



1      **Holocene Proxy Climate Series Should Account for the Site's Elevation, the Variable's Sensitivity to**  
2      **Elevation History and Time-lagged Effects: Three Examples**

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6      **Abstract**

7      When making multi-proxy reconstructions over Holocene-long periods , an argument is presented  
8      that the elevation of the sites used and/or their elevation history must be taken into account before  
9      their proxy records (of temperature or precipitation) are included in the reconstruction. It is shown that  
10     to ignore elevation, results in first order errors in the reconstruction, especially in regions under (or  
11     close to) the degrading ice sheet . Also it is argued that when assessing the signature of a given putative  
12     global event (like the 4.2 ka event) , one must allow for there being a complex signature wrt. location,  
13     elevation and time lagged variables. Three specific examples are used to illustrate these points.

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15     **1. Introduction**

16     As the title suggests this contribution is an argument for the necessity of including the elevation  
17     and/or changes in elevation of the sites used in reconstructions because:

18     1) The variables used could be very elevation sensitive.

19     2) The site could undergo large changes in elevation throughout the Holocene.

20     3) There could be a lagged relationship between some sites widely separated, because the ocean delay  
21     time is critical factor in their relationship.

22     Each of the three cases is illustrated with an example.

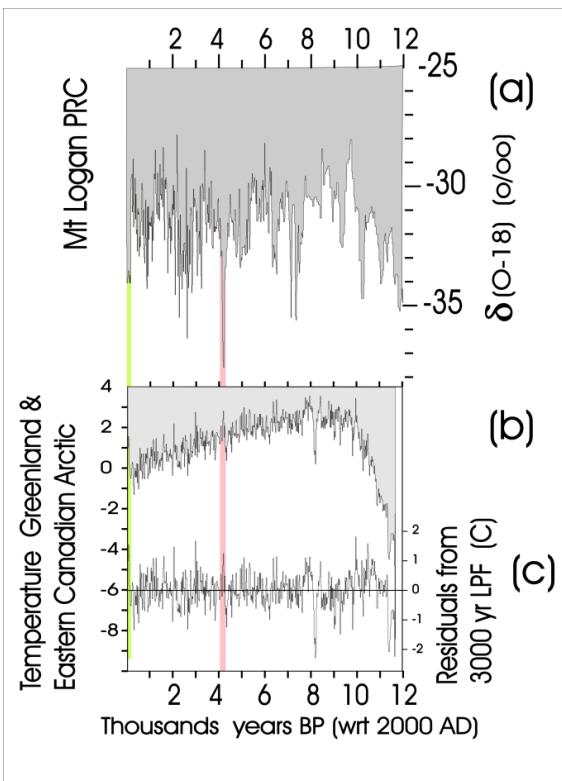
23     **2. Stable Isotope Signatures of the Same Event at One Geographical Location, SW Yukon, but From**  
24     **Sites Spread Over 5 Vertical Kilometers.**

25     The Mt Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (Figure 1a) has been interpreted, not as a temperature series, but as a  
26     proxy for the strength of El Niño, (Fisher et al., 2008). The Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  series has its largest change, ~  
27     6 ‰, between 4.2 a to 4.0 ka B2k, (Walker et al., 2012). There are many other large negative  
28     excursions in the Logan Holocene including the one about AD 1835, which is ~ 4 ‰ deep. This AD 1835  
29     change has been captured also at other nearby sites that have very different elevations. In the Eclipse  
30     ice core (3000 m. a.s.l.) the AD 1835 event showed a near zero  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift and in the Jelly Bean Lake  
31     record (catchment elevation 1000- 1500 m. a.s.l.) the 1835 event has a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift of ~ 1.2 ‰. For  
32     records below 1000 m. a.s.l. the shift is actually in the opposite direction. So the size and even sign of  
33     this 1835 large  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift depends strongly on the site elevation. Figure 2 points show the size of this



34 AD 1835  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift as a function of elevation. The line with shading shows what a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  model  
35 produces for the AD 1835 shift. Elevation is clearly a critical variable for interpreting proxy records when  
36 stable isotopes are the variable measured. Putting the Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record in a regional scale statistical  
37 analysis (Fisher, 2002) and finding principal components of temperature sensitive paleo-records,  
38 makes it stand out as being out of phase with regional temperature, (Fisher, 2002). Figure 3 shows the 1<sup>st</sup>  
39 principal component of a 51 multi-proxy suite, most of which, are temperature-like (circles) and 7  
40 regional measured temperature series (squares) all spanning from AD 1761 to AD 1970. This time  
41 period covers the main recovery from the Little Ice Age (LIA) and includes AD 1835. Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  , stands  
42 out as being out of phase as does its nearest neighbour. The large majority of these series record the  
43 recovery from the LIA. But the Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  site, being so high and adjacent to the Eastern Pacific, does  
44 not record local temperature but rather the moisture source distribution through time, (Fisher et al.,  
45 2004, 2008).

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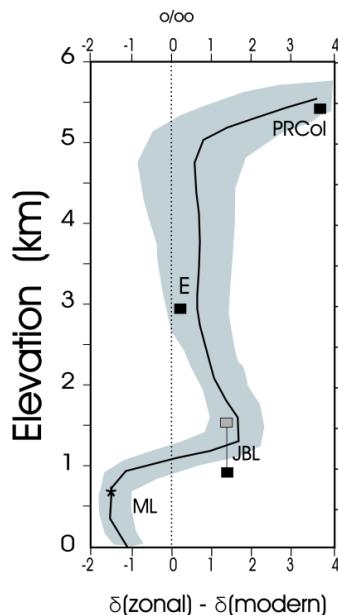


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49 **Figure 1;** a) Mt Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (Yukon) record (Fisher ,2011) shows a very strong 4.2 ka event,  
50 shaded red and the shift in AD 1835, shaded green. b) Elevation corrected  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ -based  
51 temperature record from Renland (Greenland) plus Agassiz (Ellesmere Island) ice cores, (Vinther  
52 et al.,2009). c) Residuals from 3000 year trend line through b.

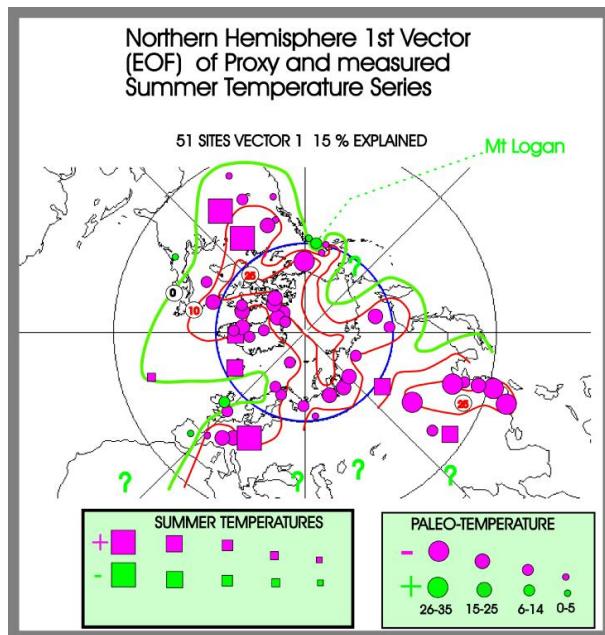


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55 **Figure 2** Size of the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shifts at  $\sim$  AD 1835, in various records from the SW Yukon versus elevation,  
56 (Fisher et al., 2008). **PRCol** is the Logan ice core, **E** is Eclipse ice core, **JBL** Jelly Bean lake (Anderson et  
57 al., 2005) and **ML** is Marcella Lake (Anderson et al., 2007). The line gives a model prediction of what  
58 happened to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , when at AD 1835 there was a shift from zonal to meridional  
59 and the shading is the range of model outputs over a range of input assumptions (Fisher et al., 2004) .



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61 **Figure 3** The 1<sup>st</sup> principal component of 51 proxy sites (circles) most of which are temperature-like and 7  
62 regional measured temperature sites (squares) all spanning the years AD 1761 to AD 1970. The size of  
63 the circle at a given site is proportional its “suite-covariance” and the colour declares the sign. All red  
64 sites are in phase with each other. The total variance explained for the 51 proxy sites by the 1<sup>st</sup> PC is  
65 15%, which is significant at the 95% level, see (Fisher, 2002). The Mt Logan site, 5400 m. a.s.l., is  
66 indicated.

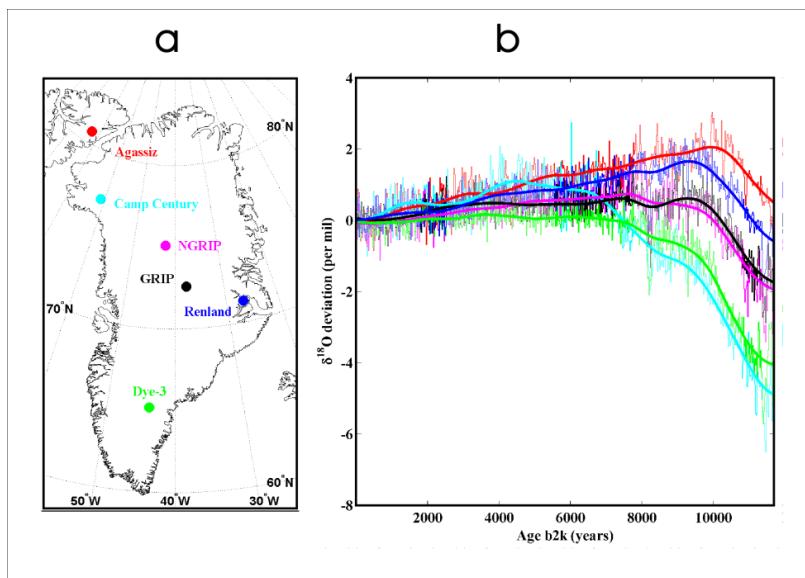
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68 **3. Example of the Need to Make Corrections to Holocene-long Stable Isotope (and melt) Records  
69 from sites on (or Near), a Changing Ice Sheet.**

70 Looking at the Holocene  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (or melt) series from the many ice cores from Greenland and from NE  
71 Arctic Canada one sees that, while many of the high frequency details are the same over a wide  
72 geographical extent (see Figure 4), the general trends can be quite different and the maximum warmth,  
73 (Figure 4b) between sites occurs at different ages. In the Renland and Agassiz cores the early Holocene  
74 is clearly the warmest part of the Holocene, unlike the deep cores on the Ice Sheet that have different  
75 generalized  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  histories, Figure 4b. The reasons for the differences in general slope and age of  
76 maximum warmth has been shown to be largely due to the original series having been affected by their  
77 Holocene history of ice thickness and bedrock depression. When model calculated corrections are made  
78 on the (bracketing site's) Renland and Agassiz elevation histories, the climate history across this region  
79 emerges and the differences between the deep ice cores can be attributed plausibly to different ice  
80 thickness and bed rock depression histories throughout the Holocene, (Vinther et al., 2009; Lecavalier  
81 et al., 2017). Not allowing for the history of the 3<sup>rd</sup> dimension through time-lagged elevation responses



82 has caused some investigators, who examined the geographical patterns of Holocene proxy temperature  
83 based on uncorrected  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , to conclude the Holocene warmth over the Greenland ice sheet was not  
84 always in the early Holocene. So ignoring the additional dimension of elevation through time results in  
85 erroneous conclusions, (Briner et al., 2016).



86  
87 **Figure 4** Ice core sites and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  Holocene records from Greenland and the NE Canadian Arctic  
88 (adapted from Vinther et al., 2009). The elevation corrected average of Renland and Agassiz appears in  
89 Figure 1b (converted to a proxy temperature). Note that the elevation corrections for the Agassiz  
90 records have been recently re-done more accurately (Lecavalier et al., 2017). The argument presented  
91 herein is not altered by these improvements, however, in that the early Holocene is still the warmest  
92 post elevation correction. Note that all the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records have been shifted so they are displayed as  
93 deviations from their recent average value.

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95 **4. The 4.2 ka Event is Expressed in Greenland and Canadian Ice Cores as a Warm Event . How That  
96 Signature Might Connect to Lower Latitude Expressions of the 4.2 Event.**

97 Staying with the Greenland Ice Sheet and Canadian NE Arctic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , and melt records, one can look at  
98 the subject of this conference for another example. If one takes many  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and melt records from  
99 these ice cores and removes the long term trends and then normalizes all the residuals and makes  
100 various stacked series, there is a distinct and significant +ve excursion of proxy temperature at 4.2 ka.  
101 Figure 5 shows this for the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stacks and the single Agassiz melt layer stack, the red vertical shading.  
102 So the 4.2 ka event does show up in the high Eastern Arctic, but as a warm event.



103 Now I will introduce a hypothesis for connecting the ice core derived proxy climate records from Fig 5 to  
104 the strength of El Niño and further to the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record from Mt Logan. This hypothesis has been  
105 introduced before (Fisher, 2011) and is meant here purely as an illustration of the likely complexity in  
106 the relationship between various regional expressions of the 4.2 ka event.

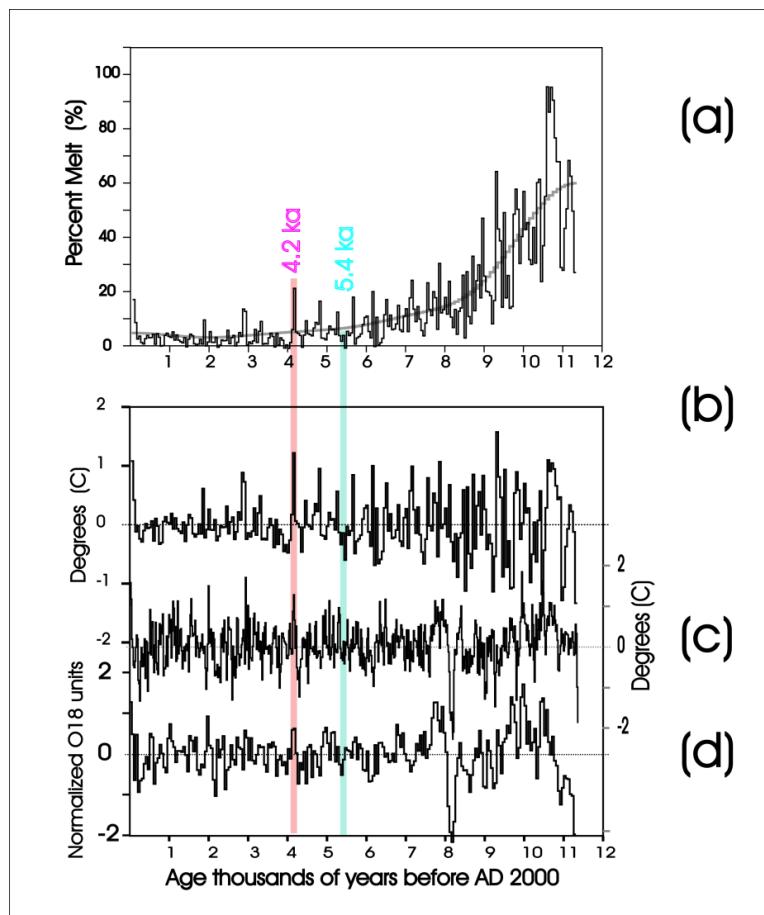
107 Since the North Atlantic ocean provides much of the sinking water that eventually ends up as deep  
108 water in the Eastern Tropical Pacific and since the bulk average transport time from the Atlantic to  
109 Pacific is  $\sim 1200$  years and since El Niño is thought to be driven mainly by the difference between  
110 surface and deep water temperatures in the Tropical East Pacific ( $\text{SST}_{\text{surface}} - \text{T}_{\text{deep}}$ ), it has been proposed  
111 that the North Atlantic sector proxy temperature difference [ $\text{T}(t) - \text{T}(t-1200\text{a})$ ] is a proxy for the strength  
112 of El Niño at time  $t$  years, (Fisher 2011). It has also been proposed that the 4.2 ka event was triggered by  
113 a period of very strong El Niños, (Fisher, 2011).

114 For the sake of continuing this argument, further note that the Mt Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  has been interpreted as  
115 a proxy for the strength of El Niño during the Holocene (Fisher et al., 2008; Fisher 2011). Then the Logan  
116 series should correlate with some lagged difference series of the cores in Fig. 5. Figure 6 shows the  
117 correlation coefficient between Logan and the lagged difference series of the Agassiz melt layer series  
118 (solid black line) and similarly between Logan and the 6-core stack of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  series (dashed line). There is  
119 a strong correlation when the lag time is  $\sim 1200$  years, which is the mass weighted mean travel time it  
120 takes for subsiding N Atlantic water to end up in the depths of the Eastern Tropical Pacific. Using the 20  
121 year average melt series, the correlation is 0.31, which is significant at the 99.8% level.

122 Recall that this 3<sup>rd</sup> example is not being presented as correct, (in spite of the correlation significance),  
123 but to show that over large distances and long times in the Holocene the lagged effects of ocean  
124 transport and the resulting juxtapositions in depth of waters of different origins and “ages” should be  
125 considered when correlating records of Holocene length from widely spaced regions. This is especially so  
126 for correlating changes in global moisture flux to changes in the climate of distant polar sites, that may  
127 be initiating the changes at lower latitudes. Simple time correlation of many sites is not likely going to  
128 capture the texture or attribution of the 4.2 event.

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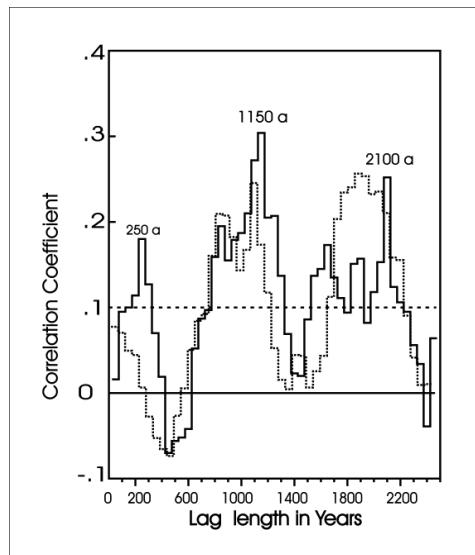
132 **Figure 5** a) Shows the melt layer series from the Agassiz Ice Cap (Fisher et al., 2012). b) Shows the  
133 residuals of the melt layer series from a 3000 year low pass filter run through the melt series above,  
134 after it was converted to temperature. c) Shows the Agassiz and Renland  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  stack ,(Vinther et al.,  
135 2009), residuals converted to temperature (see fig 1c . d) Shows the stack made from the normalized  
136 residuals from the Agassiz , Renland and 3 deep Greenland cores after the trends in each series were  
137 removed with a 3000 year low pass filter. The 4.2 ka “event” hi-lited in red is a “warm” event. The  
138 common “cold” event at 5.4 ka is hi-lited in blue.

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144 **Figure 6** Shows the correlation coefficient between the Mt Logan  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  series (fig 1a) and the lagged  
145 difference series  $[X(t)-X(t-\text{lag})]$  when  $X$  is the Agassiz melt layer residual series (solid line) and when  $X$  is  
146 the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  6-core stack of residuals. There is a strong correlation coefficient maximum (0.31 using the  
147 melt series) for a time lag of 1150 years, see (Fisher, 2011).

148 **Conclusion**

149 So these examples show that for interpretation of sites near the ice sheets and/or variables that are  
150 elevation sensitive and effects that are connected to ocean or uplift related time lags, the elevation and  
151 time lagged responses are critical in correlating and understanding the proxy records. Neglecting to  
152 take such account of elevation, its changes with time and lagged time responses can result in erroneous  
153 conclusions.

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155 **Code availability**

156 There is no new code used in this paper.

157 **Data availability**

158 There is no new data introduced here and uses only previously published data.

159 **Sample availability**

160 Not applicable

161 **Author contribution**



162 DAF did it all.

163 **Competing interests**

164 There are none.

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