

1 Comment on “Synchronous records of $p\text{CO}_2$ and $\Delta^{14}\text{C}$
2 suggest rapid, ocean-derived $p\text{CO}_2$ fluctuations at the
3 onset of Younger Dryas” by Steinhorsdottir et al.

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9 Version: September 15, 2014

10 **Word count (main text): 2776.**

11 Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014) used a previously published stomata-based CO₂ record (Steinhors-
12 dottir et al., 2013) to argue for a large, abrupt change in atmospheric carbon dioxide at the
13 onset of the Younger Dryas (YD) cold interval. Their record implies a 50 ppm CO₂ rise followed
14 by a decline by 100 ppm. They compare their results to a hypothetical and highly unlikely
15 simulation scenario in which vertical mixing in the ocean is increased by a factor of 100 and
16 wind strength by a factor of 7. They furthermore compare their stomata-based CO₂ record
17 with the ice core CO₂ record derived from EPICA Dome C (EDC).

18

19 We here question their interpretation. In detail, we argue

- 20 • that the large scatter in their data and uncertainty in the reconstructed CO₂ concentration
21 do not allow any conclusions about decadal to centennial CO₂ variations on the order of
22 10 – 100 ppm. In particular their large CO₂ excursion at the Allerød/YD boundary is
23 mainly based on a single data point with a 2σ uncertainty of more than 150 ppm;
- 24 • that the changes invoked in their climate runs to explain such large CO₂ shifts are highly
25 unlikely in reality and therefore suggest a more straightforward argument that such large
26 changes in CO₂ are also highly unlikely without invoking major, undocumented shifts in
27 the climate system;
- 28 • that in the comparison with the ice core data a full consideration of the gas enclosure
29 processes in the ice was not considered in context with the purported CO₂ data from the
30 stomatal record;
- 31 • that the simulations of oceanic flushing events produce carbon isotope changes in the
32 atmosphere well outside what has been measured.

33 Based on these observations we suggest that the authors should explore whether the stom-
34 atal index may be influenced not only by CO₂ concentrations but also by local to regional
35 climate anomalies (such as changes in local temperature, relative humidity, etc.), which would
36 explain the synchronicity of changes in the stomatal index and local climate in their records in
37 a straightforward way.

38

39 We first scrutinize the stomata-based CO₂ data, which is characterized by substantial scatter.
40 The stomatal index (SI) data presented in Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013), which were used in

41 the paper by Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014), are based on a small number of leaf fragments
42 in each stratigraphic level of the core (see Fig. 5 in Steinhorsdottir et al., 2013). Each level
43 is characterized by a very large scatter in the SI of all the individual samples in one level,
44 which is clearly larger than the temporal changes discussed in the record. This large scatter in
45 each level, however, is not reflected in the uncertainty of the average SI of each level given in
46 Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013). Unfortunately, the authors did not explain how the mean and its
47 uncertainty for each time slice was calculated. This appears to be worrisome, as some depth
48 intervals / time slices in Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013) are defined by only one leaf fragment and
49 it remains unclear how the uncertainty is defined. Being unable to reconstruct how the raw
50 data has been treated statistically in the original publication, we start out in our error analysis
51 with the mean values and uncertainties as published in Table 3 of Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013).
52 We also used their equation to calculate CO₂:

$$\text{CO}_2(t) = \text{CO}_2(\text{eH}) \times \frac{\text{SI}(\text{eH})}{\text{SI}(t)}, \quad (1)$$

53 with t for time, eH for “early Holocene”, and SI for stomatal index.
54 Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013, 2014) cite a SI reconstruction by McElwain and Chaloner (1995,
55 1996) as basis of this functional dependency of atmospheric CO₂ on stomatal ratio. Clearly,
56 finding the best transfer function to translate SI data into CO₂ is a formidable task for the
57 specialists in plant science and we are not in the position to provide a better transfer func-
58 tion. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that the CO₂ changes considered in the work by
59 McElwain and Chaloner (1995, 1996) are a factor of 10 larger. Thus, the applicability of this
60 relationship for relatively small CO₂ changes during the Late Quaternary and its statistical
61 robustness could be questioned.

62
63 To stay as close as possible to the approach of Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013, 2014) we used the
64 same functional dependency here. In Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013) CO₂ is calculated based on
65 either 280 or 300 ppm for the early Holocene. For reasons of simplicity we follow only one of
66 the choices (CO₂(eH) = 300 ppm), which would represent maximum values. If alternatively
67 CO₂(eH) = 280 ppm is chosen, all calculated CO₂ values would then be 7% smaller. We apply
68 Gaussian error propagation accounting for both the errors in each SI(t) value as well as in
69 the uncertainty of the mean value for the early Holocene SI(eH), which is based on three data
70 points only. We undertook this calculation as we were puzzled that in some cases the larger

71 uncertainties in the SI values in Table 3 of Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013) were not reflected in
72 larger errors in their derived CO₂ values. For example, the data point with highest CO₂ of
73 more than 400 ppm (sample depth of 3.43 m) has the smallest error in CO₂, but one of the
74 largest errors in the corresponding stomatal index.

75
76 The result of our error analysis is shown in Fig. 1, where the CO₂ and its 2σ error for each
77 depth interval or calendar age are plotted. This clearly shows that the uncertainties in the data
78 are very large, particularly for the apparent peak during the Allerød/YD boundary, where no
79 robust conclusions can be drawn from this peak.

80
81 Looking at the entire CO₂ data set of Steinhorsdottir et al. (2013), the variability in Fig. 1
82 does not allow a rejection of the null hypothesis that all data points reflect the same CO₂ value.
83 In this case, the CO₂ maximum during the Allerød/YD boundary is in line with one or two
84 out of 31 data points being expected outside of the 95% probability range covered by the 2σ
85 error around the mean (black horizontal lines in Fig. 1A including the data point with CO₂
86 maximum).

87
88 Also, Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014) recognize that their record is subject to considerable noise
89 and argue that a 3-to-5 points running mean (averaging ~ 200 years) might be a good rep-
90 resentation of the true atmospheric signal. Our analysis above shows that a much stronger
91 smoothing is required to obtain statistically reliable values, more similar or even longer than
92 the 9-pt average shown in the Appendix A of Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014), which unfortunately
93 is not discussed in the main text.

94
95 Looking at the end of the Allerød and the beginning of the YD time intervals separately, the
96 data in Fig. 1A show that the two intervals are not significantly different. If we took the differ-
97 ence in the mean CO₂ concentration of the two intervals at face value, this would indicate that
98 in the stomata-based reconstruction the beginning of YD is characterized by lower CO₂ concen-
99 tration than the end of the Allerød in clear contradiction to the ice core record, which provides
100 a reliable picture of the atmosphere on this multi-centennial time scale (Fig. 1). Accordingly,
101 we must conclude that the stomata-based CO₂ reconstruction is not sufficiently precise to draw

102 any conclusions on centennial or even sub-centennial CO₂ variations.

103
104 In principle the discussion of the rapid CO₂ variation at the Allerød/YD boundary could stop
105 at this point. Nevertheless, in a second step, we take the values derived by Steinhorsdottir
106 et al. (2013) at face value to show that such rapid variations are not in line with the ice core
107 record and highly unlikely in terms of carbon cycle changes.

108
109 Ice core gas records are known to show only a smoothed version of the true atmospheric signal,
110 because prior to full enclosure of gas bubbles in the ice, the air in the firn can still exchange
111 with the atmosphere and individual bubbles are enclosed slowly at different points in time (e.g.
112 Spahni et al., 2003). This bubble enclosure process is faster (and thus the age distribution nar-
113 rower) with higher snow accumulation. Accordingly, to obtain gas records with high temporal
114 resolution, ice cores with high accumulation rates are required. Unfortunately, up until now the
115 CO₂ record measured in highest precision and accuracy over the last deglaciation was obtained
116 from the EDC ice core (Monnin et al., 2001; Lourantou et al., 2010; Schmitt et al., 2012), which
117 is a site with low accumulation rate. In fact for Holocene conditions, sub-centennial variations,
118 such as the apparent CO₂ excursion during the Allerød/YD boundary cannot be resolved in
119 the EDC ice core. Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014) correctly points to the upcoming new CO₂
120 data from the WAIS Divide ice core (allowing multi-decadal resolution), which show a more
121 dynamic behavior because of higher accumulation rate, and thus less averaging. But even in
122 the WAIS Divide record (Marcott et al., 2014) the largest rise during the deglaciation is only
123 about 15 ppm and occurred at the end of the YD, not the onset. In fact, at the onset of the YD
124 there is no indication of a rapid rise in CO₂ in the highly resolved WAIS Divide record, instead
125 the data show the start of a slow rise that continues through the YD and is well documented
126 in the EDC record. Note that the CO₂ measurements in the WAIS Divide core are sampled
127 at 10 – 20 year resolution, so aliasing of the true atmospheric signal is unlikely at the decadal
128 scale. Furthermore, CO₂ time series from the ice cores at Taylor Dome, Siple Dome and Byrd
129 (Neftel et al., 1988; Smith et al., 1999; Ahn et al., 2004; Pedro et al., 2012), which all have
130 modern accumulation rates in-between those of EDC and the WAIS Divide ice core (Köhler
131 et al., 2011), give all no indication on such rapid changes in CO₂ (Fig. 1).

132

133 Due to the slow bubble enclosure process, the gas records in the ice are a smoothed represen-
134 tation of the atmospheric history, especially during rapid climate transitions. In that respect a
135 prominent event, which has been previously analyzed, is the warming into the Bølling around
136 14.6 kyr ago (Köhler et al., 2011). The measured rise in EDC CO₂ of 10 ppm in about 200
137 years was hypothesized to be connected with an amplitude in true atmospheric CO₂ of more
138 than twice that size. In a previous analysis Köhler et al. (2011) used a log-normal transfer
139 function, fitted to output of firn densification models, which describe the physics of the firn
140 enclosure process, to derive a filtered signal, which might be recorded in the EDC ice core from
141 a true atmospheric peak. Similarly, to compare the results by Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014)
142 with EDC they also need to consider the smoothing due to gas enclosure. In Köhler et al.
143 (2011), Fig. 3, the mean age (filter width E) for the onset of the YD in EDC was determined
144 to be 400 years. If we now use this previously established log-normal function with a mean
145 width $E = 400$ years on the 200 yr-running mean of the stomata-based CO₂, we end up with
146 amplitudes in the CO₂ drop of 35 or 28 ppm now occurring between $\sim 13,000$ and $\sim 12,750$ years
147 BP, depending in amplitude on the potential outlier (red lines in Fig. 1B). The maximum in
148 CO₂ described by this single measurement is clearly responsible for the peak height in the 200
149 yr-running mean records (black lines in Fig. 1B). The overall amplitude of the CO₂ anomaly
150 described by the whole stomata record from Haesseldala would be a positive peak in CO₂ of
151 about 57 or 45 ppm in EDC (red lines in Fig. 1B), again depending on the potential outlier.
152 These filtered amplitudes are still larger than what is seen in the ice cores, however, they are
153 now properly treated so that a meaningful discussion of potential reasons leading to the ice
154 core-stomata mismatch might begin.

155
156 Steinhorsdottir et al. (2014) also compared their stomata-based CO₂ record from Haesseldala
157 with two other stomata-based records obtained in Scandinavia, and referred to another paper
158 with two more stomata records from the Atlantic coast of Canada (McElwain et al., 2002).
159 All other records also show an inferred prominent maximum in CO₂ of around 320 ppm be-
160 fore the onset of the YD, however, none claims values above 400 ppm. Steinhorsdottir et al.
161 (2014), but also McElwain et al. (2002) argue, that their CO₂ records appear synchronous to
162 local/regional temperature maxima, e.g. Haesseldala is compared to water isotopes obtained
163 from Greenland ice cores. We therefore suggest, that these stomata-based CO₂ records, all

164 derived from locations around the North Atlantic, might be influenced by local climate over-
165 printing the CO₂-dependencies. A possible test for this hypothesis might be stomata-based
166 CO₂ records across the YD from other regions that show a different temperature anomaly, e.g.
167 from the southern hemisphere.

168
169 Finally, we discuss the outcome of the model runs performed in Steinthorsdottir et al. (2014)
170 and contrast them to previous model studies (Köhler et al., 2010). The simulation scenarios
171 performed in Steinthorsdottir et al. (2014) are in principle able to accommodate a fast increase
172 in atmospheric CO₂ on the order of 50–100 ppm in 100 years, however, only by assuming virtu-
173 ally impossible changes in ocean ventilation or wind stress. Additionally, the model struggles
174 to reduce the excess CO₂ in the atmosphere, after these strong changes are relaxed to normal
175 conditions. Thus, the reduction of CO₂ by 100 ppm is not explained in their model runs. More-
176 over, their simulated changes in CO₂ also lead to corresponding changes in atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$
177 with amplitudes of -1.0‰ and more in 100 years. Again, this carbon isotope imprint is not in
178 line with the ice core record (Schmitt et al., 2012). Köhler et al. (2010) have shown that the
179 gas enclosure in the ice cores leads to a damping of a $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ peak stored in the EDC ice core
180 from 42% to 21% of its atmospheric size, when filtering with a mean filter width of $E = 213$ or
181 590 years for typical Holocene and Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) conditions, respectively. YD
182 climate conditions and, thus, filter width are somewhere in-between those of the Holocene and
183 the LGM. Accordingly, a -1.0‰ peak in the atmosphere at the Allerød/YD boundary, which
184 has similar temporal features as the peak tested in Köhler et al. (2010), should be imprinted
185 in the ice core record by a negative anomaly of $0.2 - 0.4\text{‰}$. A negative anomaly in $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$
186 measured in EDC on the order of 0.2‰ has been initially observed for the onset of the YD
187 based on one method (Lourantou et al., 2010), but has not been confirmed by two other (more
188 precise) methods using samples from the same ice core (Schmitt et al., 2012). The data-based
189 evidences on atmospheric $\delta^{13}\text{CO}_2$ are therefore in disagreement with results from the chosen
190 simulation scenario.

191
192 Changes in atmospheric CO₂ based on stomatal index reconstructions being more dynamic than
193 CO₂ data obtained from ice cores was already proposed for a time period around 11,300 years
194 ago at the onset of the Holocene (Wagner et al., 1999a). This paper also received some techni-

195 cal comments challenging their findings of rapid and large changes in atmospheric CO₂ which
196 are in disagreement with ice core CO₂ and other records (Indermühle et al., 1999; Birks et al.,
197 1999; Wagner et al., 1999b). Furthermore, for the abrupt cooling event around 8,200 years ago
198 a similar dispute was also published with stomata-based CO₂ suggesting a CO₂ decline on the
199 order of 25 ppm (Wagner et al., 2002), that is in conflict with high resolution findings from ice
200 core CO₂ (Ahn et al., 2014).

201
202 To conclude, we believe that comparing stomata-based and ice core-based CO₂ data is an im-
203 portant exercise that could lead to better understanding of both types of records. However,
204 such a comparison needs to be performed with care to really include the existing knowledge
205 on these proxies. Such a comparison has to reliably assess the stochastic and systematic un-
206 certainties in the records and all the knowledge of potential processes affecting the records.
207 Since ice cores directly sample the ancient atmosphere, albeit in a low-pass filtered way, any
208 rapid changes in true atmospheric CO₂ are only contained in a low-pass filtered form. For an
209 objective comparison with ice core CO₂ an appropriate gas enclosure transfer function needs
210 to be applied to all suggested atmospheric CO₂ records. If such an application leads to a
211 smoothed CO₂ record that disagrees with the ice core CO₂, the most likely explanation is, that
212 the suggested atmospheric CO₂ is biased, suggesting that a revision of the underlying methods,
213 e.g. recalibration of proxy-based approaches, may be needed.

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279 Figure captions

280 **Figure 1:** Stomata-based CO₂ versus CO₂ from the ice cores. Haesseldala data based on
281 Steinthorsdottir et al. (2013) using an early Holocene CO₂ reference value of 300 ppm. Error
282 bars show 2 σ uncertainties in CO₂ (own calculations, see text) and the given 95% range of the
283 calender age derived from ¹⁴C measurements (Table 2 in Steinthorsdottir et al., 2013). Ice core
284 data from EDC (Monnin et al., 2001; Lourantou et al., 2010; Schmitt et al., 2012) plotted on
285 AICC2012 age scale (Veres et al., 2013), Taylor Dome on revised age model (Smith et al., 1999;
286 Ahn et al., 2004), Siple Dome and Byrd (Ahn et al., 2004; Neftel et al., 1988) synchronized
287 to Greenland annual layer-counted age model GICC05 as published in Pedro et al. (2012).
288 A: Haesseldala data including uncertainties against ice core data. Vertical lines represent the
289 mean (solid) and 2 σ environment (broken) over all Haesseldala data (black), the end of the
290 Allerød (magenta), the beginning of the YD (brown) with the boundary between both inter-
291 vals around 12600 years BP, as dervied in Fig. 1 of Steinthorsdottir et al. (2014). B: Running
292 means of the Haesseldala data against ice core data. Original Hasseldala data sketched by
293 open circles without uncertainties. The 200 yr-running mean (black) is suggested to represent
294 atmospheric CO₂ in Steinthorsdottir et al. (2014) and that 200 yr-running mean is transferred
295 with a log-normal filter into a signal potentially recorded in EDC (red). The potential outlier
296 is either included (solid) or excluded (dashed) in the underlying data of the running means.
297 The log-normal filter function (Köhler et al., 2011) $f(x) = \frac{1}{x \cdot \sigma \cdot \sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-0.5 \left(\frac{\ln(x) - \mu}{\sigma} \right)^2}$, with x (yr)
298 as the time elapsed since the last exchange with the atmosphere, has two free parameters μ
299 and σ . We chose for simplicity $\sigma=1$, which leads to $E = e^{\mu+0.5}$. The mean time since exchange
300 with the atmosphere E was calculated with firn densification models to 400 years around the
301 Allerød/YD transition (Köhler et al., 2011). The shape of the PDF is in reasonable agreement
302 for output from those firn densification models. Due to the shortness of the CO₂ time series
303 we truncate the long tail of the log-normal filter function at $2 \times E = 800$ years and normalize
304 accordingly to avoid loss of data. Filtering reduces the length of a time series by half of the
305 width of the filter at both ends. To be able to apply the log-normal filter over the whole CO₂
306 anomaly the 200 yr-running mean is extended by constant values (black thin horizontal lines).

307

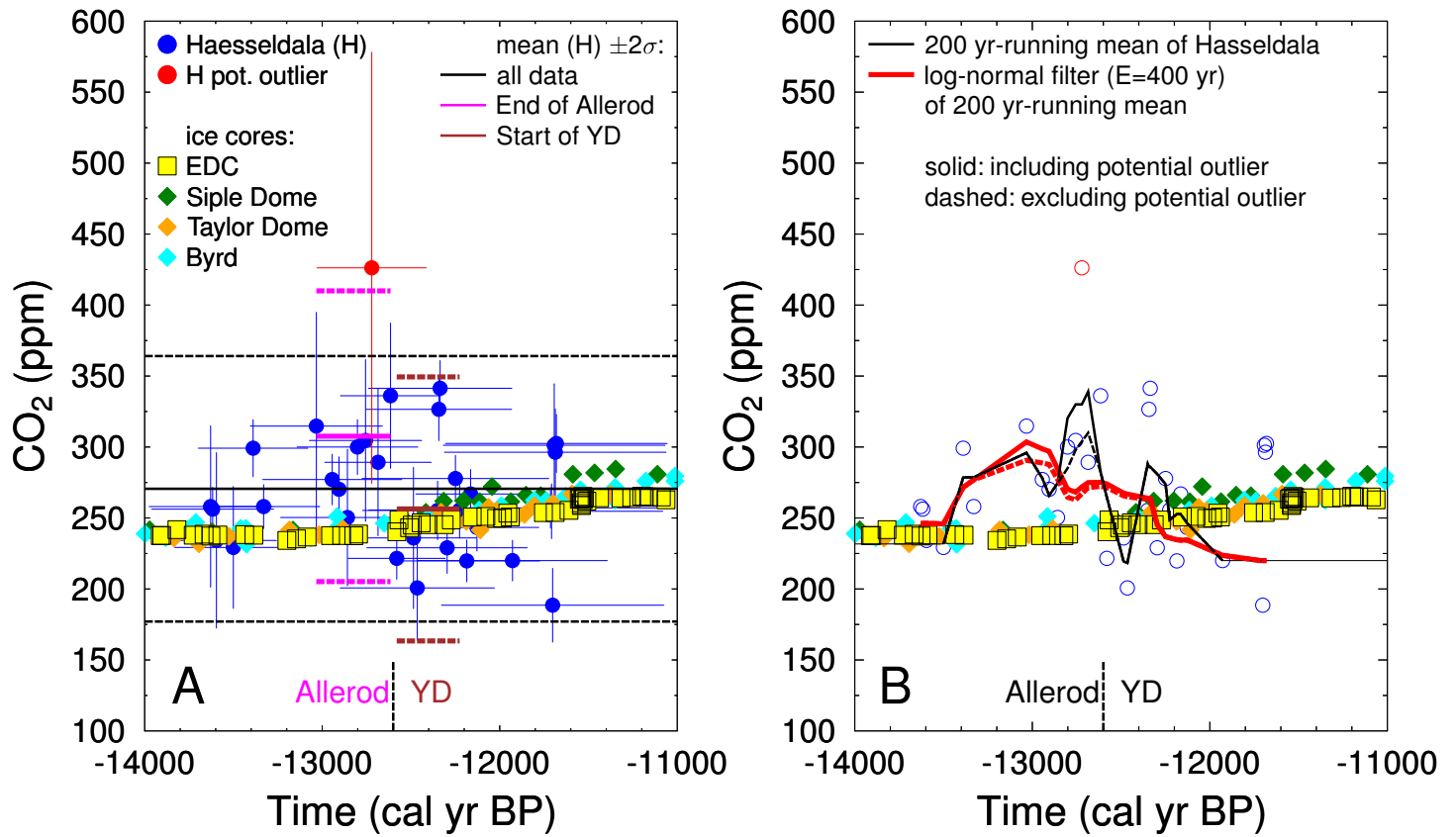


Figure 1: