



# Influence of the North Atlantic subpolar gyre circulation on the 4.2 ka BP event

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#### 9 Abstract

The 4.2 ka BP event, spanning from ca 4200 to 3900 cal yr BP, has been documented in 10 numerous archaeological data and continental archives across the northern hemisphere as an 11 12 abrupt shift to dry and cold climate. However, data on synchronous ocean circulation changes are notably lacking thus preventing from getting a full insight into the physical mechanisms 13 14 responsible for this climate deterioration. Here, we present two high-resolution sea surface temperature records from key locations in the subpolar gyre and off North Iceland in the 15 16 vicinity of the polar front obtained from alkenone paleothermometry. Our data evidence a temperature dipole pattern in the subpolar North Atlantic between 4400-4100 yr BP, which 17 combined with other paleoclimatic records from the North Atlantic/Euro-Mediterranean 18 19 suggests a significant reduction of the subpolar gyre circulation possibly associated with 20 atmospheric blocked regimes.

#### 21 I. Introduction

22 Holocene rapid climate changes (RCCs) are century-long time intervals of enhanced high-23 latitudes cooling and tropical dryness (Mayewski et al., 2004, Wanner et al., 2011). The forcing mechanisms that trigger these RCCs are multiple and in many cases unclear (Wanner 24 et al., 2014). Bond et al. (2001) suggested a relationship between these cold events and a 25 reduction of the North Atlantic deep-water production (NADW) to explain their transmission around the Northern hemisphere. By examining 50 globally distributed proxy records, 26 27 Mayewsky et al. (2004) concluded that RCCs result from natural external forcing (i.e. solar 28 and volcanism) and interactions with internal variability (ocean-atmosphere dynamic). 29 Wanner et al. (2011) highlighted the absence of a clear periodicity of the RCCs and the lack 30 of spatio-temporal homogeneity of temperature and humidity conditions of these events. They 31 also recognized that the early Holocene RCC known as the 8.2 event likely differed from late 32 33 Holocene RCCs because of anomalously high freshwater forcing and insolation at the final 34 stage of the deglaciation.

The 4.2 ka BP event, developing from 4200 to 3900 yr BP (Weiss, 2016), is one of the 35 most widely documented RCCs. Considered as the second outstanding RCC after the 8.2 ka 36 37 BP event in terms of magnitude and duration, it is often regarded as a boundary between the Middle and Late Holocene climate (Magny et al, 2013; Walker et al., 2012). It is notably 38 39 known for being synchronous with a Megadrought in the Levant and the collapse of the 40 Akkadian Empire and the Old Kingdom in Egypt, and further East of the Old Chinese cultures 41 (Weiss and Bradley, 2001; Liu et al., 2012; Stanley et al., 2003). In the last decade, an 42 increasing number of high-resolution proxy records has provided a more comprehensive description of this event (Weiss, 2016). In the Mediterranean region, climate reconstructions 43 have highlighted a drastic reduction of precipitation and extreme climate conditions prevailing 44 during this period (Magny et al., 2013; Fohlmeister et al., 2013; Zanchetta et al., 2016; Cheng 45 et al., 2015; Ruan et al., 2016; Jalali et al., 2016; Finné et al., 2017; and references therein). 46 47 According to Weiss (2015), a 30-50 % reduction of the precipitation delivered by the Mediterranean westerlies during the 4.2 ka BP event led to extreme dryness in the Middle 48 49 East and Central Asia. The synthesis of Weiss (2016) further pointed out the weakening of major monsoon systems during this period. Evidences for Indian monsoon disruption comes from high-resolution speleothem and Lake Rara precipitation records (berkelhammer et al., 50 51





2012; Dixit et al., 2014; Nakamura et al., 2016). Donges et al. (2015) also reported a
weakening of East and South-West Asian summer monsoon resulting in pronounced dryness
in northeastern China, Inner Mongolia and Australia. Finally, but not least, a drastic decline of
precipitation was also observed over northern America (Booth et al., 2005; Fisher, 2008).

While the expression of the 4.2 ka BP event is evident in several paleoclimatic records all 56 57 over the northern hemisphere, physical drivers of this climatic period are still not elucidated in part because of missing data from the ocean, the main water and heat reservoir on Earth. 58 59 Based on continental hydroclimate records, Booth et al. (2005) proposed a La Niña -like 60 pattern and warming in equatorial Atlantic Ocean to explain dry conditions in North America 61 between 4.1 and 4.3 ka BP. Liu et al. (2014) suggested a transition from negative to positive Pacific North American (PNA)-like pattern as an alternative explanation. Transient simulations obtained from the Community Climate System Model (CCSM) of NCAR showed 62 63 64 that while large-scale spatial pattern of the 4.2 and 8.2 ka BP events reproduce a pronounced 65 cooling and precipitation reduction over the northern hemisphere the operating mechanisms are different (Ning et al. 2018, this issue). Cold and dry conditions during the 4.2 ka BP event 66 would result from a weakening of the Atlantic meridional overturning circulation (AMOC) 67 caused by direct insolation forcing while freshwater release in the Labrador Sea and subsequent AMOC collapse triggered the 8.2 ka BP event. Apart from different insolation 68 69 conditions, these two RCCs experienced notably different volcanic forcing. Indeed, the 70 71 absence of large volcanic eruptions (under strong solar activity) during the 4.2 contrasts with 72 the intense volcanism of the 8.2 event (Kobashi et al., 2017).

In this paper, we present unprecedented high-resolution sea surface temperature records in the North Atlantic obtained from alkenones measured in two sediment cores off North Iceland in the Nordic Seas and from the subpolar gyre, South of Iceland. These records are compared with other regional proxy data from the Euro-Mediterranean region to explore the link between variations of the North Atlantic Ocean circulation and the Western Europe climate at the time where disruption of early Mediterranean civilizations was observed.

#### 79 II. Material and methods

80 The MD99-2275 core was retrieved off North Iceland in the Western Nordic Seas (66.55°N; 17.7°W, 470 m water depth) in the vicinity of the present day polar front (Fig. 1, 81 site 2) where the warm and salty North Icelandic Irminger Current (NIIC) meets with the cold 82 and freshwaters of the East Icelandic Current (EIC) (Fig. 1). The age model of the MD99-83 2275 core is based on 7<sup>14</sup>C dates and 2 tephras (Sicre et al., 2008; Eiríksson et al., 2011; 84 Knudsen et al., 2008; Table 1). The second core (MD95-2015; 58.76°N; 25.95°W; 2630 m 85 water depth) is located South of Iceland on the eastern flank of the Reikyanes Ridge (Fig. 1, site 1). Age model is based on 6 <sup>14</sup>C dates measured in planktonic foraminifera *Globigerina bulloides* (for details see Kissel et al., 2013). <sup>14</sup>C dates were calibrated using the Calib6 86 87 88 89 program and a reservoir age of 400 years (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993; Table 1). Both cores 90 have been collected as part as the international IMAGE program.

91 Both sediment cores were continuously sampled at a sampling step of 1 cm for alkenone biomarker analysis. Lipids were extracted from a few grams of freeze-dried sediments 92 following the experimental procedure described in Sicre et al. (1999). Alkenones were 93 94 isolated from the total lipid extract by silica gel chromatography and quantified using a Varian CX 3400 gas chromatograph after the addition of a known amount of 5 -cholestane 95 used as an external standard. SSTs were derived from the unsaturation index of C37 alkenones 96  $U_{37=}^{K}$  (C<sub>37:2</sub>)/(C<sub>37:2</sub> + C<sub>37:3</sub>) and the calibration of Prahl et al. (1988), T= (U<sup>K37</sup> - 0.039)/0.034). 97 98 Based on the age models of the two cores, the mean temporal resolution is estimated to 4 years for MD99-2275 and 20 years for MD95-2015. 99

Pollen data from the KSGC-31 core (Fig. 1, site 11) were generated from 16 samples taken within the 4.2 ka time interval to obtain complementary information on vegetation changes. The pollen extraction procedure follows the standard method modified from Faegri and Iversen (1989) (for details see Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1999). In the KSGC-31 core, pollen counting was performed on least 300 grains (more than 100 if we except Pinus grains).





105 Pollen deposited at our core site originates from the large catchment area of the Gulf of Lion thus providing an integrated picture of the vegetation from the coastline to the top of the 106 107 nearby mountains. Pollen percentages were calculated with respect to total pollen excluding Pinus pollen over represented in marine sediments (Combourieu-Nebout et al., 1999, 2013) 108 109 and reference therein). Temperate forest pollen gathered deciduous trees mainly deciduous 110 Quercus and Carpinus, Corylus, Fraxinus, Ulmus, Tilia, Populus, Salix... In marine records, variations of this group are commonly considered as reflecting regional changes in 111 temperature and/or precipitation. Altitudinal conifer forest Abies (mainly) and Picea were 112 added together. Variations of this group feature the expansion of the altitudinal forest in the 113 region that is classically interpreted as a decrease in temperature. 114

#### 115 III. Results and discussion

As shown in Figure 2, SST signal of the MD99-2275 core contains strong decadal scale variability with values ranging between 7 and 10 °C around a mean value of 9 °C. Within the 4.2 event interval shaded in grey, they depict an overall cooling of ~2 °C followed by a brief reversal around 4200 yr BP and an abrupt decline to coldest values reached at about 4050 yr BP. South of Iceland SSTs are warmer (above 9 °C) as expected from the core location and depict multi-centennial oscillations of broadly opposite sign of those off North Iceland with warmest SSTs peaking around 4285 yr BP.

#### 123 III.1. Evidence of weak North Atlantic SPG circulation during the 4.2 ka BP event

Figure 3 compares our SST data and several records from North Atlantic sediments which 124 includes the reconstruction of the subpolar gyre (SPG) intensity of Thornalley et al. (2009) 125 and the mean sortable silt (SS) from Gardar drift sediments of Mjell et al. (2015) driven by 126 the strength of the Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW). This proxy is thought to reflect 127 changes of the Nordic seas overflow a major component of the thermohaline circulation. Also 128 shown are the Na fluxes from GISP2 ice core (Fig. 3e) (O'Brien et al., 1995) reflecting 129 130 changes in atmospheric circulation pathways. Reconstructions of sea-ice concentration over the East Greenland shelf (Fig 3f) and sea surface salinity in the Labrador Sea (Fig. 3g) 131 132 (Solignac et al., 2004; 2006) provide additional information on surface ocean circulation 133 changes. Finally, summer SSTs derived from diatom (Fig. 3h) were used to assess variations 134 of the Atlantic water influx into the Nordic Seas (Berner et al., 2011). These surface water 135 property and dynamical proxy reconstructions were combined to determine North Atlantic circulation changes during the 4.2 ka BP event. 136

As earlier stressed, warm SSTs in the subpolar gyre region contrast with generally colder 137 138 SSTs in the Nordic Seas and cold climate in Europe. Similar temperature pattern was also 139 evidenced during the Little Ice Age (LIA), the most recent of the Holocene RCCs by Moreno-Chamarro et al. (2017). Using model simulations and proxy data these authors concluded that 140 this temperature dipole was caused by a weakening of the SPG. A weak SPG then create the 141 conditions for atmospheric blocking in the Northeastern Atlantic and subsequent severe climate in Europe (Häkkinen et al., 2011; Luterbacher et al., 2004). According to Moreno-142 143 Chamarro et al. (2017), the regression of the SPG would be related to solar maxima while 144 other studies argue for solar minima as a driving factor (Barriopedro et al, 2008, Moffa-145 Sanchez et al., 2014). Recently, Ionita et al. (2016) demonstrated that persistent blocking 146 147 activity could trigger even more rapid ocean changes such as during the Great Salinity 148 Anomaly (GSA) in the 1970s. They showed that enhanced sea ice export from the Arctic 149 Ocean through Fram Strait and subsequent freshening in the Labrador Sea several years later 150 were responsible for a decrease of convection and a slowdown of the SPG. In the following, we explore the hypothesis of a reduction of the SPG and causal links between sea ice, wind 151 152 intensity, SPG and AMOC to explain our results.

Figure 3c shows the reconstruction of the SPG strength based on water density difference between surface and subsurface waters obtained from paired Mg/Ca and <sup>18</sup>O in *Globigerina*. *bulloides* and *Globorotalia inflata*, respectively (Thornalley et al., 2009). This density difference reflects the stratification of the upper ocean due to variable contribution of the North Atlantic Inflow and Polar waters. Lower (higher) and decreasing (increasing) values of





this index are indicative of a slowdown (strengthening) of the SPG. This index shows a
gradual decrease of the SPG from 5300 yr BP to 4200-4100 yr BP. The concurrent decrease
of the SS inferred ISOW intensity suggests a consistent parallel AMOC decline (Fig. 3d)
(Thornalley et al., 2018) that is supported by cooling summer SST off Norway (Fig. 1, site 9
and 3h; Berner et al., 2011). All together, these reconstructions indicate a progressive
slowdown of the SPG and AMOC between 5000 and 4200-4100 yr BP and subsequent
northward heat transport reduction leading to cold conditions in the Nordic seas.

165 Freshwater export from the Arctic Ocean and wind stress are controlling factors of the SPG circulation through deep convection in the Labrador Sea (Thornalley et al., 2009). 166 167 Increase sea salt Na flux in Greenland ice core has been related to the expansion of the polar vortex and/or enhance meridional wind flow. The negative trending of Na fluxes till about 168 4200-4300 yr BP and parallel SPG weakening are suggestive of either a weakening of the 169 170 winds or more sea ice cover both acting to reduce the formation of sea salt aerosols (Fig. 3e). 171 Proxy records of ice and melt water out the Arctic Ocean through Fram Strait during the 4.2 172 ka BP event are scarce. However, data from South of the Denmark Strait shown in Figure 3f, indicate that the 4500 - 3900 yr BP interval has been a long-standing period with almost no sea ice (core JM96 1207; Solignac et al., 2006). Decrease influence of Polar Waters is also 173 174 175 evident from increasing sea surface salinity record in the Labrador Sea between 4800 and 4000 yr BP (Fig. 3g; site 5 in Fig. 1; Solignac et al., 2004). Both proxy reconstructions point 176 to a decreased influence of Polar Waters along the East Greenland shelf since 4900 yr BP 177 (Solignac et al., 2006; De Vernal et al., 2013). Paleodata as well as modern observations have 178 also shown that in a weak state, the SPG is confined to the western side of the basin and has a 179 North/South orientation favoring IC inflow waters to the SE Greenland/NW Iceland shelf (Hátún et al., 2005; Andresen et al., 2012). Such incursions of warm IC water have notably 180 181 182 been evidenced by high occurrences of the benthic foraminifera *casidulina neotertis* between 5200 and 4200 yr BP by Andresen et al. (2012). A weak SPG also induces surface cooling in 183 184 the Nordic seas due to decreased heat transport thereby promoting the expansion of sea ice cover especially in the Nordic Barents seas (Moreno-Chamarro et al., 2017). This is in 185 agreement with the long-term cooling of Nordic Seas reported by Berner et al. (2011) along 186 the Norwegian coast (Fig. 3h) and the marked increase abundance of sea-ice species between 187 4300 and 4100 yr BP in MD99-2275 that parallels the alkenone SSTs decrease (Ran et al., 188 189 2008). Note that these authors further specified that the change in Arctic species is only minor, which further supports the assumption of a low Arctic water influx and rather more 190 local sea ice formation due to colder conditions. Sea ice concentration in the Barents Sea 191 192 show consistent increasing values since 4600 yr BP (De Vernal et al., 2013) in contrast to SE Greenland and Labrador Sea, a result that is in agreement with the SST dipole distinctive 193 194 imprint of SPG weakening. In the next section we discuss the climatic expression of the 4.2 195 ka BP event in the Euro-Mediterranean region based on continental record of concomitant 196 hydroclimate changes.

#### 197 III.2. Climatic expression in the Euro-Mediterranean region

198 Figure 4 shows high-resolution of SST and pollen records from the Gulf of Lion together 199 with oxygen isotope signals from several stalagmites from the western Mediterranean sensitive to continental precipitation (Smith et al., 2016; Zanchetta et al., 2016; Ruan et al., 200 2016). SSTs from North Iceland (core MD99-2275) are also shown. SSTs in the Gulf of Lion 201 202 reveal a ~2°C cooling between 4400 and 3800 yr BP, with two brief colder intervals around 4300 and 4100 yr BP that seems to broadly coincide with colder SSTs as well in North 203 204 Iceland, yet cooling at 4100 yr BP off North Iceland is more prominent possibly due to the presence of sea ice (Fig. 4a, c). Coldest SSTs in this area during the LIA have been related to 205 206 persistent wintertime atmospheric blocking over the NE Atlantic resulting in more intense and 207 colder Mistral winds blowing more strongly during the winter season (Sicre et al., 2016).

Pollen data at this site also indicate colder conditions over adjacent continent. Temperate forest changes closely follows the SST cooling from 4400 to 3600 yr BP (Fig. 4a, b) with several peaks superimposed on the general decreasing trend (~60 to 30%) associated with opposite increasing altitudinal conifer forest (~10 to 20%). Pollen data from the nearby Palavasian lagoon system (Azuara et al., 2018) are also consistent with pollen data in the Gulf





213 of Lion core. They notably display a decrease of the temperate forest and increase of altitudinal forest taxon Fagus. These regional vegetation changes indicate colder conditions 214 215 but not necessary dryer climate since mountain forests require relative high precipitations (<750 mm). Nevertheless, on shorter time scale, the decreases of temperate forest pollen 216 could indicate a slight and brief decrease in precipitation and thus moderate dryness and/or 217 218 the establishment and lengthening of summer dryness that is typical of Mediterranean precipitation regime. This is confirmed by the concurrent enhanced representation of the 219 Mediterranean taxa (Combourieu-Nebout pers.com). 220

Paleoclimatic and paleoenvironmental records from the western Mediterranean (Italy, 221 Spain and Algeria) give different picture of precipitation during the 4.2 ka BP event. The 222 223 oxygen isotope record from the Renella Cave stalagmite (Fig. 4e; Zanchetta et al., 2016) indicates dryness in central Italy between 4300-3800 yr BP. Pollen record from Adriatic Sea 224 225 core MD 90-917 further support that Mediterranean precipitation regime established at that 226 time (Combourieu-Nebout et al., 2013) while in central Italy and in Gulf of Lion, pollen data do not show a clear change in vegetation but only a modification of the forest composition 227 that can be accounted by a slight decrease in precipitation (Di Rita et al., 2018; this issue). 228 Stable oxygen isotopes and archaeological data from Gueldaman cave in northern Algeria 229 230 indicate dry conditions and subsequent abandonment of the cave between 4400-3800 yr BP similar to Renella Cave (Fig. 4f; Ruan et al., 2016). Quite different, the Asiul Cave record 231 from Northern Spain in the Atlantic realm (Fig. 4d) shows multi-decadal scale variability with 232 233 cold and dry intervals (down arrows) that share resemblance with the cold spell found in the Nordic Seas and Gulf of Lion SST records (Smith et al., 2016). Deflected westerly wind flow 234 to the North under frequent blocked regimes could account for less humid conditions in North 235 Iberia (Hakkinen et al., 2011). Stable oxygen isotopes from Renella and Gueldaman caves 236 237 indicate concurrent departure to wetter conditions (up arrows) indicative of other atmospheric influences that would need further investigations. 238

239 In summary, our reconstructions all together show that from 4400 to 3800 yr BP the 240 region experienced colder and drier climate most likely triggered by a weakening of the North Atlantic SPG under sustained high solar activity (Kobashi et al., 2017). In line with the study 241 242 of Moreno-Chamarro et al. (2017) we hypothesize that during the 4.2 event, the SPG was also weakened and responsible for cold and slightly drier climate in Northwestern Europe and in 243 244 the Nordic Seas, contrasting with a warmer subpolar North Atlantic. Figure 5 shows the SST dipole of a weak SPG from Moreno-Chamarro et al. (2017) obtained from model simulation 245 during the LIA together with the data used in the discussion represented by colored dots. 246 247 Anomalies for the 4.2 ka BP event were calculated with respect to the period between 5000 and 4400 yr BP. Red (blue) dots indicate positive (negative) SST/air temperature anomalies 248 249 while open orange dots highlight negative humidity anomalies.

### 250 IV. Conclusions

251 Unprecedented high-resolution alkenone-derived SST records of the 4.2 ka BP event have been generated from the Nordic Seas and North Atlantic sediments in order to explore causes 252 for this cold/dry event of the mid-Holocene considered as the onset of the neoglacial period in 253 the North Atlantic and the role of the ocean in the observed changes. The spatial distribution 254 255 of the SST indicates a cold/warm dipole between 4400 and 4100 yr BP that characterize a weak subpolar gyre circulation which is supported by other marine proxy records across the 256 257 North Atlantic. Enhanced wintertime atmospheric blocking induced by a weak subpolar gyre 258 circulation would account for the hydroclimate changes seen in the available continental proxy record in the Euro-Mediterranean region. The high solar activity and absence of major 259 260 volcanic activity during this period could have promoted this dynamical change of the SPG.

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- 477 Table 1: Age models of the MD95-2015 and MD99-2275 sediment cores (from Kissel et al.,
- 478 2013; Knudsen et al., 2008). Radiocarbon ages have been calibrated using CALIB6 program
- with a reservoir age of 400 years, for core MD95-2015 (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993), and using
- 480 OxCal3.1 (Bronk Ramsey, 2001) and the Marine04 model calibration curve (Stuiver and
- 481 Braziunas, 1993), for core MD99-2275.

Core	Depth (cm)	Material/Dated tephra layer	<sup>14</sup> C Ages	Error (1sigma)	Cal year BP	Error (1sigma)
MD95-2015	60	G. bulloides	2220	60	1810	72
MD95-2015	90	G. bulloides	2960	60	2736	33
MD95-2015	110	G. bulloides	3390	60	3263	71
MD95-2015	150	G. bulloides	4060	60	4070	86
MD95-2015	200	G. bulloides	4660	70	4886	72
MD95-2015	240	G. bulloides	5310	80	5662	77
MD99-2275	687	Hekla 3			2980	0
MD99-2275	942	Hekla 4			4200	0
MD99-2275	9695	Siphonodentalium lobatum	4405	45	4565	85
MD99-2275	10020	Thyasira equalis	4760	100	5030	160
MD99-2275	10455	Yoldiella lenticula	4805	65	5100	120
MD99-2275	10675	Thyasira equalis	4880	60	5185	105
MD99-2275	10885	Thyasira equalis	5160	80	5520	90
MD99-2275	11545	Thyasira equalis	5105	50	5490	70
MD99-2275	12325	Yoldiella cf. lenticula	5500	50	5880	70

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## 484

## **Figure captions**

485 Figure 1: Map of the annual mean SSTs (1955–2012) from World Ocean Atlas database (https://data.nodc.noaa.gov/las/getUI.do; Locarnini et al., 2013) showing the location of the 486 investigated cores and sites used for comparison. (1) marine core MD95-2015 (this study); (2) 487 marine core MD99-2275 (this study); (3) marine core GS06-144 08GC (Mjell et al., 2015); 488 (4) marine core RAPiD-12-1K (Thornalley et al., 2009); (5) marine core P-013 (Solignac et 489 al., 2004); (6) marine core JM96 1207 (Solignac et al., 2006); (7) ice core GISP2 (O'Brien et 490 al., 1995); (8) marine core Fox05R/04G (Andresen et al., 2012); (9) marine core MD95-2011 491 (Berner et al., 2011); (10) Crag Cave (McDermott et al., 2001); (11) marine core KSGC-31 492 (Jalali et al., 2016; this study); (12) Palavasian Lagoon (Azuara et al., 2015); (13) speleothem 493 from Asiul Cave (Smith et al., 2016); (14) speleothem from Renella Cave (Zanchetta et al., 494 2016); (15) speleothem from Gueldaman Cave (Ruan et al., 2016). Subpolar and subtropical 495 gyres as well as main surface currents in the North Atlantic are also shown. IC: Irminger 496 497 Current; NIIC: North Icelandic Irminger Current; EIC: East Icelandic Current; EGC: East Greenland Current. 498

Figure 2: Sea surface temperatures (SSTs) in the North Atlantic between 5500 and 2500 yr BP. (a) Alkenone-derived SSTs at the MD95-2015 core (site 1 in Fig. 1). (b) Alkenone-derived SSTs at the MD99-2275 core (site 2 in Fig. 1). 50 years binning is applied to reduce the effect of proxy reconstruction error (thick lines). Triangles indicate the age control points used for the age models, at 1 uncertainty for the <sup>14</sup>C dates.

Figure 3: Paleoclimatic and paleoceanographic data from the North Atlantic during the 4.2 ka 504 505 BP event. (a) Alkenone-derived SSTs at the MD95-2015 core. (b) Alkenone-derived SSTs at the MD99-2275 core. (c) Density difference between surface and subsurface waters obtained 506 from paired Mg/Ca and <sup>18</sup>O in *Globigerina bulloides* and *Globorotalia inflata* in ore RAPiD-507 12-1K (site 4 in Fig. 1) (Thornalley et al., 2009). (d) Mean sortable silt (SS) in core GS06-144 508 509 08GC in the Iceland Basin (site 3 in Fig. 1) inferred Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water flow vigor (ISOW; Mjell et al., 2015). (e) Sea-salt Na flux from GISP2 ice core (site 7 in Fig. 1) 510 (O'Brien et al., 1995). (e) Sea ice concentration from the East Greenland shelf based on 511 dinoflagellate cyst assemblages in core JM96 1207 (site 6 in Fig. 1) (Solignac et al., 2006). 512 513 (g) Dinoflagellate cyst assemblages inferred sea surface salinity from the Labrador Sea core P-013 (site 5 in Fig. 1) (Solignac et al., 2004). (h) Summer SSTs derived from diatom based 514 515 weighted averaging partial least squares transfer function from core MD95-2011 (site 9 in





- Fig.1) (Berner et al., 2011). For (a), (b) and (d) 50 years binning is applied to reduce the effect
  of proxy reconstruction error (thick lines). This binning has not been applied on the low
- 518 temporal resolution records. The shaded grey vertical band represents the 4.2 ka BP event
- 519 time-interval.

520 Figure 4: Climatic expression of the 4.2 ka BP event in the W Mediterranean region as recorded by marine and continental archives. (a) Alkenone SSTs at the KSGC-31 core in the 521 Gulf of Lion (site 11 in Fig. 1, Jalali et al., 2016). (b) Temperate forest (yellow line) and 522 523 altitudinal conifer (green line) forest pollen percentages in the KSGC-31 core (this study). (c) Alkenone SSTs at the MD99-2275 core (site 2 in Fig. 1) (North Iceland; this study). (d) 524 525 Detrended <sup>18</sup>O obtained from Asiul Cave (site 13 in Fig. 1) (North Spain; Smith et al., 2016). (e) <sup>18</sup>O obtained from Renella Cave (site 14 in Fig. 1) (North Italy; Zanchetta et al., 2016). 526 (f) <sup>18</sup>O obtained from Gueldaman Cave (site 15 in Fig. 1) (North Algeria; Ruan et al., 2016). 527 50 years binning is applied to reduce the effect of proxy reconstruction error (thick lines). The 528 529 shaded grey vertical band represents the 4.2 ka BP event time-interval.

Figure 5: Map of the North Atlantic showing the dipole SSTs related to reduced SPG 530 circulation during the LIA (1575-1724 CE) (from Moreno-Chamarro et al., 2017). Climatic 531 conditions during the 4400-3800 yr BP time-interval at oceanic and continental sites 532 discussed in the text are shown by colored circles. (1) Core MD95-2015 (site 1 in Fig. 1) (this 533 study). (2) Core MD99-2275 (site 2 in Fig. 1, This study). (3) Core Fox05R/04G (site 8 in 534 Fig. 1, Andresen et al., 2012). (4) Crag Cave (site 10 in Fig. 1, McDermott et al., 2001). (5) 535 Core MD95-2011 (site 9 in Fig. 1, Berner et al., 2011). (6) Core KSGC-31 (site 11 in Fig. 1, 536 Jalali et al., 2016; This study). (7) Asiul Cave (site 13 in Fig. 1, Smith et al., 2016). (9) 537 Renella Cave (site 14 in Fig. 1, Zanchetta et al., 2016). (10) Gueldaman Cave (site 15 in Fig. 538 1, Ruan et al., 2016). 539













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Figure 3







Figure 4



Figure 5







