A Late Glacial-early Holocene multiproxy record from the eastern Fram Strait, Polar North Atlantic

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Abstract

The paleoceanographic development of the eastern Fram Strait during the transition from the cold Late Glacial and into the warm early Holocene was elucidated via a multiproxy study of a marine sediment record retrieved at the western Svalbard slope. The multiproxy study includes analyses of planktic foraminiferal fauna, bulk sediment grain size and CaCO₃ content in addition to Mg/Ca ratios and stable isotopes ($\delta^{13}$C and $\delta^{18}$O) measured on the planktic foraminifer Neogloboquadrina pachyderma. Furthermore paleo subsurface water temperatures were reconstructed via Mg/Ca ratios (sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$) and transfer functions (sSST$_{Transfer}$) enabling comparison between the two proxies within a single record. The age model was constrained by four accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) $^{14}$C dates.

From 14,000 to 10,300 cal yr B.P. N. pachyderma dominated the planktic fauna and cold polar sea surface conditions existed. The period was characterized by extensive sea ice cover, iceberg transport and low sub sea surface temperatures (sSST$_{Transfer}$ $\sim$2.1$^\circ$C; sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ $\sim$3.5$^\circ$C) resulting in restricted primary production. Atlantic Water inflow was reduced compared to the present-day and likely existed as a subsurface current. At ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. Atlantic Water inflow increased and the Arctic Front retreated north-westward resulting in increased primary productivity, higher foraminiferal fluxes and a reduction in sea ice cover and iceberg transport. The fauna rapidly became dominated by the subpolar planktic foraminifer Turborotalita quinqueloba and summer sSST$_{Transfer}$ increased by $\sim$3.5$^\circ$C. Concurrently, the sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ recorded by N. pachyderma rose only $\sim$0.5$^\circ$C. From ca. 10,300 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. the average sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ and sSST$_{Transfer}$ were $\sim$4.0$^\circ$C and $\sim$5.5$^\circ$C, respectively. The relatively modest change in sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ compared to sSST$_{Transfer}$ can probably be tied to a change of the main habitat depth and/or shift in the calcification season for N. pachyderma during this period.
Keywords: Planktic foraminifera, Sub sea surface temperature reconstruction, Trace elements, Transfer functions, Stable isotopes, Late Glacial/Holocene transition, Fram Strait, Polar North Atlantic

1. Introduction

The Arctic region has responded strongly to both modern and past global climate changes (IPCC, 2007; Hald et al., 2007). One of the major components controlling the Arctic environment, including sea ice distribution, is the influx and volume of relatively warm and saline Atlantic Water flowing northwards into the Arctic Ocean (Schauer et al., 2004; IPCC, 2007). This influx primarily takes place through two gateways: the deep eastern Fram Strait (Schauer et al., 2004) and the shallower Barents Sea (Schauer et al., 2002). In order to improve our understanding of future climate changes in the Arctic region, it is a prerequisite to understand and quantify past rapid oceanic changes with regard to water volume transports, -temperature and -salinity.

Previous studies of the spatial and temporal oceanographic evolution in the Fram Strait show rapid changes through the Late Glacial – early Holocene transition. Atlantic Water masses were advected into the area during the Bølling-Allerød interstadial (Ślubowska et al., 2005; Ślubowska-Woldengen et al., 2007; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Rasmussen et al., 2007b), and during the Younger Dryas stadial the Atlantic Water advection continued submerged under a layer of polar surface water (Rasmussen et al., 2007b). During the early Holocene, advection of Atlantic Water was strong and it rapidly became dominant in the surface water masses (Ebbesen et al., 2007; Hald et al., 2007). These paleoceanographic reconstructions are based on a wide range of proxies, and with regard to estimation of past sea surface temperatures (SST) primarily stable isotopes measured in planktic foraminifera and transfer functions were used. Stable oxygen isotopes ($\delta^{18}$O) measured in foraminiferal
calcite inherently reflect the combined signal of salinity and temperature, while stable carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}C$) reflect the degree of ventilation and primary production in the ambient water masses (e.g., Spielhagen and Erlenkeuser, 1994; Katz et al., 2010). Reconstructions of SST using transfer functions in the Arctic have been encumbered by several factors, including a restricted geographical distribution of the modern database (e.g., Kucera et al., 2005).

Furthermore, it has been found that polar and subpolar planktic foraminifera migrate through the water column and have their maximum occurrence from 50 to 150 m water depth (e.g., Carstens et al., 1997; Volkmann, 2000). Husum and Hald (2012) used both annual and seasonal temperatures from different water depths and found the most robust statistical model using summer temperatures from 100 m water depth.

The aim of the present study is to improve qualitative and quantitative estimates of the paleoceanographic variability in the eastern Fram Strait during the transition from the Late Glacial into the early Holocene (14,000 - 8,600 cal yr B.P.). A multi proxy analysis was carried out using a sediment core retrieved from 1487 m water depth at the western Svalbard slope, eastern Fram Strait. We used stable isotopes ($\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$) measured on tests of *N. pachyderma*, planktic foraminiferal fauna distribution patterns, bulk sediment calcium carbonate ($\text{CaCO}_3$) content and grain size distributions to interpret the paleoceanography. In order to improve quantitative paleoceanographic reconstructions, we applied a transfer function by Husum and Hald (2012) to the downcore planktic foraminiferal fauna distribution, enabling reconstruction of summer subsurface temperatures ($sSST_{\text{Transfer}}$) (100 m water depth). Furthermore, paleo-subsurface temperatures were calculated from Mg/Ca ratios in *N. pachyderma* ($sSST_{\text{Mg/Ca}}$) which is an approach recently used in paleoceanographic reconstructions in the eastern Fram Strait (Spielhagen et al., 2011; Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013). Mg/Ca ratios of foraminifers primarily reflect water temperatures during test growth (e.g., Elderfield and Ganssen, 2000), while salinity and pH are subordinate influences on test
Mg uptake (Nürnberg et al., 1996; Lea et al., 1999). In the present study we use the species specific (*N. pachyderma*) Mg/Ca calibration by Kozdon et al. (2009) which enable temperature reconstructions of subpolar and polar water masses (>2.5°C). Foraminiferal test fragmentation was used to assess the pre-analytical preservation state of carbonates (Le and Shackleton, 1992; Pfuhl and Shackleton, 2004).

The investigated core site is situated under the axis of present-day inflow of Atlantic Water close to the Arctic Front dividing Atlantic and Arctic water masses (Fig. 1A) and is therefore well suited to record changes of the oceanic parameters within this main conduit of heat and salt to the Arctic. The time period from 14,000 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. was chosen for investigation as the rapid oceanographic changes previously documented across the Late Glacial-Holocene boundary (e.g., Ebbesen et al., 2007; Hald et al., 2007) may be construed as the most recent analogue to the rapid changes happening in the Arctic today (e.g. IPCC, 2007).

2. Oceanographic setting

The Fram Strait is a deep passage (2600 m) between Svalbard and Greenland that connects the north-eastern North Atlantic to the Arctic Ocean (Fig. 1A). Warm and saline Atlantic Water (T: 3 to 7°C; S: 34.9 to 35.2, Schauer et al., 2004; Walczowski et al., 2005) is transported towards the Arctic Ocean via the West Spitsbergen Current, a meridional branch of the North Atlantic Current (Loeng et al., 1997; Schauer et al., 2002) (Fig. 1A). The West Spitsbergen Current is topographically steered along the western slope of Spitsbergen through the eastern Fram Strait and into the Arctic Ocean (Blindheim and Rey, 2004; Walczowski et al., 2005). This makes the eastern Fram Strait the main pathway for heat and
salt advection into the Arctic Ocean (Schauer and Beszczynska-Möller, 2009). At present the water mass at the coring site is dominated by Atlantic Water occupying the upper 500 to 700 m of the water column below a ca. 25 m thick upper mixed layer (Fig. 1B). At ca. 78°N the advected Atlantic Water begins to submerge (e.g., Aagaard and Carmack, 1989) and a major part re-circulates in the Fram Strait creating a southward return flow, the Return Atlantic Water (RAW) (T: >0°C; S: >34.90) (Bourke et al., 1988) (Fig. 1). North of Svalbard Atlantic Water continues as a subsurface current into the Arctic Ocean northward as the Yermak Slope Current (Manley, 1995) and eastward as the Svalbard Branch along the northern continental slope of Svalbard (Aagaard et al., 1987; Manley, 1995) (Fig. 1A).

In the western part of the Fram Strait, the East Greenland Current occupies the upper ca. 150 m of the water column carrying a cold, low salinity (T: 0 to -1.7°C; S: ca. 30 to 34) polar water mass southward along with most (>90%) of the sea ice exported from the Arctic Ocean (Woodgate et al., 1999; Rudels et al., 1999, 2005)(Fig. 1A). In the central Fram Strait Polar and Atlantic Water mix and form Arctic Water masses with intermediate temperature and salinity (e.g., Hop et al., 2006). The contrasting water masses are separated by transition zones termed the Polar (separating Polar and Arctic water masses) and Arctic (separating Arctic and Atlantic water masses) Fronts which roughly define the average summer sea ice margin and the maximum limit of the winter sea ice margin, respectively (Swift and Aagaard, 1981; Hopkins, 1991) (Fig. 1A).

3. Material and methods

Kastenlot core MSM05/5-712-2 was retrieved from 1487 m water depth on the West Spitsbergen Slope in the eastern Fram Strait (78°54.94’ N, 06°46.04’ E) during a cruise of the
RV *Maria S. Merian* in August 2007 (Fig. 1A). Water conductivity, temperature, and depth were measured prior to coring (Fig. 1B). Proxy data from the 8.94 m long sediment core are presented here at the core depth interval from 209 to 441 cm. The interval is constrained by four previously published accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon measurements (Fig. 2) (Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013). Due to low abundance of planktic foraminifera in the sediment below ca. 330 cm core depth it was only possible to collect enough material for one AMS date. Therefore, the age model below this point is poorly constrained. The AMS measurements were performed at the Leibniz Laboratory of Kiel University, Germany, and Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory, Poland (Table 1). Calibration of the radiocarbon dates was performed using Calib version 6.0 (Reimer et al., 2004; Stuiver et al., 2005) and the marine calibration curve Marine09 (Hughen et al., 2004; Reimer et al., 2009). A total reservoir age of 551 ± 51 years was used. This value was reached using the standard reservoir correction of 400 years and the modern reservoir age (ΔR) of 151 ± 51 years from the nearby Magdalenafjorden (Mangerud and Gulliksen, 1975; Mangerud et al., 2006). The age model was established by linear interpolation between the calibrated radiocarbon dates using the mean of the 2σ interval of highest probability as individual tie points (Fig. 2, Table 1). In figures and text all dates will refer to calibrated years before present, B.P. (present=1950). The Late Glacial - Holocene chronostratigraphic zones are based on the most recent divisions defined on the basis of Greenland ice cores (Rasmussen et al., 2006, 2007a; Steffensen et al., 2008; Walker et al., 2009): Bølling-Allerød interstadial 14,650 to 12,850 cal yr B.P., Younger Dryas 12,850 to 11,650 cal yr B.P. and Holocene 11,650 cal yr B.P. to present.

The lithology of the sediment core was visually described onboard after coring. Sediment samples, at 6 cm intervals, were freeze-dried and wet-sieved through 63 μm, 100 μm and 1 mm sieves. Dried sample fractions were weighed and used to determine the grain
size distribution. The >1 mm size fraction is considered as ice-rafted debris (IRD) (Fig. 3).

Total organic carbon (TOC) and total carbon (TC) were measured using a Leco CS 200 furnace at the University of Tromsø. The TC content (wt.%) was measured directly on bulk sediment samples while the TOC content (wt.%) was measured on samples pre-treated with HCl (10%) to remove CaCO$_3$ before combustion (1350°C). Subsequently bulk sediment CaCO$_3$ content was calculated using the equation: CaCO$_3$ = (TC-TOC)*100/12 (e.g., Knies et al., 2003) (Fig. 3). CaCO$_3$ from 11,700 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. have previously been published in Aagaard-Sørensen et al. (2013).

Approximately 300 planktic foraminifer specimens picked from the 100 µm-1 mm size fraction were identified to species level and relative foraminiferal distributions and fluxes were calculated (Fig. 3). Transfer function summer (July to September) sub sea surface temperatures ($s_{SST_{transfer}}$) at 100 m water depth were reconstructed using the C.2 program (ver 1.6) (Juggins, 2010) (Fig. 5). The applied transfer function is based on a training set consisting of modern planktic foraminifera picked from the 100-1000 µm size fraction in northern North Atlantic core top sediments and the Weighted Average Partial Least Square (WAPLS) model (Husum and Hald, 2012). For the $s_{SST_{transfer}}$ reconstruction the three component WAPLS model cross-validated by “jack knifing” was used. This model produced low root mean squared error (RMSE) and low maximum bias in conjunction with relatively high correlation between observed and estimated values ($r^2$) (e.g., Ter Braak and Juggins, 1993; Birks, 1995; Husum and Hald, 2012) (Table 2). Planktic foraminiferal test fragments picked from the 100-1000 µm size fraction were counted and a fragmentation index was calculated using the equation of Pfuhl and Shackleton (2004): Fragmentation (%) = # fragments * 100 / (# tests * (1/3 * # fragments)) (Fig. 4). Visual inspection of samples and the structure of the broken fragments lead us to assume that tests broke down into
multiple fragments. Therefore, we applied a fragment-divider of 3 (Le and Shackleton, 1992; Pfühl and Shackleton, 2004).

Stable isotope measurements were performed at the GEOMAR Helmholtz Centre for Ocean Research, Kiel using a Finnigan MAT 253 mass spectrometer (reproducibility of ±0.03‰ for δ\(^{13}\)C and ±0.06‰ for δ\(^{18}\)O) and a Kiel IV Carbonate Preparation Device. Stable oxygen and carbon isotopic ratios were measured on 20 to 30 tests of the planktic foraminifer species *N. pachyderma* picked from the 125-250 μm sieve size fraction (Fig. 4). In order to use well-mixed aliquots the tests were crunched and mingled. All measurements were calibrated to Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard (NBS 19). Measurements were carried out at 1 cm-intervals apart from at 373-380 cm core depth where scarcity of foraminiferal fauna prevented analysis. The δ\(^{18}\)O isotope record was not corrected for vital effects (Jonkers et al., 2010) but for the ice volume effect (Fairbanks, 1989) (Fig. 4). For comparison we also show the uncorrected δ\(^{18}\)O isotope record and the record corrected for the ice volume effect according to the ICE-5G(VM2) model (Peltier and Fairbanks, 2006) (Fig. 4).

Trace element analysis was performed every 3 cm on ca. 50 tests of *N. pachyderma*. Specimens were picked at a narrow size fraction (225-290 μm) to minimize possible size-dependent bias (Elderfield et al., 2002). Foraminiferal tests were gently crushed between glass plates to expose all test chambers to the reductive (anhydrous hydrazine) and oxidative (H\(_2\)O\(_2\)) cleaning procedures following Boyle and Keigwin (1985) and Boyle and Rosenthal (1996). Cleaned samples were analyzed for Mg/Ca, Mn/Ca and Fe/Ca by magnetic-sector single-collector ICP-MS, on a Thermo-Finnigan Element2 at INSTAAR, University of Colorado (Marchitto, 2006). Standards, with minor and trace element concentrations that mimic the typical oceanic ranges of foraminifera, were prepared gravimetrically using 1000 ± 3 mg L\(^{-1}\) stock solutions from High-Purity Standards and SPEX CertiPrep and made at 5
mM (200 ppm) Ca in 2% (v/v) HNO₃ (Fisher Optima) (Marchitto, 2006). $^{26}$Mg, $^{55}$Mn and $^{56}$Fe were measured in analog mode and ratioed to $^{43}$Ca in low (Mg, Mn) and medium (Fe) resolution (Marchitto, 2006). Replicate analysis was performed for every ca. 20th sample. The average Mg/Ca reproducibility of sample splits was ±0.049 mmol/mol (n=3) which is below 4% difference between the average and recorded duplicate values. The system has long-term 1σ precisions for Mg/Ca of 0.5% (Marchitto, 2006). Samples with >100 µmol/mol in regards to Fe/Ca (n=3) or Mn/Ca (n=4) were omitted (Fig. 4) due to possible contamination by detrital material or secondary diagenetic coatings, which could lead to biased Mg/Ca values (Barker et al., 2003). Likewise one sample with <5µg CaCO₃ postcleaning mass was omitted (Marchitto, 2006) (Fig. 4). Foraminiferal Mg/Ca ratios measured from 11,700 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. have previously been published in Aagaard-Sørensen et al. (2013).

Mg/Ca thermometry was used to obtain quantitative reconstructions of sea surface temperatures (SST$_{Mg/Ca}$) by applying a species-specific (N. pachyderma) temperature equation (Fig. 5). The applied linear equation of Kozdon et al. (2009) is based on cross calibrated Mg/Ca and δ$^{44/40}$Ca proxy signals of N. pachyderma in Holocene core top samples from the Nordic Seas: Mg/Ca (mmol/mol) = 0.13(±0.037) * T (°C) + 0.35(±0.17), where numbers in parentheses show the error margins. Despite exponential thermodynamic control on Mg uptake in calcareous foraminiferal tests this equation assumes that linearity adequately depicts the Mg uptake/temperature relation in the narrow temperature range inhabited by N. pachyderma and works for reconstructed temperatures above ca. 2.5°C (Mg/Ca >0.74 mmol/mol) (Kozdon et al., 2009). However, when temperatures are lower than 2.5°C, which is typically associated with salinities less than 34.5, the method loses its precision (Kozdon et al., 2009). The reductive cleaning of foraminiferal calcite utilized in the present study has been shown to potentially decrease the Mg/Ca ratio by up to 15 % (Barker et al., 2003). For comparison and in order to evaluate the potential impact of the reductive cleaning on the
temperature reconstructions we artificially increased the Mg/Ca ratio by 15% before recalculating sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ (Fig. 5) (See Discussion).

4. Results

4.1 Lithology

The sediment comprises two different lithological units. Unit B (14,000 - 10,300 cal yr B.P.; 442 – 323 cm) holds dark olive grey monosulphide-rich silty clay with ca. 1 cm thick olive black laminations. The overlying unit A (10,300 - 8,600 cal yr B.P.; 323 – 208 cm) holds dark homogeneous olive grey, monosulphide-rich bioturbated silty clay (Fig. 3). The sedimentation rate of unit B is 32 cm/kyr vs. 59 to 108 cm/kyr in unit A (Fig. 2). Unit B holds 2 to 7 wt.% material >63 µm (Fig. 3) and up to 4 wt.% material >1 mm (IRD) (Fig. 3). Two periods at 13,300 - 12,200 and 11,500 - 10,900 cal yr B.P. hold higher concentrations of material >1 mm averaging 2 wt.%. Unit A is very fine grained with ~98 wt.% of material <63 µm. A diatom rich layer was identified at 10,500 - 9,800 cal yr B.P. (329 – 281 cm) (Fig. 3). CaCO$_3$ values were low, averaging 4.5 wt.% prior to 10,000 cal yr B.P., and increased from ca. 5 to 13 wt.% during the succeeding 1400 years (Fig. 3).

4.2 Planktic foraminifera, Transfer function sSST and shell fragmentation

Polar and subpolar species $N$. pachyderma and Turborotalita quinqueloba dominate the planktic foraminiferal fauna (Figs. 3, 5). The clear dominance of these two species is characteristic for Arctic marine environments (e.g., Johannessen et al., 1994; Carstens et al., 1997; Volkmann, 2000). Between 14,000 to 10,500 cal yr B.P. the faunal fluxes were low (ca. 2 specimens/cm$^2$-yr) (Fig. 3) and the foraminiferal fauna was dominated by $N$. pachyderma (>86%) with $T$. quinqueloba and Neogloboquadrina incompta (formerly denoted $N$. pachyderma (dextral coiling); Darling et al., 2006) as secondary species (<10%).
Between 10,500 and 10,100 cal yr B.P. *T. quinqueloba* became the dominant species coincident with increasing planktic foraminifer fluxes (Figs. 3, 5). Relative abundance of *T. quinqueloba* averaged 63% from 10,100 to 8,600 cal yr B.P., while overall planktic fluxes remained high averaging 50 specimens/cm²·yr. In this period *N. pachyderma* constituted ca. 25% of the total fauna except at ca. 8,800 cal yr B.P. where it reached 68% (Fig. 3). After 10,500 cal yr B.P. other commonly found species were *N. incompta* (ca. 6%), *Globigerina bulloides* (>3.1%), *Globigerinita calida* (>2.4%), *Globigerinita glutinata* (>2.2%) and *Globigerinita uvula* (up to ca. 10%). *Globigerinita uvula* was primarily present from 10,000 to 9,200 cal yr B.P. with a peak in relative abundance of ca. 10% at 9,900 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3).

The sub sea surface temperatures obtained by transfer functions (*sSSTTransfer*) show low values ranging from 1.9 to 2.7°C (average 2.1°C) prior to ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. A rapid temperature increase occurred between ca. 10,500 to 10,100 cal yr B.P. followed by relatively high, but slowly declining, temperatures ranging from 3.3 to 6.5°C (average 5.5°C) from 10,100 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. (Fig 5).

Low fragmentation of planktic foraminiferal tests, averaging 3.4% was found from 14,000 to 12,850 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4). From 12,850 to 10,500 cal yr B.P. values were generally higher, averaging 13.8% with values exceeding 45% around 12,000 cal yr B.P. From 10,500 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. values averaged 8.9% with the highest value (32.2%) at ca. 8,800 cal yr B.P.

4.3 Stable isotopes

*N. pachyderma* δ¹³C values show two local maxima at ca. 12,700 (0.25‰) and ca. 8,800 cal yr B.P. (0.45‰) in addition to a broad maximum at 11,600 - 10,200 cal yr B.P. (average ca. 0.25‰) (Fig. 4). Low average values of ca. 0.1‰ were found at 10,200 - 9,000 cal yr B.P.
N. pachyderma $\delta^{18}$O values increased from ca. 3.1‰ at 14,000 to 3.7‰ at 12,100 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4). Low average values (around 2.9‰) from 11,900 to 11,500 cal yr B.P. were followed by an increase leading to values of ca. 3.5‰ at ca. 11,400 - 11,200 cal yr B.P. From ca. 11,000 cal yr B.P. the values declined and reached a minimum at ca. 9,500 cal yr B.P. (ca. 2.5‰) with one marked excursion towards heavier values at ca. 10,000 cal yr B.P. A slightly increasing trend was observed after 9,500 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4).

4.5 Mg/Ca ratios and reconstructed SST$_{Mg/Ca}$

The Mg/Ca ratios show values ranging from ca. 0.6 to 1.07 mmol/mol in the analysed interval. An overall slightly increasing trend is noticed towards the youngest part of the record (Fig. 4). Highest values were found at ca. 13,200, ca. 11,600 and after ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. Average Mg/Ca values were 0.81 mmol/mol prior to and 0.86 mmol/mol after 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4). Sea surface temperatures based on Mg/Ca ratios (SST$_{Mg/Ca}$) (equation by Kozdon et al., 2009) show temperature fluctuations between ca. 2.5 and 5.5°C throughout the record. Average temperatures are 3.5°C before and 4.0°C after 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 5).

5. Discussion

5.1. Evaluation of proxies

In the present study paleoceanography and paleo-water temperature in the eastern Fram Strait across the Late Glacial – early Holocene transition was estimated and reconstructed via Mg/Ca ratios and stable isotopes in N. pachyderma, fossil foraminiferal fauna, and chemical and physical properties of the sediment (Figs. 3, 4, 5).

N. pachyderma reflects/records ambient water properties at varying depths below the thermocline from ca. 25-250 m water depth (e.g., Simstich et al., 2003) where modern day temperature (August 2007) is 3.7-6.7°C and salinity is ~35.1 (Fig. 1B). Therefore water mass
property reconstruction, via stable isotopes and trace elements on this biotic carrier, do not reflect actual sea surface conditions and in the following discussion \( \text{SST}_{\text{Mg/Ca}} \) is denoted as sub SST (sSST\(_{\text{Mg/Ca}}\)).

Low fluxes of planktic foraminifera and dominance of \( N. \ pachyderma \) (>90%) characterized the period prior to 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). From 14,000 to 12,800 cal yr B.P., the fragmentation of tests was low indicating good preservation (Fig. 4). From ca. 12,800 to 10,500 cal yr B.P., fragmentation was elevated, indicating reduced test preservation (Le and Shackleton, 1992; Pfuhl and Shackleton, 2004) (Fig. 4). Highest fragmentation was observed around 12,000 cal yr B.P. indicating that the test preservation was at a minimum for the record as a whole (Fig. 4). This may have contributed to the scarcity of planktic foraminifera observed at this time, leading to a deficient number of specimens for stable isotope analysis (Figs. 3, 4). In addition, the only sample from the trace element dataset omitted due to low post-cleaning mass refers to this approximate age potentially suggesting that the foraminiferal calcite had been exposed to pre-analytic dissolution (Fig. 4).

Barker et al. (2005) found that low test preservation (i.e., enhanced dissolution) generally causes a lowering of Mg/Ca ratios in foraminiferal calcite and thereby lowers the temperature estimates. Furthermore, reduced preservation of planktic foraminiferal tests could facilitate selective removal/destruction of dissolution-prone species (e.g. \( T. \ quinqueloba, \ G. \ uvula \)) from the fossil assemblages (e.g., Conan et al., 2002). This can result in a relative increase in dissolution-resistant species (e.g., \( N. \ pachyderma \)) and modification of the faunal composition (e.g., Conan et al., 2002; Zamelczyk et al., 2012). Despite the difference in fragmentation between the two periods (14,000 - 12,800 and 12,800 - 10,500 cal yr B.P.), no distinct change in Mg/Ca ratios or fauna composition was observed (Figs. 3, 4). This indicates that the preservation of tests had little or no impact on the present sSST reconstructions (Fig. 5).
Barker et al. (2003) found that the reductive cleaning of foraminiferal calcite used in the trace element analysis (see Material and methods section for details) potentially decreases the Mg/Ca by up to 15%, thereby lowering the reconstructed sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$. Prior to ~10,500 cal yr B.P. the sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ reconstruction shows temperatures that were larger than the sSST$_{Transfer}$ (Fig. 5). By artificially increasing the Mg/Ca ratios by 15% the resulting temperature estimates become even higher (~1°C) tentatively suggesting that the reductive cleaning procedure is of minor importance for the reconstructed sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ (Fig. 5). This tentative conclusion is supported by earlier studies from the same core site that include Mg/Ca temperature reconstructions based on the same biotic carrier ($N$. pachyderma) and the same exact cleaning procedure as the material in the present study (Spielhagen et al., 2011; Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013). Spielhagen et al. (2011) showed minor difference between measured modern water temperatures and core-top sSST$_{Transfer}$ and sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$, while comparison of reconstructed summer sSST$_{Transfer}$ published by Werner et al. (2013) with sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ from 8,800 cal yr B.P. to the present within the upper part of core MSM05/5-712-2 showed similar temperature ranges (Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013).

Prior to the Holocene Arctic surface water masses were spread far to the south and east in the northeastern North Atlantic (Koç et al., 1993) and thus could have influenced the coring site. Kozdon et al. (2009) found that modern Mg/Ca-derived temperature estimates from the cold (<3°C), low saline Arctic domain and Polar waters in the Nordic Seas were higher than corresponding maximum SST in the areas. Therefore it must be cautioned that our sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ reconstruction, with values averaging 3.6°C prior to ~10,500 cal yr B.P., could potentially be erroneously high (Fig. 5). The fact that the average value of sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ is higher than average value of sSST$_{Transfer}$ in this period could alternatively suggest that sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$ measured on $N$. pachyderma reflect another water depth than the water depth represented by the sSST$_{Transfer}$ reconstruction. While the sSST$_{Transfer}$ values reflect temperatures at 100 m
water depth (Husum and Hald, 2012), sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} may reflect shallower water depths where temperatures presumably were higher (Fig. 5). The depth habitats of \emph{N. pachyderma} have been found to be shallower than 100 m water depth in Arctic areas influenced by sea ice (Volkmann, 2000; Simstich et al., 2003; Pados and Spielhagen, in press). These findings may therefore suggest that the calcification depth of \emph{N. pachyderma} was shallower than 100 m in the period from ca. 14,000 - 10,500 cal yr B.P.

In addition, the observed difference between the sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} and sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} reconstructions may be linked to seasonal differences between the proxy approaches. In the Arctic region peak fluxes of planktic foraminifera are reported during summer at sea ice margins with high primary production (Carstens et al., 1997). Thus, during periods with ice-cover and abundant icebergs, like the earliest part of our record (see section 5.2 for further discussion), the primary production bloom and calcification season of \emph{N. pachyderma} (i.e. sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca}) was possibly delayed/shifted towards late summer where water temperatures potentially were higher than the average summer (July to September) temperatures reconstructed by the transfer functions (sSST\textsubscript{Transfer}) (Fig. 5).

After ~10,300 cal yr B.P., the subpolar species \emph{T. quinqueloba} became the dominating species (average >60%) and the flux of planktic foraminifera increased markedly (Figs. 3, 5). The species \emph{T. quinqueloba} is prone to dissolution, so when it is found in high numbers together with relatively low test fragmentation, the test preservation is good (Figs. 3, 4).

Average sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} values from 10,300 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. were ~0.5°C higher compared to the previous period (14.000 to 10.300 cal yr B.P.) (Fig. 5). This finding is in contrast to summer SST\textsubscript{Transfer} reconstructions from the Norwegian–Svalbard margin where average values at 10 m water depth rose ~5°C in the early Holocene (Hald and Aspeli, 1997; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Hald et al., 2007). However, when applying the transfer function of Husum &
Hald (2012) reconstructing temperatures for subsurface water masses at 100 m water depth for the new and the abovementioned records a temperature increase of ~3.5°C is generated in this period (Fig. 5). During most of the early Holocene the sSST_{Transfer} (100 m water depth) remains higher than sSST_{Mg/Ca} suggesting that *N. pachyderma* may have responded to oceanographic changes by descending in the water column and calcifying at depths below 100 m (Fig. 5).

Kozdon et al. (2009) suggest that *N. pachyderma* throughout its life cycle is actively or inactively linked to an isopycnal layer with densities (σ_t) ranging from 27.7 to 27.8, corresponding to a depth of 60-110 meters with the present day temperature and salinity profile (Fig. 1B). As a consequence the species prefers gradually deeper habitats with increasing temperatures, thus counterbalancing absolute sea surface temperature variations (Kozdon et al., 2009). This suggestion could explain the relatively narrow (ca. 2.5 to 5.5°C) temperature range depicted by the sSST_{Mg/Ca} reconstruction (Fig 5) during a period and in a region where significant oceanographic changes have been described (e.g. Koç et al., 2002; Hald et al., 2007; Rasmussen et al., 2007b; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Farmer et al., 2008).

However, numerous studies showed that factors such as sea ice cover, proximity to sea ice margins and oceanic fronts, water column stratification, water mass distribution, and food availability also can influence the habitat depth of planktic foraminifera (Carstens et al., 1997; Volkmann, 2000; Simstich et al., 2003; Jonkers et al., 2010). Furthermore, a recent comparison of plankton tow and physical oceanography data from the Fram Strait has shown that the link of the *N. pachyderma* habitat to a narrow isopycnal band is less distinct in ice-covered than in ice-free waters (Pados and Spielhagen, in press).

As mentioned earlier seasonal changes in calcification of *N. pachyderma* can also impact the sSST_{Mg/Ca} values. In the central Irminger Sea (~59°N) Jonkers et al. (2010) reports largest fluxes of *N. pachyderma* during spring and in late summer, when SSTs can be
relatively variable. The strongly fluctuating $\text{sSST}_{\text{Mg/Ca}}$ in the early Holocene could therefore also result from shifts in calcification season of $N. \text{pachyderma}$ (Fig. 5). Moreover, laboratory experiments have shown fastest growth rates for $N. \text{pachyderma}$ at temperatures around 5°C, and growth rates progressively slowing with increasing temperatures (Lombard et al., 2009). This suggests that $N. \text{pachyderma}$, during the early Holocene, may have calcified earlier in the season, when temperatures were more favorable (Fig. 5).

5.2. Paleoenvironmental reconstruction and correlation

5.2.1 Period: 14,000 to 12,850 cal yr B.P. (Bølling-Allerød interstadial)

The Bølling-Allerød interstadial is characterized by a planktic foraminiferal fauna assemblage dominated by $N. \text{pachyderma}$ (>90%) that together with low faunal fluxes, and low CaCO$_3$ indicate polar conditions with reduced productivity (Johannessen et al., 1994) (Fig. 3). This is supported by the reconstructed sSST$_{\text{Transfer}}$ showing cold summer conditions (averaging 2°C) throughout the period (Fig. 5). Previous studies have documented relatively strong meridional advection of Atlantic Water through the Eastern Fram Strait during Bølling-Allerød (Birgel and Hass, 2004; Ślubowska et al., 2005; Rasmussen et al., 2007b). The concurrent higher $\text{sSST}_{\text{Mg/Ca}}$ (averaging 3.5°C) could therefore suggests that $N. \text{pachyderma}$ calcified in chilled Atlantic Water masses, likely at water depths above 100 m and during peak (late) summer conditions during this period (Fig. 5) (see 5.1. Evaluation of proxies for further discussion).

Relatively large amounts of sand (>63 µm) and IRD (>1 mm) show influence of icebergs and coastal sea ice at the core site, while low $\delta^{13}$C values indicate stratification (e.g., Spielhagen and Erlenkeuser, 1994) which probably was caused by sea ice and melt water (Figs. 3, 4). Low $\delta^{13}$C values are also recorded further south at ca. 77°N in the Fram Strait
(Ebbesen et al., 2007) and at ca. 75°N on the Barents Sea slope (Sarnthein et al., 2003) during this period. The two IRD peaks found at around 13,600 and 13,100 cal yr B.P. may correlate with cold inter Bølling-Allerød periods recorded in the NGRIP ice core (Rasmussen et al., 2006) (Fig. 5). This suggests increased calving, transport and melting of icebergs or sea ice during periods with cold atmospheric conditions. Elevated coarse fraction and IRD concentrations have previously been reported during Bølling-Allerød on the West Spitsbergen Slope (Rasmussen et al., 2007b; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Jessen et al., 2010), while concurrent decreased IRD concentrations were ascribed to more prolonged and severe sea ice conditions north of Svalbard under the axis of the Svalbard Branch (Fig. 1) (Koç et al., 2002; Ślubowska et al., 2005).

5.2.2 Period: 12,850 to 11,650 cal yr B.P. (Younger Dryas)

During Younger Dryas the planktic foraminiferal assemblage was dominated by \( N. \) pachyderma \( (>90\%) \) indicating cold polar sea surface conditions (Fig. 3) (Johannessen et al., 1994). The sediment CaCO\(_3\) content and flux of planktic foraminifera were also low, pointing at continued reduced primary production in the water column (Fig. 3). Slightly lowered sand (>63µm) and IRD concentrations during this period (Fig. 3) may be interpreted as either increased sea ice cover that suppressed iceberg transport, decreased glacier calving on Svalbard and/or surface waters that were too cold to allow melting of icebergs/sea ice. Low IRD concentrations west and north of Svalbard have previously been linked to prolonged sea ice coverage and reduced iceberg transport during the Younger Dryas (Koç et al., 2002; Wollenburg et al., 2004; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Ślubowska-Woldengen et al., 2007). Cold conditions during the Younger Dryas stadial have been documented in numerous proxy records in the Arctic region including ice core records (e.g. Rasmussen et al., 2006) (Fig. 5), terrestrial proxy records (e.g. Landvik et al., 1998), and marine proxy records (e.g. Koç et al., 1993; Ślubowska-Woldengen et al., 2007; 2008).
During the early part of the Younger Dryas (~12.800–12.000 cal yr B.P.) continued
low sSST\textsubscript{transfer} (averaging 2°C) and lowered sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} (averaging 3.2°C) combined with high
\(\delta{}^{18}\)O show that cold summer conditions prevailed while chilled Atlantic Water remained
present during the foraminiferal growth season (Figs. 4, 5). This is supported by Rasmussen
et al. (2007b) who found that subsurface advection of Atlantic Water to the Fram Strait
continued and that the water mass was colder and probably less saline than during the
preceding Bølling-Allerød.

Increased freshwater injections and sea ice expansion in the Nordic Seas have
previously been identified and linked to hampered meridional overturning circulation during
the Younger Dryas (e.g., Broecker et al., 1989; Koç et al., 1993; Sarnthein et al., 1995; Hald
and Aspeli, 1997; Jennings et al., 2006; Bradley and England, 2008). The almost
foraminiferal-barren/high fragmentation interval (~12,100 to 11,900 cal yr B.P) and
subsequent low \(\delta{}^{18}\)O values may indicate increased freshwater influence in the surface and
subsurface water mass at ca. 12,100 to 11,500 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3, 4). However, following the
period with high fragmentation/low test preservation at the end of Younger Dryas and into
the Preboreal (11,900 - 11,500 cal yr B.P.) the somewhat elevated average sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} (~4°C)
could alternatively suggest that the lowered \(\delta{}^{18}\)O may be interpreted as a temperature increase
during the season and/or at the depth of \textit{N. pachyderma} calcification (Figs. 4, 5).

5.2.3 Period: 11,650 to 8,600 cal yr B.P. (Early Holocene)

In the earliest part of the Holocene, until ca. 10,500 cal yr B.P., cold surface water conditions,
with a low flux foraminiferal fauna dominated by \textit{N. pachyderma}, continued (Fig. 3). The
sand and IRD content rose slightly, showing a continued, possibly enhanced, influence of sea
ice and iceberg melting (Fig. 3). Similar, cold sea and sea ice/iceberg-influenced surface
conditions are recorded both west and north of Svalbard during this period (Ebbesen et al.,
The marked IRD peak observed at ca. 11,000 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3) correlates to rapid ice retreat on Svalbard and in western Barents Sea (Landvik et al., 1998). Despite the apparent continued influence from sea ice and icebergs in the area, the average δ¹³C value was higher than during Younger Dryas, suggesting improved ventilation of the water mass (cf. Spielhagen and Erlenkeuser, 1994). Alternatively the higher δ¹³C values could reflect increased primary production (e.g., Katz et al., 2010) in the surface waters, which is tentatively supported by the slightly elevated planktic foraminiferal fluxes (Figs. 3, 4).

After ~11,500 cal yr B.P., the δ¹⁸O values steadily decreased until ~9,700 cal yr B.P. indicating gradually lowered salinity and/or increased temperatures within the sub surface water mass (Fig. 4). The reconstructed sSST$_{Mg/Ca}$, although strongly fluctuating, show a concurrent increasing trend, supporting the latter interpretation of the δ¹⁸O signal (Fig. 5). A similar declining δ¹⁸O trend is also observed on the south-western Svalbard slope (76°N) (Rasmussen et al., 2007b) and on the western Barents Sea shelf (75°N) (Sarnthein et al., 2003) at this time, indicating increasing northward heat advection via the Norwegian Atlantic Current (NwAC), suggested by Risebrobakken et al. (2011) to have culminated at ~10,000 cal yr B.P.

The generally decreasing δ¹⁸O trend is punctuated by several excursions towards heavier values with most pronounced increases >0.5‰ observed at ~11,300 and 10,000 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4) that are likely related to short term regional cooling events. The cooling at ~11,300 cal yr B.P. correlates to the Preboreal Oscillation cooling event, which has been observed in various marine proxy records in the Fram Strait, Nordic Seas and in northern Norway (e.g., Björck et al., 1997; Hald and Hagen, 1998; Husum and Hald, 2002; Ślubowska et al., 2005) and in Greenland ice cores (Rasmussen et al., 2006, 2007a) (Fig. 5) while the
latter (~10,000 cal yr B.P.) approximately correlates to the so-called 9.95 ka anomaly (presented on the b2k scale) in the Greenland ice cores (Rasmussen et al., 2007a). However, the lower resolution of the sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} and sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} records does not merit confirmation that these $\delta^{18}$O excursions represent coolings (Figs. 4, 5).

The transition from the cold Younger Dryas stadial to the warm Holocene interglacial has been recorded in Greenland ice core records at 11,650 cal yr B.P. (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Walker et al., 2009) (Fig. 5). Associated with a northward displacement of the Arctic Front, separating Arctic and Atlantic water masses, Hald et al. (2007) showed that surface water masses in the eastern part of the Nordic Seas experienced a time-transgressive transition from cold Late Glacial into warm Holocene sea surface conditions. The transition happened at ca. 11,800 cal yr B.P. at 60°N and at ca. 10,500 cal yr B.P. at 77°N (Hald et al., 2007) and ref therein). In areas north of 71°N the rise in transfer function-reconstructed SST was primarily driven by a rapid increase in $T$. quinqueloba abundances (Hald and Aspeli, 1997; Ebbesen et al., 2007; Hald et al., 2007) (Fig. 5). A rapid increase in abundance and flux of $T$. quinqueloba can also be observed in our record, translating into a sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} increase of ~3.5°C between 10,500 to 10,200 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 5). The timing of this rapid increase is in accordance with the northward delay in onset of warmer surface conditions observed by Hald et al. (2007) in the Nordic Seas. The delayed Holocene oceanic warming at high latitudes has been attributed to the lingering impact of a cold water and sea ice pool in high Arctic settings (Hald et al., 2007) which at our core site is expressed as coarser and more IRD laden sediment deposited before ~10,500 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). The delayed warming has furthermore been connected to high albedo caused by sea ice/snow cover and the related asymmetry of atmospheric and oceanic circulation patterns (e.g., Kaufman et al., 2004).
The faunal transition was also associated with increased abundance and flux of the relatively thermophile species *N. incompta* and *G. bulloides* indicating stronger influence from Atlantic Water (Johannessen et al., 1994; Risebrobakken et al., 2011) in the eastern Fram Strait with summer sSST\textsubscript{transfer} averaging ca. 5.5°C after ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Figs. 3, 5). This change coincides with markedly increased bottom current speeds in the northern Fram Strait (Birgel and Hass, 2004) and strong inflow of Atlantic Water to the western and northern Svalbard margin and fjords (Ślubowska-Woldengen et al., 2007; Skirbekk et al., 2010). The increased Atlantic Water influx likely also led to cessation of iceberg transport, as indicated by absence of IRD in our record after ca. 10,500 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4B) which occurred almost concurrently all along the West Spitsbergen Slope (Ebbesen et al., 2007; Rasmussen et al., 2007b; Jessen et al., 2010).

The high flux and abundance of *T. quinqueloba* combined with generally increased planktic foraminiferal fluxes and increasing sediment CaCO\textsubscript{3} content after ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Figs. 3, 5) shows that the Arctic Front and associated productive water masses probably were situated close to the west Spitsbergen and Barents Sea slopes during the early Holocene (Johannessen et al., 1994; Hald and Aspeli, 1997; Sarnthein et al., 2003; Ebbesen et al., 2007). A pronounced peak in relative percentage and flux of *G. uvula*, a species that tolerates lowered salinities and is found in cold productive surface waters near oceanic fronts (Boltovskoy et al., 1996; Husum and Hald, 2004) is observed at ca. 10,000 to 9,300 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). High concentration of diatom frustules have been found in the sediments all along the West Spitsbergen Slope during the Early Holocene (Jessen et al., 2010) and is also observed in the present record between ca. 10,500 to 9,800 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 3). In conjunction with the presence of *G. uvula* this finding further indicates the presence of highly productive water masses in the area which likely was linked to proximity of the Arctic Front during the Early Holocene (Fig. 3).
After ca. 10,000 cal yr B.P. minimum \( \delta^{18} \)O values together with somewhat elevated average sSST\(_{\text{Mg/Ca}}\) (\( \sim 4^\circ \)C) indicate that ambient water temperatures during \( N. \) pachyderma test formation were the highest within the record (Figs. 4, 5), while relatively low \( \delta^{13} \)C values indicate that the water mass was less ventilated at ca. 10,500 to 9,000 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 4). The warm conditions are also reflected by the high summer sSST\(_{\text{Transfer}}\) (averaging \( \sim 5.5^\circ \)C) recorded after 10,300 cal yr B.P. (Fig. 5). However, the sSST\(_{\text{Transfer}}\) shows a trend toward lower average summer temperatures after ca. 9,300 cal yr B.P. with a pronounced low (\( \sim 3.3^\circ \)C) observed at ca. 8,800 cal yr B.P. (Figs. 4, 5), which may indicate the first step towards the termination of high early Holocene summer surface temperatures also observed in other records along the Barents Sea and West Spitsbergen slopes at approximately this time (Sarnthein et al., 2003; Ebbesen et al., 2007).

6. Conclusions

The paleoceanographic reconstruction shows polar surface conditions with faunal dominance of the polar species \( N. \) pachyderma in the study area from 14,000 to 10,300 cal yr B.P. The area was influenced by extensive sea ice cover and iceberg transport with low foraminiferal fluxes and low primary production. The resulting summer sSST\(_{\text{Transfer}}\) ranged from 1.9 to 2.7°C with an average of 2.1°C. However, the quantitative reconstructions based on Mg/Ca ratios show water temperatures ranging from 1.9 to 5.2°C with an average of 3.5°C during this time interval pointing to warmer conditions in those water masses where \( N. \) pachyderma calcified its test. This could possibly be ascribed to subsurface advection of Atlantic Water masses combined with shifts in the calcification season and/or the habitat depth of the foraminifera.
After ca. 10,300 cal yr B.P. ocean surface conditions ameliorated as *Turborotalita quinqueloba* rapidly became the dominating species and Atlantic Water inflow intensified, resulting in increased summer sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} ranging from 3.3 to 6.5°C (average 5.5°C). Moreover the flux of planktic foraminifera increased and influence from sea ice and icebergs diminished as the Arctic Front retreated north-westward. Concurrently the sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} recorded by *N. pachyderma* showed values between 2.5 to 5.5°C with an average of 4.0°C which is an increase in average sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} of only ~0.5°C compared to the preceding period. The relatively modest increase of sSST\textsubscript{Mg/Ca} compared to sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} was probably caused by a deepening of the habitat depth and/or a shift in the main calcification season for *N. pachyderma* during this period.

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Figure captions

Table 1. Radiocarbon dates and calibrations from core MSM5/5-712-2.

Table 2. Performance of transfer function model WA-PLS with components 1 to 5. Selected model indicated in bold letters.

Figure 1. (A) Map of the north-eastern North Atlantic Ocean and adjoining seas showing the major currents systems and average position of the Polar and Arctic fronts modified from Marnela et al. (2008). Location of Kastenlot core MSM05/5-712-2 indicated by a double circle and other cores (Hald and Aspeli, 1997 (T-88-2); Ebbesen et al., 2007 (MD99-2304)) by open circles. Abbreviations: NwASC: Norwegian Atlantic Slope Current; NwAC: Norwegian Atlantic Current; WSC: West Spitsbergen Current; NCaC: North Cape Current; RAW: Re-circulating Atlantic Water; SB: Svalbard Branch; YSC: Yermark Slope Current; ESC: East Spitsbergen Current; EGC: East Greenland Current. (B) Temperature and salinity profile from the core site measured in August 2007.

Figure 2. Age model and sedimentation rate of core MSM05/5-712-2. Error bars show the 2σ standard deviation of the calibrated ages.

Figure 3. Planktic foraminifera, sedimentological and geochemical data plotted against age and depth in core MSM05/5-712-2. (A) Bulk sediment calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) (wt.%) (Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013 and present study); (B) Total flux of planktic foraminifera on logarithmic scale (grey shading); (C-G) Relative percentage of five most abundant planktic foraminiferal species (black lines); (H-L) Flux of individual species (grey shading); (M) Grain size >1mm (IRD); (N) Selected grain sizes (weight %) >63µm and <63µm and lithological units; (O) Diatom-rich layer (vertical light

**Figure 4.** Planktic foraminiferal stable isotopes, trace elements and fragmentation plotted against age and depth in core MSM05/5-712-2. (A) % fragmentation; (B) δ\(^{13}\)C in *N. pachyderma*. Error bar shows analytical precision (±0.03‰); (C) Ice-volume corrected and uncorrected δ\(^{18}\)O (black line: Fairbanks, 1989; grey line: Peltier and Fairbanks, 2006; thin grey line: uncorrected data) in *N. pachyderma*. Error bar shows analytical precision (±0.06‰); (D) Mg/Ca in *N. pachyderma* (Aagaard-Sørensen et al., 2013 and present study). The thin line shows the raw data, and the thick line is the five-point running mean. The crosses mark omitted data points. The filled circle shows the average reproducibility of sample splits (±0.049 mmol/mol); (E) Post cleaning mass of CaCO\(_3\) (µg). Chronostratigraphical zones follow Rasmussen et al. (2007a), Steffensen et al. (2008) and Walker et al. (2009). Diamonds on X-axis indicate radiocarbon dated levels.

**Figure 5.** Foraminiferal records and sSST reconstruction from core MSM05/5-712-2 compared to other records from the Nordic Seas and the NorthGRIP ice core plotted against age. (A) Stable oxygen isotope (δ\(^{18}\)O) record obtained from the NGRIP ice core (Rasmussen et al., 2006). (B) Reconstructed sSST\(_{Mg/Ca}\) (black line) and sSST\(_{Mg/Ca+15\%}\) based on Mg/Ca values that have been artificially increased 15 % (thin grey line) using the temperature equation of Kozdon et al. (2009). The sSST\(_{Transfer}\) for 100 m water depth (Husum and Hald, 2012) (thick grey line). Triangles on Y-axis indicate modern water temperature at 25 (6.7°C) and 250 (3.7°C) m water depth in the Fram Strait (See Fig. 1B). (C) sSST\(_{Transfer}\) reconstruction at 100 m water depth in core
MD99-2304 (thick grey line) (Ebbesen et al., 2007; Husum and Hald, 2012). (D)  
sSST\textsubscript{Transfer} reconstruction at 100 m water depth in core T-88-2 (thick grey line) (Hald  
and Aspeli, 1997; Husum and Hald, 2012). (E-G) Relative percentage of \textit{T. quinqueloba} (grey shading) in core MSM05/5-712-2 (present study), MD99-2304  
(Ebbesen et al., 2007) and T-88-2 (Hald and Aspeli, 1997). Chronostratigraphical  
zones follow Rasmussen et al. (2007a), Steffensen et al. (2008) and Walker et al.  
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Table 1

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Table 2

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Fig 5