

1 **Is there evidence for a 4.2ka B.P. event in the northern North Atlantic region?**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 We review paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic records from the northern North Atlantic to assess
10 the nature of climatic conditions at 4.2ka BP, which has been identified as a time of exceptional
11 climatic anomalies in many parts of the world. The northern North Atlantic region experienced
12 relatively warm conditions in from 6-8ka B.P., followed by a general decline in temperatures after
13 ~5ka B.P., which led to the onset of Neoglaciation. Over the last 5000 years, a series of multi-
14 decadal to century scale fluctuations occurred, superimposed on an overall decline in temperature.
15 Although a few records do show a glacial advance around 4.2ka B.P., because they are not
16 widespread we interpret them as local events -- simply one glacial advance of many that occurred
17 in response to the overall climatic deterioration that characterized the late Holocene.

18

19 **1. Introduction**

20 The North Atlantic is a key area in the global climate system because changes in atmospheric and
21 oceanographic conditions in this region can have widespread effects on global climate. It is the
22 core region for ventilation of the North Atlantic which drives the Atlantic Meridional Overturning
23 Circulation (AMOC), with global teleconnections through the conveyor belt system of ocean
24 currents. Detailed studies of two sediment cores in the North Atlantic (at ~65° and ~54°N) by
25 Bond et al (1997) revealed quasi-periodic variations in the percentage of hematite-stained grains
26 and Icelandic glass during the Holocene, which were interpreted as evidence for pulses of ice-
27 rafting. They argued that during these episodes, “*cool, ice-bearing surface waters shifted across*
28 *more than 5° of latitude, each time penetrating well into the core of the North Atlantic Current*”.
29 One of the 8 Holocene episodes (later dubbed “Bond events”) occurred at ~4.2ka calendar years
30 B.P. Given that this is the time at which exceptional climatic anomalies appear to have occurred

31 in many parts of the world (“the 4.2ka B.P. event”) (cf. Weiss, 2017) it is important to re-assess
32 the evidence for disruption of the North Atlantic Current at that time.

33 Bond et al. (2001) argued that the colder episodes they had identified were driven by a
34 reduction in solar insolation (cf. Wanner and Bütikofer, 2008; Wanner et al., 2011),
35 notwithstanding the fact that total solar irradiance did not vary by more than $\pm 0.15\%$ over this
36 period (Vieira et al., 2011; Roth and Joos, 2013; Wu et al. 2018). Nevertheless, the literature is
37 replete with studies that have tried to link diverse paleoclimatic records from around the world to
38 the timing of Bond events (e.g. Fleitmann et al., 2003; Gupta et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2005;
39 Pèlachs et al., 2011), despite the fact that other paleoceanographic studies have been unable to
40 reproduce the record of ice-rafting reported in Bond et al., (1997) (e.g. Andrews et al., 2014). Here
41 we review sedimentary records from the northern North Atlantic (north of 60°N) with a specific
42 focus on whether there is evidence for an “event” around 4.2ka B.P. We do not focus on records
43 from Iceland as these have been reviewed separately by Geirsdóttir et al. (2019).

44 The North Atlantic has a very distinct pattern of sea surface temperatures, reflecting the ocean
45 currents that traverse the region (Figure 1). Warm sub-tropical water enters the region from the
46 southwest via the Gulf Stream (North Atlantic Current) and this transfers heat to sub-polar latitudes
47 north of Scandinavia by way of the Norwegian Atlantic and West Spitsbergen currents, as well as
48 around the western and northwestern coast of Iceland via the Irminger current. In contrast, cold
49 polar water exits the Arctic Ocean via the East Greenland current, which extends to the southern
50 tip of Greenland. The region between these water masses is where deepwater formation occurs,
51 driving the large-scale Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). On the timescale of
52 the Holocene, there have been significant changes in the characteristics and position of these major
53 oceanographic features, as recorded by various paleoceanographic proxies.

54

55 **2. Paleoceanographic evidence**

56 First, we consider a transect of sediment cores that are aligned along the axis of the main influx of
57 Atlantic water entering the North Atlantic, from west of the UK to Svalbard (Figure 1). We focus
58 on those studies that have provided estimates of paleo sea-surface temperatures. Effectively, this
59 means only those that have analyzed alkenones and diatoms, which reflect conditions in the photic
60 zone or mixed layer near the ocean surface. Figure 1 shows the location of all available Holocene
61 alkenone-based paleotemperature estimates (Figure 2; see references in the caption). These

62 indicate that SSTs were higher in the early Holocene, with the largest anomalies (relative to today)
63 at high latitudes (that is, there was strong polar amplification of the warming) (Andersson et al.,
64 2010). This early Holocene warming was a consequence of orbital forcing: June/July insolation
65 was ~10% higher than today at the start of the Holocene in the northern parts of the region, but the
66 peak warming was delayed due to the influence of the decaying Laurentide and Scandinavian Ice
67 Sheets and associated icebergs and freshwater (Renssen et al., 2009, 2012; Zhang et al., 2016).
68 Consequently, maximum temperatures were a few thousand years later than the peak insolation,
69 punctuated by a short-lived cooling event around 8.2ka B.P. associated with the final major
70 freshwater discharge event of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (Barber et al., 1999; Rohling and Pälike,
71 2005). Thereafter, as insolation declined so sea surface temperatures declined steadily, or by some
72 estimates, in a more step-like manner (e.g. Calvo et al., 2002; Risebrobakken et al., 2010). For
73 example, Birks and Koç (2002), Andersen et al. (2004) and Berner et al. (2011) all found that
74 August SSTs at 67°N (core MD95-2011) were 4-5°C warmer than today from ~9000-6500 years
75 B.P., then steadily declined. These analyses were based on diatoms, but similar results (albeit with
76 a smaller change in temperature, ~2.5°C, perhaps reflecting a different seasonal bias) were
77 obtained in a study of alkenones from the same core (Calvo et al., 2002). Studies further north,
78 paint a similar picture (Sarnthein et al., 2003; Risebrobakken et al., 2003, 2010; Werner et al.,
79 2014). This pattern of maximum SSTs in the first half of the Holocene and cooling thereafter is
80 seen throughout the eastern North Atlantic, in all proxies that are indicative of conditions in the
81 photic zone (Rimbu et al., 2003; Leduc et al., 2010; Sejrup et al., 2016). The timing of the onset
82 of cooling varies, but cooling was well underway by ~5.5ka B.P., in what some refer to as a
83 “transition period” that subsequently led to much cooler conditions in the late Holocene (after
84 3.5ka B.P.) (e.g. Aagaard-Sorensen et al., 2014; Andersen et al., 2004; Leduc et al., 2010; Sejrup
85 et al., 2016). Although there were short-lived cooling episodes superimposed on the overall first
86 order pattern of temperature change (e.g. Werner et al., 2014), there is no evidence for quasi-
87 periodic cooling episodes disrupting the northward flux of Atlantic water, as described by Bond et
88 al (1997). Proxies of sub-surface conditions (below the mixed layer) – Mg/Ca ratios and oxygen
89 isotopes in forams, as well as foram assemblage changes – generally do not show the same pattern
90 of pan-Holocene cooling as the SST proxies, often indicating slight warming through the Holocene
91 (e.g. Andersson et al., 2010; Sejrup et al., 2011). But these records also do not show a pattern of
92 quasi-periodic cooling events. Could this be because of low resolution in sampling, or poor

93 chronologies? This seems very unlikely as many of these records are from high-deposition rate
94 sites, providing high resolution records that are generally well-dated (e.g. Berner et al., 2011).
95 Indeed, one exceptionally well-dated, high resolution sediment core from the Storegga Slide region
96 (90 AMS ^{14}C dates over 8000 calendar years) provides oxygen isotope data on planktonic forams
97 at a resolution of ± 20 years within the core of the Norwegian Atlantic Current at $\sim 64^\circ\text{N}$ (Sjejrurp
98 et al., 2011). This clearly shows multi-decadal to century-scale variability throughout the last 8000
99 years, but none of the cold water flux episodes that one would expect to see, based on the work of
100 Bond et al. (1997). We therefore conclude that there is no signal of a 4.2ka B.P. event in
101 paleoceanographic proxies from regions influenced by the flux of warm water from the sub-
102 tropical Atlantic into the Nordic Seas. Cooling of the sea surface had set in more than a millennium
103 earlier in this region.

104 Next, we consider studies in the western part of the North Atlantic, north of Iceland on the
105 Icelandic Shelf, and further to the west, near Denmark Strait. Here, many studies have examined,
106 *inter alia*, foraminiferal assemblages, coccoliths, dinoflagellate cysts and sea-ice biomarkers and
107 ice-rafted debris (IRD) reflecting transport of material in the cold East Greenland Current (e.g.
108 Andrews et al., 1997; Jennings et al., 2002; Giraudeau et al., 2004; Solignac et al., 2006; Sicre et
109 al., 2008; Justwan et al., 2008; Perner et al., 2015; Moossen et al., 2015; Cabedo-Sanz et al., 2016;
110 Kolling et al., 2017). In this region, warmest conditions occurred around 6.0 ± 1.5 ka B.P. (the
111 timing depending on location); these conditions were associated with minimal input of IRD,
112 reflecting the recession of tidewater glaciers onto land along the eastern coast of Greenland, and a
113 weak East Greenland Current, with minimal stratification of the water column at that time as the
114 flux of warmer, more saline Irminger Current water increased (Justwan et al., 2008; Jennings et
115 al., 2011; Werner et al., 2014; Telesinski et al., 2014; Perner et al., 2016). Conditions began to
116 change by $\sim 5.0 \pm 0.5$ ka B.P. (the timing varying geographically) when cold water diatoms and
117 forams, sea-ice (as tracked by the biomarker index, IP_{25}) and IRD started to increase, and the water
118 column became more stratified as the East Greenland Current strengthened (Moros et al., 2006;
119 Telesinski et al., 2014; Perner et al., 2016; Kristiansdottir et al., 2017). These changes correspond
120 to the re-advance of glaciers in East Greenland, part of the much more widespread onset of
121 neoglaciation that is well-documented in many regions around the North Atlantic (Solomina et al.,
122 2015). Warmer conditions (related to a strengthened Irminger Current) developed over the past
123 2000 years, but this period is also characterized by a series of minor fluctuations in the extent of

124 ice in the region, with much colder conditions after ~1.0ka B.P. when the coldest conditions of the
125 last 8000 years occurred, with abundant IRD and sea-ice in Denmark Strait and off the north coast
126 of Iceland (Bendle and Rosell-Mele, 2007; Andresen et al., 2013; Cabedo-Sanz et al. 2016; Kolling
127 et al., 2017). None of these records show evidence of an unusual anomaly at 4.2ka B.P.; rather, the
128 overall cooling of the late Holocene began 500-1000 years earlier (cf. Orme et al., 2018). Similar
129 variability is also seen further south and southwest of Iceland, at ~59°N (Farmer et al., 2008; Moros
130 et al., 2012; Orme et al., 2018) though there is evidence from dinocysts for an anomaly in the
131 seasonality of SSTs at ~4.5ka B.P., perhaps related to a westward shift in the Sub-Polar Gyre,
132 allowing warmer Atlantic water to influence the site (van Nieuwenhove et al., 2018).

133 This review of paleoceanographic studies extending from southern Greenland to Fram
134 Strait, and from western Svalbard and the southern Barents Sea southward to 60°N, provides no
135 evidence for a significant change in major oceanographic conditions that could be linked to the
136 4.2ka B.P. climate anomaly seen elsewhere. Rather, the evidence points to a more gradual change
137 that was well under way by ~5ka B.P., from the relatively warm conditions of the early Holocene
138 (driven by precessional forcing) to much colder conditions that have characterized the last 3
139 millennia.

140

141 **3. Terrestrial records from around the North Atlantic (locations given in Figure 5)**

142 **3.1 Eastern Greenland and the Greenland Ice sheet**

143 Lake sediment records from sites along the coast of eastern Greenland provide a record of
144 Holocene environmental conditions that generally reinforce the paleoceanographic evidence
145 discussed earlier. A “Holocene Thermal Maximum” (characterized *inter alia* by longer ice-free
146 conditions, higher levels of lacustrine productivity, increased evaporation, more tundra vegetation
147 and higher levels of terrestrial plant material transferred to lakes) is clearly seen from ~8ka B.P.
148 (or earlier) to ~5.0±0.5ka B.P (e.g. Kaplan et al., 2002; Andresen et al., 2004; Schmidt et al., 2011;
149 Balascio et al., 2013; Wagner and Bennike, 2015; Axford et al., 2017; van der Bilt et al., 2018a).
150 Thereafter, conditions became colder, often with a decline in vegetation cover, an increase in the
151 flux of coarse-grained sediments, and a shift in the types of chironomids and diatoms present,
152 towards species that thrive in cooler conditions. At the same time, in glacierized watersheds, the
153 growth of glaciers led to an increase in the flux of minerogenic material which is a diagnostic
154 signal of the onset of late Holocene neoglaciation across the region. In Kulusuk Lake (65°N on

155 the coast of southeastern Greenland) this change occurred at ~ 4.2 ka B.P., when there was an abrupt
156 increase in clastic sediments from glaciers that had probably disappeared during the mid-Holocene
157 warm period (Balascio et al., 2015). A similar transition is seen in sediments from nearby Ymer
158 Lake, where a higher frequency of avalanches and a longer season with ice-cover is thought to
159 have favored the transfer of coarser material into the lake after ~ 4 ka B.P. (van der Bilt et al., 2018).
160 At another site in the same region, the Holocene thermal maximum was identified (via the
161 evaporative enrichment of δD in leaf wax n-alkanes) from 8.4 to 4.1ka B.P, followed by a decrease
162 in evaporation as the open water season became shorter. At the same time, there was an increase
163 in the flux of clastic sediments and terrestrial organic material into the lake as river runoff increased
164 (Balascio et al., 2013). In all of these studies, it is clear that there was a fairly rapid transition from
165 warm mid-Holocene conditions to the colder, wetter late Holocene that encompassed the 4.2ka
166 B.P. interval of interest. In some cases, there is evidence for a short-lived “event” at around that
167 time (e.g., at Kulusuk Lake; Balascio et al., 2015) but this appears to be simply a part of the overall
168 deterioration in climate that led to ice growth across the region. There is currently no evidence for
169 a more widespread glacial advance at 4.2ka B.P. Given that cooling was persistent over the last
170 5000 years, and the elevational threshold for glacierization is close to mountain tops across the
171 region (declining in elevation poleward) it is understandable that different locations would have
172 experienced the onset of neoglaciation at different times (cf. Geirsdottir et al., 2019). However,
173 as the ELA continued to lower over the last 3-4 millennia, glaciers that had greatly diminished in
174 size, or disappeared entirely, during the warmest period of the Holocene were eventually
175 regenerated, with the exact timing varying across the region. In the case of Kulusuk Lake, it seems
176 reasonable to conclude that the steady decline in temperatures and the specific hypsography of that
177 basin led to a short-lived positive mass balance, with early ice growth and associated sediment
178 input to the lake around 4.2ka B.P. This was the first of several advances within the Neoglacial
179 period.

180 Ice cores from Greenland provide records of past climate variations from oxygen isotopes,
181 glaciochemistry and physical characteristics, which are broadly consistent with those from coastal
182 lake sediments. Alley and Anandkrishnan (1995) examined evidence for summer melting in the
183 GISP2 ice core, as recorded by changes in the physical properties of the ice. Their analysis was at
184 a relatively low resolution, but they showed maximum Holocene summer temperatures from
185 ~ 7.5 ka B.P., followed by a two-step transition to colder conditions, from ~ 6.5 to 5.5ka B.P., and

186 ~4.5 to 4ka B.P., with persistently low summer temperatures (minimal melting) thereafter. After
187 adjusting for ice thickness changes, Vinther et al. (2009) also showed that there was an overall
188 decline in temperature at the Summit of the Greenland Ice Sheet (73°N, 3210 masl) over the last
189 ~9,000 years (interpreted from changes in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the GISP2 ice core). The mean temperature of
190 the warmest and coldest millennia (7-8ka and 0-1ka b2k, respectively) differ by $\sim 2.35^\circ\text{C}$
191 (assuming no change in the seasonality of snowfall on the ice sheet). Superimposed on the long-
192 term temperature decline there were multidecadal anomalies on the order of $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$. One of the
193 largest of the negative anomalies after the well-known 8.2ka B.P. event began ~ 4400 b2k and
194 reached a minimum at 4340 b2k, but by 4200 b2k, temperatures had sharply increased (Figure 3).
195 In the Vinther et al. (2009) reconstruction (Figure 3a, which combines data from Renland and
196 Agassiz Ice Caps), this appears to be driven mainly by the record from Agassiz Ice Cap on
197 Ellesmere Island (Figure 3b); nothing comparable is seen in oxygen isotopic records from Summit
198 or Renland (Figures 3b, 3c), or in the Summit temperature reconstruction of Kobashi et al. (2017),
199 based on the differential diffusion of argon and nitrogen isotopes in firn prior to its densification
200 into ice (Figure 3d). However, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in chironomid head capsules from a lake in northwest
201 Greenland also recorded the highest values of the last ~ 6000 years at ~ 4.2 ka B.P. (Lasher et al.,
202 2017) and at Camp Century, there was a local isotopic maximum shortly before 4000 B.P. (Figure
203 3b). In Murray Lake (northeastern Ellesmere Island), relatively warm conditions at ~ 4.2 ka B.P.
204 were reconstructed from varve thickness (Cook et al., 2009). Similarly, Gkinis et al. (2014) found
205 an abrupt increase in temperature in the NorthGRIP ice core at ~ 4200 b2k after deconvolving the
206 isotopic record to take into account diffusion effects that have smoothed the signal. However, this
207 technique is very sensitive to the assumptions made about the past accumulation rate, as diffusion
208 is a function of both past accumulation and temperature. For example, a 15% reduction in
209 accumulation would reduce an apparent temperature anomaly from 5°C to 3.5°C (Gkinis, pers.
210 comm.). Under the assumption of no changes in accumulation rate, Gkinis et al. (2014) identify a
211 warm period in the North GRIP core at 4.2ka B.P. and refer to this as the “*mid-Holocene optimum*”.
212 It will be interesting to see if this technique, when applied to other ice cores, reveals more details
213 about short-term temperature fluctuations that may have been obscured by diffusion effects. But
214 for now, only 3 records, from northwest Greenland and northern Ellesmere Island, point to short-
215 lived warmer conditions at ~ 4.2 ka B.P., in contrast to the majority of records that indicate
216 temperatures were declining at that time.

217

218 **3.2 Iceland**

219 Iceland is in a central location to experience major changes in the major oceanic and atmospheric
220 circulation patterns of the North Atlantic. We did not undertake a review of the literature on the
221 Holocene paleoclimatology of Iceland as that is well summarized by Geirsdóttir et al (2019). They
222 conclude that Neoglaciation in Iceland had begun by 5ka B.P. but different topographic features
223 and proximity to the ocean led to varying environmental effects across the island. Several step-
224 like changes occurred during the last 5ka B.P., culminating in the most extensive glacier advances
225 during the last millennium. One of the step-like changes occurred at ~4.5-4.0ka B.P, and they
226 conclude that this is indistinguishable from a “4.2ka B.P. event”. They note that the eruption of
227 Hekla at 4.2ka deposited at ≥ 1 cm of tephra over 80% of Iceland, so the direct effects on the
228 landscape at that time complicate the detection of a signal that may be related to other forcing
229 factors. Of the two lakes in NE Iceland that did not have a tephra in the sediments, one (Skoravatn)
230 shows an abrupt change at 4.2ka B.P., while the other (Tröllkonuvatn) does not, making it difficult
231 to draw conclusions about the impact of the eruption on changes recorded at that time.

232

233

234 **3.3 Svalbard**

235 Lake sediment records from Svalbard record changes in climate at the northernmost limit of North
236 Atlantic water (the West Spitsbergen Current). All studies describe a warm early Holocene phase
237 when many of the glaciers seen today were small or absent (Farnsworth, 2018). On Amsterdamoya,
238 at the northwestern edge of Svalbard, warm and dry conditions spanned the interval from 7.7 to
239 5ka B.P.; glaciers were small or absent by 8.4ka B.P., only re-forming in the late Holocene (Gjerde
240 et al., 2018; de Wet et al., 2018). To the south, on the Mitrahalvoya Peninsula, there is also
241 evidence that glaciers reached their minimum size by the mid-Holocene, but subsequently re-
242 formed or re-advanced. Karlbreen began to grow around 3.5ka B.P. (Røthe et al., 2015) but in the
243 neighboring watershed of Hajeren an abrupt increase in minerogenic sediments at 4.25 ka B.P.
244 registered the onset of neoglaciation in that basin (van der Bilt et al., 2015). Paleotemperature
245 estimates (from alkenones) in the same record indicate this advance was triggered by an abrupt
246 drop in temperature at that time; thereafter, temperatures remained low (van der Bilt et al., 2018b).

247 Other records from the region indicate that the first neoglacial advances of glaciers occurred
248 around 4.6ka B.P. (e.g. Svendsen and Mangerud, 1997; Reusche et al., 2014).

249

250 **3.4 Scandinavia**

251 As most glaciers in Scandinavia had their largest areal extent during the “Little Ice Age” (~A.D.
252 1400-1850), information about past glaciers in Norway during the late Holocene is based on
253 reconstructions from indirect evidence, mainly sediments deposited in distal glacier-fed lakes (e.g.
254 Nesje 2009, Bakke et al., 2010; 2013). After several large glacier advances in the earliest Holocene,
255 the climate was generally warm during the early Holocene (8.5-6.5ka B.P.) and most glaciers
256 melted away completely (Nesje 2009) (Figure 4). Around 6 ka B.P. glaciers start to re-grow mainly
257 as a function of decreasing summer insolation over the Northern Hemisphere (Wanner et al. 2008).
258 The regrowth of glaciers follows a pattern of gradual increases in glacier size interrupted by
259 smaller glacier advances (Bakke et al, 2010, 2013; Vasskog et al., 2012). Along a coastal south-
260 north transect through Scandinavia, different locations have experienced the onset of neoglaciation
261 at different times, mainly as a function of altitude (cf. Geirsdóttir et al., 2018). By 2ka B.P. many
262 glaciers had reached present day size, but maximum glacier extent was in the 18th century, during
263 the Little Ice Age (Nesje 2009). A review of more than 20 papers shows that none of them indicate
264 any abrupt anomalous change in glacier extent connected to a perturbation of climate around 4.2
265 ka. (Bakke et al., 2005a; 2005b; 2008; 2010; 2013; Dahl and Nesje; 1992; 1994; 1996; Lauritzen
266 1996; Snowball and Sandgren, 1996; Seierstad et al., 2002; Lie et al., 2004; Nesje et al. 2009;
267 Vasskog et al., 2011; 2012 Støren et al., 2008; Wittmeier et al., 2015; Shakesby et al., 2007;
268 Kvisvik et al., 2015, Gjerde et al., 2016). Investigating this further, we examined other terrestrial
269 evidence mainly pollen, macrofossil and diatom records derived from lake sediments (e.g. Bjune
270 et al., 2005; Velle et al., 2005). They have a time resolution somewhat lower than the glacier
271 reconstructions (typical 500 yr spacing) but they all reflect the general decrease in summer
272 insolation over the northern hemisphere and no abrupt transition close to 4.2ka B.P. (Bjune, 2005;
273 Bjune et al., 2004, 2006; Velle et al., 2005). The only terrestrial evidence from Scandinavia that
274 shows a clear anomaly close to 4.2ka B.P. is a speleothem record of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from Northern Norway
275 which records a short-lived temperature maximum (isotopic minimum) at ~4ka, before rapidly
276 decreasing to much colder temperatures at ~3.7ka B.P. (Lauritzen and Lundberg 1999). However,

277 a speleothem from a nearby cave (Okshola) does not show a comparable anomaly at this time
278 (Linge et al., 2009).

279

280 **4. Conclusions**

281 A review of paleoceanographic and terrestrial paleoclimatic data from around the northern North
282 Atlantic reveals no compelling evidence for a significant and widespread climatic anomaly at
283 ~4.2ka B.P. (i.e., an “event”) in most areas. In particular, there is no supporting evidence for “*cool,*
284 *ice-bearing surface waters... penetrating well into the core of the North Atlantic Current*” at that
285 time, as described by Bond et al., (2001). The region experienced relatively warm conditions from
286 6-8ka B.P. followed by a general decline in temperatures after ~5ka B.P., signaling the onset of
287 Neoglaciation. Over the last 5000 years, a series of multi-decadal to century scale fluctuations
288 occurred, superimposed on an overall decline in temperature. Against this background of declining
289 temperatures, three records in northwest Greenland and Ellesmere Island show an unusual warm
290 anomaly around 4.2ka B.P., and a few others (in SE Greenland, Iceland and western Svalbard)
291 show a cold anomaly, associated with a glacial advance. We interpret these as local events --
292 simply one glacial advance of many that occurred in response to the overall climatic deterioration
293 that characterized the late Holocene. Given that the northern North Atlantic is a key region for the
294 formation of deepwater, which has consequences for the overall global oceanic circulation (the
295 “conveyor belt”), the absence of a strong signal of an abrupt climatic event at 4.2ka B.P. suggests
296 that—whatever the cause of changes seen elsewhere-- it is unlikely that the North Atlantic Ocean
297 circulation played a driving role. If this conclusion is correct, it requires that the cause of the 4.2ka
298 BP event be sought elsewhere, in terms of direct radiative forcing (possibly due to explosive
299 volcanic events, or earth surface aerosols resulting from aridity or—[less likely]-- solar forcing).
300 Currently, none of these possibilities provide a compelling argument. The alternative is that the
301 observed changes were a consequence of internal climate system variability, perhaps modulated
302 by the overall decline in summer radiation across the northern hemisphere due to orbital changes,
303 which are generally considered as the cause of neoglaciation in the late Holocene, the onset of
304 which roughly corresponds to the 4.2ka event as described by Weiss (2017).

305

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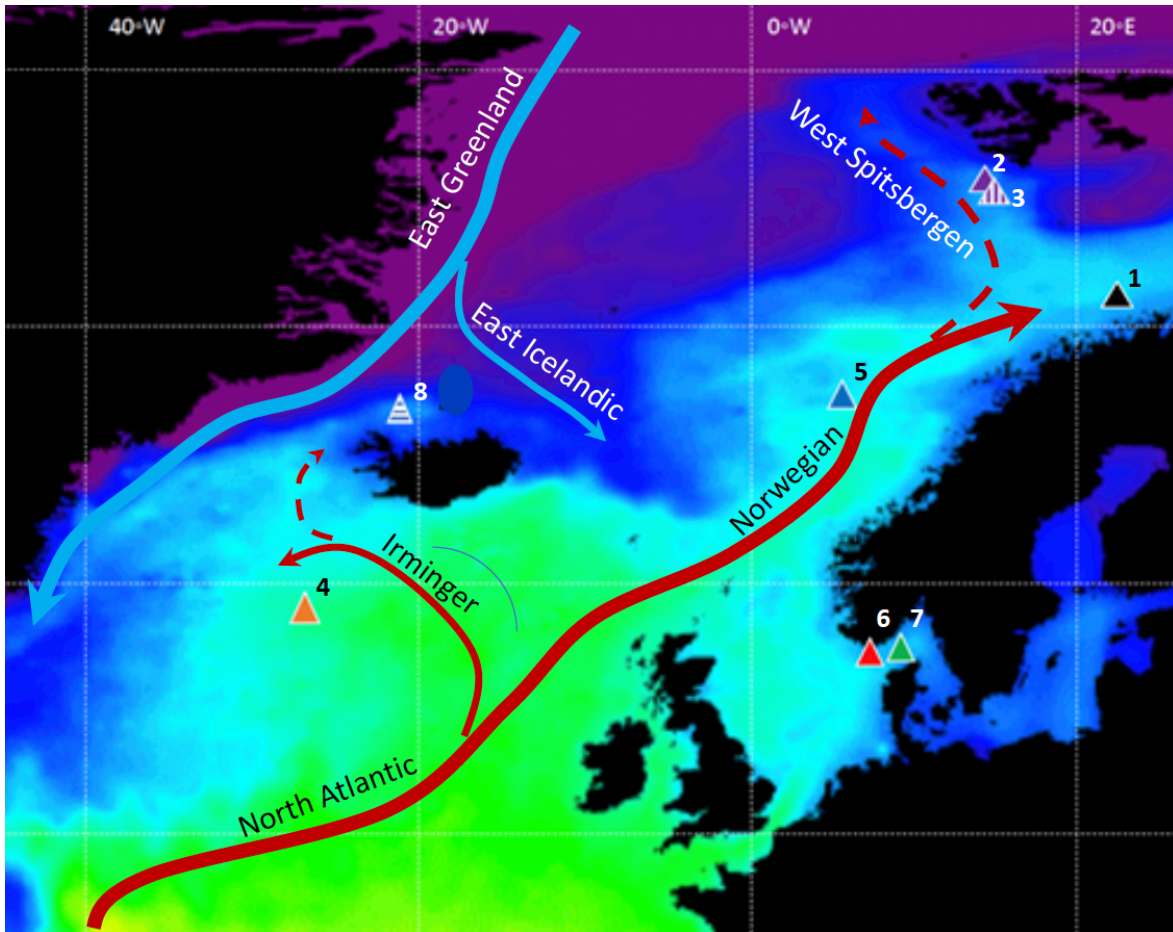
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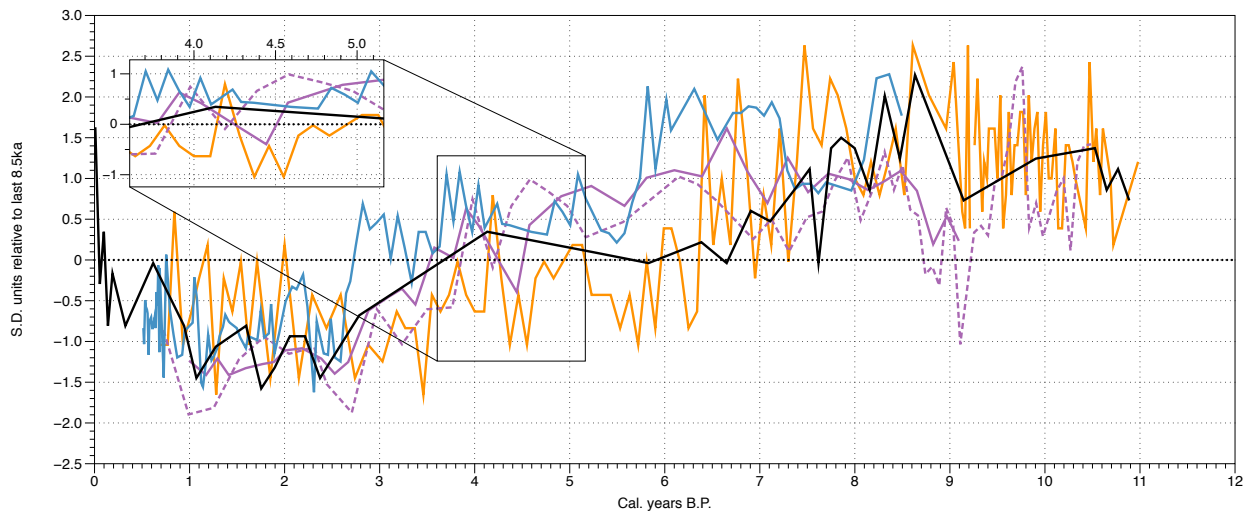
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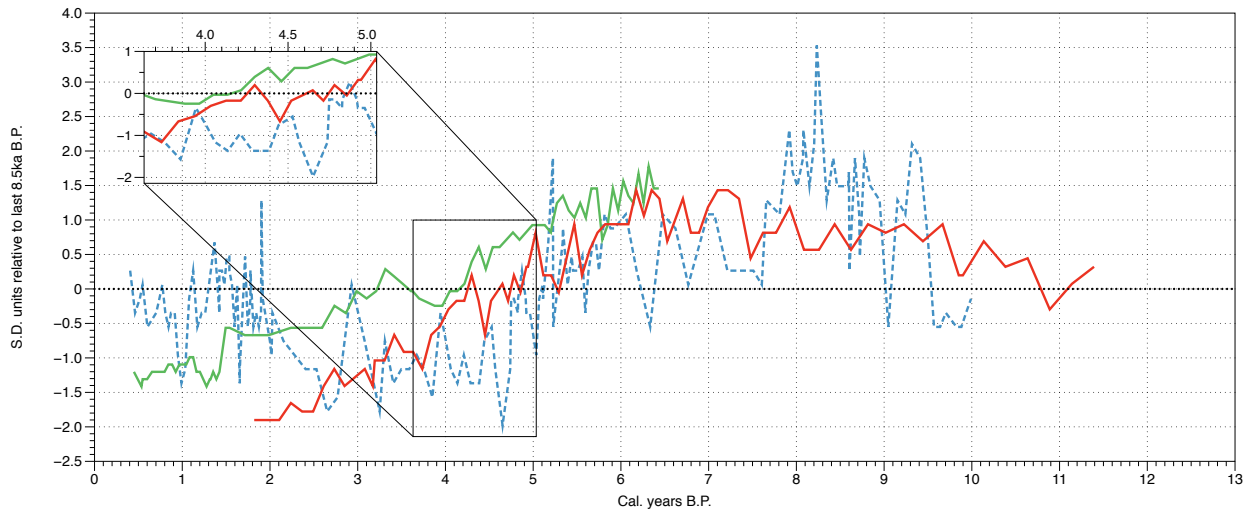
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Figure 1. Location of sediment cores used to obtain the alkenone-based paleo SST estimates shown in Figure 2. Site numbers correspond to those in Figure 2.



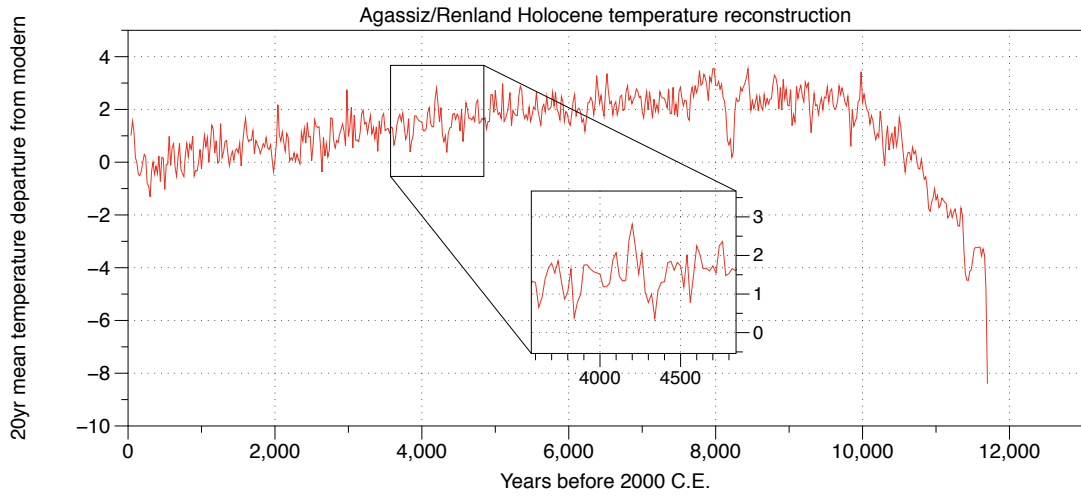
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- 618 1. Black = Risebrobakken et al., 2010: core PSh-5159N, 71.35N, 22.63E
- 619 2. Purple = Marchal et al., 2002: core M23258-2, 75N, 13.97E
- 620 3. Dashed Purple = Rigual-Hernández et al 2017: core SV-04, 74.957, 13.899E
- 621 4. Orange = Marchal et al., 2002: core MD95-2015, 58.76N, 25.958W
- 622 5. Blue = Calvo et al., 2002: core MD95-2011, 66.97N, 7.633E
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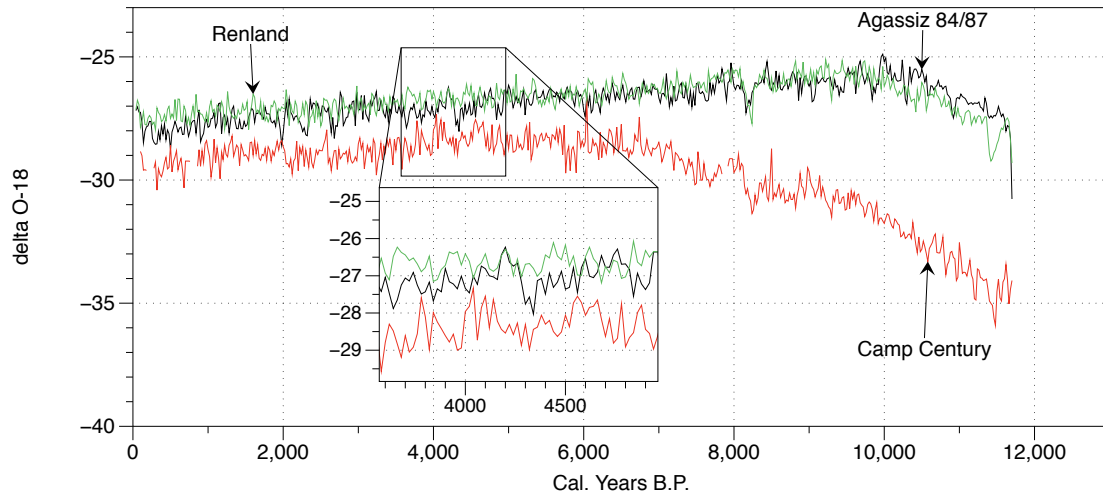


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 628 **Figure 2.** Alkenone-based paleo SST estimates from North Atlantic sites (shown in Figure 1).
 629 6. Red = Emeis et al., 2003: core IOW 22517, 57.67N, 7.091E
 630 7. Green = Emeis et al., 2003: core IOW 22514, 57.84N, 8.704E
 631 8. Dashed Blue= Kristiansdottir et al., 2017: core MD2269, 66.63N, 20.85W

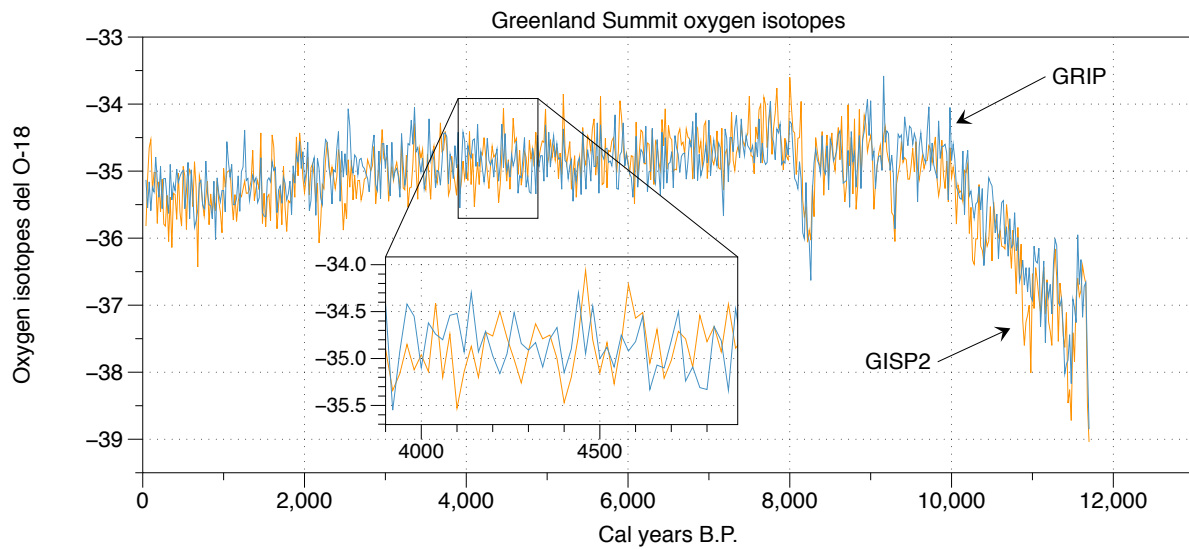
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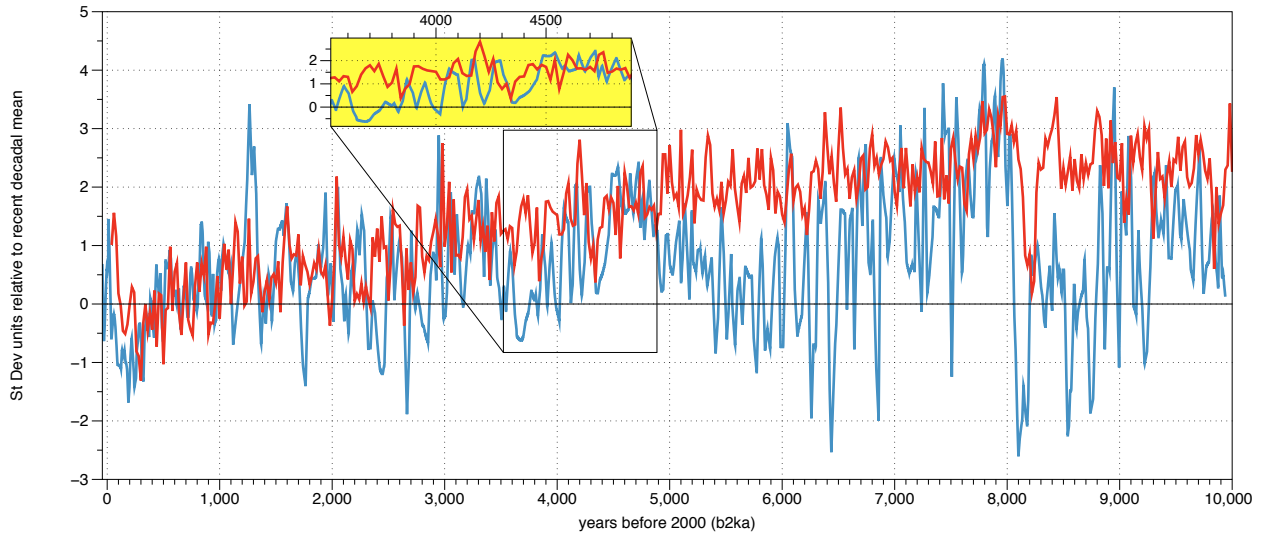
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640 **b)**



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642 **c)**

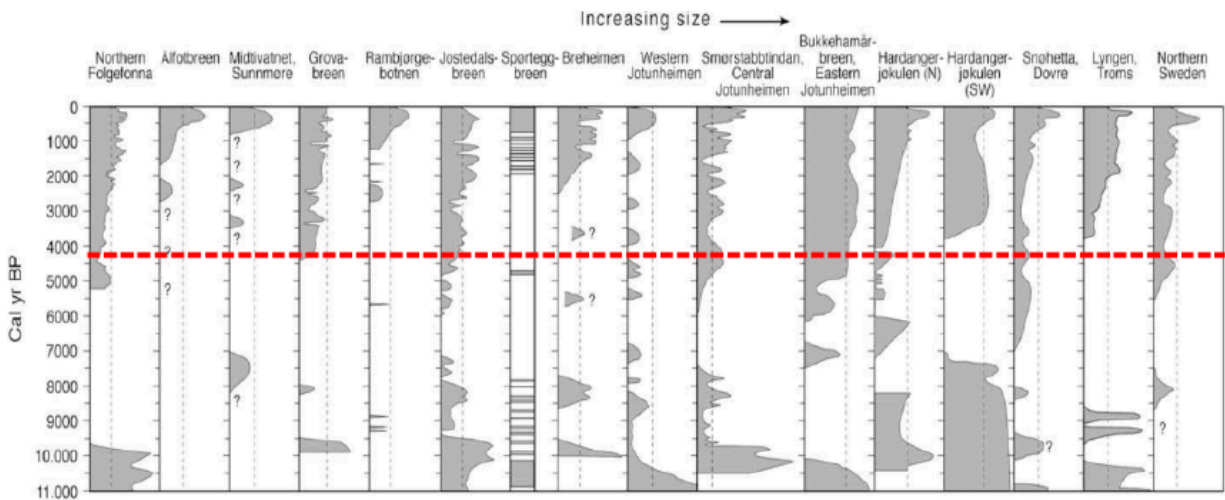


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644 **d)**
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Figure 3. a) Temperature anomalies from the smoothed estimate of present temperatures in Greenland, based on oxygen isotope records from Renland Ice Cap (East Greenland) and Agassiz Ice Cap (Ellesmere Island). Timescale is in years b2k (before A.D. 2000). The interval around 4.2ka BP is enlarged in the box (Data source: Vinther et al., 2009). For locations, see Figure 5. b) Individual oxygen isotopic records from Renland and Agassiz Ice Caps (which were combined to create the record in Figure 3a), and from Camp Century c) Individual oxygen isotopic records from GRIP and GISP2 at Summit, Greenland Ice Sheet d) Paleotemperature estimates from argon and nitrogen isotopes (in blue) (from Kobashi et al., 2017) and from the Renland/Agassiz joint record (in red) as shown in Figure 3a (from Vinther et al., 2009).



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Figure 4. Summary of glacier extent in various regions of Scandinavia during the Holocene. 4.2ka B.P. is highlighted by the red dashed line (after Nesje, 2009).



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Figure 5. Location of sites mentioned in the text and in figures