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1                   **Weak precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  response to large Holocene hydroclimate changes**  
2   **in eastern North America**

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15 **ABSTRACT**

16 In eastern North America, annual precipitation increased by >40% over the Holocene,  
17 largely in response to melting of the Laurentide Ice Sheet. The change substantially raised lake  
18 levels and transformed conifer-dominated ecosystems into mesic deciduous forests.  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values  
19 of terrestrially derived leaf-wax *n*-alkanes can facilitate diagnoses of the climate dynamics  
20 involved by reconstructing  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of mean annual precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ). However,  
21 competing influences on  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values in the mid-latitudes, such as changes in moisture sources  
22 and in the seasonal distribution of precipitation, can generate confounding effects. To test  
23  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  sensitivity to potential changes associated with the final Holocene phases of deglaciation  
24 in eastern North America, we used 14 fossil-pollen records to reconstruct monthly precipitation  
25 changes and to model  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values during the Holocene. The pollen-inferred precipitation  
26 increased by 100-200 mm during both cold and warm seasons, but modelled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values  
27 changed by only  $\sim 10\%$ , because isotopically-heavy summer precipitation increased by nearly as  
28 much as the cold-season isotopically-light winter precipitation. Three new leaf wax *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane  
29 ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C29}}$ ) records spanning the Holocene from Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts closely  
30 follow modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  trends and confirm only a small decline in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values over the  
31 Holocene. Because the shifts in precipitation seasonality accurately predict the *n*-alkane records,  
32 changes in moisture sources or pathways appear to play only a minor role in the regional  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
33 history despite the effects of deglaciation on atmospheric circulation. Soil evaporation also did  
34 not significantly alter  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C29}}$  values from the values predicted using the pollen-derived  
35 reconstructions. The results affirm that  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C29}}$  values faithfully detected anticipated isotopic  
36 changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values, but that important paleoclimate events may not always yield strong  
37 changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values.

## 38 1. INTRODUCTION

39 Due to the geographic position of the northeastern United States, the region has  
40 experienced major climate changes over the Holocene (~11.7 kyrs to present) driven by the  
41 retreat of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS), orbitally-forced insolation changes, and the dynamics  
42 of the adjacent North Atlantic Ocean (Webb et al., 1993; Shuman and Marsicek 2016; Shuman  
43 and Plank, 2011; Shuman et al., 2019). An early Holocene (~8 ka) shift from ice-sheet-  
44 dominated climate trends to those driven by seasonal insolation changes triggered a >40%  
45 increase in regional precipitation and a major shift from conifer to deciduous forests (Shuman et  
46 al., 2002; Shuman et al., 2009; Oswald et al., 2018; Shuman et al., 2019). The accelerated  
47 decline of the LIS around ca. 8.2 ka likely had implications for regional atmospheric circulation,  
48 the frequency of different types of precipitation events (e.g., ‘nor’easter’ storms, tropical  
49 cyclones), and the seasonality of precipitation, while summer insolation anomalies likely  
50 influenced evaporation rates (Shuman and Donnelly, 2006). Stable isotope records may provide  
51 insight into how such processes contributed to the large hydroclimate and ecosystem changes  
52 (e.g., Kirby et al., 2002; Gao et al., 2017; Hou et al., 2007; Shuman et al., 2006; Mandl et al.  
53 2016). However, amid these large Holocene climate shifts,  $n$ -C<sub>29</sub>  $\delta^2\text{H}$  records ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$ ) from the  
54 northeastern U.S., such as from the Adirondack Mountains (New York), suggest a limited range  
55 of variation in the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  composition of precipitation over the Holocene (~10‰; Schartman et al.,  
56 2020). This pattern extends further west into Wisconsin where the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  record from Lake Geneva  
57 also shows little variability over the Holocene (Puleo et al., 2020).

58 The  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  records pose a fascinating paradox because a lack of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  change during large-  
59 scale regional transformation defies expectations about both the climate changes involved and  
60 the sensitivity of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  records to mid-latitude hydroclimatology. Here, we explore the

61 conundrum. In doing so, we use a multi-proxy context and the dynamic hydroclimate history of  
62 the northeastern U.S. as an opportunity to evaluate how networks of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  records represent  
63 hydrologic changes in the mid-latitudes.

64 Leaf wax *n*-alkanes preserved in sedimentary archives are increasingly being used here  
65 and elsewhere to reconstruct past moisture trends (Schefuß et al., 2005; Tierney et al., 2010;  
66 Rach et al., 2014; Basu et al., 2019; Cao et al., 2020; Puleo et al., 2020; Schartman et al.,  
67 2020; Toney et al., 2020). *n*-Alkanes are odd-numbered hydrocarbons synthesized by both  
68 terrestrial and aquatic plants using environmental waters that ultimately originate from  
69 precipitation (Sachse et al., 2012). Therefore,  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{wax}}$  reflects the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  composition of  
70 precipitation. Strong relationships at both regional and global scales between the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of  
71 mean annual precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ) and those of terrestrial plants leaf-waxes (i.e., *n*- $\text{C}_{29}$ -alkane)  
72 make these compounds a suitable proxy for inferring the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of past precipitation (Sachse  
73 et al., 2004; Sachse et al., 2006; Garcin et al., 2012; Sachse et al., 2012; Tipple et al.,  
74 2013; Freimuth et al., 2017; McFarlin et al., 2019; Stefanescu et al., in press). As the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values  
75 of precipitation at a given location are strongly controlled by atmospheric circulation and rainout  
76 processes (Craig 1961; Gat 1996; Dansgaard 1964), the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of terrestrial leaf-waxes  
77 provide an opportunity to reconstruct the drivers behind past climate changes such as shifts in  
78 atmospheric circulation and moisture sources.

79 Here, we expand the leaf wax *n*- $\text{C}_{29}$   $\delta^2\text{H}$  datasets from the northeastern U.S. region to  
80 include new coastal, inland, and northern records and compare the *n*- $\text{C}_{29}$ -alkane-based  
81 reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of mean annual precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}_{\text{C}_{29}}}$ ) to pollen-inferred  
82 expectations of precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  change ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ). We first confirm that fossil pollen records  
83 from across the region indicate major changes in moisture availability, consistent with previous

84 analyses of regional pollen data (Webb et al., 1993; Marsicek et al., 2013; Shuman et al., 2019)  
85 and lake-level reconstructions (Shuman et al., 2001; Newby et al., 2011; 2014; Shuman et al.,  
86 2019). Then, to understand potential outcomes in the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records, we combine the pollen-  
87 inferred precipitation history with modern values of  $\delta^2\text{H}$  in monthly precipitation to test the  
88 sensitivity of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  to the observed changes in precipitation seasonality alone (i.e., without  
89 accounting for changes in sources, circulation, and other influences on monthly  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values).  
90 Finally, we compare the simulated  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  expectations with the three new  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records  
91 from Vermont, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts and assess both the temporal trends and spatial  
92 isotopic patterns to evaluate the roles of three major factors: (1) changes in precipitation  
93 seasonality, (2) changes in moisture sources and pathways, and (3) evaporative effects on soil  
94 moisture. The results have implications for interpreting the sensitivity of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  to complex,  
95 multi-dimensional hydroclimate changes and can help establish benchmark expectations for  
96 isotope-enabled climate model simulations of the early Holocene (i.e., a strong regional  
97 precipitation change associated with a modest  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  change).

## 98 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 99 2.1. Study sites

100 We present three new leaf-wax *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane records from Twin Ponds (Vermont),  
101 Blanding Lake (Pennsylvania) and Crooked Pond (Massachusetts) (Figure 1, Table 1). Twin  
102 Ponds fills two adjoining glacially-scoured basins within the limestone member of the Waits  
103 River Formation in east-central Vermont and is surrounded by northern hardwood forest  
104 dominated by a mix of angiosperm and gymnosperm tree species such as sugar maples (*Acer*  
105 *saccharum*), American beech (*Fagus grandifolia*), and eastern hemlock (*Tsuga canadensis*)  
106 (Grigg et al., 2021). Crooked Pond is a small kettle lake composed of two basins within sandy

107 outwash near coastal Massachusetts. Pines (*Pinus* spp.) and oak (*Quercus* spp.) dominate the  
108 surrounding sand-plain vegetation (Shuman et al., 2001). The sandy soils limited vegetation  
109 changes at Crooked Pond during the Holocene (Shuman et al., 2001). We use the near-by pollen  
110 record from Deep-Taunton Pond (Oswald et al., 2018), located on adjacent glacial tills and  
111 surrounded by oak-dominated deciduous forest, to represent the regional vegetation changes near  
112 Crooked Pond. Blanding Lake occupies a basin in glacial till in a valley incised within the  
113 Allegheny Plateau in northeastern Pennsylvania and is underlain by fluvial sandstones of the  
114 Catskill Formation. The immediate watershed contains a plantation of white pine (*Pinus strobus*)  
115 and mixed deciduous forest dominated by oak species (*Quercus* spp.) (Shuman and Burrell,  
116 2017).

117         Sediment cores from Twin Ponds, Blanding Lake and Crooked Pond were collected using  
118 a hand-driven piston corer with 70 mm polycarbonate tubes. The total sediment core lengths  
119 were 4.83 m, 10.12 m and 6.13 m, respectively. The Twin Ponds sediment core was collected at  
120 a shallow water depth of 0.79 m, in a carbonate bench adjacent to the shore, while the sediment  
121 cores from Blanding Lake and Crooked Pond were collected from the deepest locations within  
122 the lakes at water depths of 5.55 m and 4.25 m, respectively. An additional core was also  
123 collected from 7.8 m of water at the center of Twin Ponds western basin. Age models for the  
124 0.79 m depth sediment core from Twin Ponds, and for the sediment cores from Blanding Lake  
125 and Crooked Pond were derived from radiocarbon dates (Figure 2, Table 2) calibrated to  
126 calendar years using the bchron package with the IntCal20 calibration curve (Haslett and Parnell,  
127 2008; Reimer et al., 2020). We also generated new chronologies for the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records at  
128 Heart and Moose lakes (Schartman et al., 2020) using IntCal20.

## 129 **2.2. n-Alkane extraction and instrumental analysis**

130 *n*-Alkanes were extracted from 2-8 grams freeze-dried sediment and analyzed for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  on  
131 a Thermo Scientific Trace GC coupled to a Thermo Delta V IRMS following the methods of  
132 Stefanescu et al. (in press). All samples were run in duplicates. A standard *n*-alkane mixture  
133 (mixture A7 from Arndt Schimmelmann, Indiana University) containing alkanes *n*-C<sub>16</sub> to *n*-C<sub>30</sub>  
134 was used to identify *n*-alkane compounds based on retention times, and to account for instrument  
135 D/H offset. The average H<sub>3</sub><sup>+</sup> factor for all runs was 2.19 and ranged between 1.98 to 2.21 across  
136 all runs. All  $\delta^2\text{H}$  measurements are reported in ‰ relative to the Vienna Standard Ocean Water  
137 (VSMOW). Sample duplicate  $\delta^2\text{H}$  measurements were averaged, and the average standard  
138 deviation of duplicates was 2.4 ‰ across all runs.

139 The  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  analysis at Twin Ponds was completed on the shallow carbonate core where  
140 additional oxygen isotope analyses will also be possible for future comparison. To compare the  
141 range of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  values between the two cores, we also analyzed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}}$  values in four sediment  
142 samples from the sediment core collected at a water depth of 7.8 m. From here on, we refer to the  
143 sediment core collected near the shore at the water depth of 0.79 m as the “shallow water core”  
144 and to the core collected from the lake center and a depth of 7.8 m as the “deep water core”.

145 We use *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values to infer  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values by applying the North American  
146 average apparent fractionation factor ( $\epsilon_{\text{app}}$ ) of -131‰ (Stefanescu et al., in press). The inferred  
147 Holocene  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C}_{29}}$  values at each lake were calculated as follows:

$$148 \quad \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C}_{29}} \text{‰} = 1000 \times \left[ \frac{\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{C}_{29}} \text{‰} + 1000}{-131 \text{‰} + 1000} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq.1}$$

### 149 **2.3. Pollen analysis and climate reconstructions**

150 We present new fossil pollen records from Twin Ponds (VT) and Blanding Lake (PA)  
151 (Figure 1, Table 1) as part of an effort to compare the inferred  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C}_{29}}$  values to pollen-



152 inferred estimates of Holocene hydroclimate changes and their isotopic consequences. Sediment  
153 samples from Twin Ponds (VT) and Blanding Lake (PA) were prepared for pollen analysis  
154 following a standard procedure (Faegri and Iversen. 1975) and analyzed for fossil pollen and  
155 spores. Pollen of aquatic plants, fern, mosses, and fungal spores were excluded from the pollen  
156 sum. The results are presented as percentages, calculated relative to the sum of all terrestrial taxa  
157 and simplified pollen diagrams for the two lakes include the major pollen types discussed in the  
158 text (Figure 4). For regional comparison, an additional 12 fossil-pollen records were obtained  
159 from the Neotoma Palaeoecological Database (Figure 1, Table 1) (Williams et al., 2018). This  
160 network of detailed pollen records was used to examine the coherency between local and  
161 regional pollen-based moisture reconstructions over the Holocene. We use detailed fossil pollen  
162 records from 14 sites in the region (Figure 1, Table 1) including Twin Ponds (VT), Blanding  
163 Lake (PA), and Heart Lake (NY) (Whitehead and Jackson, 1990). Chronologies for all pollen  
164 records were updated using the bchron package with the IntCal20 calibration curve (Parnell et  
165 al., 2008; Reimer et al., 2020).

166 We reconstructed monthly precipitation changes from the pollen data at the 14 sites  
167 (Figure 1, Figure 5, Figure 6) using the modern analogue technique, which compares each fossil  
168 pollen sample to their most analogous modern pollen samples (Overpeck et al., 1985). The  
169 modern monthly precipitation rates associated with the modern pollen samples are assumed to  
170 represent the paleoclimate conditions as has been done previously for this region (e.g., Marsicek  
171 et al., 2013). The modern pollen samples were derived from sites in North America east of 95°W  
172 and were compared to the fossil pollen samples using the squared-chord distance (SCD) metric  
173 (Overpeck et al., 1985). The comparisons measure the differences in the relative abundances of  
174 54 important regional pollen types (Marsicek et al., 2013). The five modern pollen samples with

175 the lowest SCDs were considered analogs for each fossil pollen sample. The modern mean  
176 monthly precipitation from the location of each analog was obtained from Whitmore et al. (2005)  
177 and then the values for the five analogs were averaged and assigned as the paleo-precipitation  
178 values. While the approach is imperfect, it builds upon the ability of the modern analog  
179 technique to reconstruct precipitation during all seasons (Williams and Shuman, 2008). Warm  
180 and cold season precipitation totals (Figure 6) were calculated by summing the reconstructed  
181 monthly precipitation for June-November and December-May, respectively, while the warm/cold  
182 season precipitation ratio was calculated by dividing their sums.

#### 183 **2.4. Modern and modeled $\delta^2\text{H}$ values of precipitation**

184 Modern monthly and mean annual precipitation (MAP)  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values were obtained using  
185 the Online Isotopes of Precipitation Calculator (OIPC) (Bowen, G. J., 2020) and are reported  
186 relative to VSMOW (Figure 1, Figure 3A). Modern monthly and mean annual precipitation  
187 inputs (mm) were obtained from the Parameter-Elevation Regressions on Independent Slopes  
188 Model (PRISM) with a resolution of 800 m, from the Climate Group at Oregon State University  
189 (Prism Climate Group, 2021; Figure 3B, Table 1). To test the accuracy of OIPC  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values, we  
190 compare OIPC monthly and annual  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values to measured monthly precipitation and soil  
191 moisture  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values from the nearby site of Hubbard Brook, New Hampshire (Figure 1A,B;  
192 Campbell and Greene, 2019).

193 As pollen-inferred precipitation changes suggest that modern precipitation in the region  
194 generally exceeds the rates of the last 14 kyrs (Webb et al., 1993; Shuman et al., 2019), we  
195 model the potential sensitivity of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  to reduced seasonal precipitation rates. To do so, we  
196 first computed percent decreases from modern precipitation values (in 10 % increments) for  
197 warm-season (June-November) and cold-season (December-May) precipitation, respectively,

198 which we combined with modern monthly  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values to calculate expected  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values as in  
199 Eq.2. The results estimate how the reduction in precipitation in either season today would alter  
200 the total isotopic composition of annual precipitation ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ) by shifting the weighting of  
201 isotopic inputs in favor of the other season:

$$202 \quad \text{Modeled } \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}} \text{‰} = \frac{\sum(\text{P}_{\text{month}}(\text{mm}) \times \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{month}}(\text{‰}))}{\text{MAP}(\text{mm})} \quad \text{Eq.2}$$

203 where  $\text{P}_{\text{month}}$  represents the mean precipitation amount of each month from January to  
204 December and where  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{month}}$  equals a fixed value for each month at each site as determined by  
205 OIPC.

206 We then compute expected  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  departures from modern OIPC  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values using  
207 Eq. 3:

$$208 \quad \Delta\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}\text{‰} = \text{modern } \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}\text{‰} - \text{modeled } \delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}\text{‰} \quad \text{Eq.3}$$

209 To examine the effect of the inferred changes in precipitation seasonality over the past 14  
210 kyrs, we then repeated this modelling of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  using Eq. 2 by combining the monthly  
211 precipitation input (mm) reconstructed from the fossil pollen with the fixed modern monthly  
212 precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values from OIPC at each pollen site. The goal is to estimate the sensitivity of  
213  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values to the reconstructed seasonal precipitation changes alone and then compare with  
214 the measured  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values to diagnose attendant changes in vapor sources, circulation  
215 pathways, precipitation mechanisms, or soil evaporation, which we assume would create  
216 departures from modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values in the measured  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values.

### 217 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 218 **3.1. Modern precipitation $\delta^2\text{H}$ values in the northeastern U.S. and their sensitivity to** 219 **change**

220 Modern monthly precipitation and soil water  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values measured at Hubbard Brook  
221 (Figure 1B; Campbell and Greene, 2019) show 40‰-60‰ seasonal variation and a 3‰  
222 difference in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values, suggesting little evaporation effects on soil water  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values. These  
223 findings indicate that terrestrial leaf wax source water (i.e., soil moisture) should closely track  
224 the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  composition of MAP with minimal evaporation effects. Moreover, modeled monthly and  
225 annual  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values at Hubbard Brook (NH) parallel those of measured precipitation and are  
226 similar to those modeled at Twin Ponds, VT (Figure 1B). Furthermore, modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values  
227 match those observed at Hubbard Brook suggesting that OIPC (Bowen, 2020) is suitable for  
228 predicting modern monthly and annual  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values across the region.

229 Modern monthly precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values (from OIPC) range from -132 to -11‰ across  
230 the region (Figure 3A) with the most negative values observed at the inland sites from New  
231 York, Vermont and Pennsylvania where the range in monthly  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values is -132 to -21‰. A  
232 smaller range in monthly  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of -90 to -11‰ is observed at the coastal sites of  
233 Massachusetts. Modern monthly precipitation values (from PRISM) range from 50 to 140 mm  
234 across the region (Figure 3B) and show distinctive seasonality patterns. The inland sites receive  
235 more precipitation during the warm season while the coastal sites of Massachusetts receive more  
236 even monthly precipitation totals with modest peaks during March-April and November-  
237 December (purple shading, Figure 3B).

238 Estimating the change in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values using Eq. 2 and 3 reveals that a decrease in either  
239 cold- or warm-season precipitation inputs would only have a moderate effect on  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values  
240 across the region (Figure 3C,D). For example, a 50% reduction in cold-season precipitation  
241 would only increase  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values by a maximum 10.6%. Conversely, a 100% reduction would  
242 only lead to a maximum increase of 23.4%. Similarly, 50% and 100% reductions in warm-

243 season precipitation would only decrease  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values by up to 8.1‰ and 27.6‰, respectively.  
244 Furthermore, combined reductions in both cold- and warm-season precipitation inputs would  
245 likely neutralize changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values across the region as an increase of ~10‰ driven by  
246 halving winter precipitation could be offset by a decrease of ~8‰ resulting from a halving of  
247 summer precipitation, yielding a net effect of only ~2‰.

248 Additionally, our model shows that decreases in cold- or warm-season precipitation  
249 would produce greater changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values at the inland sites compared to the coastal sites  
250 of Massachusetts (Figure 3C). For example, because cold-season precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values at the  
251 inland sites (mean of -91‰) are lower than at the coastal sites (mean of -63‰), a decrease in  
252 cold-season precipitation would generate larger changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values at the inland sites.

### 253 **3.2. Pollen-inferred vegetation changes**

254 Pollen-inferred vegetation changes at Heart Lake (NY), Twin Ponds (VT), Blanding Lake  
255 (PA), and Deep-Taunton Pond (MA) all include a significant transition at 9-8 kyrs BP from  
256 abundant conifer tree species, such as *Picea* and *Pinus* (green shading, Figure 4) to broadleaved  
257 deciduous species, such as *Quercus* (maroon shading, Figure 4). During the past 8 kyrs, *Quercus*  
258 pollen was most abundant in southeastern Massachusetts at Deep-Taunton Pond as well as at  
259 Crooked Pond (Shuman et al., 2001), but *Betula* and *Fagus* pollen became important at the three  
260 mixed forest sites, Heart Lake, Twin Ponds, and Blanding Lake (Figure 4). At these sites, *Tsuga*  
261 also remained an important conifer after 8 kyr B.P. (light green, Figure 4), but all four pollen  
262 records capture a sharp decline in *Tsuga* abundance from ca. 5.5-3 kyrs B.P. when deciduous  
263 angiosperms became most abundant across the region. Afterwards, some conifer taxa, such  
264 *Tsuga* and *Pinus*, increased in abundance but never recovered the dominance observed before 8

265 kyrs B.P. Grass (Poaceae) pollen remained low throughout the records indicating the dominance  
266 of forests until the historic land clearance of the past 300 yrs.

267 Regionally, the dominant conifers of late Pleistocene and early Holocene vegetation  
268 suggest a cold and dry climate during the early Holocene (Webb et al., 1993). The major shift in  
269 vegetation from conifer forests to deciduous forests by 8 ka is consistent with a change towards a  
270 warm and wet climate during most of the Holocene after the collapse of LIS (Shuman et al.,  
271 2002). Consistent with lake-level reconstructions from the region (Shuman and Burrell, 2017),  
272 the increased abundance of mesic (highly moisture-dependent) taxa, such as *Betula*, *Fagus*, and  
273 *Tsuga* indicate an increase in regional moisture availability after 9-8 kyrs B.P. (Webb et al.,  
274 1993; Marsicek et al., 2013; Shuman et al., 2019),

### 275 **3.3. Pollen-inferred precipitation seasonality**

276 Changes in precipitation inputs reconstructed using the modern analog technique show  
277 sub-regional coherency and major seasonality changes over the past 14 kyrs (Figure 5). Late  
278 Pleistocene and early Holocene precipitation inputs were lower than today (yellow lines are  
279 lower than purple lines in Figure 5), while late Pleistocene and early Holocene (yellow lines,  
280 Figure 5) precipitation inputs are characterized by greater precipitation seasonality compared to  
281 modern (dark purple, Figure 5). Furthermore, the increase in Holocene precipitation inputs was  
282 smaller during the summer months than during the winter months. Early Holocene precipitation  
283 regimes across the entire region appear to have been dominated by summer precipitation inputs,  
284 similar to the modern precipitation inputs observed in the inland areas of New York and  
285 Vermont today (Figure 5).

286 In contrast, the mid- to late Holocene is characterized by low precipitation seasonality as  
287 winter months precipitation inputs increased substantially during the Holocene (Figure 5).  
288 Eastern and coastal areas in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts have undergone the largest changes  
289 in precipitation seasonality over the past 14 kyrs. Both regions show increases of >70 mm during  
290 winter months and an increase of <40 mm during summer months. In comparison, the sites in  
291 New York and Vermont show an increase in winter precipitation of ~50 mm/month and an  
292 increase in summer precipitation of ~35 mm/month (Figure 5).

### 293 **3.4. Pollen-inferred hydroclimate trends**

294 Time series of pollen-inferred seasonal precipitation changes reveal several important  
295 details on the time evolution of regional hydroclimate (Figure 6A). The reconstructions show  
296 three distinctive hydroclimate features: (1) a wet Younger-Dryas interval (12.9-11.7 ka), more  
297 prominent at the northern sites (NY and VT) than at the southern or coastal sites (PA and MA),  
298 which is consistent with other lines of evidence for increased precipitation during this time  
299 interval in the region (Grigg et al., 2021); (2) a region-wide dry early Holocene (11.7-8.2 ka);  
300 and (3) a progressive increase in precipitation during the mid- to late Holocene (>6 ka-present)  
301 particularly in Massachusetts near the North Atlantic coast and not in Vermont. The entire region  
302 has seen a reduction in the warm/cold season ratio of precipitation such that seasonal  
303 precipitation inputs are close to being equal during the late Holocene. In contrast, early Holocene  
304 warm season precipitation inputs were twice those of the cold season (Figure 6B).

305 These precipitation trends are attributable to ocean circulation changes during the  
306 Younger-Dryas interval and to the presence of the ice sheet until ca. 8 ka. Both factors could  
307 have altered advection of moisture into the region. During the Younger-Dryas interval, sea  
308 surface temperature changes over the North Atlantic may have temporarily altered the storm

309 track along the east coast of North America, delivering increased moisture in the region (Kirby et  
310 al., 2002). Equally, the persistence of a glacial anti-cyclone over the ice sheet until ca. 8 ka  
311 would have limited the northward advection of moisture into the region (Shuman et al., 2002).  
312 The loss of the ice sheet is perhaps the single largest driver behind the rapid increase in  
313 precipitation inputs between early and mid-Holocene, while other factors such as insolation  
314 anomalies probably drove precipitation changes into the late Holocene (Shuman and Marsicek,  
315 2016).

316 At the inland sites, both cold- and warm-season precipitation increase towards modern  
317 values after ~10 ka, but cold-season precipitation increased more than warm-season precipitation  
318 (Figure 7). Therefore, both seasons contribute nearly equally from 8 ka to present. At the coastal  
319 site of Deep-Taunton, cold-season precipitation inputs during the late Pleistocene were ~40%  
320 lower than modern. At this site, cold-season precipitation inputs after 8 ka increased further by  
321 another ~30%. In contrast, this coastal site saw little change in warm-season precipitation inputs  
322 during the past 14 kyrs (~15% of modern).

### 323 **3.5. Modeled $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ values during the past 14kyrs**

324 The potential impacts of the reconstructed changes in precipitation seasonality on  
325  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  were tested using Eq.2. To predict the potential magnitude of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  change related to  
326 the changing seasonality of precipitation over the past 14 kyrs. we combined modern monthly  
327  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values (OIPC) from individual pollen sites with pollen-inferred monthly precipitation inputs.  
328 The model assumes no change in monthly precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values (i.e., it uses constant modern  
329 monthly OIPC  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values), and shows that changes in seasonality alone would have caused  
330  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values to peak during the late Pleistocene (Figure 7B, orange lines). At the time, warm  
331 season precipitation inputs were ~20% higher than cold season precipitation inputs, which were



332 at their lowest levels of the past 14 kyrs (40% of modern; Figure 7A). Although modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
333 values decreased by  $\sim 10\%$  across the region during the Holocene as cold season precipitation  
334 inputs increased, these modeled values were far more stable than the 10-40% change in seasonal  
335 precipitation (compare Figure 7A with orange lines in Figure 7B). These results agree with our  
336 modeled expectations of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values given seasonal changes in precipitation (Figure 3C,D).

337 Coastal sites like Deep-Taunton record larger increases in cold-season precipitation  
338 inputs ( $\sim 60\%$ ) compared to the inland sites (Figure 6-7), but modeled and reconstructed cold-  
339 season  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values are higher along the coast than at the inland sites (Figure 3A). Consequently,  
340 the high cold season  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values at this site can offset an increase in cold season precipitation  
341 inputs creating a continuous decline in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values spanning over the last 14 kyrs (Figure 3C).  
342 These results are also consistent with the modest change in modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values inferred  
343 across the region (orange lines, Figure 7B).

### 344 **3.6. Reconstructed $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$ values during the past 14 kyrs**

345 Reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values have similar magnitudes and directions of change  
346 across all sites (Figure 7B, blue lines). The reconstructed trends differ in detail, but except for  
347 Twin Ponds, the  $n\text{-C}_{29}$  records indicate that  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values were  $\sim 10\%$  more positive than  
348 today during early to mid-Holocene (Figure 7). Additionally,  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values from New York  
349 and Vermont are typically  $\sim 20\%$  lower than those from Pennsylvania and Massachusetts as  
350 expected from the modern isotopic gradients (e.g., as calculated by OPIC; Figure 3A). Although  
351 each record also contains unique patterns of high frequency variability of 20-40%, the long-term  
352 trends generally conform with expectations simulated from the pollen data (compare orange and  
353 blue lines, Figure 7B).

354 As the model assumes no change in monthly precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values over the past 14  
355 kyrs, we hypothesize that the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  trends would have deviated substantially from modeled  
356  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values if changes in moisture sources, pathways, or in soil evaporation regimes occurred  
357 in the past. The similarity between modeled and reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values suggests that the  
358 LIS presence limited the advection of subtropical moisture into the region and created extremely  
359 low annual precipitation inputs during the early Holocene. However, as proposed by Schartman  
360 et al. (2020), we find that moisture sources in the region remained the same. Moreover, if warm  
361 summers and high summer insolation during early and mid-Holocene affected soil water  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
362 values by enhancing evaporation, then the reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values would have been  
363 consistently more positive than the pollen-inferred  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values. Yet the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records are  
364 either within or below the range of modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values, which indicates that soil evaporation  
365 did not play a major role in modifying soil moisture  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values.

366 Consequently, our results show that the region's hydroclimate was likely modulated by  
367 the LIS presence and associated high-pressure, anticyclone atmospheric movements during the  
368 early Holocene (Shuman et al., 2002). However, after the final LIS collapse, the change in the  
369 frequency of northward advection of moisture especially during the winter did not substantially  
370 alter moisture sources and pathways (Figure 5 and 6). Furthermore, unless early Holocene soil  
371 evaporation closely offset a negative shift in  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values driven by changes in atmospheric  
372 circulation, our  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records and pollen-derived sensitivity test indicate that neither  
373 process dramatically changed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values despite the large climate forcing involved. With the  
374 final LIS collapse by  $\sim 8$  ka, the region experienced major increases in seasonal precipitation  
375 inputs, but the relative balance of changes across seasons produced only small changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
376 values (Figures 5-7). Therefore, these results confirm that  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  is sensitive to and tracks

377 major changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ , but the combined effects of seasonal changes in precipitation can  
378 reduce the amplitude of  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  signals compared to the associated seasonal precipitation  
379 changes (Figure 7). Interpretation of leaf-wax  $\delta^2\text{H}$  records, therefore, can benefit from  
380 comparison with other hydroclimate reconstructions.

381 In addition to the major trends, the pollen-inferred precipitation regimes suggest century-  
382 scale variability across the region (Figs. 6 and 7), which is closely replicated by evidence for  
383 lake-level changes from the northeastern U.S. (Shuman et al., 2019). However, when monthly  
384 precipitation reconstructions were converted to  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values using Eq. 2 (orange lines, Figure  
385 7B), the century-scale variability – and longer events such as the anomalously high precipitation  
386 during the Younger Dryas – were not detected. The lack of century-scale variability in modeled  
387  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values arises, in isotope space, for the same reason that the long-term trends experienced  
388 only small changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values: even large percentage changes in total precipitation  
389 produce small net changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values (Figure 3). This is especially the case when the same  
390 direction of precipitation change occurs in different seasons, yielding opposite isotopic direction  
391 of changes that cancel each other. Moreover, the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records indicate large centennial-  
392 scale isotopic variability, but this variability is neither consistent with the patterns expected from  
393 the pollen nor consistent across sites (Figure 7B). This centennial isotopic variability could  
394 represent shifts in precipitation sources as the reconstructed values exceed the calibration  
395 uncertainty (1 s.d.=12‰; Stefanescu et al., in press). However, the low temporal resolution of  
396 our  $n\text{-C}_{29}$  records prevents us from making inferences about centennial scale shifts in  
397 precipitation sources. Twin Ponds (VT) may highlight one of the most extreme examples of  
398 other potential influences.

### 399 **3.7. $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$ anomaly at Twin Ponds, Vermont**

400 The Twin Ponds  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  record shows a substantial deviation from modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
401 values and regional  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  patterns (Figure 7B). However, the two New York  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$   
402 records (Figure 7B, Schartman et al., 2020) do not show the same anomaly and are inconsistent  
403 with a regional change in circulation pathways or sources across the northern part of the region.  
404 Due to the geographic proximity and climate similarity of Twin Ponds and the two New York  
405 sites, we infer that this particular sediment record was likely influenced by lake specific  
406 variations, such as changes in *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane source.

407 Pollen-inferred vegetation changes at and near our sites (Figure 4) show a shift from a  
408 gymnosperm- to an angiosperm-dominated vegetation during the Holocene. Average  
409 fractionation factors between *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane and precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values are comparable for  
410 gymnosperms and angiosperms (within 6‰; Stefanescu et al., in press). Moreover, the  
411 vegetation shift is not unique to Twin Ponds (Figure 4). Therefore, the early Holocene vegetation  
412 transition is an unlikely explanation for the prolonged negative anomaly in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values at  
413 Twin Ponds.

414 Even though *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane is predominantly synthesized by terrestrial plants, aquatic  
415 plants can also synthesize *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane in small amounts and could be an additional source of  
416 unusual isotopic values. An aquatic source may be particularly important at Twin Ponds where  
417 our primary core was collected from a productive littoral bench distal from the inlet, at a shallow  
418 depth of only 0.79 m. The fractionation factor between the aquatically produced *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane  
419 and  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  ( $\epsilon_{\text{app}}$ ) is ~30‰ larger than that of terrestrial plants (Stefanescu et al., in press),  
420 therefore, a shift to aquatically produced *n*-alkanes would generate a negative excursion in  
421 reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values at Twin Ponds. Littoral terrestrial vegetation such as grasses  
422 may also be an important additional source.  $\epsilon_{\text{app}}$  in grasses is also ~30‰ larger than in terrestrial

423 plants (Stefanescu et al., in press) and, therefore, *n*-C<sub>29</sub> compounds derived from grasses would  
424 also generate a negative excursion in reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values.

425 To evaluate the potential role of alternative *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane sources within the lake, we  
426 measured *n*-C<sub>29</sub>  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values in four sediment samples derived from the deep-water core collected  
427 at a depth of 7.8 m from Twin Ponds (Figure 7B; black squares).  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values for these four  
428 samples spanning over the mid-Holocene differ significantly from the  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  trends  
429 observed in the shallow core (blue line, Figure 7B). Furthermore, the reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$   
430 values fall within the range of modeled  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  based on the pollen data (orange lines, Figure  
431 7B). Despite the small number of samples derived from the deep-water core, the data shows  
432 major differences in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values between the shallow and deep-water cores, as well as in  
433 the long-term  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  trends. Given that proximity to shore can drive a dominant aquatic and  
434 grass input of *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane into lake sediments, and that both aquatic plants and grasses have  
435 higher  $\epsilon_{\text{app}}$  values compared to those of higher terrestrial plants, we infer that the negative  
436 excursion in reconstructed  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  values in the shallow-water core at Twin Ponds was  
437 driven by increased aquatic or grass inputs. Further analysis is needed to quantify *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane  
438 sources and their  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values in the deep-water core in order to assess the amount of aquatic and  
439 grass input and its effects on *n*-C<sub>29</sub>  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values within lakes.

#### 440 4. CONCLUSIONS

441 Our new leaf-wax  $\delta^2\text{H}$  records from the northeastern U.S. suggest a small change in  
442  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values over the past 14 kyrs. The new *n*-alkane data agree with other, previously  
443 published records (Puleo et al., 2020; Schartman et al., 2020) and indicate little change in mean  
444 annual precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ) during a major regional climate transition. The lack of  
445 major changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values poses a fascinating paradox, which we resolve by combining the

446 modern distribution of monthly  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values with the pollen-inferred changes in seasonal  
447 precipitation inputs to model the expected changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values given seasonality changes in  
448 precipitation inputs over the past 14 kyrs. Our model generates Holocene  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  expectations  
449 given only the reconstructed shifts in the seasonality of precipitation and does not account for  
450 changes in moisture sources, moisture pathways, or soil moisture evaporation, which may have  
451 influenced  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$ . The resulting agreement in the predicted  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  patterns and those  
452 measured with our new  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records confirm that, although precipitation increased across  
453 the region,  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  decreased by only 10‰ due to a shift in the seasonality of precipitation.

454         We hypothesize that the LIS presence and associated anti-cyclone during the late  
455 Pleistocene and early Holocene likely prevented the advection of moisture into the region  
456 especially during the winter. The pattern explains the low precipitation rates inferred from the  
457 pollen data, except when unusual conditions over the North Atlantic favored high precipitation  
458 during the Younger Dryas. However, neither change produced large variations in the isotopic  
459 values of regional precipitation. Subsequently, the LIS collapse by 8 ka allowed cold-season  
460 precipitation to increase such that both cold- and warm-season precipitation fell more equally  
461 across the region since 8 ka. However, these seasonal changes in precipitation, which affected  
462 both the vegetation and regional lake levels, translated to only minor changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values.  
463 These results suggest that precipitation inputs in the region were not modulated by changes in  
464 moisture sources or moisture pathways over the past 14 kyrs. Consequently, our results show that  
465  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP\_C29}}$  records are sensitive to  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  changes in the mid-latitudes, but changes in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
466 values can be dampened by counterbalancing shifts in seasonal precipitation changes.

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473 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

474           Data associated with this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.15786/20126495>.

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636 Table 1. Site locations and modern environmental parameters.

Site	Analysis	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation m	MAP mm	MAP $\delta^2\text{H}\text{‰}$	MAAT °C	Citation
Brandreth Bog (NY)	pollen	43.92	-74.68	582	1193	-74	4.9.0	Overpeck, J.T. 1985
Heart Lake (NY)	pollen <i>n</i> -C <sub>29</sub>	44.18	-73.97	665	1137	-76	5.0	Whitehead and Jackson 1990 Schartman et al., 2020
Moose Lake (NY)	<i>n</i> -C <sub>29</sub>	44.37	-74.06	475	1075	-74	5.1	Schartman et al., 2020
Balsam Lake (NY)	pollen	42.03	-74.60	880	1381	-64	5.0	Ibe, R.A. 1982
Knob Hill (VT)	pollen	44.36	-72.37	378	1015	-70	5.7	Oswald et al., 2018
Twin Ponds (VT)	pollen <i>n</i> -C <sub>29</sub>	44.06	-72.58	409	1072	-69	5.5	This study
Blanding Pond (PA)	pollen <i>n</i> -C <sub>29</sub>	41.80	-75.68	454	1127	-59	7.6	This study
Spring Lake (PA)	pollen	41.67	-76.35	364	960	-60	8.2	White et al., 1985
Hubbard Brook (NH)	precipitation soil	43.78	-71.73	755	1129	-71	6.6	Campbell and Green, 2019
Black Pond (MA)	pollen	41.33	-70.79	13	1213	-43	10.4	Oswald et al., 2018
Crooked Pond (MA)	<i>n</i> -C <sub>29</sub>	41.89	-70.65	45	1274	-46	9.9	This study
Deep- Falmouth Pond (MA)	pollen	41.56	-70.64	27	1260	-48	10.4	Oswald et al., 2018
Deep- Taunton Pond (MA)	pollen	41.88	-71.01	8	1260	-47	10	Oswald et al., 2018
Tannersville Bog (PA)	pollen	41.04	-75.26	282	1307	-51	9.2	Cai and Yu, 2011
Uncle Seth's Pond (MA)	pollen	41.43	-70.66	20	1251	-43	10.4	Oswald et al., 2018
Upper Wallface Pond (NY)	pollen	44.15	-74.06	981	1413	-80	3.7	Whitehead and Jackson, 1990
Winneconnet Pond	pollen	41.97	-71.12	22	1265	-48	10.0	Suter, S.M. 1985.



637 **Table 2.** Radiocarbon analyses.

Lake	Depth (m)	Thickness (cm)	Lab No.	Material	<sup>14</sup> C yr B.P.	Error (yr)	Calibrated age range B.P.		
							5%	Median	95%
Twin Ponds	42	2	UCIAMS- 127563	Charcoal	1530	15	1365	1391	1454
Twin Ponds	76.5*	1	UCIAMS- 127562	Charcoal	430	15	482	499	509
Twin Ponds	162.5	1	UCIAMS- 127561	Charcoal	3040	25	3177	3248	3332
Twin Ponds	266.5	1	UCIAMS- 127560	Charcoal	4225	25	4659	4758	4841
Twin Ponds	386.5**	2	UCIAMS- 121904	core 48	9970	60	11273	11438	11684
Twin Ponds	414.5**	2	UCIAMS- 121905	core 48	11070	40	12900	13000	13080
Blanding Lake	73	2	UCIAMS- 190318	Charcoal	625	45	550	602	656
Blanding Lake	133	2	UCIAMS- 190319	Charcoal	2225	35	2150	2226	2323
Blanding Lake	250	2	UCIAMS- 190320	Charcoal	3450	70	3551	3709	3862
Blanding Lake	328	1	UCIAMS- 190321	Charcoal	4280	20	4835	4847	4860
Blanding Lake	368	1	UCIAMS- 190322	Charcoal	4410	20	4885	4977	5043
Blanding Lake	480*	2	UCIAMS- 190323	Charcoal	16300	80	19526	19691	19861
Blanding Lake	541	1	UCIAMS- 190324	Charcoal	7230	130	7833	8054	8294
Blanding Lake	577	1	UCIAMS- 190325	Charcoal	7925	50	8621	8767	8967
Blanding Lake	652	2	UCIAMS- 190326	Charcoal	8950	60	9900	10057	10208
Blanding Lake	738	1	UCIAMS- 190327	Charcoal	12080	45	13821	13930	14052
Crooked Pond	62	1	UCIAMS- 83271	Charcoal	1415	20	1297	1319	1344
Crooked Pond	77	1	UCIAMS- 83272	Charcoal	2190	20	2130	2240	2298
Crooked Pond	100	1	UCIAMS- 83273	Charcoal	2850	20	2886	2958	3039
Crooked Pond	110	1	UCIAMS- 83274	Charcoal	3080	20	3235	3291	3354
Crooked Pond	128	1	UCIAMS- 83275	Charcoal	3520	20	3723	3779	3858
Crooked Pond	139	1	UCIAMS- 111581	Charcoal	4025	20	4428	4474	4531
Crooked Pond	142	1	UCIAMS- 111582	Charcoal	4245	20	4733	4835	4849
Crooked Pond	152	1	UCIAMS- 111583	Charcoal	4635	25	5317	5412	5447

Crooked Pond	176	1	UCIAMS-111584	Charcoal	4840	25	5488	5581	5596
Crooked Pond	181	1	UCIAMS-111585	Charcoal	4915	20	5597	5634	5691
Crooked Pond	205	1	UCIAMS-83276	Charcoal	4715	20	5333	5382	5554
Crooked Pond	350**	5	Beta- 94238	Bulk	6860	60	7605	7694	7817
Crooked Pond	624**	8	Beta- 94239	Bulk	9220	70	10258	10387	10549

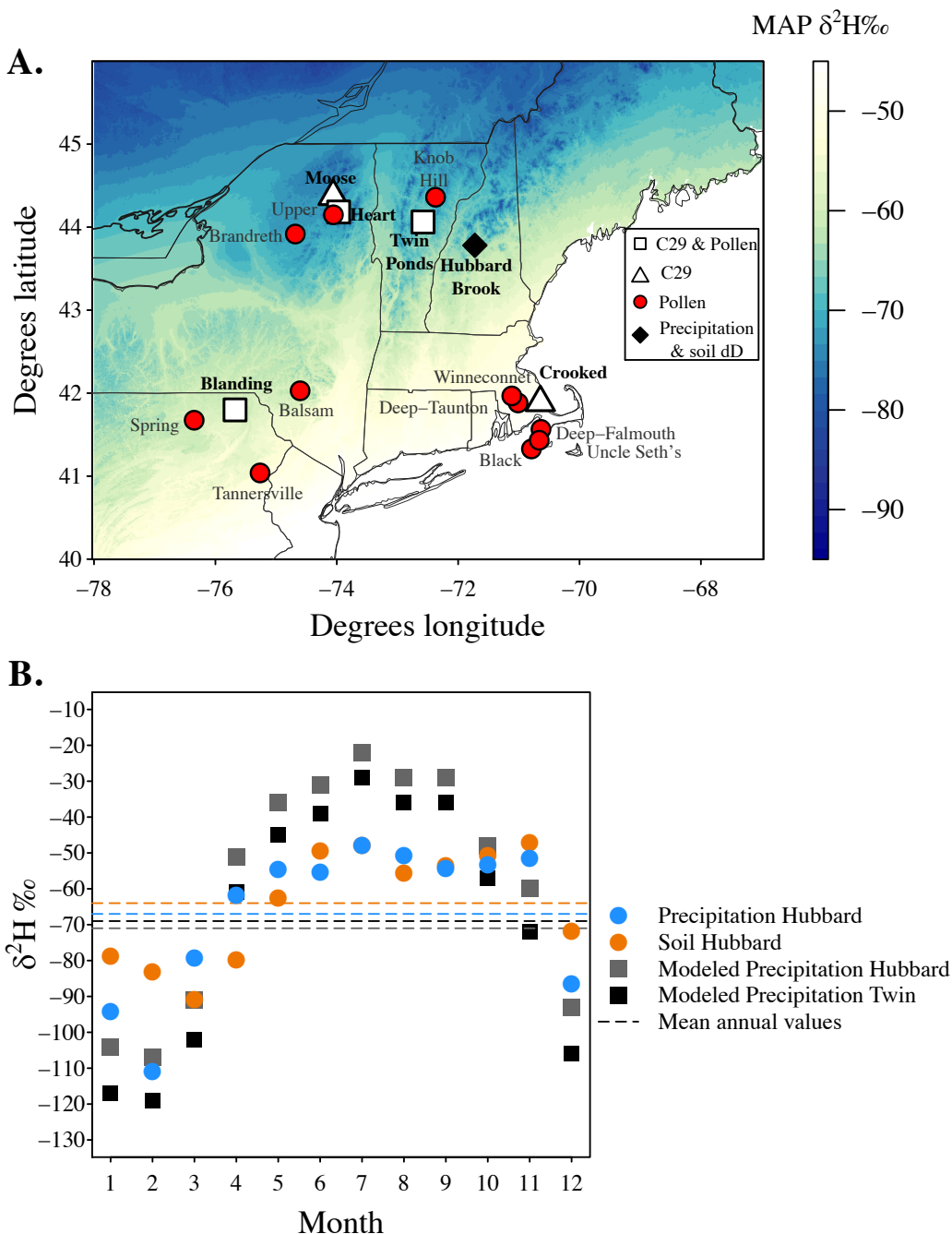
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638 Notes:

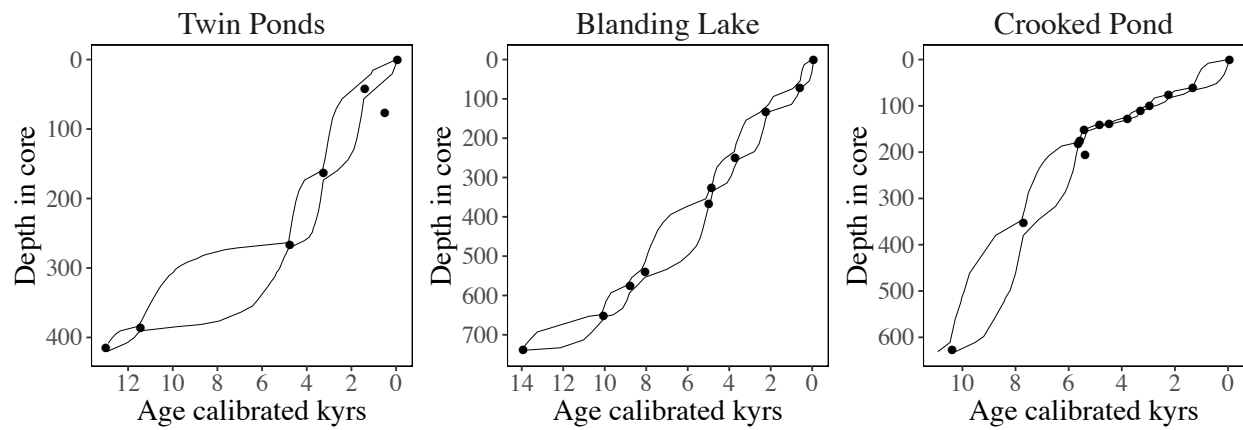
639 \* Age reversal (not used in chronology)

640 \*\* Twin Ponds: age from Core TP48 (Mandl et al., 2016); Crooked Pond age from Core D

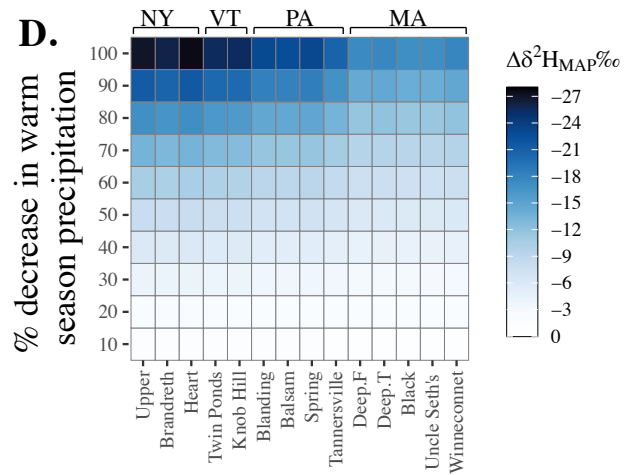
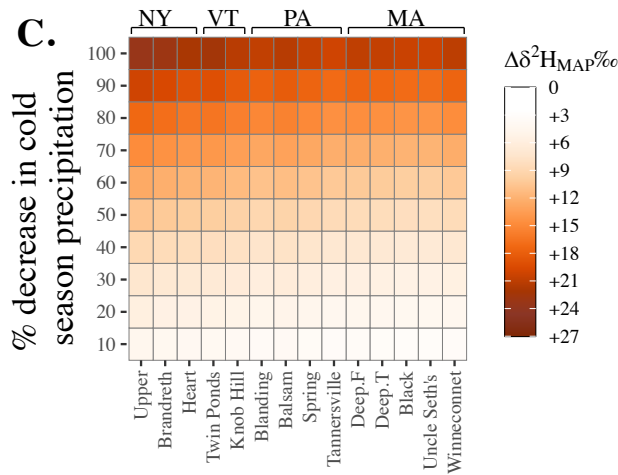
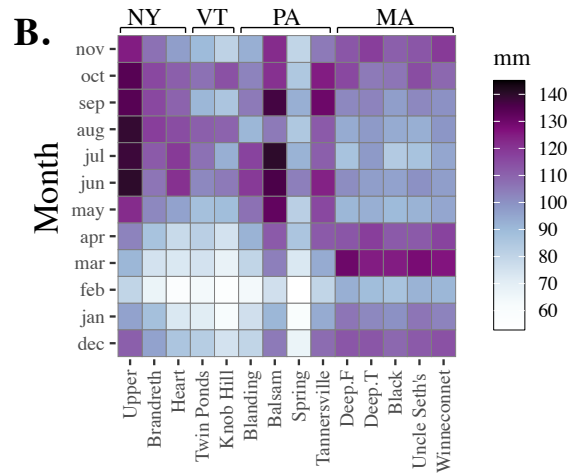
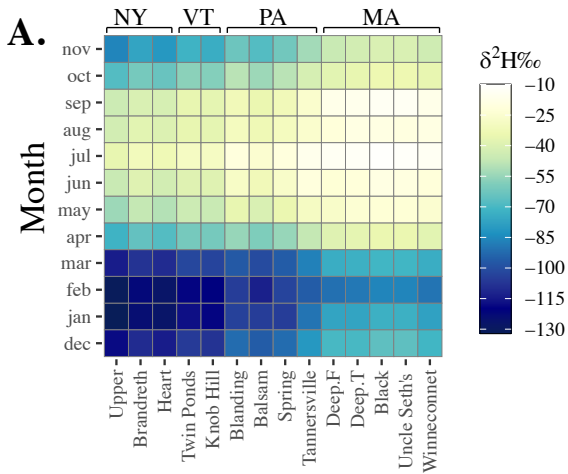
641 (Shuman et al., 2001)



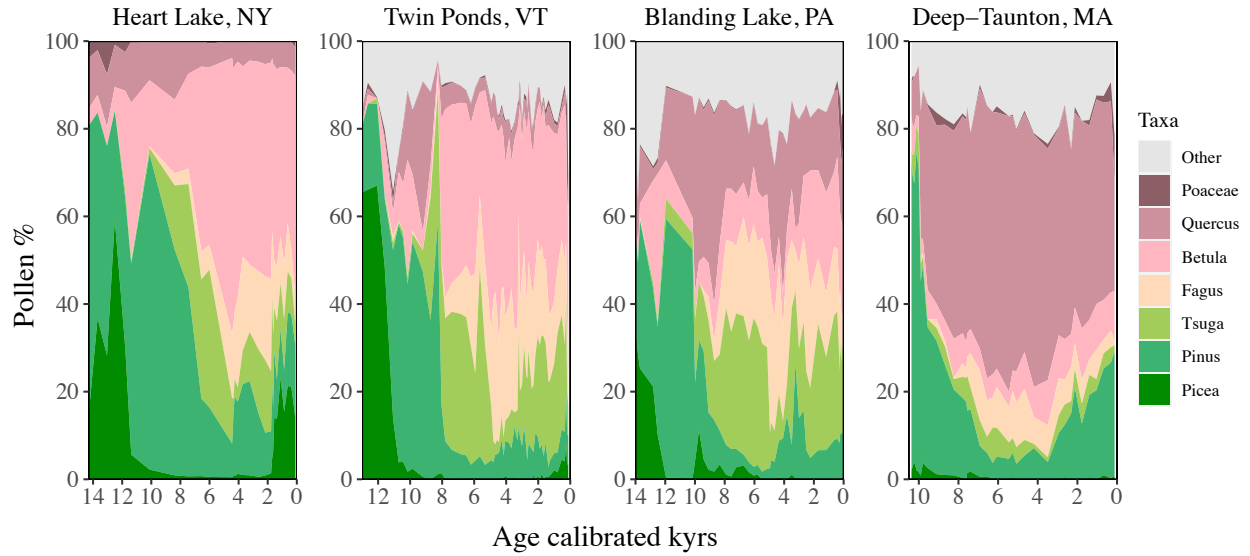
642 **Figure 1. A.** Map showing the northeastern U.S. region and the site locations for fossil pollen  
 643 and *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane records; mean annual precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values ( $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$ ) are shown in the  
 644 background with color scale to the right. **B.** Averaged monthly and annual  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of  
 645 measured precipitation and soil moisture from Hubbard Brook (New Hampshire) and modeled  
 646 monthly and annual precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values at Hubbard Brook and Twin Ponds (Vermont).



647 **Figure 2.** Age models for Twin Ponds (VT) (shallow water core), Blanding Lake (PA), and  
 648 Crooked Pond (MA). Radiocarbon ages are shown with black circles and the black lines  
 649 represent the 90<sup>th</sup> percent credible intervals of modeled ages.

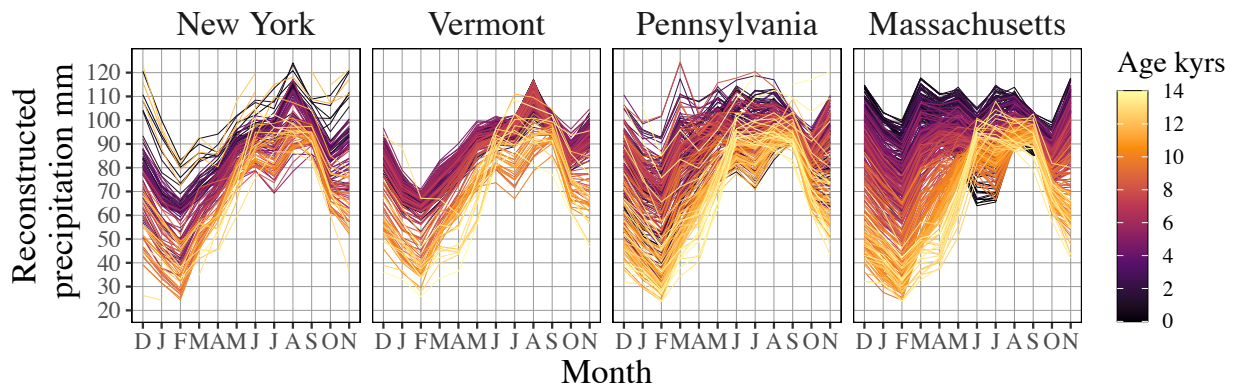


650 **Figure 3. A.** Monthly precipitation  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values at individual sites (data from OIPC); **B.** Monthly  
 651 precipitation input values at individual sites (data from Prism); **C.** Modeled change in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$   
 652 values as a function of % decrease in cold season precipitation at individual sites; **D.** Modeled  
 653 change in  $\delta^2\text{H}_{\text{MAP}}$  values as a function of % decrease in warm season precipitation at individual  
 654 sites.



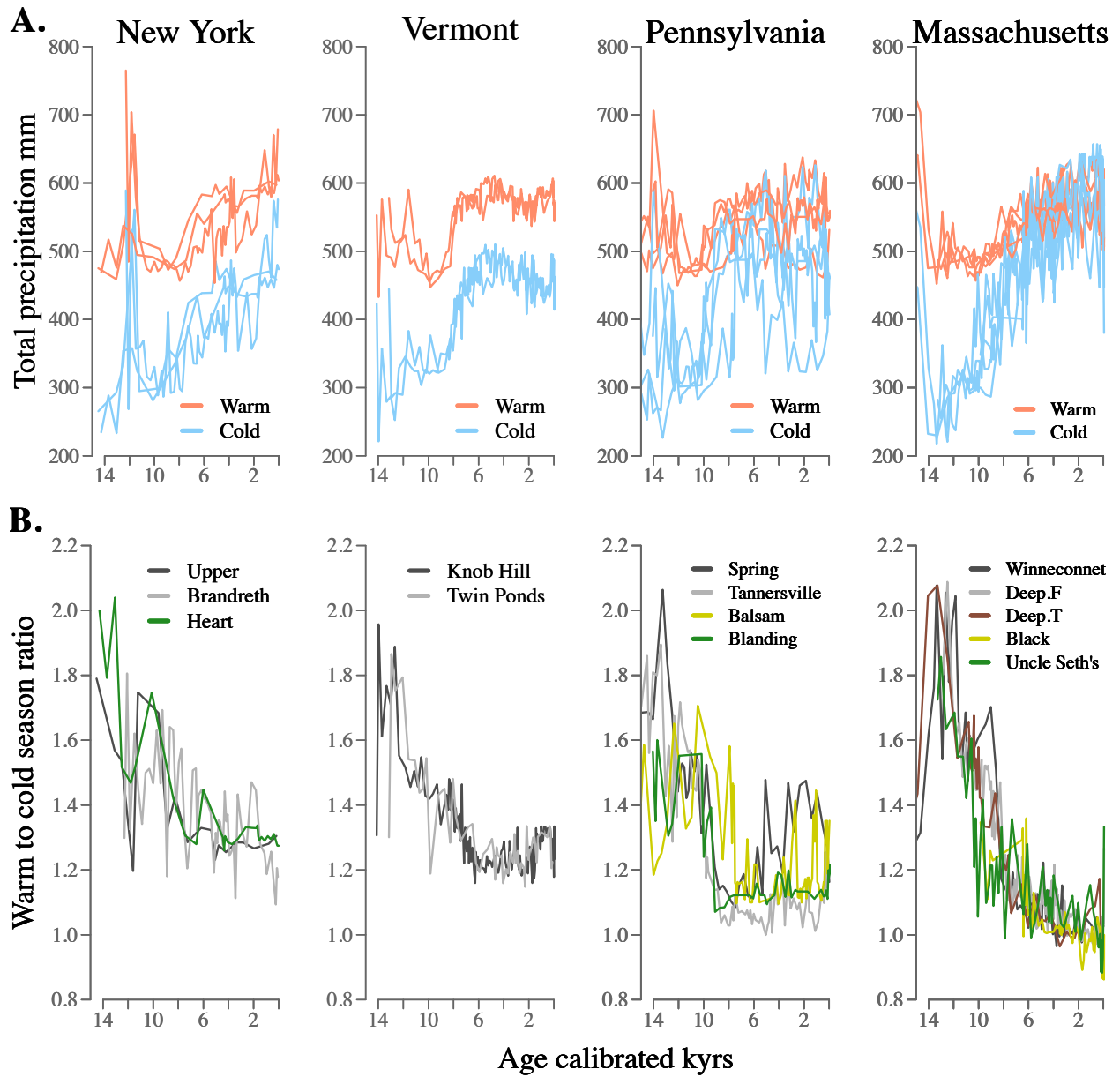
655

656 **Figure 4.** Changes in pollen percentages of major taxa vs. age at Heart Lake, Blanding Lake,  
 657 Twin Ponds (deep-water core) and at the nearby Deep-Taunton Pond (closest to Crooked Pond,  
 658 MA). Gymnosperm taxa are shown in green and angiosperm taxa are maroon. “Other” includes  
 659 all other terrestrial pollen types from a list of 54 regional types used in the modern analog  
 660 technique (Marsicek et al., 2013).

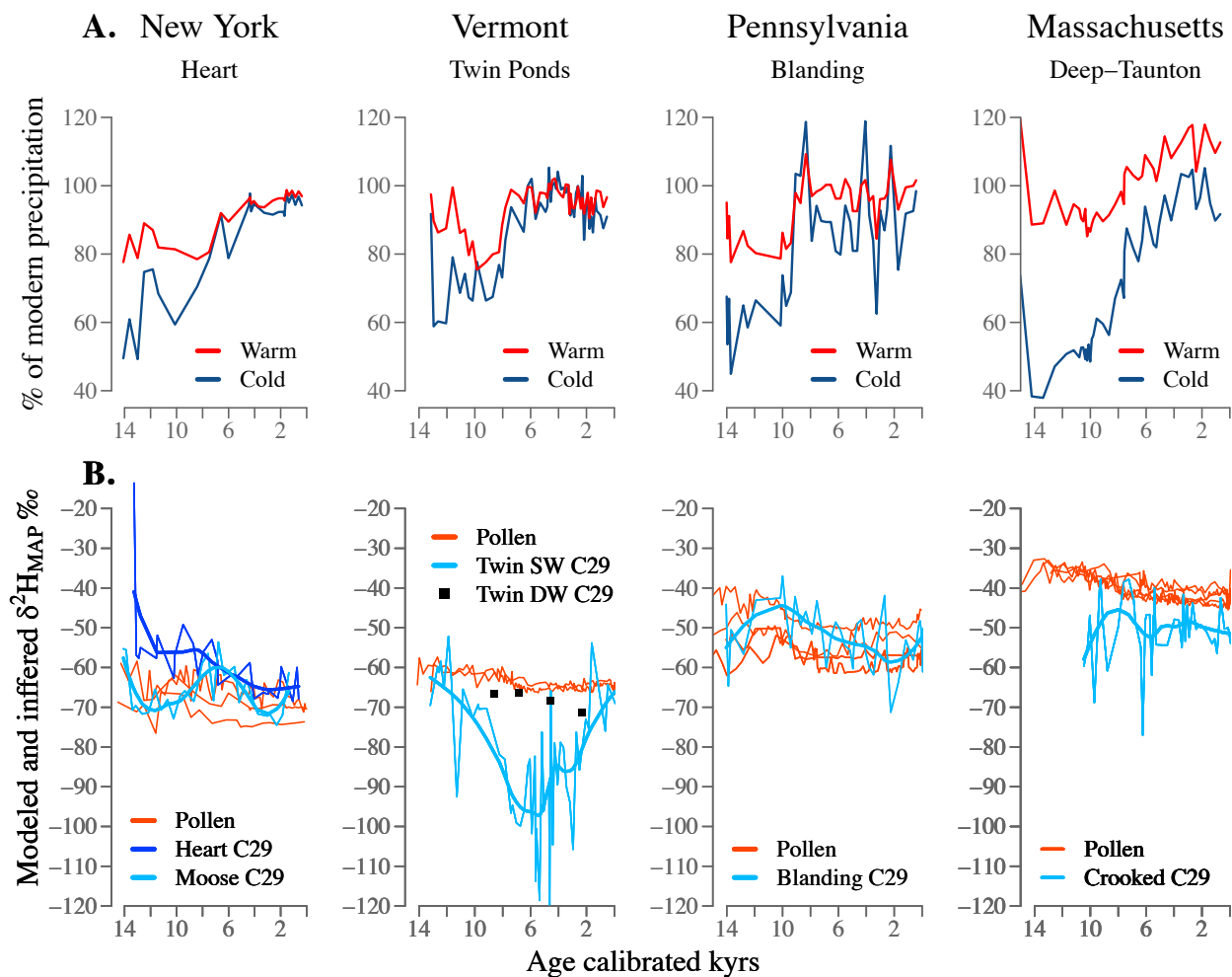


661

662 **Figure 5.** Pollen-inferred monthly precipitation values across individual regions (i.e., states) with  
 663 calibrated age for color-scale. Each panel includes all the pollen-records from individual regions  
 664 and black lines represent the monthly precipitation values for the core tops (i.e., modern).



665 **Figure 6. A.** Pollen-inferred seasonal precipitation inputs: warm season shown in orange, cold  
 666 season shown in blue. Each panel includes all the pollen records from individual regions. **B.**  
 667 Warm to cold season ratio of precipitation plotted for individual pollen records as well as  
 668 regionally.



669 **Figure 7. A.** Pollen-inferred % of modern seasonal precipitation for selected sites; the last 600  
 670 years are excluded to avoid European land clearance effects on the reconstructions. **B.** Modeled  
 671  $\delta^2H_{MAP}$  values at all fossil pollen sites based on pollen inferred seasonal changes in precipitation  
 672 (orange lines) and reconstructed  $\delta^2H_{MAP}$  values based on the *n*-C<sub>29</sub>-alkane (blue lines).  
 673 Reconstructed  $\delta^2H_{MAP}$  values at Twin Ponds from the sediment core collected in the shallow,  
 674 near-shore region of the lake (0.79 m depth) are shown in blue and labeled “Twin SW C29”,  
 675 while the reconstructed  $\delta^2H_{MAP}$  values from the sediment core collected from the deepest  
 676 location within the lake (7.8 m) are shown with black squares and labeled “Twin DW C29”.