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Northward shift of the southern westerlies during the Antarctic Cold Reversal

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Highlights:

We present empirical palaeoclimate data that demonstrate a northward shift of the southern westerly wind during the Antarctic Cold Reversal (ACR) that drove antiphase west-east environmental responses across the island of Tasmania.

Stronger westerly wind flow over Tasmania during the ACR drove wetter conditions on the western (windward) slopes of the Tasmanian mountains that dampened regional fire activity and drove regional vegetation change toward more cold tolerant plant communities.

Stronger westerly wind flow over Tasmania during the ACR drove increased evaporation on the eastern (leeward) side of the Tasmanian mountains.

Our results support that millennial scale climate variability involves global reorganisation of ocean and atmospheric circulation and heat transport.

Graphical Abstract for Northward shift of the southern westerlies during the Antarctic Cold Reversal

Fletcher, Michael-Shawn^{1,2*}, Pedro, Joel^{3,4}, Hall, Tegan¹, Mariani, Michela^{1,5}, Alexander, Joseph A.¹, Beck, Kristen^{1,6}, Blaauw, Maarten⁷, Hodgson, Dominic A.⁸, Heijnis, Henk⁹, Gadd, Patricia. S.⁹, Lise-Pronovost, Agathe¹⁰

Correspondence to: michael.fletcher@unimelb.edu.au

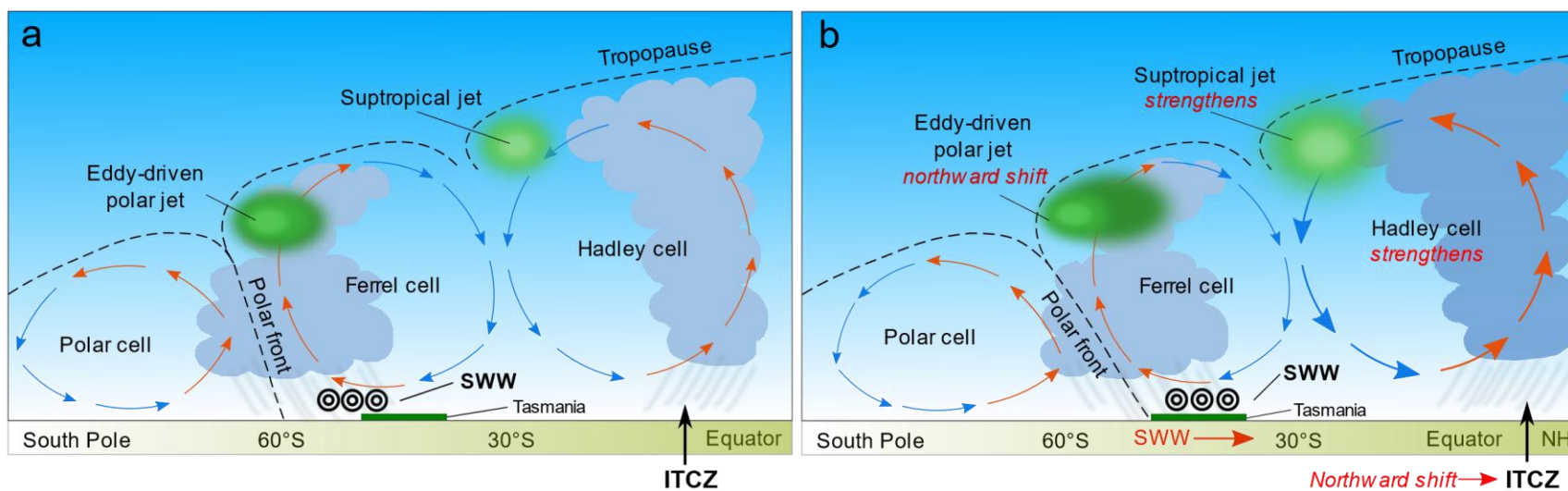


Figure. S6.

Schematic illustrating (a) the approximate latitudinal positions of major components of Southern Hemisphere atmospheric system pre-northward shift of the ITCZ, and (b) atmospheric processes involved in the northward shift of the ITCZ and southern westerlies (SWW). Schematic shows a northward intensification of the Southern Hemisphere winter Hadley circulation, which delivers increased heat and eddy-momentum flux into the Southern Hemisphere subtropics. The increased momentum flux strengthens the subtropical jet and pulls the eddy driven polar jet (of which the surface expression is the southern westerlies) northward.

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2 **Northward shift of the southern westerlies during the Antarctic Cold Reversal**

3 **Authors:** Fletcher, Michael-Shawn^{1,2*}, Pedro, Joel^{3,4}, Hall, Tegan¹, Mariani, Michela^{1,5}, Alexander, Jo-
4 seph A.¹, Beck, Kristen^{1,6}, Blaauw, Maarten⁷, Hodgson, Dominic A.⁸, Heijnis, Henk⁹, Gadd, Patricia. S.⁹,
5 Lise-Pronovost, Agathe¹

6

7 **Affiliations:**

8 ¹School of Geography, Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

9 ²Indigenous Knowledge Institute, University of Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

10 ³Australian Antarctic Division (AAD), Kingston, Tasmania, Australia

11 ⁴Australian Antarctic Program Partnership, Institute for Marine and Antarctic Studies, University of
12 Tasmania, Hobart, Tasmania

13 ⁵School of Geography, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, United Kingdom

14 ⁶Lincoln Centre for Water and Planetary Health, School of Geography, University of Lincoln, Lincoln,
15 United Kingdom

16 ⁷School of Natural and Built Environment, Queen's University Belfast, United Kingdom

17 ⁸British Antarctic Survey, Cambridge & Department of Geography, Durham University, United King-
18 dom

19 ⁹Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation, New South Wales, Australia

20 *Corresponding author: michael.fletcher@unimelb.edu.au

21 **Abstract:** Inter-hemispheric asynchrony of climate change through the last deglaciation has been
22 theoretically linked to latitudinal shifts in the southern westerlies via their influence over CO₂ out-

23 gassing from the Southern Ocean. Proxy-based reconstructions disagree on the behaviour of the
24 westerlies through this interval. The last deglaciation was interrupted in the Southern Hemisphere by
25 the Antarctic Cold Reversal (ACR; 14.7 to 13.0 ka BP (thousand years Before Present)), a millennial-
26 scale cooling event that coincided with the Bølling–Allerød warm phase in the North Atlantic (BA; 14.7
27 to 12.7 ka BP). We present terrestrial proxy palaeoclimate data that demonstrate a migration of the
28 westerlies during the last deglaciation. We support the hypothesis that wind-driven out-gassing of old
29 CO₂ from the Southern Ocean drove the deglacial rise in atmospheric CO₂.

30

31

32 **1.0 Introduction**

33 The southern westerlies are part of a zonally-symmetric system that dominates the climate of the mid-
34 to high-latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere (Garreaud, 2007). Changes in the strength and
35 latitudinal position of the southern westerlies are believed to modulate global atmospheric CO₂
36 concentration via changes in wind stress over the Southern Ocean. Wind stress influences the
37 upwelling of CO₂ saturated deep waters and the capacity of the surface ocean to absorb, or release,
38 CO₂ (Siani et al., 2013). In the ocean, the latitudinal position of the southern westerlies is linked to the
39 position of the Subpolar Oceanic Front and the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (Toggweiler et al., 2006),
40 while on land changes in the southern westerlies govern mid- to high-latitude terrestrial climate,
41 principally hydroclimate (Garreaud, 2007), which has a profound influence over a range of terrestrial
42 processes (Fletcher and Moreno, 2012; Mariani and Fletcher, 2017). Parallel latitudinal shifts of the
43 southern westerlies and Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) have also been proposed for the last
44 deglaciation as part of the atmospheric response to changes in ocean heat transport by the Atlantic
45 Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) (Buizert et al., 2018; Denton et al., 2010; Markle et al.,
46 2017; Pedro et al., 2016; Sigman et al., 2020). However, while paleoclimate proxy data confirm a
47 cooling in the mid- to high latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere (poleward of ca. 40°S) during the
48 ACR, the available data provide no clear constraint on the latitudinal behaviour of the southern
49 westerlies through this interval.

50 We reconstruct westerly wind behaviour in the mid-latitudes of the Australian sector of the Southern
51 Hemisphere from multiproxy data from six radiocarbon-dated lake sediment sequences from
52 Tasmania (40-44°S; Figure 1a). Tasmania is uniquely situated to investigate the behaviour of the
53 southern westerlies during the ACR due to its location at the northern margins of the westerly wind
54 belt and an exceptionally strong correlation between southern westerly wind speed and its rainfall
55 anomalies (Figure 1b) (Gillett et al., 2006). This means that rainfall proxies can be applied to
56 reconstruct past changes in wind regimes. Tasmania's mountainous west coast and contrasting

57 lowland east coast create an orographic effect that splits the island into clear zones of positive
58 (western sites) and negative (eastern sites) correlation between southern westerly wind speed and
59 rainfall (Figure 1b). This allows us to target sites where there is an unambiguous southern westerly
60 influence over rainfall.

61 We compile new lake sediment rainfall proxies including charcoal, pollen and geochemistry from six
62 lakes located in zones of both significant positive and significant negative correlation between
63 southern westerly wind speed and rainfall (Figure 1b). While the charcoal proxy is influenced by
64 human-caused fire ignitions (Bowman and Brown, 1986), the occurrence and spread of fires is
65 moisture-limited in the high-rainfall west of Tasmania (McWethy et al., 2013; Styger and Kirkpatrick,
66 2015). Sedimentary charcoal analyses have previously revealed a coherence between changes in
67 regional charcoal (biomass burning) and changes in moisture delivery by the southern westerlies
68 through the Holocene: increased southern westerly flow over Tasmania results in reduced
69 sedimentary charcoal content (and vice-versa), reflecting the primacy of southern westerly-derived
70 orographic rainfall over regional fire regimes (Mariani and Fletcher, 2017; Mariani and Fletcher, 2016).

71

72 **2.0 Material and methods**

73 *2.1 Construction of age models*

74 ¹⁴C analysis using accelerator mass spectrometry (AMS) was used to date each sediment record
75 utilised in this analysis. Results for each sample submitted for analysis, along with their calibrated age
76 ranges, are provided in Table 1. All radiocarbon ages were calibrated using SHCal20 (Hogg et al., 2020)
77 and age-depth models for each core (Figure 3) were constructed using the *rbacon* v2.3.9.1 (Blaauw
78 and Christen, 2011) package in R. Modelling was restricted to ~9 to 18 ka. Modelled age outputs were
79 then used to compare regional proxy data records.

80 *2.2 Palaeofire compilation*

81 Palaeofire analysis was carried out using the paleofire package in R (Blarquez et al., 2014) and follows
82 the methodology outlined in Mariani & Fletcher (2016). Three charcoal records from the precipitation-
83 dominant western Tasmania were considered for this analysis (Lake Selina, Basin Lake and Lake Vera).
84 Firstly, a transformation of the data was performed using the function pfTransform with MinMax, Box-
85 Cox and Z-score methods. Transformation and standardization of different charcoal records is a highly
86 recommended step in generating a synthesis (Blarquez et al., 2014). Here, we used the methodology
87 proposed by Power et al. (2008) and involved a three-step data transformation including a min-max
88 data-rescaling, variance homogenization using Box-Cox data transformation (Box and Cox, 1964), and
89 final rescaling to Z-scores. The palaeofire composite was calculated using the function pfCompositeLF,
90 consisting in a modified version of existing methods (Daniau et al., 2012; Marlon et al., 2008), involving
91 a two-stage smoothing method (including LOWESS; Cleveland, 1979) of the selected bins interval. In
92 this case, 100 years-bins were used, since it represents the best achievable resolution in order to
93 include the majority of charcoal records for the entire reconstruction period. Confidence intervals
94 were obtained using the function circboot with 1000 repetitions, which applies a "moving" or
95 "circular" block bootstrap method (Kunsch, 1989) to test significance of changes in stationary time
96 series.

97 **2.3 Geochemical proxy analysis**

98 Micro-X-Ray fluorescence spectrometry (μ XRF) elemental profiles were obtained for three western
99 Tasmanian records (Lake Tiberias, Lake Selina and Hazards Lagoon from the Australian Nuclear Science
100 and Technology Organisation (ANSTO)). Cores were scanned at 0.5 mm resolution using Cox Analytical
101 Systems ITRAX μ XRF core scanner with a Mo tube (55mA current; 20s count time; 30kV voltage). Raw
102 data were normalised to kpcs (Croudace and Rothwell, 2015). Ca/Ti ratios for each record were
103 extracted from the full dataset as a proxy for relative evaporation levels across western Tasmania
104 (Croudace and Rothwell, 2015).

105 The geochemistry of lake sediments is also influenced by changes to in-lake processes such as
106 evaporative conditions and lake levels. The deposition of evaporative carbonate minerals into lake
107 sediments is influenced by authigenic (within-lake) and allogenic (external catchment) processes,
108 making it necessary to isolate the signal of authigenic deposition in order to infer changes to in-lake
109 conditions (Cohen, 2003). For example, by normalising μ XRF carbonate proxy elements (calcium and
110 strontium) against stable detrital elements in the record, it is possible to isolate the authigenic
111 carbonate signal (Croudace & Rothwell, 2015). This method has been widely used in paleolimnology,
112 including in western Tasmania (Fletcher et al., 2014), and forms the basis for interpretations of in-lake
113 conditions at Lake Rolleston. Precipitation of evaporative carbonate minerals in fresh-water lakes
114 varies with changes to evaporative conditions and lake levels (Cohen, 2003; Haberzettl et al., 2007;
115 Kelts and Hsü, 1978). The type of evaporative minerals that are precipitated in the water column are
116 dependent on initial water chemistry, which is related to the underlying catchment geology (Eugster
117 and Hardie, 1978).

118 **2.4 Palynology**

119 Pollen samples were prepared and analysed for the four western Tasmanian sites (Basin Lake, Lake
120 Vera, Paddy's Lake and Lake Selina) according to standard protocols (Faegri and Iversen, 1989).
121 Percentages of *Phyllocladus aspleniifolius* and Poaceae taxa were isolated from the full pollen
122 datasets, focusing on the last 18 kyrs. Raw percentage data for these taxa were calculated from the
123 terrestrial pollen sum and are presented in Figures S4 (*P. aspleniifolius*) and S5 (Poaceae). Data from
124 all six sites were then collated into one time series to construct a regional time-series for each taxon.
125 Prior to collation, data were standardised (transformed into z-scores) to account for differences in the
126 mean abundances of the original datasets.

127

128 **3.0 Results**

129 All graphed results are in the Supplementary Information (Figs. S1-5) and this section only briefly
130 describes the results here. All selected cores span the ACR interval with sufficient dating to resolve
131 environmental changes through this interval (Figure S1). Synthesis of the charcoal records from the
132 western Tasmanian sites (n=4) demonstrates a sharp increase in CHAR across the west commencing
133 at ca. 17.8 ka BP and continuing until ca. 15 ka BP, before declining between ca. 13.5 ka BP. CHAR
134 values rise again toward peak regional values at ca. 12.2 ka BP and decline thereafter (Figs 2, S3).
135 Calculation of the Ca/Ti ratio for the evaporation-dominant sites in eastern Tasmania show a discrete
136 peak in overall values during the ACR interval (ca. 14.7 to 13.0 ka BP) indicating a peak in calcite
137 precipitation under evaporative conditions during this interval (Figure 2). The synthesised pollen
138 records from the precipitation-dominant western Tasmanian sites show increased values in the
139 hygrophilous conifer *P. aspleniifolius* between ca. 16-12 ka BP, with a discrete dip centred on the ACR
140 interval (Figure S4). High Poaceae values, associated with cool temperatures in western Tasmania
141 (Fletcher and Thomas, 2007), occur discretely during the ACR interval, embedded in a long-term
142 decrease commencing at ca. 18 ka BP (Figure S5).

143

144 **4.0 Discussion**

145 Charcoal influx to the western Tasmanian lakes decreases during the ACR (Figs. 2d, S2-3), consistent
146 with enhanced westerly winds and rainfall, reducing biomass burning. This change is synchronous with
147 a marked increase in carbonate precipitation and subsequent deposition (sedimentary Ca/Ti ratio)
148 (Kylander et al., 2011) at two sites in eastern Tasmania (Figs. 2a,b) and a concomitant decrease in
149 carbonate deposition in the west (Figure 2c). Carbonate precipitation occurs under increased
150 evaporative conditions in freshwater lakes (Kelts and Hsü, 1978) and the east-west anti-phasing of
151 carbonate deposition displayed in our data during the ACR mirrors the modern rainfall-southern
152 westerly relationship (Figure 1), suggesting an increase in wind speed over Tasmania at this time. The
153 increasing sedimentary charcoal in the west of Tasmania immediately prior to (ca. 17-15 ka BP) and

154 following (>13 ka BP) the ACR (Figure 2d) is consistent with a drier climate under a weaker southern
155 westerly flow. These trends in proxy-inferred hydroclimate across Tasmania indicate either a
156 strengthening of the westerly flow at their northern edge or a northward displacement of the
157 westerlies during the ACR. The modern zone of maximum westerly winds speed lies between 50-60°S
158 (Garreaud et al., 2009). A reduction in westerly wind-driven upwelling at marine core site TN057-13PC
159 (located at 53.2°S, 5.1°E; Figure 1a) on the southern edge of the southern westerlies during the ACR
160 (Anderson et al., 2009) (Figure 3g) is synchronous with our inference of an increase in westerly flow
161 at their northern edge in Tasmania (see Supplementary Information Table S1). This synchronicity of
162 the ACR signal across the Southern Hemisphere suggests that a northward shift in the Australian sector
163 is more likely than a stationary strengthening.

164

165 Our composite pollen data (see Figs. S4-5) from across western Tasmania indicate a regional expansion
166 of Poaceae pollen (indicative of grassland; Figure 2f) during the ACR at the expense of *Phyllocladus*
167 *aspleniifolius* (Figure 2e), a lowland temperate rainforest tree. Forests replaced grasslands during the
168 last deglaciation in Tasmania in response to increasing temperature (Colhoun, 2000; Fletcher and
169 Thomas, 2010), and our pollen data reflect a short-lived reversal of this trend in response to a
170 temperature decrease during the ACR. Cooling over Tasmania is supported by proxy and model-based
171 reconstructions of the ACR across the mid- to high-latitudes of the Southern Hemisphere (Koffman et
172 al., 2017; Pedro et al., 2016; Putnam et al., 2010; Vandergoes et al., 2008). Collectively, our data
173 indicate reduced temperature and increased southern westerly flow over Tasmania during the ACR
174 that resulted in a cool and wet climate on the mountainous west coast sites, and a cool and dry climate
175 on the lowland east coast sites.

176

177 We observe a synchronous and in-phase relationship between southern westerly changes over
178 Tasmania and changes in the strength of the Leeuwin Current (De Deckker et al., 2012) (inferred from

179 core MD03-2611 in the Great Australian Bight; Figure 1a), a surface ocean current that delivers warm
180 tropical water from the Indo-Pacific Warm Pool to southern Australia (carrying tropical foraminifera
181 such as *Globigerinoides ruber*) (Figure 3d) (Weaver and Middleton, 1989). The Leeuwin current is
182 strongest in the Austral winter, when the northerly displaced southern westerlies accelerate the
183 current along Australia's southern coast (Cirano and Middleton, 2004). We suggest the increased
184 proportion of tropical foraminifera observed in MD03-2611 during the ACR can be explained by a
185 northward-shifted southern westerly wind flow over the Australian sector. This shift would strengthen
186 the Leeuwin Current along the south coast of Australia, in a similar way as seasonal migrations of the
187 southern westerlies do today (Figure 3d).

188

189 Northward migration of the southern westerlies during the ACR is consistent, from an atmospheric
190 dynamics perspective, with the documented northward shift of the ITCZ over northern Australia
191 (Ayliffe et al., 2013; Ceppi et al., 2013; Denniston et al., 2013). The tendency for the ITCZ and southern
192 westerlies to shift in the same direction is explained in detail elsewhere (Ceppi et al., 2013; Lee et al.,
193 2011) and is documented by empirical data in the Australian sector during the Holocene (Mariani et
194 al., 2018). In brief, a northward shift of the ITCZ is associated with strengthening of the Southern
195 Hemisphere Hadley circulation delivering increased heat and eddy-momentum flux into the Southern
196 Hemisphere subtropics. The increased momentum flux strengthens the subtropical jet and pulls the
197 eddy driven jet (of which the surface expression is the southern westerlies) northward (Ayliffe et al.,
198 2013; Denniston et al., 2013; Ceppi et al., 2013; Chiang et al., 2014) (Figure 6).

199

200 Importantly, our interpretation reconciles southern westerly proxy data spanning the ACR in the
201 Australian region (De Deckker et al., 2012) with southern westerly behaviour elsewhere in the
202 Southern Hemisphere. Rainforest declines in northeastern Brazil and the expansion of Magellanic
203 moorland in western Patagonia indicate a northward shift in both the ITCZ and southern westerlies

204 between 15-13 ka BP (Montade et al., 2015). Recent Antarctic ice core based evidence show zonal
205 shifts in moisture sources that similarly indicate northward movement of the westerlies during the
206 ACR as well as earlier abrupt glacial climate changes (Buizert et al., 2018; Markle et al., 2017).

207 Our results provide further empirical evidence for the dynamics-based view that millennial scale
208 climate variability involves major global reorganisation of ocean and atmospheric circulation and heat
209 transport (Buizert et al., 2018; Markle et al., 2017; Pedro et al., 2016). The much-cited thermal ocean
210 seesaw mechanism (Stocker and Johnson, 2003) is only one component of this larger coupled ocean-
211 atmosphere reorganisation. Enhanced northward ocean heat transport is the primary energy source
212 sustaining the Northern Hemisphere warming of the Bølling-Allerød and the South Atlantic and
213 Southern Ocean cooling of the ACR (Pedro et al., 2018). The northern warming is abrupt (decadal
214 scale) because it is associated with breakdown of stratification, release of accumulated sub-surface
215 heat and rapid sea ice retreat in the North Atlantic and Nordic seas (Dokken et al., 2016; Sadatzki et
216 al., 2018, Capron et al., 2021). The large-scale atmospheric counterpart to these changes stems from
217 the effective northward shift of the thermal equator, which sets the position of the Hadley circulation
218 and ITCZ. In shifting north, the cross equatorial Hadley cell gathers more energy from the warmer
219 (northern) hemisphere for redistribution to the cooler (southern) hemisphere (Hartman et al., 2016),
220 i.e. the dynamic atmospheric response acts to reduce the thermal imbalance between the
221 hemispheres (see e.g. Fig 4 of Pedro et al. 2018). As detailed by Ceppi et al., (2013), and noted earlier,
222 the northward shift of the westerlies occurs because a stronger cross-equatorial Hadley circulation
223 also fluxes more momentum into the southern hemisphere subtropics, causing northward
224 intensification of the eddy-driven jet and its surface expression in the southern westerlies.

225 An alternative hypothesis to the above 'extended thermal seesaw' was recently proposed by Denton
226 et al, (2021). In their 'Zealandia Switch', orbitally-forced changes in southern hemisphere insolation
227 drive millennial-scale variability in the position of the southern westerlies. When combined with the
228 physical constraints of the Australian/Zealandia bathymetric footprint, these wind changes are

229 proposed to affect the global heat budget through the regulation of heat transport from the Tropical
230 Pacific into the northern and southern hemisphere. We cannot exclude that this mechanism
231 contributes to SH cooling during the ACR. However, the extended thermal seesaw framework has the
232 advantages of satisfying the north-south timing, amplitude and spatial pattern of observed for
233 millennial scale climate variations in multiple data compilations and data—model comparisons [e.g.
234 Menviel et al., 2011; Pedro et al., 2016; Buizert et al., 2018, Corrick et al., 2020; Anderson et al., 2021,
235 Capron et al., 2021]. Whether the ‘Zealandia Switch’ hypothesis satisfies such tests remains to be
236 elucidated.

237 The northward shift of the southern westerlies during the ACR is synchronous with a reduction in
238 Southern Ocean upwelling inferred from opal burial rates at TN057-13-4PC situated at 53°S, 5°E and
239 with a CO₂ plateau in Antarctic ice cores (Figure 3i). Similarly, our evidence for southward shifted
240 westerlies during the periods of deglacial warming that bracket the ACR aligns with increases in
241 inferred Southern Ocean upwelling and intervals of CO₂ rise (Figure 3g,h). These results are consistent
242 with the hypothesis that the position of the southern westerlies contributed to the observed deglacial
243 CO₂ trends (Anderson et al., 2009; Toggweiler et al., 2006, Rae et al., 2018, Allen et al., 2019): i.e.
244 enhanced Southern Ocean upwelling contributing to CO₂ outgassing when the winds were shifted
245 southward toward Drake Passage and reduced outgassing when the winds shifted back northward,
246 intensifying over Tasmania, during the ACR.

247

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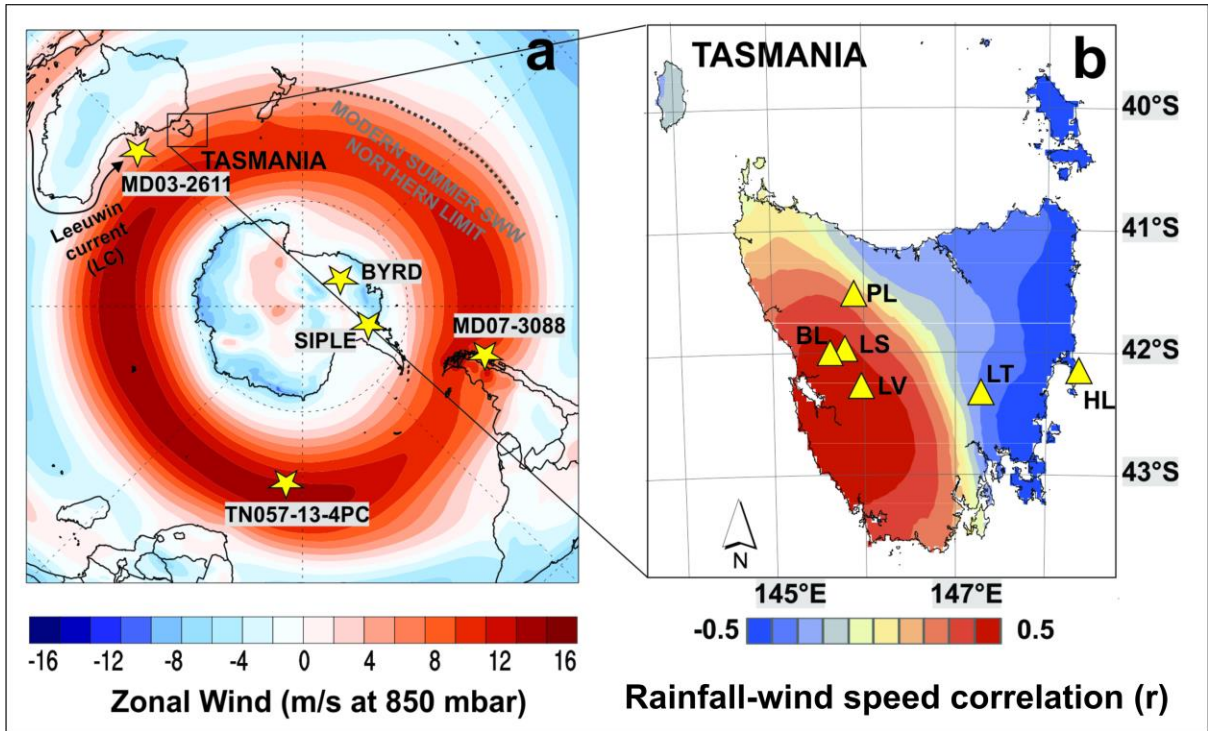
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411 **Figure 1 (a)** A map of zonal (southern westerly) wind speed showing the location of proxy sites
 412 mentioned in the text and **(b)** a correlation map of southern westerly wind speed and rainfall in
 413 Tasmania with sites analysed in this study: LV – Lake Vera; BL – Basin Lake; LS – Lake Selina; PL –
 414 Paddy’s Lake; LT – Lake Tiberias and HL – Hazards Lagoon.

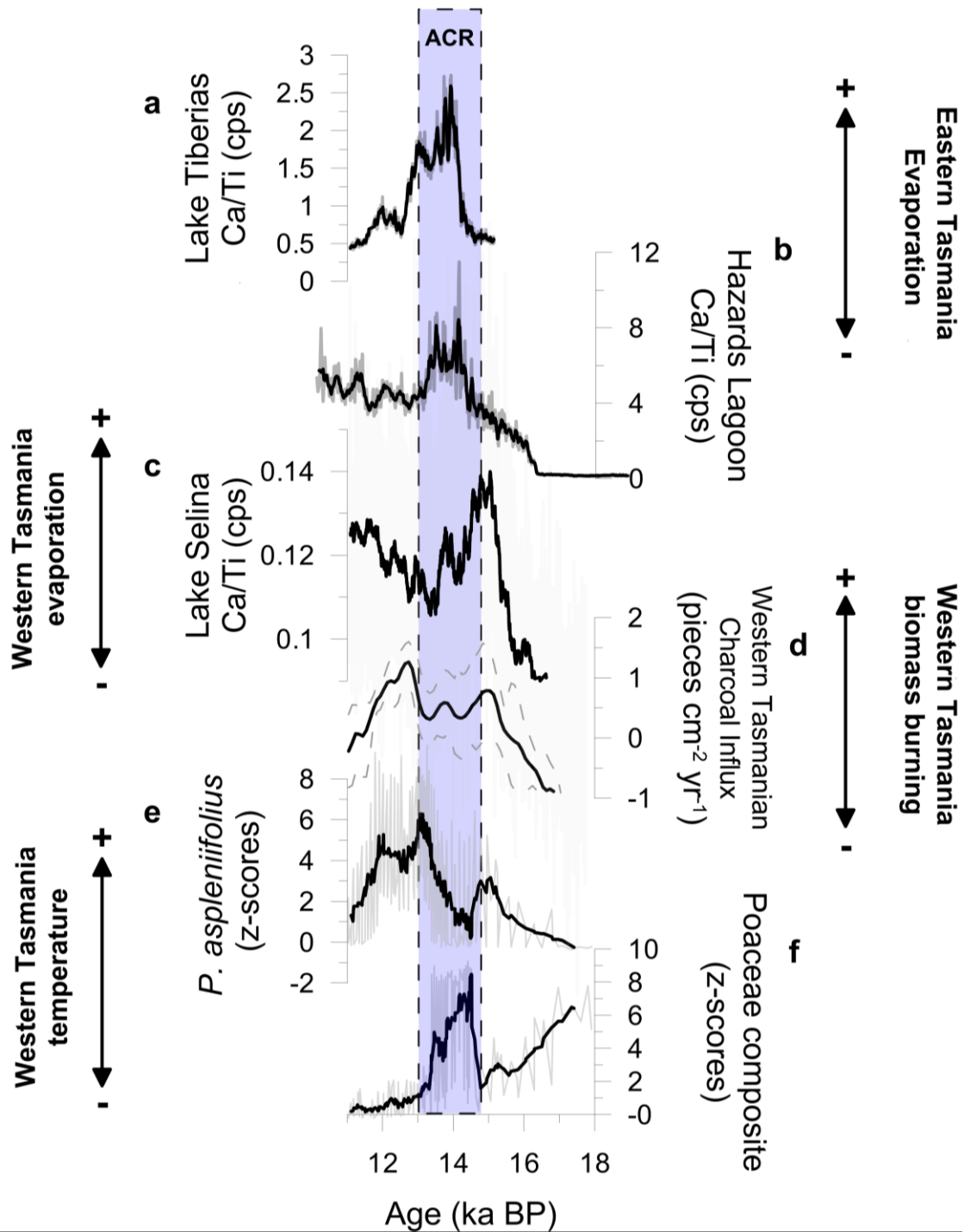
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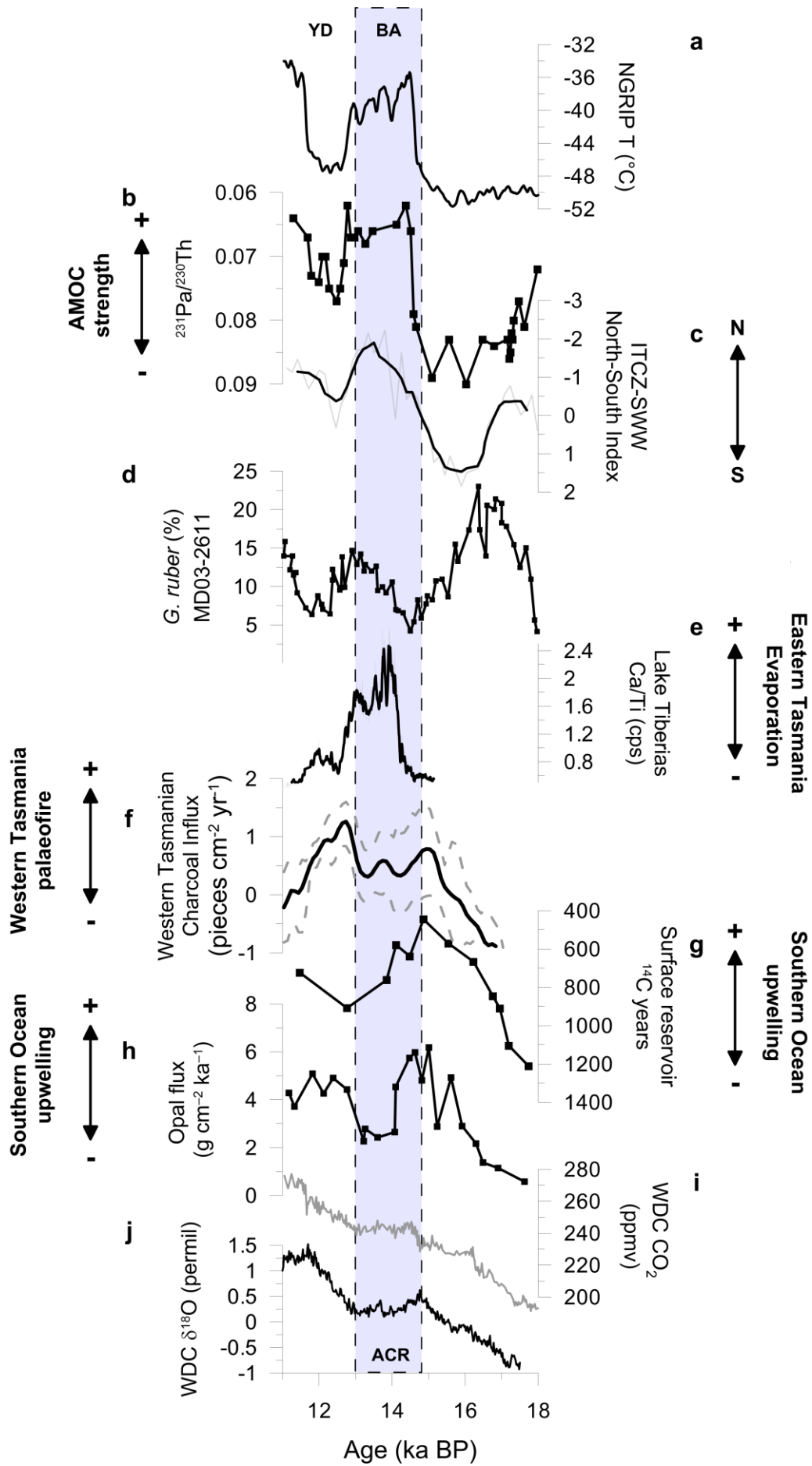


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421 Figure 2 Proxy data spanning the period between 18-11 ka BP showing (a) Lake Tiberias and (b)
 422 Hazards Lagoon and (c) Lake Selina Ca/Ti ratio, indicating changes in evaporite deposition. Black
 423 curves indicate the weighted average (5-year window) for (a), (b) and weighted average (43-year
 424 window) for (c); (d) western Tasmania charcoal influx composite (n=3) showing upper and lower
 425 confidence intervals (dashed grey lines) indicating moisture-driven changes in fire activity; (e)

426 composite pollen (n=6) of the hygrophilous rainforest tree *Phyllocladus aspleniifolius*; and (f)
427 composite Poaceae pollen curve (n=6) indicating changes in the grassland component of western
428 Tasmanian pollen records. Black curves for both (e) and (f) indicate the weighted average (7-year
429 window). Chronologies and associated uncertainties for all records used to create composite curves
430 are presented in Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 3.

431



433 **Figure 3 Global proxy data spanning the period between 18-11 ka showing (a) Proxy NGRIP surface-**
434 **air temperature (^{15}N and diffusion-based reconstruction) (Buizert et al., 2018); (b) Proxy AMOC**
435 **strength ($^{231}\text{Pa}/^{230}\text{Th}$) from the Bermuda Rise (McManus et al., 2004); (c) Normalized index**
436 **summarizing common latitudinal shifts of both the ITCZ and the southern westerlies (Montade et**
437 **al., 2015); (d) *Globigerinoides ruber* % from ocean core MD03-2611 at 37°S (De Deckker et al., 2012)**
438 **a tropical foraminifera indicating changes in the strength of the Leeuwin Current; (e) Lake Tiberias**
439 **Ca/Ti ratio showing changes in evaporation (this study); (f) western Tasmania charcoal influx**
440 **composite (n=3) indicating moisture-driven changes in fire activity (this study); (g) radiocarbon**
441 **surface reservoir age determined off the coast of Chile at 46°S (Siani et al., 2013) showing changes**
442 **in wind-driven upwelling (De Deckker et al., 2012); (h) Southern Ocean Opal flux, a proxy for**
443 **upwelling south of the Antarctic polar front from core TN057-13-4PC at 53°S showing changes in**
444 **wind-driven upwelling (Anderson et al., 2009); and West Antarctic Ice Sheet Divide ice core (WDC)**
445 **(i) CO_2 and (j) $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Buizert et al., 2018).**

446

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453 **Author contributions:**

454 Conceptualization: MSF

455 Methodology: MSF, MM, JAA, KB, PSG, HH

456 Investigation: MSF, MM, JAA, KB

457 Visualization: MSF, MM, KB, TH

458 Funding acquisition: MSF, ALP

459 Project administration: MSF

460 Supervision: MSF

461 Writing – original draft: MSF, JP

462 Writing – review & editing: MSF, JP, TH, MM, JA, KB, MB, DAH, HH, PSG, ALP

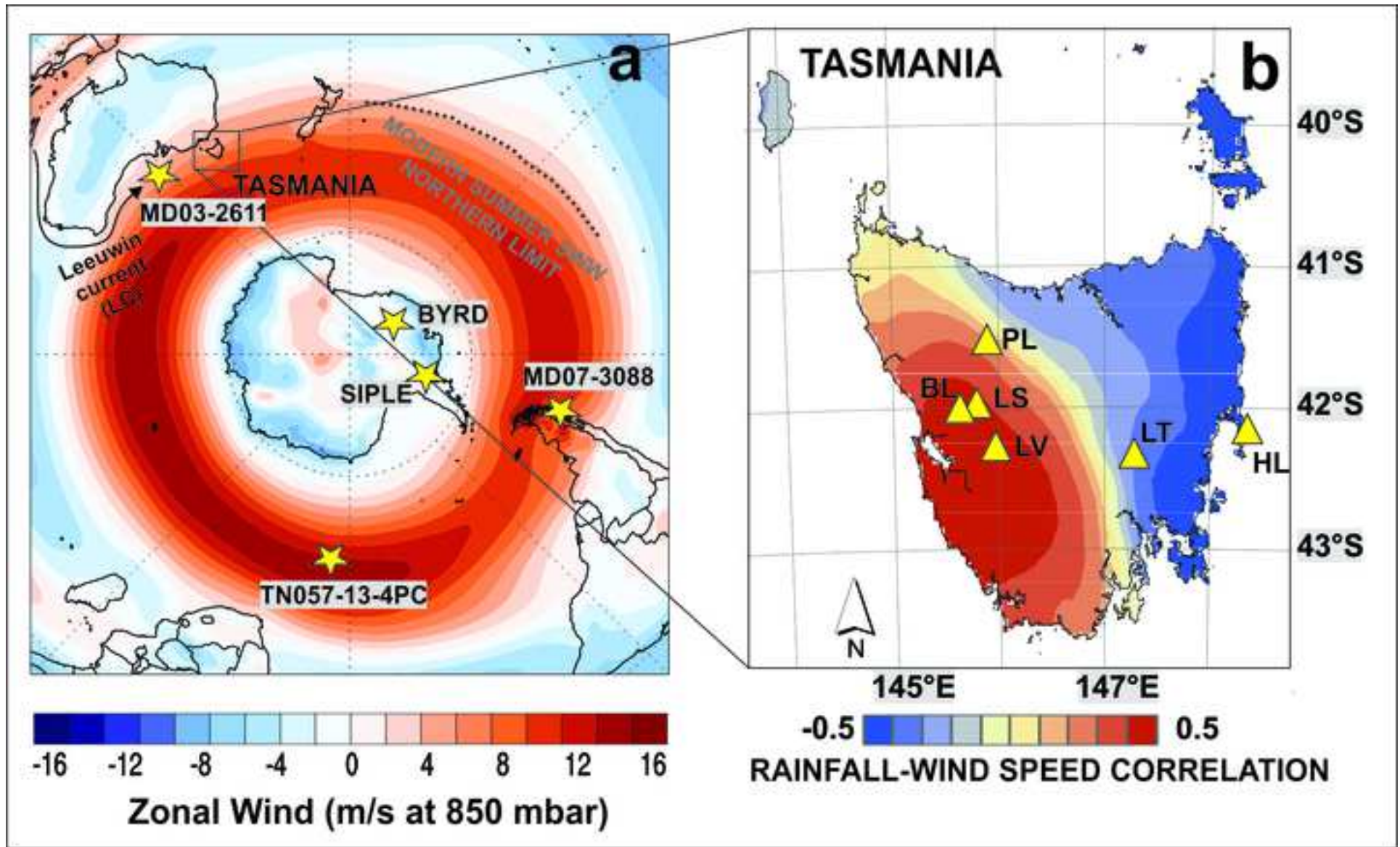
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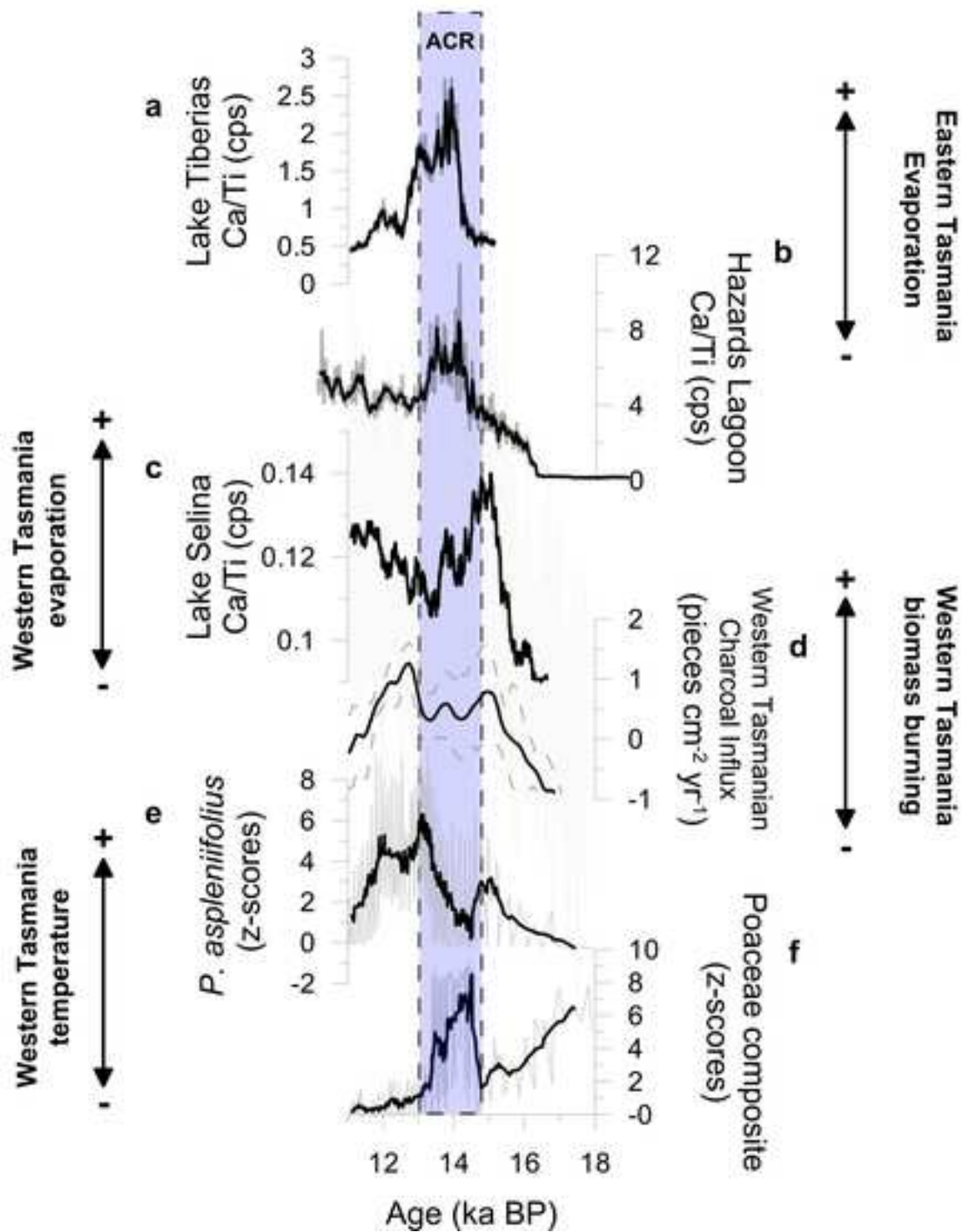
464 **Data and materials availability:**

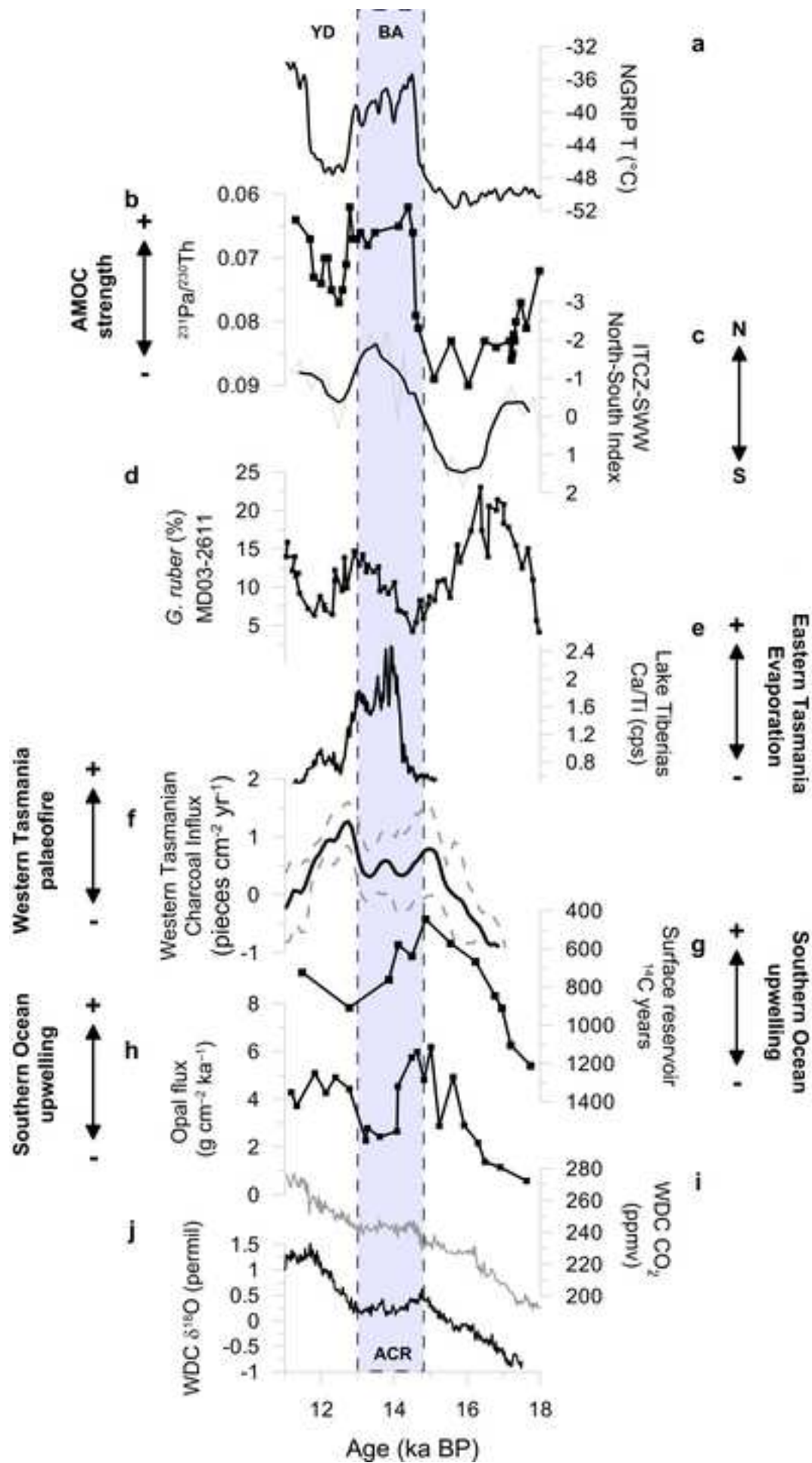
465 All data will be made available upon request

466

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: MSF

Methodology: MSF, MM, JAA, KB, PSG, HH

Investigation: MSF, MM, JAA, KB

Visualization: MSF, MM, KB, TH

Funding acquisition: MSF, ALP

Project administration: MSF

Supervision: MSF