

1 **Coversheet for EarthArXiv**

2 **Title:**

3 Worldwide consequences of a mid-Holocene cooling in the Nordic Seas

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8 **Teaser:** The secrets of a 6.8 ka BP cooling event reshape our understanding of ancient
9 climates and their impact on the future.

10 **The Earth's climate, marked by long-term shifts and punctuated events, shapes**
11 **terrestrial and marine ecosystems. Despite the present interglacial period's warmth and**
12 **stability compared to preceding glaciations, the Holocene has witnessed significant cooling**
13 **events with worldwide consequences. Leveraging marine records from the Nordic Seas,**
14 **we provide the first detailed account of a cooling event centered around 6.8 ka BP.**
15 **Utilizing paleoceanographic proxies and advanced modelling, we unveil a distinct**
16 **subsurface water cooling, associated with a stepwise increase in sea-ice cover in the**
17 **eastern Fram Strait. Our findings emphasize the role of Greenland Sea deep convection**
18 **onset and the subsequent westward shift in Atlantic Water flow, enabling sea-ice**
19 **advection from the Barents Sea. The heightened sea-ice cover weakens Atlantic Water**
20 **advection, perturbing overturning circulation in the eastern Nordic Seas. These**
21 **perturbations propagate worldwide, affecting North Atlantic deep-water circulation,**
22 **inducing widespread hemispheric cooling, shifting the Intertropical Convergence Zone**
23 **southward, and weakening the East Asian monsoon. Incorporating rigorous modelling**

24 **supports and augments proxy-based paleoreconstructions, underscoring sea-ice dynamics**
25 **and ocean circulation's critical influence. This study highlights the potential for localized**
26 **cooling events within ostensibly stable climatic intervals, underscoring the need to**
27 **comprehend their mechanisms for precise climate predictions and informed policymaking**
28 **toward a sustainable future.**

29 **Introduction**

30 The present interglacial (1) is a relatively warm and stable interval in terms of
31 environmental conditions, especially when compared with the last glacial period (2) marked by
32 Dansgaard-Oeschger events, or Greenland interstadials (3, 4), and Greenland stadials recorded
33 both in marine and terrestrial archives. However, several prominent cooling events have been
34 identified within the Holocene (5, 6). Some of them were proven to be of regional or
35 overregional importance (5, 7). Bond et al. (8) suggested a millennial-scale cyclicity of North
36 Atlantic cooling episodes, expressed mainly as phases of increased ice rafting in the region.
37 However, cyclicity has later been questioned (9) as different dynamical processes seem to have
38 played a major role in the particular events (5).

39 Three climate oscillations were recorded in the early Holocene section of Greenland ice
40 cores (10). These include the well-known 8.2 ka BP event (11–13), the 9.3 ka event of shorter
41 duration but almost similar amplitude (8, 14, 15), and the Preboreal Oscillation during the
42 Holocene's first centuries (16, 17). The expression of these cold relapses can also be found in
43 marine sediment records (6, 7, 18–20). Another worldwide climate deterioration occurred at 2.7
44 ka BP (21) and was most probably caused by a perturbation of the Atlantic Meridional
45 Overturning Circulation (AMOC) (22, 23), initiated by a solar irradiance anomaly (24) and a
46 subsequent disruption of deep convection in the Nordic Seas (25).

47 Wanner et al. (5) identified six cold relapses that interrupted periods of more stable and
48 warmer climate over the last 10,000 years. These events, recorded in time series of temperature
49 and humidity/precipitation and identified at least in the extratropical area of the Northern
50 Hemisphere, were centered around 8.2, 6.3, 4.7, 2.7, 1.55 and 0.55 ka BP, thus roughly
51 correlating to Bond events 0-5.

52 In this paper, we focus on the interval between 7 and 6 ka BP, generally regarded as one
53 of the warmest intervals of the Holocene in the Northern Hemisphere, during which substantial
54 cooling of subsurface waters is observed in several marine sediment records along the North
55 Atlantic Drift (NAD) in the Nordic Seas. This event, centered around 6.8 ka BP, correlates
56 roughly with the onset of cooling trends observed in different parts of the world (5, 7, 26). We
57 investigate whether the subsurface cooling in the Nordic Seas might have acted as a trigger for
58 a worldwide cooling event using both proxy paleorecords and modelling results.

59 **Results**

60 An increase in the relative abundance of *N. pachyderma* can be observed between ~8.5
61 and 8 ka BP in most of the records used in this study (Fig. 2). The increase in the abundance of
62 this polar species indicates a widespread cooling of the subsurface water (Fig. 3) associated
63 with the 8.2 ka BP event (20, 27). The signal was particularly strong in the Norwegian Sea cores
64 (MD95-2011, M17730 and M23258). In the Fram Strait, the 8.2 ka BP event had a lower
65 amplitude, and already around 8 ka BP rapid warming occurred, peaking around 7.8-7.9 ka BP.
66 This is in agreement with recent studies on the origin of the 8.2 ka BP event, indicating an
67 increase in freshwater input into the Labrador Sea and a decrease in AW export from the
68 subpolar gyre into the Nordic Seas (28, 29). As the event originated southwest of the Nordic
69 Seas, it seems obvious that the southern part of the region was more affected than its northern
70 part.

71 Shortly after the warm rebound, the sSST in the Nordic Seas started to decrease again
72 (Fig. 3). After ~7 ka BP, a further abrupt cooling occurred, culminating around 6.8 ka BP.
73 Although the age uncertainty for individual records around that time ranges from 470 years
74 (core MSM5/5-712) to 1460 years (core OCE2017-GR02), the mean ages of the peak cooling
75 fall within an interval of fewer than 300 years (6.6-6.9 ka BP), giving us confidence that both
76 the age models of individual cores and the overall chronological framework of the study are
77 correct. Only ~6 ka BP the sSST increased to levels comparable to those before 7 ka BP. In
78 almost all the records, the cooling had a similar amplitude of roughly 1.5°C. Only in the
79 southernmost record, MD95-2011 can no cooling of such an amplitude be found. However, the
80 transfer function used here reconstructs temperatures at a water depth of 10 m (27), compared
81 to 100 m in most of the other records (Table 2). This, together with a prominent increase in the
82 abundance of *N. pachyderma* between 7 and 6.5 ka BP (Fig. 2) might suggest that the cooling
83 occurred deeper (100 m), while not affecting shallower waters (~10 m) in the central Norwegian
84 Sea. In core MSM5/5-712 from the eastern Fram Strait, the cooling was twofold, with peaks
85 centered around 6.8 and 6.1 ka BP. Originally, these were described as two separate events (6).
86 However, the sSST remained lower between the two peaks than before and after them, implying
87 that the two peaks are two phases of the same event. With the available data, it is difficult to
88 determine why the event was twofold only at this specific location.

89 Despite a similar amplitude in all the records, the cold spell was the most pronounced
90 in the Fram Strait records (Fig. 3), where it stands out as the most prominent cooling event over
91 the Holocene. A cooling of comparable amplitude seems to be recorded also in core OCE2017-
92 GR02 from the continental slope of NE Greenland. This record is of notably lower temporal
93 resolution. As a result, the age of the peak cooling falls within the interval of 5.9-7.4 ka BP
94 (95% confidence range), slightly broader than in other records (95% confidence range of 6.4-
95 7.1 ka BP). However, a similar amplitude of the cooling and a fair age overlap with the other

96 records strongly suggest that the 6.8 ka BP cooling reached the NE Greenland continental slope.
97 In the southernmost records (MD95-2011 and M17730), the cooling seems to be less
98 pronounced, especially when compared to other Holocene temperature variations, e.g., the 8.2
99 ka BP event (Figs. 2 and 3). The different size fractions and transfer functions used for
100 temperature reconstructions might at least partly explain the difference in the amplitude of the
101 faunal and sSST changes between the records. However, they did not influence the relative
102 differences in the amplitudes of the 6.8 ka BP event compared to, e.g., the 8.2 ka BP event in
103 individual records. Taking into account all these indications, we can conclude that the 6.8 ka
104 BP cooling originated in the Fram Strait, as it was most prominently recorded there.

105 The sSST decrease between 7 and 6 ka BP was accompanied by changes in other proxies
106 from the records used in this study. Most notably, a stepwise increase of the P_{BIP}₂₅ index in
107 core MSM5/5-723 (30) around 7 ka BP (Fig. 4B) indicates an increase in sea-ice cover (31).
108 The increase is one of the most prominent features of the P_{BIP}₂₅ index record and the largest
109 rise of this proxy over the Holocene. Furthermore, it was preceded by a stable interval of ~1
110 kyr and followed by a gradual, roughly linear increase that lasted until the end of the record.
111 This suggests that it was one of the major shifts in the sea-ice cover in the Fram Strait during
112 the present interglacial. In the same record, the fragmentation of planktic foraminifera increased
113 around 7 ka BP (Fig. 4C), indicating the increased impact of cold, corrosive Arctic surface
114 waters on the study area (30). The enhanced dissolution of planktic foraminiferal tests in the
115 Fram Strait might also partly explain the particularly high percentages of *N. pachyderma* in this
116 area, as thin-walled tests of subpolar species (e.g., *T. quinqueloba*) can be dissolved more easily
117 in a corrosive environment than the thick-walled specimens of *N. pachyderma* (32). Both in the
118 Fram Strait (core JM10-330) and the Norwegian Sea (cores M17730 and MD95-2011), a
119 distinct decrease in planktic foraminiferal abundance occurred between 7 and 6 ka BP (Fig.
120 4D), which might also be related to the increased dissolution of foraminiferal tests. Ice rafting

121 in the Fram Strait (core MSM5/5-712) intensified between 7 and 6 ka BP (Fig. 4E) further
122 suggesting an increasing influence of Arctic waters. Meanwhile, the alkenone-based
123 reconstruction from the northern Norwegian Sea (33) shows that the interval during which the
124 subsurface cooling occurred was one of the warmest within the Holocene in terms of sea-surface
125 temperatures (Fig. 4F), in line with the September insolation at 78°N (Fig. 4A). Given the
126 transfer function used in core M23258 reconstructs sSST at 10 m water depth (34), the data
127 from this core suggest an increased temperature gradient of the uppermost water column, at
128 least in the northern Norwegian Sea (Fig. 1).

129 The results of the TraCE-21ka simulation show an increase of sea-ice concentration in
130 the eastern Fram Strait (where cores MSM5/5-723, JM10-330 and MSM5/5-712 are located)
131 and southwestern Barents Sea in the interval 6.83-6.85 ka BP compared to 7.63-7.65 ka BP
132 (Fig. 5A). In contrast, in the southeastern Nordic Seas and in the northern North Atlantic, the
133 sea-ice concentration decreased over that period and in the central and northwestern Nordic
134 Seas it remained largely unchanged. A resulting sSST (around 100 m water depth) decrease can
135 be observed two decades later (6.81-6.83 ka BP) in almost entire Nordic Seas, though
136 predominantly on their eastern margin and in the Barents Sea, while the sSST increased south
137 of the Greenland-Scotland Ridge (Fig. 5B). These results are in good agreement with the proxy-
138 based paleoreconstructions presented above, especially in terms of geographical distribution of
139 the described changes. It should be noted, however, that the subsurface cooling seems to be
140 weaker in model than in the proxy records (~0.6°C vs. ~1.5°C). This discrepancy can be
141 explained by the fact that the model shows changes in annual temperatures (and sea-ice
142 concentrations) (35), which could be smaller than changes in summer temperatures
143 reconstructed by the transfer functions (36, 37). Other model biases cannot be excluded.

145 The middle part of the Holocene is generally considered the warmest and most stable
146 interval of the present interglacial. It was characterized by high summer temperatures in the
147 mid- and high-latitude areas of the Northern Hemisphere (5, 38–42). Although the June
148 insolation, which is the strongest in the Northern Hemisphere, was already in decline (43), the
149 July and August insolation was still quite high, while the September insolation reached its
150 maximum only around 6 ka BP (Fig. 4A). Furthermore, large ice sheets delaying ocean
151 warming through katabatic winds and meltwater discharge were mostly gone (44–46) or
152 became mainly land-based (47, 48) in the middle Holocene. This is well reflected in sea-surface
153 temperature (33, 49, 50) (Fig. 4F) and terrestrial records (51) covering this interval. Depending
154 on the region and paleoenvironmental proxies used, large discrepancies exist in the boundaries
155 of the warmest phase of the Holocene (52, 53). However, regardless of the exact timing of the
156 middle Holocene (5, 39, 40, 54), the interval between 7 and 6 ka BP falls within most of its
157 definitions. Thus, this time interval can be regarded as the warmest part of the present
158 interglacial, at least in the mid- and high latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere. Despite this,
159 distinct subsurface water cooling of approximately 1.5°C is observed along the NAD,
160 suggesting a decrease in AW advection into the Nordic Seas.

161 After the 8.2 ka event, the AW inflow into the eastern Nordic Seas resumed, as shown
162 by the sSST increase in all the discussed records (Fig. 2). The Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water
163 flow speed also shows a distinct increase around that time (22). This indicates an intensification
164 of the overturning circulation in the Nordic Seas probably related to the end of the widespread
165 meltwater discharge from the Greenland Ice Sheet (GIS) (47) and the subsequent onset of deep
166 convection in the Greenland Sea (55, 56). However, since the main AW flow has been shifted
167 towards the Greenland Sea (55), cooling can be observed starting shortly thereafter, especially
168 in cores located farther north (M23258-2 and in the Fram Strait). The initial subsurface water

169 cooling might have enabled a stepwise sea-ice expansion in the eastern Fram Strait that occurred
170 around 7 ka BP (Fig. 4B). Increased sea-ice cover, in turn, must have influenced surface waters.
171 Distinct surface water cooling can be observed in core JM09-020 from Storfjordrenna, south of
172 Svalbard (50) (Fig. 4F), suggesting that the sea ice was advected into the eastern Fram Strait
173 from the western Barents Sea. Further south, however, no sign of cooling can be observed (33,
174 49, 57), indicating that the surface temperature decrease was limited roughly to the sea-ice-
175 covered area.

176 In contrast, for subsurface waters, the expansion of sea-ice cover had much more far-
177 reaching implications. Increased sea-ice cover enhanced further stepwise subsurface cooling of
178 approximately 1.5°C (Fig. 3) by acting as a positive feedback mechanism (58), i.e., by
179 strengthening the halocline and causing the AW to sink deeper below it. The subsurface water
180 cooling culminated around 6.8 ka BP. Despite a similar amplitude in all the records, it was the
181 most pronounced in the Fram Strait, where it appears to be the most prominent subsurface
182 cooling event over the Holocene. However, it was clearly marked in all records along the NAD
183 from the central Norwegian Sea to the NW Greenland Sea. The results of the TraCE-21ka
184 simulation also seem to confirm that the subsurface water cooling was induced by sea ice as
185 they show an increase in sea-ice concentration in the eastern Fram Strait prior to the sSST
186 decrease in the Nordic Seas, mostly in their eastern part (Fig. 5).

187 Such a strong subsurface water cooling presumably associated with a disruption of AW
188 advection in a region as important for ocean circulation as the Nordic Seas could have had far-
189 reaching consequences. Indeed, several studies, which we discuss below, report environmental
190 perturbations that occurred after ~6.5 ka BP and might have had a causal link with the described
191 cooling event.

192 A trend of decreasing contribution of high- $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW)
193 relative to low- $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ Southern Ocean Water (SOW) that began at about 6.5 ka BP and

194 culminated around 5 ka BP (Fig. 6C) was recorded in the subpolar NE North Atlantic (26). A
195 decrease in NADW contribution in the NE North Atlantic suggests that, despite active deep
196 convection in the Greenland Sea (55), the overturning circulation in the eastern Nordic Seas
197 was weakened, most probably by the described decrease in AW advection into this area. Further
198 consequences that are being linked with the decreasing contribution of NADW in the NE North
199 Atlantic (26) include meteorological conditions at high latitudes which were especially winter-
200 like (i.e., more similar to those during the YD and the glacial) from 6.1 to 5.0 ka BP. This is
201 indicated by high sea-salt sodium flux in Greenland ice-core data (Fig. 6D), suggesting
202 enhanced storminess (59, 60). Finally, a large proportion of cold, relatively fresh, ice-bearing
203 surface water entering the NE North Atlantic from north of Iceland is indicated by a high
204 relative abundance of hematite-stained grains (indicating that they originated from sedimentary
205 deposits in Svalbard and eastern Greenland containing red beds) and other drift ice petrologic
206 tracers (Fig. 6E) in sedimentary records from this area (Bond event 4) (7). This is also in
207 agreement with a decrease in AW advection from the North Atlantic into the Nordic Seas. All
208 three indications (7, 26, 59) suggest that the interval between ~6.5 and 5 ka BP was one of the
209 most severe climate events of the Holocene. This interval can be directly linked to the 6.8 ka
210 BP event in the Nordic Seas not only because of the temporal convergence but also because the
211 Nordic Seas are a key area for the AMOC, one of the most important mechanisms regulating
212 both oceanic and climatic environmental changes in the North Atlantic region (61). Indeed, the
213 results of the TraCE-21ka simulation show a slowdown of the AMOC (Fig. 7A) and a reduction
214 of Atlantic cross-equatorial heat transport (Fig. 7B) directly after the 6.8 ka BP event (6.5-6.2
215 ka BP). As indicated by previous modelling studies (62, 63), such a perturbation in overturning
216 circulation might bring large-scale climate responses: prominent cooling over the northern
217 North Atlantic and neighbouring areas, sea-ice increases over the Nordic Seas and to the south
218 of Greenland, and a significant southward rain-belt migration over the tropical Atlantic. The

219 latter is also confirmed by the TraCE-21ka simulation (Fig. 7C). The model shows that the
220 slowdown of the AMOC and the reduction of Atlantic cross-equatorial heat transport between
221 ~6.5 ka BP and ~6.2 ka BP lead to a southward shift of the Intertropical Convergence Zone
222 (ITCZ). According to the zonal mean precipitation change, the southward shift is manifested
223 by a general decrease in rainfall to the north of the equator and an increase in rainfall to the
224 south of the equator. This dipole change in rainfall is especially pronounced over the Atlantic
225 sector.

226 Based on the carefully selected Holocene time series of temperature and
227 humidity/precipitation, as well as reconstructions of glacier advances, Wanner et al. (5)
228 analysed the spatiotemporal pattern of six cold relapses of widespread reach during the last
229 10,000 years. One of the identified events occurred within the Holocene Thermal Maximum,
230 between 6.5 and 5.9 ka BP. It was characterised by a predominance of negative temperature
231 anomalies in the Southern Hemisphere (Fig. 6F). Similarly, the inner area of North America
232 was cool (64) (Fig. 6G), in contrast to the area around Scandinavia where a majority of positive
233 temperature anomalies occurred during this time. Especially the latter might seem surprising in
234 the face of the cooling described here. However, first of all, the widespread event peaked at
235 around 6.3 ka BP (5), i.e., ~400 years after the peak of cooling in the Nordic Seas. The cooling
236 and its consequences propagated time-transgressively away from its source, and by the time the
237 worldwide event reached its maximum, in the Nordic Seas the temperatures were already rising
238 (Fig. 3). Second, cooling at 6.8 ka BP affected the subsurface water masses, while the surface
239 waters were affected only locally, close to Svalbard (Fig. 4F). For this reason, the air
240 temperatures around the Nordic Seas were not directly affected by the event.

241 Further indications suggest that a cold North Atlantic area and a southward shift of the
242 ITCZ during the 6.5-5.9 ka BP cold relapse could have weakened the East Asian monsoon (65)
243 (Fig. 6H). It is also suggested that reduced solar activity was at the origin of the 6.5-5.9 ka BP

244 cold relapse (5). However, the solar irradiance minimum occurred at only ~6.3 ka BP (66).
245 While we find it plausible that changes in solar activity could have amplified the cooling and
246 enhanced its spreading across both hemispheres (21, 25, 55), it seems unrealistic to be a root
247 cause as it occurred already within the cooling.

248 The described environmental changes that occurred during the 6.5-5 ka BP interval
249 show how the consequences of a fairly local event such as the one at 6.8 ka BP in the Nordic
250 Seas can potentially spread across both Hemispheres. Although a direct causal relationship
251 between the 6.8 ka BP event and its worldwide implications might be difficult to prove and
252 requires further studies, it certainly is possible, and the temporal convergence is very
253 compelling. Furthermore, the results of the TraCE-21ka simulation seem to support such
254 relationship. Therefore, we assume that the 6.8-ka BP event could have acted as a trigger for
255 the worldwide cooling event.

256 The discussed sequence of events has important implications for the present-day
257 environmental conditions and future predictions. It shows that even during a relatively warm
258 and stable interval, a fairly local cold spell can occur, and its consequences can spread across
259 both hemispheres. The ongoing warming of the Arctic (67–70) is a harbinger of changes that
260 will affect the entire planet (71). However, these changes do not necessarily have to be
261 straightforward or uniform (72). Based on the paleoenvironmental proxy records and model
262 simulations presented here, we suggest that, for example, increased meltwater input from
263 Svalbard glaciers and the GIS caused by increasing air temperatures (73, 74) could lead to a
264 similar cooling as the one that occurred 6.8 ka BP with consequences reaching beyond the
265 Nordic Seas (75, 76). For this reason, paleoreconstructions of such events should be used as
266 analogues for potential future developments of environmental changes. Furthermore, it should
267 be tested whether climate models that are used for future climate predictions can resolve such
268 complex feedbacks within the ocean-atmosphere system.

269 **Methods**

270 For the study, we have selected seven previously published marine sedimentary records
271 from the eastern and northern Nordic Seas of at least multi-centennial resolution. These include
272 (Fig. 1) cores MD95-2011 (27), M17730 (25), M23258 (34), MSM5/5-712 (6), JM10-330 (77),
273 MSM5/5-723 (78) and OCE2017-GR02 (55). Details of the cores are given in Table 1.

274 All radiocarbon ages were recalibrated using the Marine20 calibration curve (79) to
275 create a coherent chronological framework. The age-depth relationships were modelled using a
276 Bayesian approach with the Bacon software ver. 3.1.0 (80). A regional correction of $\Delta R = -$
277 149 ± 31 ^{14}C years was applied for all cores except OCE2017-GR02. This value was calculated
278 with the Marine Reservoir Correction database (81) and the Marine20 curve (79, 82) using the
279 same whale bones samples as those used by Mangerud et al. (83). For core OCE2017-GR02 no
280 regional correction was used (55, 84). Details on the age-depth relationships are given in
281 Supplementary Fig. 1.

282 While the four planktic foraminiferal records from the Fram Strait (OCE2017-GR02,
283 MSM5/5-723, JM10-330 and MSM5/5-712) are based on the >100 μm fraction, the records
284 from further south (M23258, M17730 and MD95-2011) are based on the >150 μm fraction,
285 which may bias the comparison of planktic foraminiferal assemblages. Subpolar species, e.g.,
286 *Turborotalita quinqueloba*, typically reach smaller test sizes in the polar North Atlantic, so the
287 records based on smaller fractions are more sensitive to changes in Atlantic Water (AW) inflow
288 (e.g., 85). To mitigate this discrepancy, we have used transfer functions adequate to the size
289 fraction used in each record to obtain absolute subsurface water temperatures (sSST). In most
290 cases, we used previously published sSST reconstructions (25, 27, 30, 34). In cores OCE2017-
291 GR02 and JM10-330, we have calculated the sSST using the transfer function of Husum and
292 Hald (36) and the C2 software, version 1.8.0 (86). Details on the sSST reconstructions are given

293 in Table 2. To facilitate the comparison of the records, they were smoothed using LOESS
294 regression with a span depending on their average Holocene temporal resolution (i.e., higher
295 resolution records were averaged over a larger number of data points than the lower resolution
296 records), to obtain an average resolution of approximately 500 years. Both raw and smoothed
297 data are presented.

298 The Transient simulation of Climate Evolution of the last 21,000 years (TraCE-21ka) is
299 carried out using a fully coupled climate model, the Community Climate System Model Version
300 3 (CCSM3), with a dynamic global vegetation module (35). The CCSM3 ocean component has
301 a nominal horizontal resolution of 3° and 25 vertical levels, while the atmosphere component
302 has a horizontal resolution of about 3.75° and 26 vertical hybrid coordinate levels. TraCE-21ka
303 is driven by changes in meltwater fluxes, ice sheet extents, greenhouse gas concentrations, and
304 orbital parameters. It is capable of well simulating the climate changes that occurred during the
305 last deglaciation (87–90). The TraCE-21ka decadal annual mean output is available. In this
306 study, we compare sea-ice concentrations and subsurface water temperatures (at 92 m water
307 depth) between the peak cooling in the Nordic Seas (6.83-6.85 ka BP and 6.81-6.83 ka BP,
308 respectively) and an interval before the cooling (7.63-7.65 ka BP). We also analyse the time
309 series of AMOC strength and Atlantic cross-equatorial ocean heat transport over the Holocene
310 as well as the worldwide precipitation difference between 6.18-6.27 ka BP and 6.50-6.59 ka BP
311 in the TraCE-21ka simulation.

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601

602 **Figure captions**

603 **Fig. 1.** Location of cores used in the study (dots) as well as present-day surface (red and blue
604 arrows) and deep water circulation are shown. AF – Arctic Front, EGC – East Greenland
605 Current, JMC – Jan Mayen Current, NAC – North Atlantic Current, PF – Polar Front, RAC –
606 Return Atlantic Current, WSC – West Spitsbergen Current.

607 **Fig. 2.** Relative abundance of polar planktic foraminiferal species *N. pachyderma* in records
608 from the eastern and northern Nordic Seas. Increases in the abundance of *N. pachyderma*
609 associated with the 6.8 ka BP event is marked with the blue shading.

610 **Fig. 3.** Absolute subsurface water temperatures (sSST) reconstructed using transfer functions
611 in records from the eastern and northern Nordic Seas. Cooling associated with the 6.8 ka BP
612 event is marked with the blue shading.

613 **Fig. 4.** Paleoenvironmental proxies indicating changes associated with the 6.8 ka BP event. A)
614 Insolation at 78°N for June, July, August, and September (43). B) P_{BIP25} index derived from
615 biomarker data from core MSM5/5-723 (30). C) Fragmentation of planktic foraminifera tests
616 in core MSM5/5-723 (30). D) Planktic foraminiferal abundance in cores JM10-330 (91),

617 M17730 (25) and MD95-2011 (27). E) Ice-rafted debris flux in core MSM5/5-712 (6), F)
618 Alkenone-based sea-surface temperature reconstructions from cores JM09-020 (50) and
619 M23258 (33). The 6.8 ka BP event is marked with blue shading.

620 **Fig. 5.** (A) Sea-ice concentration difference between 6.83-6.85 ka BP and 7.63-7.65 ka BP
621 (6.83-6.85 ka BP minus 7.63-7.65 ka BP) in the TraCE-21ka. (B) Subsurface (92 m)
622 temperature difference between 6.81-6.83 ka BP and 7.63-7.65 ka BP (6.81-6.83 ka BP and
623 7.63-7.65 ka BP) in the TraCE-21ka.

624 **Fig. 6.** Paleoceanographic and paleoclimatic records depicting the 6.8 ka BP event and its
625 potential consequences. A) $P_{BIP_{25}}$ index proxy for sea-ice cover in the eastern Fram Strait core
626 MSM5/5-723 (30). B) Absolute summer subsurface water temperatures (sSST, 100 m water
627 depth) in the eastern Fram Strait (core JM10-330) reconstructed using the transfer function (this
628 study). C) Benthic $\delta^{13}C$ proxy record for the contribution of NADW in the NE Atlantic ODP
629 site 980 (26). D) Sea salt sodium (ssNa) flux proxy record for storminess/winter-like conditions
630 in central Greenland GISP2 core (59). E) North Atlantic stack of drift ice petrologic tracers (7).
631 F) Oxygen isotope record from an ice core at Tylor Dome, Antarctica, as air temperature proxy
632 (92). G) North American pollen-based July temperature anomaly record (64). H) Sand-fraction
633 content proxy record for low lake levels linked with weak monsoon events in core HL06 from
634 Hulun Lake, East Asia (65). Records C-H are plotted vs. their original age models. However, a
635 recalibration of the HL06 record using Bayesian approach and the IntCal20 calibration curve
636 (93) has not shown remarkable differences from the original age model. In records D and F
637 kiloyears before AD 2000 (ka b2k) were transformed into kiloyears before AD 1950 (ka BP).
638 The 6.8 ka BP event is marked with blue shading.

639 **Fig. 7.** Time series of (A) AMOC strength and (B) Atlantic cross-equatorial ocean heat transport
640 in the TraCE-21ka. (C) Precipitation difference between 6.18-6.27 ka BP and 6.50-6.59 ka BP
641 (6.18-6.27 ka BP minus 6.50-6.59 ka BP) in the TraCE-21ka. 1 PW = 1 Petawatt = 10^{15} Watt

643 **Table 1.** Details on cores used in the study. KAL – Kastenlot core, PC – piston core, GC –
644 gravity core.

Core ID	Latitude	Longitude	Water depth [m]	Core type	Location	References
OCE2017-GR02	77°05' N	5°20' W	1200	GC	NW Greenland Sea	Telesiński et al. 2022, Devendra et al. 2022
MSM5/5-723	79°09' N	5°20' E	1350	KAL	E Fram Strait	Müller et al. 2012, Werner et al. 2015
JM10-330	79°08' N	5°36' E	1297	GC	E Fram Strait	Consolaro et al. 2015, 2018
MSM5/5-712	78°55' N	6°46' E	1491	KAL	E Fram Strait	Müller et al. 2012, Werner et al. 2013
M23258	75°00' N	13°58' E	1768	KAL	N Norwegian Sea	Sarnthein et al. 2003, Martrat et al. 2003
M17730	72°07' N	07°23' E	2749	KAL	N Norwegian Sea	Telesiński et al. 2015
MD95-2011	66°58' N	07°38' E	1048	PC	central Norwegian Sea	Risebrobakken et al. 2003

645

646 **Table 2.** Details on the absolute temperature reconstructions used in the study. Uncertainties of
647 the reconstructions are given as in the original references. RMSEP – root mean-squared error
648 of prediction, SD – standard deviation.

Core ID	Transfer function	Water depth [m]	Season	Uncertainty	Reference
OCE2017-GR02	(36)	100	summer	RMSEP = 0.52°C	this study
MSM5/5-723-2	(36)	100	summer	RMSEP = 0.47°C	Werner et al. 2015
JM10-330GC	(36)	100	summer	RMSEP = 0.52°C	this study
MSM5/5-712-2	(36)	100	summer	RMSEP = 0.52°C	Werner et al. 2015
M23258	(37, 94)	10	summer	±0.9°C	Sarnthein et al. 2003
M17730-4	(37)	100	summer	SD = 0.3-2.2°C	Telesiński et al. 2015
MD95-2011	(37)	10	August	unknown	Risobrobakken et al. 2003

649

Fig. 1

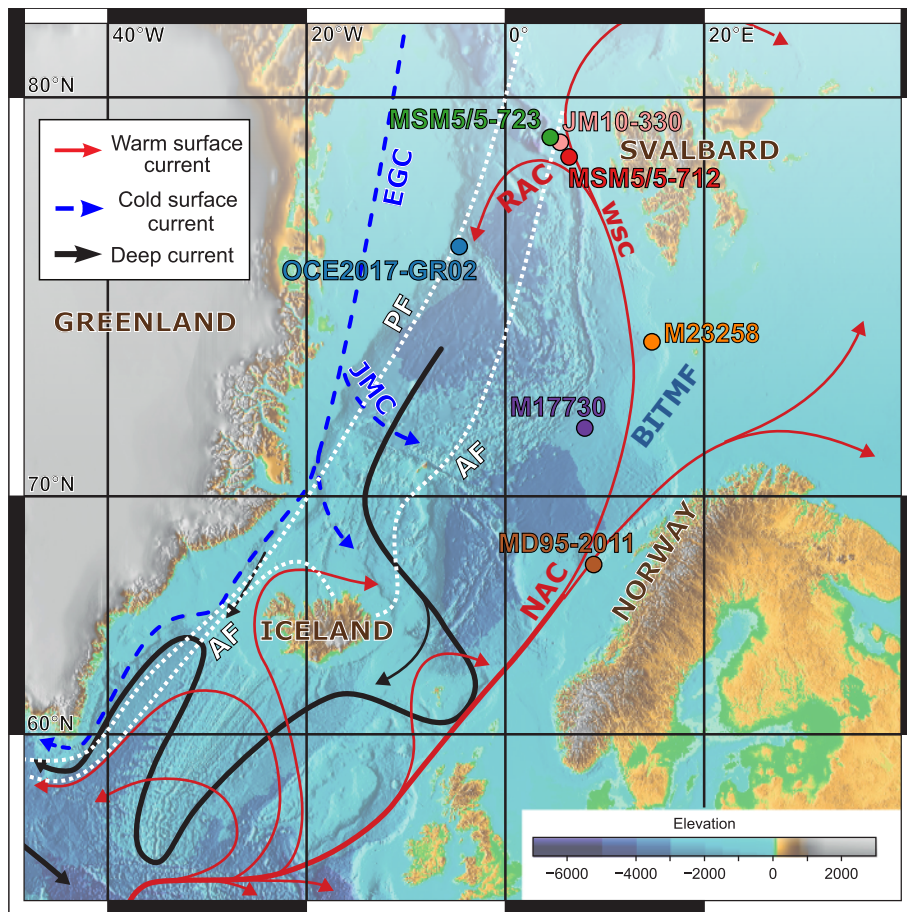


Fig. 2

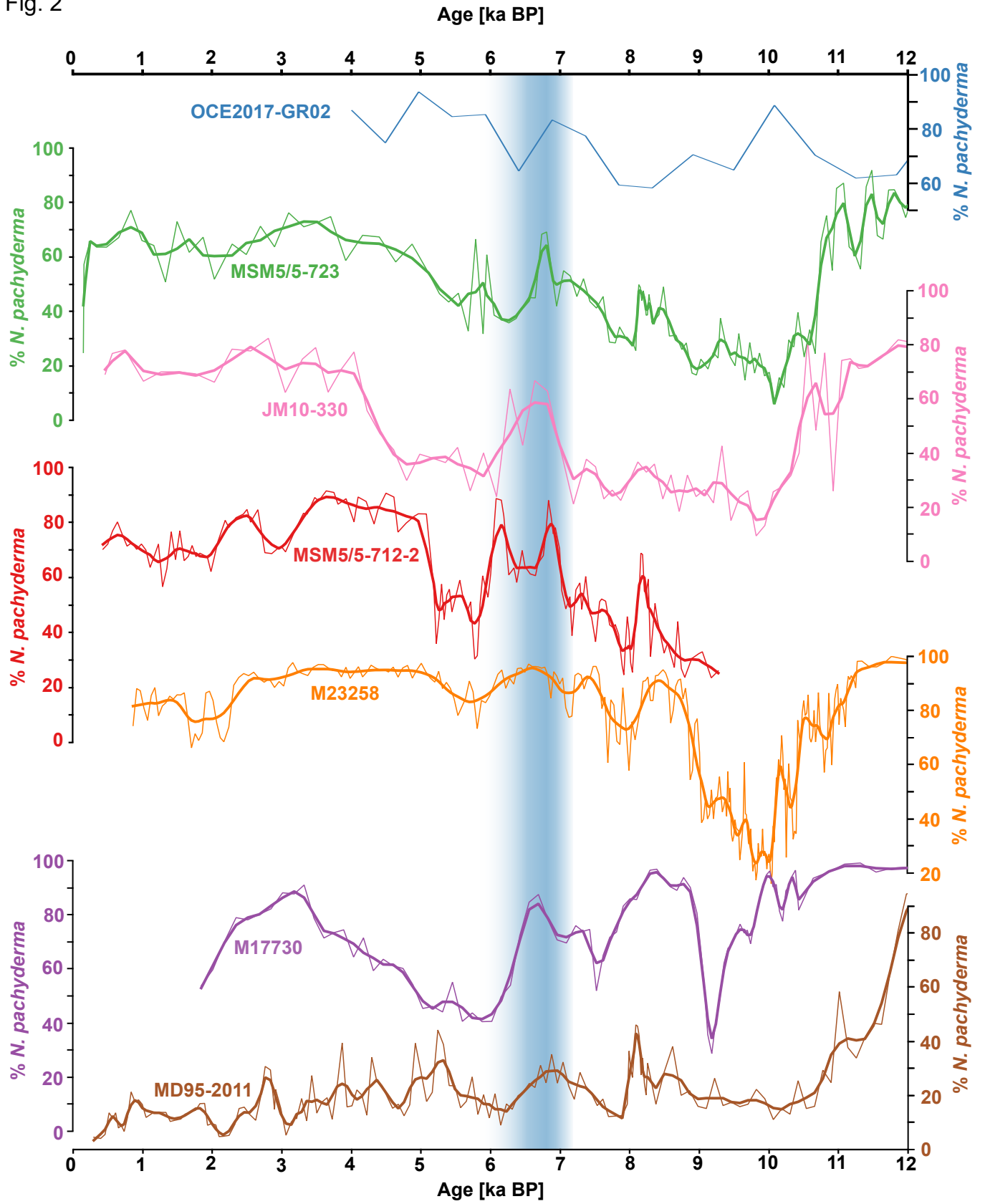


Fig. 3

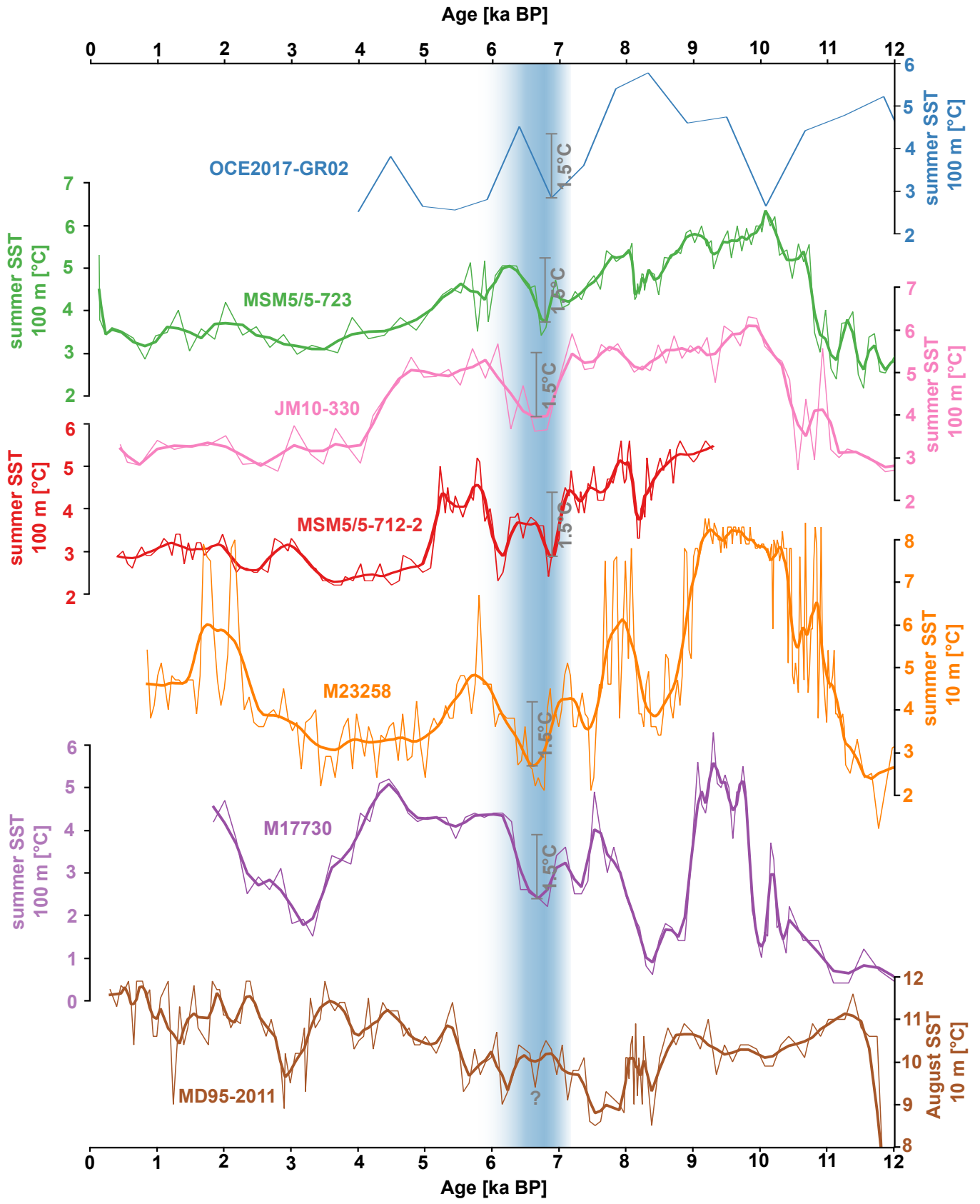


Fig. 4

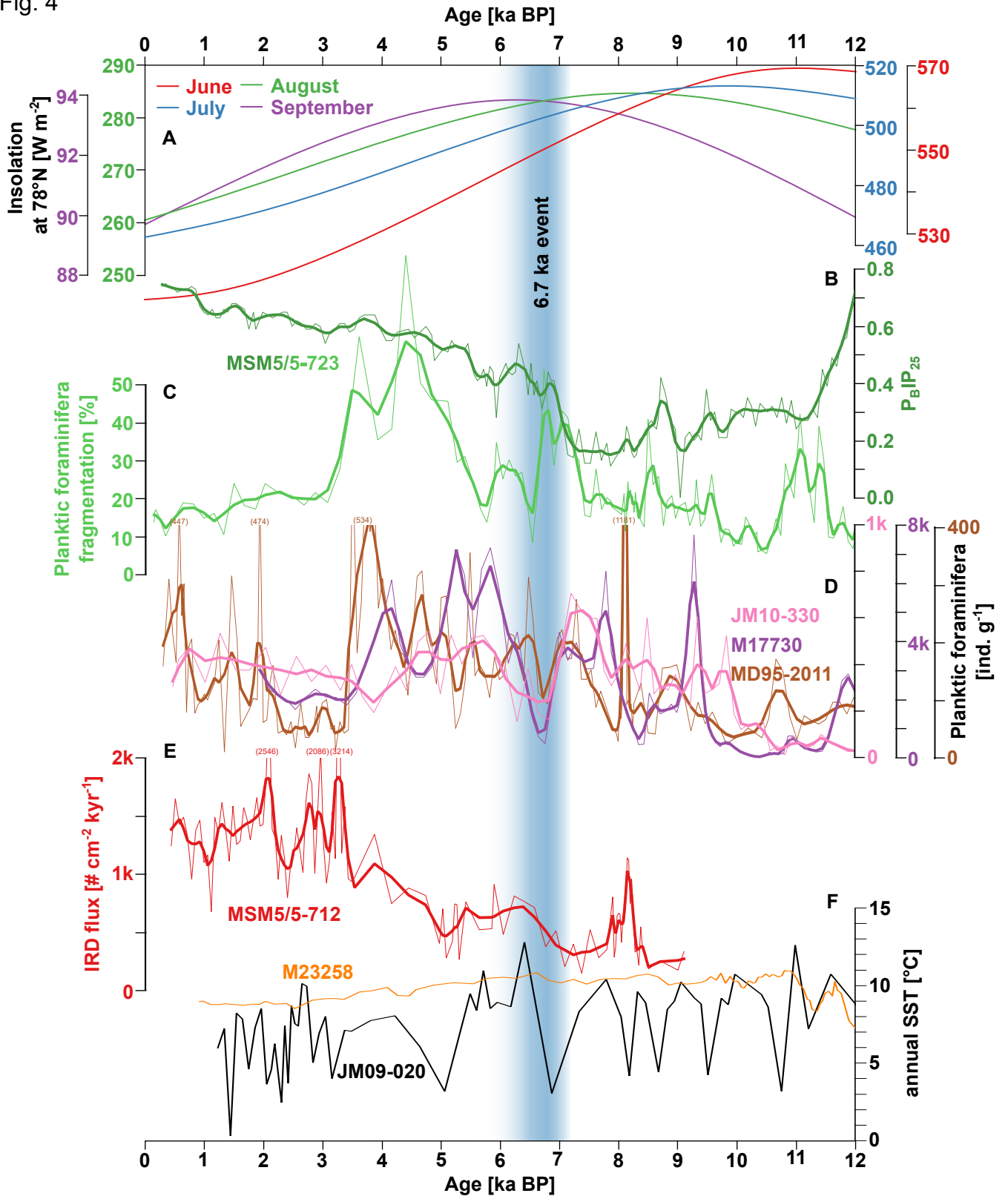


Fig. 5

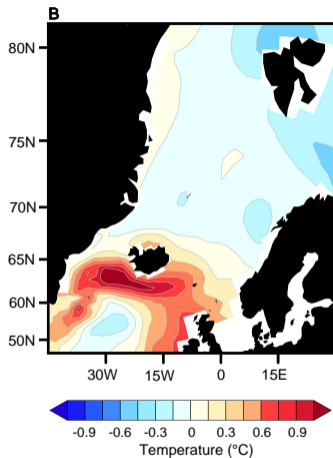
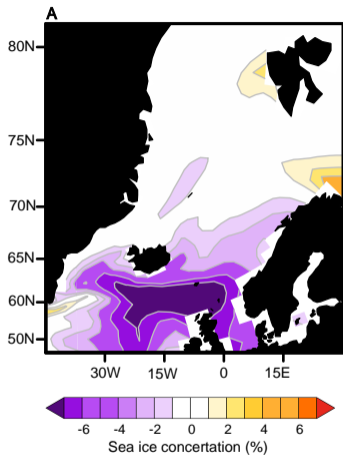


Fig. 6

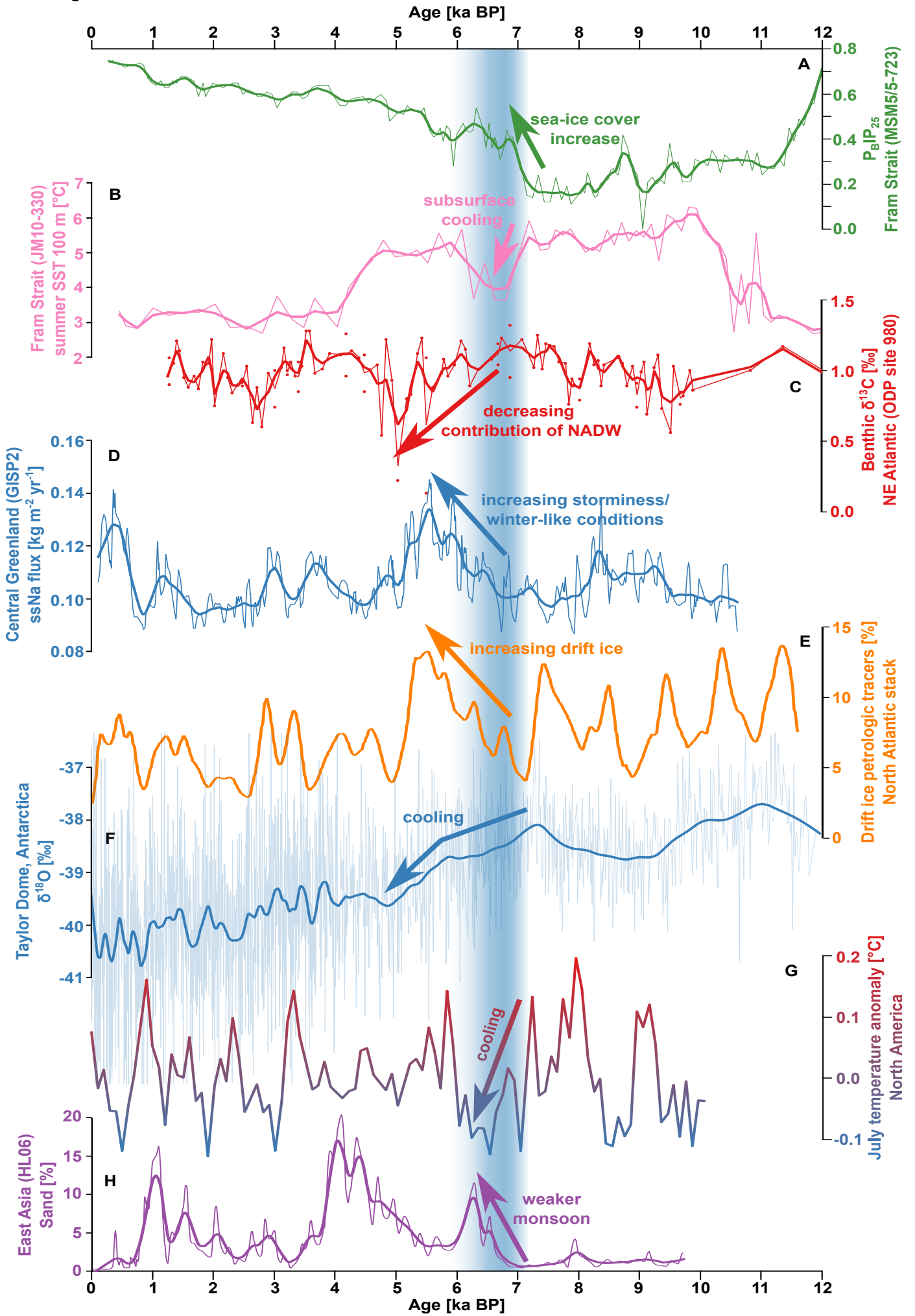


Fig. 7

