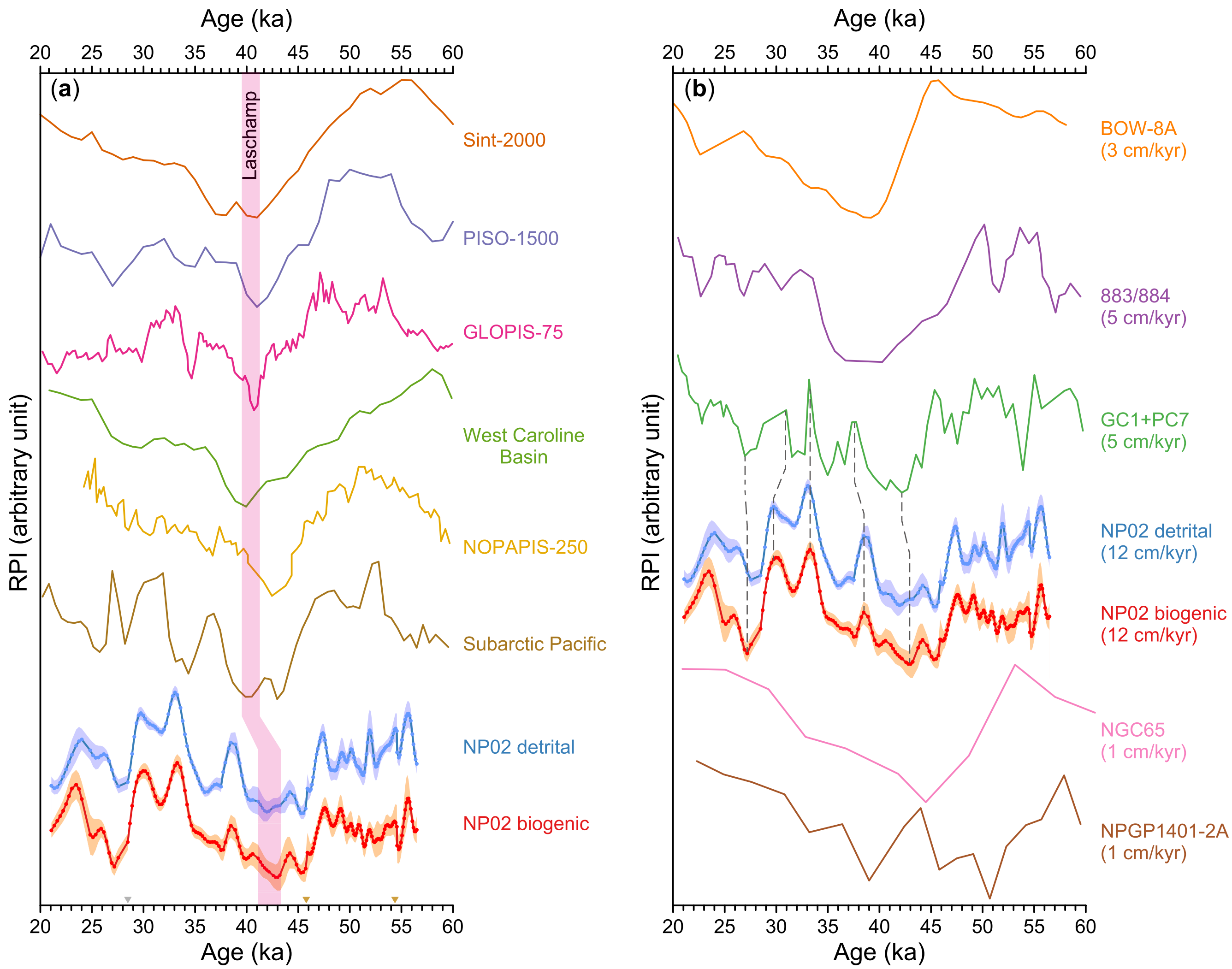

Figure 9. Comparisons of core NP02 Relative paleointensity (RPI) estimates with (a) global stacks (Sint-2000 Valet et al., 2005, PISO-1500 Channell et al., 2009, and GLOPIS Laj et al., 2004); regional stacks from the equatorial (West Caroline Basin stack, Yamazaki et al., 2008), midlatitude (NOPAPIS-250, Yamamoto et al., 2007), and subarctic Pacific Ocean (Zhong et al., 2020); and (b) individual RPI records of core BOW-8A (Okada et al., 2005), Site 883/884 (Roberts et al., 1997; Roberts, 2008), core GC1 + PC7 (Inoue & Yamazaki, 2010; Yamazaki et al., 2013), core NGC65 (Yamazaki, 1999), and core NPGP1401-2A (Shin et al., 2019). The Laschamp excursion is denoted by the pink shaded area. Positions of the radiocarbon date (gray triangle) and tephra layers (brown triangle) from core NP02 are indicated in (a). All stacks and RPI records are rescaled to the 0–1 range. Dashed lines in (b) denote possible correlations between core NP02 and GC1 + PC7.

features and smooth high-frequency and local geomagnetic variations, we further compare individual RPI records from the North Pacific Ocean and its marginal seas (Inoue & Yamazaki, 2010; Okada et al., 2005; Roberts, 2008; Roberts et al., 1997; Shin et al., 2019; Yamazaki, 1999; Yamazaki, Inoue, et al., 2013) (Figure 9b). To aid comparison, only records with geomagnetism-independent age models are considered. The RPI record of core NP02 resembles that of GC1 + PC7, which validates the core NP02 RPI signal. Apart from this comparison, consistency among individual records is less obvious than among the stacks, which may be associated with age model imprecisions and variable sedimentation rates. Nevertheless, pronounced RPI amplitude variations are recorded at Site 883/884, core GC1 + PC7, and core NP02 from midlatitudes to high latitudes. In contrast, core BOW-8A from the Bering Sea and cores from latitudes lower than 40°N have less significant amplitude variations, and it is difficult to ascertain whether the lower variability is a result of genuine geomagnetic field behavior or imperfect recording that smooths the large variability due to low sedimentation rates. The model of Ziegler and Constable (2015) is based mainly on records from the equatorial Pacific Ocean, so their documented low-field variability over the Pacific Ocean could be biased;

more records from the mid to high latitude Pacific Ocean are required to improve our understanding of Pacific geomagnetic field behavior.

5. Conclusions

Dating of Quaternary North Pacific Ocean sediments is challenging because they were usually deposited below the CCD. A geomagnetism-independent age model for North Pacific Ocean core NP02 is established with the aid of tephra correlation (using the To-Of, Spfa-1, and Kt-3 tephra layers) and one radiocarbon date. Detrital vortex state and biogenic SD magnetite in sediments from core NP02 both record RPI variations faithfully, which indicates that RPI-assisted chronology is a promising dating tool for North Pacific Ocean sediments. To assess the reliability of RPI determinations, apart from the common criteria suggested by Tauxe (1993), assessment of component-specific magnetic properties, as presented here, is also required. For sediments that contain more than one magnetic mineral component, the RPI record should be checked to ensure that each component records consistent RPI variations. Moreover, relative depth offsets in recording of components needs to be checked to assess whether this provides further age uncertainties that should be taken into consideration.

Data Availability Statement

Data produced in this study are available at Mendeley Data (https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/42pyc27gy7/1) via DOI:10.17632/42pyc27gy7.1.

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