



# Holocene atmospheric iodine evolution over the North Atlantic

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**Abstract.** Atmospheric iodine chemistry has a large influence on oxidizing capacity and associated radiative impacts in the troposphere. However, information on the evolution of atmospheric iodine levels is restricted to the Industrial Period while its long-term natural variability remains unknown. The current levels of iodine in the atmosphere are controlled by anthropogenic ozone deposition to the ocean surface. Here, using high-resolution ice core measurements from coastal eastern Greenland (ReCAP ice core), we report the first record of atmospheric iodine variability during the Holocene (last 11,700 years). Surprisingly, our results reveal that the highest iodine concentrations in the record, found during the Holocene Thermal Maximum (~11,500-5,500 years before -present). These high iodine levels could be driven by ocean primary productivity resulting in an Early Holocene “Biological Iodine Explosion”. The iodine trend during this past warm period is a useful observational constraint on projections of future changes in Arctic atmospheric composition and climate resulting from global warming.

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## 1 Introduction

The Holocene (last 11,7 kyr BP) has sustained the growth and development of modern society. The integration of environmental proxies from different natural archives allows a detailed understanding of Holocene climate (Mayewski *et al.*, 2004). Nevertheless, there is surprisingly little systematic knowledge about atmospheric chemistry during this period, which

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is a key factor to understand the background of natural variability underlying anthropogenic climate change. Global atmospheric models have recently shown the significant contribution of halogen chemistry to the oxidizing capacity of the atmosphere and associated radiative impacts (Hossaini *et al.*, 2015; Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012, 2014; Sherwen *et al.*, 2016, 2017).  
35 Reactive halogens containing chlorine, bromine and iodine atoms cause ozone depletion through efficient catalytic cycles (Saiz-Lopez and von Glasow, 2012, Simpson *et al.*, 2015). In particular, atmospheric reactive iodine has a global contribution of up to 27% of the total rate of ozone loss in the marine boundary layer and upper troposphere (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2014). Iodine-mediated ozone depletion negatively contributes to the longwave radiative flux in the troposphere (Hossaini *et al.*, 2015; Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012; Sherwen *et al.*, 2017). Reactive iodine could also be involved in new atmospheric particle  
40 formation (Allan *et al.*, 2015; Roscoe *et al.*, 2015; Sipilä *et al.*, 2016), which has been suggested to have potential climatic implications in the troposphere.

The origins and cycling of iodine in the global atmosphere involves ocean emissions from inorganic (hypoiodous acid (HOI) and molecular iodine ( $I_2$ )) and organic sources ( $CH_3I$ ,  $CH_2I_2$ ,  $CH_2ICl$  and  $CH_2IBr$ ). Globally, the main source of present-day atmospheric iodine is the inorganic emission of HOI and  $I_2$  from the ocean surface as a product of the reaction of iodide  
45 with deposited ozone (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013; MacDonald *et al.*, 2014; Prados-Roman *et al.*, 2015). Biota in the marine environment are known to produce alkyl iodides, which are a primary source of reactive iodine due to their short photolysis lifetimes (from minutes to several days) (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012). In polar regions, another important source of reactive iodine is the biogenic production of HOI and  $I^-$  from algae underneath the sea-ice (in equilibrium with  $I_2$  and  $H_2O$ ), and its subsequent diffusion through brine channels to the overlying atmosphere (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2015). Other proposed mechanisms for iodine  
50 reaction in ice include the production of  $I_2$  and tri-iodide ( $I_3^-$ ) through the photo-oxidation of iodide (Kim *et al.*, 2016), and the heterogeneous photo-reduction of iodate (Gálvez *et al.*, 2016). The recycling of iodine on ice/snow surfaces represents an offset change in partitioning ultimately increasing the effective atmospheric lifetime of iodine against deposition (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2014). Particle-bound iodine compounds related to terrestrial biogenic material and mineral dust might also contribute to the total atmospheric iodine concentrations (Spolaor *et al.*, 2013). Sea spray aerosols (ssa) expelled from the ocean surface  
55 during wave breaking also incorporate iodine in their structure, which can be subsequently released to the gas phase mainly due to the photolysis of the diatomic  $ICl$  and  $IBr$  species recycled by heterogeneous reactions over ssa (McFiggans *et al.*, 2000; Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2014).

The polar ice sheets continuously archive atmospheric composition, and ice core records can be used to reconstruct atmospheric iodine deposition at centennial to millennial time-scales. ice core iodine reconstructions are limited to two coastal  
60 sites: Law Dome (east Antarctica) (Vallelonga *et al.*, 2017) and Severnaya Zemlya (Russian Arctic) (Spolaor *et al.*, 2016). Iodine variability recorded at these sites is strongly affected by regional sea-ice dynamics since sea-ice bioproductivity is thought to be one of the main sources of Antarctic and Arctic iodine (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2015). Unfortunately, the iodine records extracted from Law Dome and Severnaya Zemlya barely span the past few decades, thus preventing the assessment of millennial-scale atmospheric iodine variability and its source emission mechanisms. The only iodine record beyond the  
65 Industrial Period available to date is restricted to Talos Dome (coastal Antarctica) (Spolaor *et al.*, 2013), which provides a



reconstruction of iodine variability for the last two glacial cycles. This record does not allow a Holocene reconstruction of iodine variability and related environmental drivers due to the low temporal resolution of the record (mean resolution >2 kyr/sample) and the lack of iodine data during the last four millennia (Spolaor *et al.*, 2013).

70 The ReCAP ice core (from the Renland ice cap, eastern Greenland, Fig. 1) constitutes the only Greenland ice core with a complete Holocene climate stratigraphy largely undisturbed by glaciological “brittle ice” effects (Vinther *et al.*, 2009). The Renland ice cap is an ideal location for investigating ocean trace gas emissions since air masses feeding this region are mostly influenced by the North Atlantic Ocean from 50°N to the Fram Strait (Maffezzoli *et al.*, 2018). A recent study of the upper 130 m in the ReCAP ice core (CE 1750-2011) shows, for the first time, a threefold increase in the Arctic and the North Atlantic iodine concentration during the last six decades. This increase is mainly driven by anthropogenic ozone pollution and enhanced sub-ice phytoplankton production associated with the recent thinning of Arctic sea ice (Cuevas *et al.*, 2018) This 75 threefold increase has also been recorded in an alpine ice core (Col du Dome ice core), which likely records iodine emissions from the Mediterranean Sea (Legrand *et al.*, 2018). The recent increase in anthropogenic ozone in the troposphere and its subsequent deposition on the ocean surface favours the ozone reaction with iodide ions, accelerating the release of HOI and I<sub>2</sub> to the atmosphere (Prados-Roman *et al.*, 2015, Cuevas *et al.*, 2018; Legrand *et al.*, 2018).

80 However, the environmental drivers of atmospheric iodine levels at millennial time-scales, prior to anthropogenic influences are still unknown. Here, we show the first complete, high-resolution reconstruction of atmospheric iodine during the Holocene. We combine the ReCAP ice core measurements with other marine paleoceanographic archives to investigate the main environmental mechanisms driving millennial-scale natural atmospheric iodine variability during the Holocene.

## 2 Data and Methods

### 85 2.1 Study site.

The Renland ice cap is located on a high mountain plateau in Scoresby Sund fjord system (coastal eastern Greenland) isolated from the main Greenland ice sheet. The 584 m long ReCAP (Renland ice CAP) ice core (71°18'18"N, 26°43'24"W; 2315 m a.s.l.) was drilled to bedrock in May-June 2015 using the Danish Hans Tausen intermediate drill system. The core is located just 2 km from the site of the original Renland ice core, drilled in 1988 to a depth of 324 m, from which a site accumulation 90 rate of 50 cm ice equivalent/yr was determined (Hansson *et al.*, 1994).

The ReCAP ice core record covers the last 120 kyr BP. This study focuses on the upper 535 meters that constitute the Holocene (last 11.7 kyr BP). The Holocene age-depth model is based on annual layer counting for the interval (CE 2015 - 4 kyr BP, where BP signifies ‘before CE 1950’); combined with a modified Dansgaard-Johnsen ice flow model (Dansgaard and Johnsen, 1969) constrained to well-dated age markers from 4 to 11.7 kyr BP. The annual layer counting was conducted using 95 the StratiCounter algorithm (Winstrup *et al.*, 2012) constrained by volcanic eruption markers and synchronized to the GICC05 Greenland Ice Core Chronology framework (Vinther *et al.*, 2006).



## 2.2 Ice core sampling and geochemical analyses.

Each one of the ice core samples devoted to the geochemical analyses ( $n=1035$ ) was collected by integrating 55 cm of melted  
100 ice from a Continuous Flow Analysis (CFA) system (University of Copenhagen). The meltwater was collected in polyethylene  
tubes and subsequently refrozen and stored shielded from light until analyses. Some of the samples were sent to the  
Environmental Analytical Chemistry laboratory (IDPA-CNR) of the University of Venice, while others were sent to the Curtin  
University of Technology (Perth, Australia). Iodine and sodium concentrations were measured by i) Sector Field Inductively  
Coupled Plasma Sector Field Mass Spectroscopy (ICP-SFMS, Element XR, Thermo Fisher, Germany) in Australia (defined  
105 CUT system) and by ii) Inductively Collision Reaction Cell-Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectrometry (CRC-ICP-MS,  
Agilent 7500cx, Agilent, California, USA) in Italy (defined IDPA-CNR system). For the Italian measurements, the operational  
methodology is the same as in Spolaor et al., (2013) (*Spolaor et al.*, 2013). Iodine ( $^{127}\text{I}$ ) was determined at low mass resolution  
with stability of instrumental signal evaluated by the continuous monitoring of  $^{129}\text{Xe}$ . The sample line was thoroughly cleaned  
using 2% nitric acid and UPW between each analysis. Instrumental errors for iodine and sodium concentrations were 10%.  
110 Respective sodium and iodine detection limits were 1 ppb and 0.005 ppb for the Venice CRC-ICP-MS and 1.1 ppb and 0.002  
ppb for the Perth ICP-SFMS. 140 samples were analysed at both institutions for intercomparison in order to investigate  
differences between the analytical techniques and laboratories (Fig. S1). The ratio of the iodine measurements carried out in  
the two institutions average  $\rho = 0.95 \pm 0.01$  highlighting the strong correlation between the measurements at both institutions.

The iodine and sodium measurement temporal resolution ranged from sub-annual in the upper metres to decadal to  
115 centennial during the Mid- to Early Holocene (average resolution of 0.08 samples/yr) according to the RECAP ice core age-  
depth model and sampling resolution. The ice core iodine annual depositional fluxes were calculated according to the equation:

$$\text{Iflux} = [\text{I}] \times \text{AR}$$

where (I) and AR represent the iodine concentrations and reconstructed annual accumulation rates (Fig. S2), respectively.  
Pearson coefficients during the main Holocene climatic phases (i.e.; Holocene Thermal Maximum, Neoglacial, Late Holocene  
120 and Great Acceleration) were calculated to evaluate the statistical correlation between geochemical variables -i.e. (I), (Na) and  
(Ca)- analyzed in ReCAP ice cores.

## 2.3 Atmospheric Chemistry modelling.

THAMO (Tropospheric HALogen chemistry Model) is a 1-D chemistry transport model with 200 stacked boxes at a vertical  
resolution of 5 m (total height 1 km). The model includes a complete scheme for iodine, bromine, chlorine,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{HO}_x$   
125 tropospheric chemistry, and is constrained with typical measured values of other chemical species in the MBL (*Saiz-Lopez et al.*,  
2008). The model THAMO has been applied in this study to characterize interactive halogen photochemistry and the  
production of tropospheric reactive iodine during the present day and two different scenarios during the Holocene. The model  
is initialized at midnight to build up all species before the sunrise, when the sunlight starts all the photolytic processes. Three  
different scenarios have been investigated in which different preconditioning factors have been applied according to published  
130 paleoenvironmental reconstructions (Table S2) and the MERRA reanalysis dataset (*Rienecker et al.*, 2011). Inorganic iodine



emission fluxes were calculated according to laboratory-based flux parametrization (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013) with mean values ranging from 0.0037 to 0.0039 mol m<sup>-2</sup> kyrs<sup>-1</sup> for the HTM and the Neoglacial period respectively. These values were calculated using 10 ppbv of tropospheric ozone in the atmosphere before Industrialization (Volz and Kley, 1988) and 35 ppbv during the Great Acceleration (Cooper *et al.*, 2014).

### 135 3 Results

Holocene iodine concentrations (I) and fluxes (I<sub>flux</sub>, i.e. iodine annual depositional rates from the atmosphere to the ice surface) in the ice core range from 0.06 ng g<sup>-1</sup> to below the detection limit (mean 0.02 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) and from 35 to 0.01 g m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (mean 8.1 g m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) respectively (Fig. 2, Fig. S2). Iodine concentrations from ice core records in Greenland may suffer from significant remobilization processes, particularly in areas with low annual snow accumulation rates (Legrand *et al.*, 2018).  
140 However, losses of volatile iodine species would be strongly reduced in areas with high annual snow accumulation rates such as the Renland peninsula (annual snow accumulation rates ~0.5 kg m<sup>-2</sup>, yr<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. S2). Thus, Holocene iodine variability may respond to the interplay of different inorganic and biogenic emission sources. Laboratory studies indicate that current global inorganic iodine emissions are maintained by the reaction between iodide (I<sup>-</sup>) ions with atmospheric ozone deposited to the sea surface (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013; MacDonald *et al.*, 2014). Lower inorganic iodine emissions to the atmosphere have been  
145 hypothesized (Prados-Roman *et al.*, 2015), on account of the commensurately lower level of atmospheric ozone (about 10 ppb) occurring before the onset of industrialization (Volz and Kley, 1988). According to the THAMO model, ocean inorganic iodine emissions were low ~10.1 ± 0.6 nmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> throughout Holocene climatic periods (Table S1), contrasting with the four-fold (I) variability recorded in the ReCAP record during the last 11.7 kyrs BP (Fig. 2). This suggests that the Holocene high atmospheric iodine levels cannot be attributed to ozone-driven inorganic iodine emission sources.

#### 150 3.1 Iodine levels during the Holocene Thermal Maximum (~11.5-5.5 kyr BP).

The iodine concentrations measured in the ReCAP ice core show the highest values during the Holocene Thermal Maximum (HTM), peaking at ~10 kyr BP and remaining at the same levels until ~5.5 kyr BP (mean (I) of 0.036 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) (Fig. 2 and S2). Similarly, the iodine fluxes remained high throughout the HTM (mean I fluxes = 14.2 ug m<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). This period exhibited warm  
155 surface water conditions (1.6±0.8°C higher than present (Kaufman *et al.*, 2004)) and salinity increases in the Arctic (Briner *et al.*, 2016; Solignac *et al.*, 2006) as a result of high summer insolation (Fig. 2).

Several micropaleontological and organic geochemical biomarker records suggest a decrease in sea-ice coverage throughout the HTM (Cabedo-Sanz *et al.*, 2016; Müller *et al.*, 2012; Ślubowska-Woldengen *et al.*, 2008; Vare *et al.*, 2009; Werner *et al.*, 2016; Xiao *et al.*, 2017). The paleoenvironmental reconstructions carried out in multiple settings from the  
160 northern North Atlantic and the Arctic Ocean (Fig. 1, Table S2) also indicate higher primary productivity in this region during the Early Holocene (Fig. 2). The subpolar species *T. quinqueloba*, indicative of warm and saline Atlantic Water advection (Volkman, 2000), as well as of nutrient-rich subsurface waters (Werner *et al.*, 2016), was dominant in the northern North Atlantic and Nordic seas during the HTM, as far north as the Fram Strait (Werner *et al.*, 2013; Werner *et al.*, 2016). Higher



concentrations of dinosterol and brassicasterol, respective biomarkers of dinoflagellates and diatoms (Volkman *et al.*, 1998),  
165 also indicate higher primary productivity in the subpolar North Atlantic during the HTM (Kolling *et al.*, 2017; Müller *et al.*,  
2012; Werner *et al.*, 2016). The increase in terrestrial sediment delivery and nutrient supply derived from Arctic glacier melting  
and coastal erosion during the Early Holocene (Solomina *et al.*, 2015; Wegner *et al.*, 2015) may have promoted higher marine  
productivity in Arctic shelf and coastal areas. An increase in planktonic foraminifera depositional fluxes and higher bio-  
induced calcium carbonate precipitation in the Northern North Atlantic and the Nordic seas (Telesiński *et al.*, 2015; Werner *et*  
170 *al.*, 2013) (Fig. 2, Table S2) provide further evidence of enhanced primary productivity. These biological species, including  
phytoplankton and macro- and micro-algae, accumulate iodine to concentrations of up to  $10^3$ - $10^6$  greater than in seawater and  
produce iodine compounds in the ocean (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012). The increase in primary productivity would lead to an  
enhancement of the biological iodine production in the ocean, followed by its release to the atmosphere resulting in “Biological  
Iodine Explosion” (BIE). Maximum summertime solar irradiance in the Arctic during the HTM (Fig. 2) would also slightly  
175 increase the algae oxidative stress increasing the iodine effusion rates from the surface ocean (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012; 2015).  
Additionally, higher sea surface temperatures (SST) during the HTM would favor the sea-air phase transfer of volatiles (i.e.  
iodine compounds) produced at the ocean surface. Greater primary productivity in the reduced summertime sea ice-covered  
Nordic Seas drives two biological changes resulting in enhanced iodine release from the ocean surface: firstly, enhanced  
emission of iodocarbons from the open ocean directly to the atmosphere and secondly the enhanced production of iodine ( $I_2$ )  
180 by sea-ice phytoplankton colonies and its release to the atmosphere through brine channels and ice cracks formed in the thinner  
HTM seasonal sea ice (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2015). Inorganic iodine emissions ( $10.7 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) would only account for 25%  
of the total HTM iodine emissions, as inferred by the THAMO model (Table S1). No significant correlation is found between  
iodine and sodium or calcium ice core concentrations (Table S3), suggesting that iodine variability during the HTM is not to  
be attributed either to atmospheric transport of ssa or to dust-related particle-bound iodine. We therefore conclude that ocean  
185 biogenic iodine production and emission operating on millennial timescales ( $\sim 11.5$ - $5.5 \text{ kyr BP}$ ) played the dominant role (up  
to 75% of iodine emissions, Table S1) in the observed HTM iodine record.

### 3.2 Iodine levels during the Neoglacial Period ( $\sim 5.5$ - $3.4 \text{ kyr BP}$ )

An abrupt decrease in iodine levels occurs during the Neoglacial period (Fig. 2 and S1), a time interval characterized by a  
190 general cooling of the Arctic and North Atlantic regions (Jennings *et al.*, 2002; Koç *et al.*, 1993; Nesje and Dahl, 1993). Iodine  
concentrations and fluxes are at their lowest levels in the entire sequence with mean values of  $0.008 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  and  $3.9 \text{ ug m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ,  
respectively. A significant correlation exists between iodine and sodium (Table S3) suggesting an influence of ssa variability  
on iodine concentrations during the Neoglacial period.

The HTM ended quite abruptly *c.*  $5.5 \text{ kyr BP}$  when global sea level reached its modern value and a hence intensified  
195 sea-ice production in the Kara and Laptev Seas resulted in a perennial sea-ice cover in the central Arctic Ocean and enhanced  
sea ice export into the North Atlantic (Bauch *et al.*, 2001; Cronin *et al.*, 2010; Telesiński *et al.*, 2015; Werner *et al.*, 2013).  
Increased sea-ice coverage and/or reduced summer sea-ice break up is also reported for the Greenland-Norwegian Sea and



eastern Fram Strait after c. 5.5 kyr BP (*Koç et al.*, 1993; *Müller et al.*, 2012; *Telesinski et al.*, 2014; *Telesiński et al.*, 2014; *Werner et al.*, 2013). Recent sea-ice reconstructions from the North Iceland Shelf show that the HTM was followed by a pronounced re-advance of sea ice at about 6 kyr BP (*Cabedo-Sanz and Belt*, 2016; *Xiao et al.*, 2017), when SST started to decrease (*Kristjánisdóttir et al.*, 2017). Increased sea ice ultimately reduces atmospheric iodine emission through a number of direct and indirect processes involving reduced marine primary production (Fig. 2; Table S2 and references therein). Thicker sea ice would reduce the amount of sunlight reaching algae colonies underneath sea ice, thus reducing the amount of seawater iodine compounds (*Saiz-Lopez et al.*, 2015). Thicker and/or more extensive sea ice would also impede the iodine diffusion through ice and further release of  $I_2$  to the overlying atmosphere (*Saiz-Lopez et al.*, 2015). Both these combined processes likely contributed to the observed ice core iodine minimum during the Neoglacial period. Our modelling results indicate that inorganic iodine emissions ( $10.1 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$ ) account for most of the low atmospheric iodine concentration during the Neoglacial period (Table S1).

### 210 3.3 Iodine levels during the Late Holocene (~3.4 kyr BP- Present)

Iodine levels vary widely during the Late Holocene with concentration and fluxes ranging from  $0.064 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  to below the detection limit (mean (I) of  $0.017 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ) and from  $35$  to  $0.015 \text{ ug m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (mean  $8 \text{ ug m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), respectively. Iodine concentrations slightly increased at 3.4 kyr BP and remained fairly constant until 0.8 kyr BP (mean (I) and I fluxes of  $0.014$  and  $6.34 \text{ ug m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  respectively) (Fig 2 and S2).

215 Arctic sea-ice extent progressively increased during the Late Holocene as recorded in mid- and high-latitude Arctic locations (e.g. (*Cabedo-Sanz et al.*, 2016; *Werner et al.*, 2013; *Werner et al.*, 2016)) (Fig. 2, Table S1). Sea-ice reconstructions from the East Greenland shelf, however, reveal a slightly reduced but stable sea-ice cover during the last 3 kyr consistent with increasing phytoplankton growth and marine productivity (*Kolling et al.*, 2017) (Fig. S4). This trend is consistent with moderately increasing iodine levels recorded in the ReCAP ice core over the last 3 kyr (Figs. 2, S3 and S4).

220 Ice core iodine concentration and fluxes increased by 50% during the last eight centuries reaching mean values of  $\sim 0.021 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  and  $8.9 \text{ ug m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  respectively at the onset of the Industrial Period (CE 1750-1850). The iodine time series in this part of the record reveals a higher frequency, which is in part due to a reduced ice compression towards the surface and thus an increased temporal resolution of the samples. Model results indicate that organic and inorganic iodine emissions contributed equally to the total iodine released to the atmosphere during the Late Holocene (Table S1). Phytoplankton productivity in the Eastern Greenland shelf varied significantly during the Little Ice Age (LIA, CE 1400-1850), even reaching the highest values since the HTM (*Kolling et al.*, 2017) (Fig. 2). Sea ice re-advances and/or intensified sea ice export from the Arctic Ocean along the Greenland shelf and North of Iceland during the LIA (*Cabedo-Sanz et al.*, 2016; *Kolling et al.*, 2017) and a 10% decrease in solar irradiance since the Early Holocene (Fig. 2; Table S2) likely explained the atmospheric iodine levels being lower in the late Holocene with respect to the higher levels recorded during the HTM.



#### 230 4 Discussion and Conclusions

Iodine levels in the ReCAP ice core have tripled since the onset of the Great Acceleration (1950 CE- Present) (Cuevas *et al.*, 2018). This very recent atmospheric iodine increase is explained by the rise in anthropogenic ozone pollution since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century (Cooper *et al.*, 2014; Cuevas *et al.*, 2018; Legrand *et al.*, 2018) since oceanic inorganic emissions of HOI and I<sub>2</sub> depend on surface ozone concentrations (Carpenter *et al.*, 2013; MacDonald *et al.*, 2014; Prados-Roman *et al.*, 2015). A recent  
235 global modelling study has shown that inorganic iodine emissions from the oceans constitute ~75% of present-day total atmospheric iodine (Prados-Roman *et al.*, 2015). In the absence of human disturbances to iodine biogeochemical cycling during the HTM, the remarkably high iodine levels recorded in the ReCAP ice core can only be explained by natural drivers influencing iodine emissions to the atmosphere. Our results show that at the onset of the Holocene, enhanced ocean primary production coupled with maxima in solar irradiance and open water conditions in the Arctic ocean and in the Nordic Seas  
240 (Bauch *et al.*, 2001; Cronin *et al.*, 2010; Müller *et al.*, 2012; M M Telesiński *et al.*, 2014; Werner *et al.*, 2013; 2016) controlled iodine emissions to the atmosphere (Fig. 3) resulting in a four millennia-long period of high atmospheric iodine concentrations. The decrease in iodine levels observed at the onset of the Neoglacial period coincide with environmental modifications in the Arctic, primarily the advance of sea ice and the reduction of marine primary production (Fig. 2, Table S1 and references therein).

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The fluctuations in atmospheric iodine levels recorded in the ReCAP ice core most likely resulted in significant long-term environmental impacts that ultimately affected the Holocene atmospheric chemistry and associated radiative impacts. The Early Holocene high iodine emissions might have led to enhanced aerosol concentrations in the Arctic atmosphere since atmospheric iodine promotes the formation of new ultrafine aerosol particles in coastal (Mahajan *et al.*, 2011; O'dowd *et al.*,  
250 2002; Sipilä *et al.*, 2016) and polar regions (Allan *et al.*, 2015; Roscoe *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, higher iodine levels have the potential to considerably accelerate atmospheric tropospheric ozone loss by up to 14 % and 27 % in the global marine boundary layer and upper troposphere, respectively (Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2014). Tropospheric ozone loss ultimately affects the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere and ozone radiative forcing which can in turn impact on climate by cooling the global troposphere by approximate -0.1 W m<sup>2</sup> (Hossaini *et al.*, 2015; Saiz-Lopez *et al.*, 2012; Sherwen *et al.*, 2017). The high variability of marine  
255 iodine fluxes to the continents could also have implications for land ecosystems during the Holocene since iodine is a key trace element in animal and human endocrine systems (De Benoist *et al.*, 2004).

Our results highlight that the increase in atmospheric iodine levels since 1950 CE is neither acute nor unusual in the context of long-term (i.e. millennial-scale) iodine variability. Therefore, the high levels of atmospheric iodine which occurred during the early Holocene may serve as an analogue for future atmospheric composition and climate conditions. This is  
260 particularly relevant to the Arctic, for which ice-free summertime conditions have been forecast to occur by 2050 CE (Overland and Wang, 2013).



## 5 Data availability

The ice core and model data that support the findings of this study will be made available on the PANGAEA and NOAA  
265 paleoclimate public databases after publication.

## 6 Author contribution

A.S.L., P.V. and A.S. designed the research. J.P.C., N.M., H.A.K., C.A.C., G.C., C.B., P.V. and R.E. collected and measured  
the samples, and analyzed the resulting data. B.V. constructed the chronology. J.M. supplied primary production and sea-ice  
270 coverage data. All authors interpreted the results. J.P.C. and A.S.L. wrote the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

## 7 Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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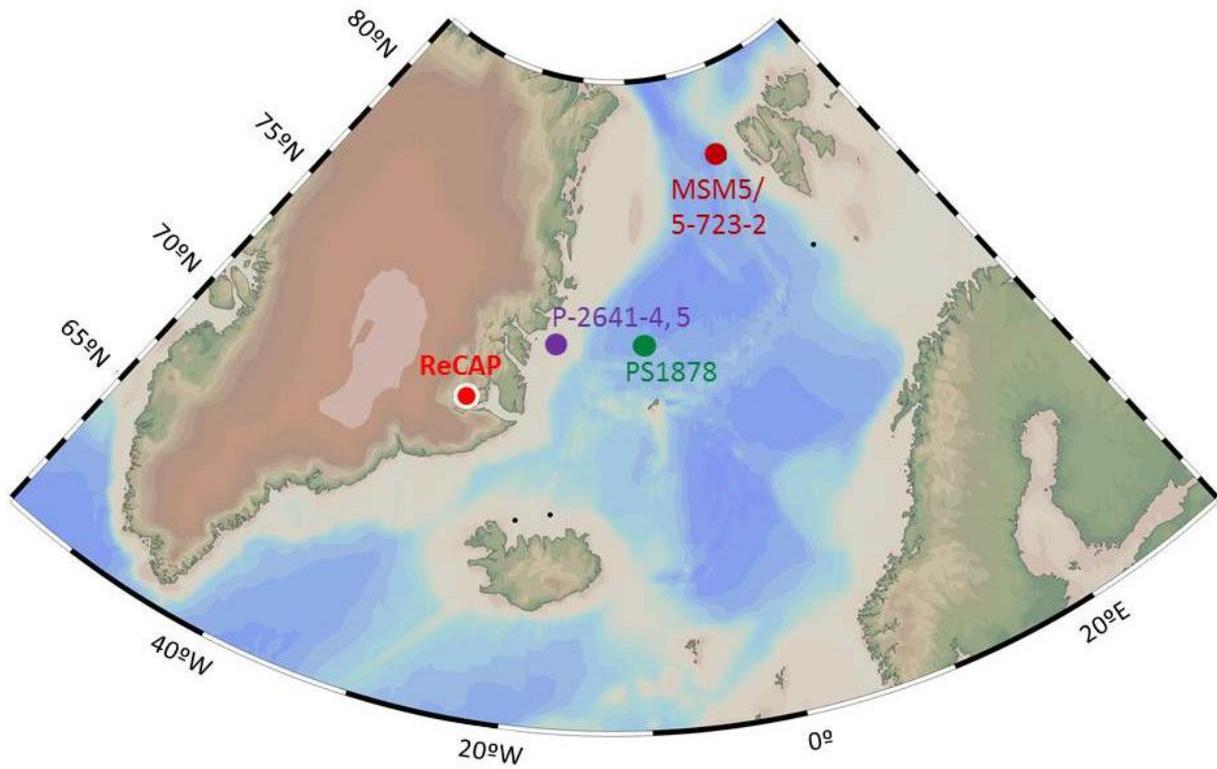
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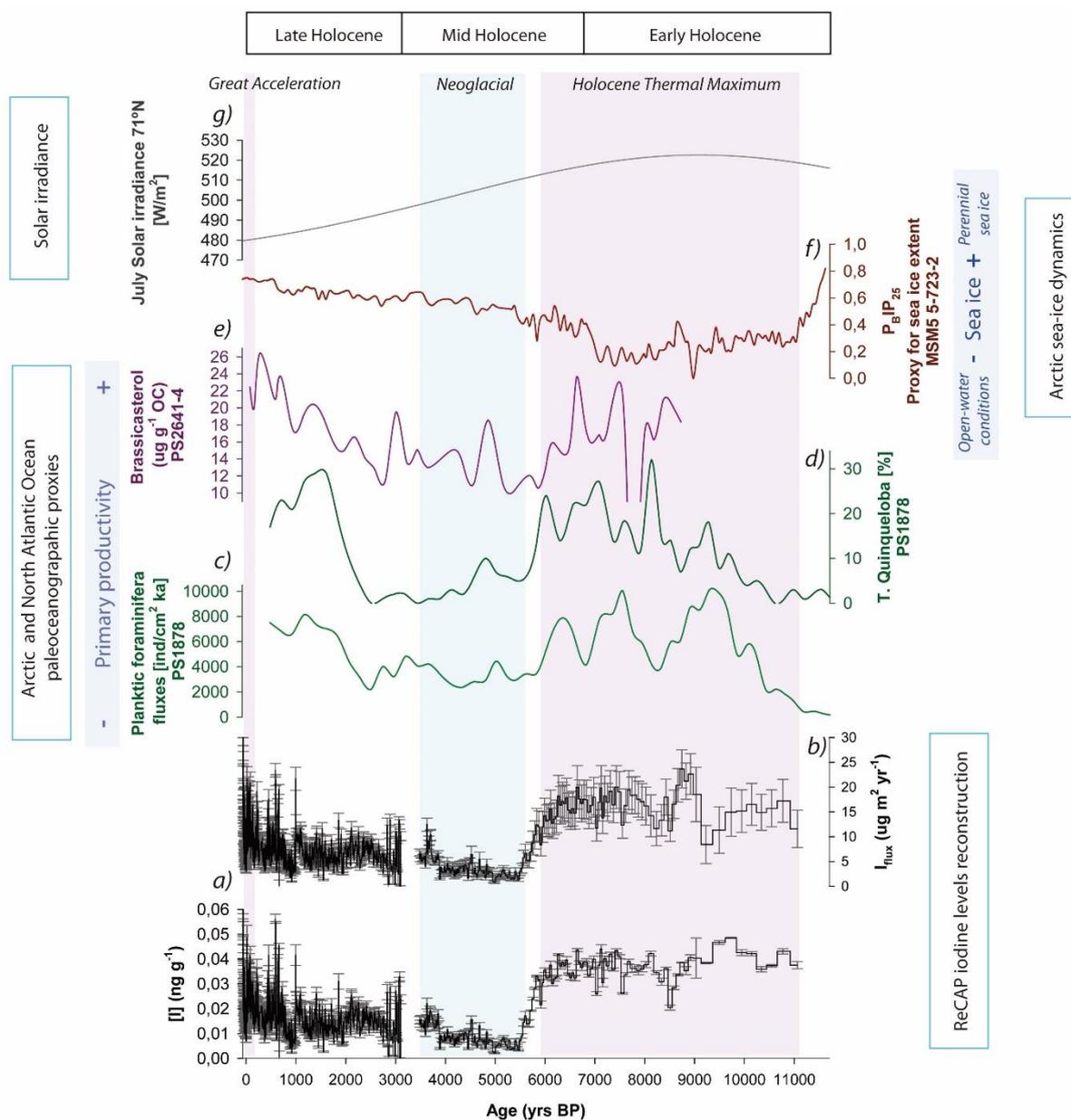
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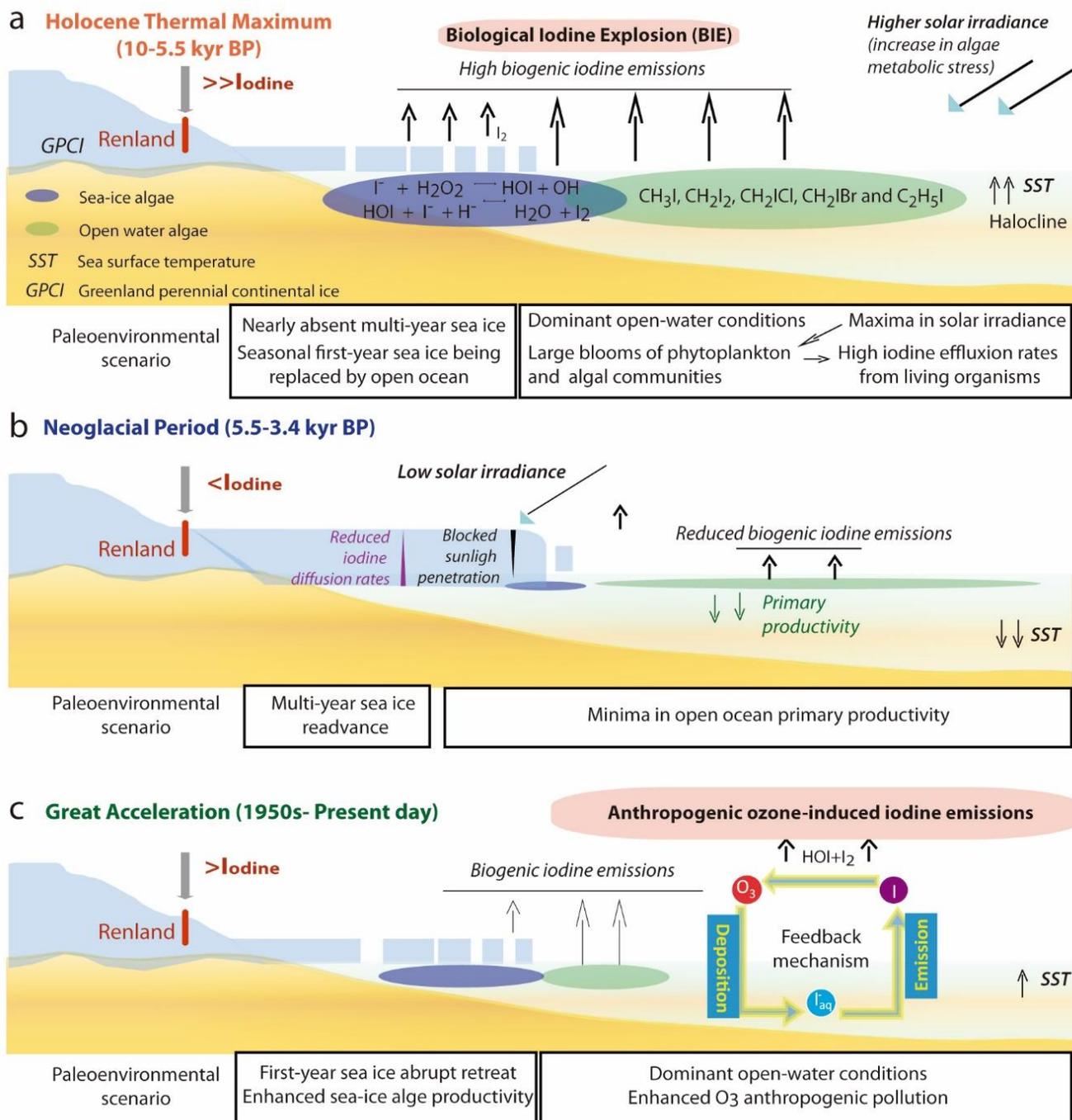
**Fig. 1: Location of the ReCAP ice core (red) and other marine paleoceanographic archives in the Nordic Seas discussed in the text.**  
For references of the paleoenvironmental proxies from the displayed sediment cores, please refer to the text and Fig. 2 caption.



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**Fig. 2: Holocene iodine concentration and fluxes evolution from the ReCAP ice core and primary productivity and sea-ice cover proxies from the Nordic seas.** From bottom to top: **a)** Iodine concentrations ( $1\sigma$ , experimental uncertainties) and **b)** fluxes ( $1\sigma$ , propagated from the concentration and accumulation rate uncertainties) ( $N=1050$ ); **c)** and **d)** Planktic foraminifera and *T. quinqueloba* (core PS1878) (*M Telesiński et al., 2015*), **e)** Brassicasterol (core PS2641-4) (*Müller et al., 2012*); **f)** Sea-ice cover (core MSM5 5/723-2) (*Werner et al., 2013*; *Werner et al., 2016*); **g)**  $71^\circ\text{N}$  July solar irradiance. Color boxes indicate the Holocene main climatic periods mentioned in the text; pink boxes indicate warmer phases while blue boxes indicate colder intervals.



460 **Fig. 3: Schematic diagram showing the coupled ocean-atmosphere iodine biogeochemical cycle throughout the Holocene.** (a) Holocene Thermal Maximum. (b) Neoglacial period. (c) Great Acceleration.