

1 The Amplitude and Timescales of 0-15 ka Paleomagnetic Secular  
2 Variation in the Northern North Atlantic

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4 Brendan T. Reilly<sup>1</sup>, Joseph S. Stoner<sup>2</sup>, Sædís Ólafsdóttir<sup>3</sup>, Anne Jennings<sup>4</sup>, Robert Hatfield<sup>5</sup>, Gréta Björk  
5 Kristjánsdóttir<sup>6</sup>, Áslaug Geirsdóttir<sup>7</sup>

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7 <sup>1</sup>Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory, Columbia University, Palisades, NY 10964, USA

8 <sup>2</sup>College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR 97331, USA

9 <sup>3</sup>Reykjavík Energy, Reykjavík, Iceland

10 <sup>4</sup>INSTAAR, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309, USA

11 <sup>5</sup>Department of Geological Sciences, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611, USA

12 <sup>6</sup>School of Engineering and Natural Sciences, University of Iceland, Reykjavík, Iceland

13 <sup>7</sup>Faculty of Earth Sciences, University of Iceland, Reykjavík, Iceland

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15 **Corresponding author:** Brendan T. Reilly, [breilly@ldeo.columbia.edu](mailto:breilly@ldeo.columbia.edu)

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17 **Key Points:**

- 18 • Sediment cores with ultra-high accumulation rates are used to study directional changes in the  
19 Northern North Atlantic's geomagnetic field
- 20 • Study addresses uncertainties in sedimentary paleomagnetic research, such as signal  
21 attenuation, chronology, and reproducibility
- 22 • Study reveals robust variability on centennial timescales with greater variance than generally  
23 observed over the last 15,000 years

## 24 Abstract

25 We investigate the amplitude and frequency of directional geomagnetic change since 15 ka in the  
26 Northern North Atlantic (~67° N) using 5 ‘ultra-high’ resolution continental shelf sediment cores  
27 deposited at rates greater than 1 m/kyr. The ages of these cores are constrained by 103 radiocarbon  
28 dates with reservoir ages assessed through tephra correlation to terrestrial archives. Our study aims to  
29 address many of the uncertainties that are common in sedimentary paleomagnetic studies, including  
30 signal attenuation in low to moderate resolution archives and difficulty to demonstrate reproducibility  
31 in higher resolution archives. The ‘ultra-high’ accumulation rates of our cores reduce ‘lock-in’ and  
32 smoothing uncertainties associated with magnetic acquisition processes. Abundant radiocarbon dates  
33 along with an objective alignment algorithm provide a test of signal reproducibility at sub-millennial  
34 timescales. The PSV signal, evaluated as individual records and as a new stack (GREENICE15k), validates  
35 prior results, but provides stronger geochronological constraints, demonstrates a reproducible PSV  
36 signal and amplitude, and extends through the abrupt Bølling–Allerød and Younger Dryas climate  
37 transitions of the latest Pleistocene. While broadly consistent with time-varying spherical harmonic  
38 models and varve dated records from Northern Europe, we demonstrate greater variance and higher  
39 amplitudes—particularly at sub-millennial timescales. This robust variability on centennial timescales is  
40 rarely observed or discussed, but is likely important to our understanding of some of the most intriguing  
41 aspects of the geodynamo.

42

## 43 Plain Language Summary

44 Our study used mud from the seafloor to investigate changes in Earth's magnetic field in the Northern  
45 North Atlantic region over the past 15 thousand years. Magnetic minerals eroded from rocks and  
46 deposited on the seafloor can preserve a record of the geomagnetic field, like little compass needles  
47 suspended in mud. We obtained sediment cores from areas near land with very high accumulation  
48 rates, which are rare in the modern ocean, that can record short magnetic field variations that occur on  
49 the timescale of centuries. We used radiocarbon dating to determine the ages of the sediment samples  
50 and a new alignment algorithm to verify the accuracy and consistency of the magnetic signal we  
51 observed. Understanding these short geomagnetic field variations is challenging, but it is key to  
52 unlocking many mysteries about the past and future of Earth's magnetic field.

## 53 1. Introduction

54 Reconstructing the ancient magnetic field is not a trivial task and many mysteries remain. Yet, recent  
55 improvements in paleomagnetic field modeling demonstrate a dynamic and complex field (e.g.,  
56 Constable et al., 2016; Nilsson et al., 2022; Panovska et al., 2021, 2019) with the largest uncertainties  
57 typically stemming from data quality, geochronology, and spatiotemporal coverage. To improve our  
58 understanding of what components are missing in our field reconstructions, we explore the first two of  
59 these issues in the directional record of sedimentary archives—posing the questions, *what are the full*  
60 *amplitude and frequency characteristics of geomagnetic change? And do sediments ever capture them?*

61 Sediment paleomagnetic archives are globally distributed, continuous, and can be well dated. However,  
62 even if sediments are perfectly recovered with no disturbance, they can also be complicated by  
63 environmentally driven lithologic variability, variable accumulation rates, and smoothing/offsets  
64 associated with post-depositional remanent magnetization (pDRM) acquisition and  
65 sampling/measurement methods. Sediment deposits with accumulation high enough to minimize the  
66 effects of pDRM are rare, often have complex lithologies, and can be difficult to reproduce on regional  
67 scales without supervised correlation. Yet, in rare circumstances high deposition rate environments with  
68 intervals of generally homogenous lithologies are clustered, allowing us to circumvent these issues. In  
69 this study we leverage a collection of sedimentary paleomagnetic secular variation (PSV) records from  
70 continental shelves  $\sim 67^\circ$  N in the Northern North Atlantic (**Figure 1**) that target deposits with abundant  
71 radiocarbon dates and accumulation rates greater than 100 cm/kyr.

72 Based on the reasonable assumption that sediments within a limited geographic region have  
73 experienced a common geomagnetic history (see Korte et al., 2019), we begin by using the PSV records  
74 to align stratigraphies irrespective of age using an objective alignment algorithm (Hagen et al., 2020).  
75 These depth-to-depth correlations, which we call geomagnetic network analysis (GNA), allow regional  
76 organization of each stratigraphy's chronologic constraints (in this case, radiocarbon dates and tephra  
77 horizons) from multiple sequences to be combined into a single age-depth profile (c.f., Reilly et al., 2018;  
78 Stoner et al., 2007). The caveats of GNA are: 1) that the region must be small enough that the records  
79 under consideration were influenced by a common geomagnetic field through time, and 2) that the field  
80 was faithfully recorded at or near the time of deposition in a generally unaltered state at each site  
81 (essentially the same for any paleo-geomagnetic record). By using stratigraphic sequences from  
82 different depositional environments, we reduce the potential for systematic errors and provide a check  
83 for geologic uncertainties that can often go undetected. Similarly, by organizing the records and

84 stratigraphic information on a regional correlated equivalent depth scale, chronology can be easily  
85 updated with future radiocarbon calibration curves and improved understanding of the time variations  
86 in radiocarbon reservoir effects.

87

## 88 2. Materials and Methods

89 We organize previously published and new paleomagnetic and stratigraphic data from high  
90 accumulation rate depocenters on the North Iceland and Southeast Greenland Shelf collected from the  
91 Marion Dufresne II as part of the 1999 IMAGES-V campaign with the long Calypso Corer (**Figure 1**).  
92 Radiocarbon data are organized in **Supplemental Tables S1 and S2**, tephra data are organized in  
93 **Supplemental Table S3**, and paleomagnetic data are archived in the MagIC and Zenodo databases. All  
94 natural remanent magnetization (NRM) data were collected on u-channel samples at the University of  
95 California Davis paleomagnetic laboratory using a 2G Enterprises™ Model 755 cryogenic magnetometer,  
96 before and after progressive alternating field demagnetization (see Stoner et al., 2007). While  
97 measurements were made every 1 cm, the response function of the magnetometer integrates the  
98 magnetization over a ~4.5 cm interval. Although discrete samples may provide an advantage in many  
99 depositional environments with lower accumulation rates to obtain higher temporal resolution and deal  
100 with complex variations in magnetic remanence carriers (e.g., Nowaczyk et al., 2021), for this study, this  
101 response function only smooths the paleomagnetic signal on decadal timescales at most, as we only  
102 focus on sediments deposited at rates greater than 100 cm/kyr.

103 Paleomagnetic data from cores MD99-2269 and MD99-2322 are previously published and we use those  
104 data as reported in their original publication (Stoner et al., 2007). Data from MD99-2264, MD99-2265,  
105 and MD99-2266 were checked and corrected for flux jumps using UPMAG and UDECON MATLAB tools  
106 (Xuan and Channell, 2009; Xuan and Oda, 2015). Flux jumps can be difficult to predict, but are most  
107 commonly observed when the rate of flux change is too great (Bowles, 2009). However, in some cases,  
108 these flux jumps appear to be random and are characterized by an abrupt change in the flux counts on a  
109 particular axis. These types of flux jumps can be observed in continuous u-channel data, but are often  
110 obscured and overlooked by automatic drift correction (Oda and Shibuya, 1996; Xuan and Channell,  
111 2009). The UPMAG analysis identified common, but previously unrecognized, flux jumps on the X-axis on  
112 the UC Davis system when Cores MD99-2265 and MD99-2266 were run in Fall 1999 that added artifacts  
113 to the original data (**Supplemental Figures S1 and S2**). The UPMAG UCHECK algorithm effectively

114 corrected for this issue, as discussed below. MD99-2264 was measured in Spring 2005 and flux jumps  
115 were not observed in those data.

116 Hysteresis loops and backfield curves were measured on bulk sediments sampled from cores MD99-  
117 2269 and MD99-2322 at a nominal 500-year resolution. Saturation magnetization ( $M_s$ ), Remanent  
118 Magnetization ( $M_r$ ) and Bulk Coercivity ( $H_c$ ) was derived from the hysteresis loops using a saturating  
119 field of 1,000 mT following correction for the paramagnetic slope above 800 mT. The coercivity of  
120 remanence ( $H_{cr}$ ) was determined by demagnetization of the 1,000 mT  $M_r$  in 2.5 mT steps. All  
121 measurements were made on a Princeton Measurements Corporation Micromag model 3900 vibrating  
122 sample magnetometer (VSM) at Western Washington University.

123

## 124 2.1 MD99-2264

125 Core MD99-2264 is located in the Djúpáll trough on the Northwest Iceland Shelf (66.68° N, 24.20° W;  
126 235 m water depth). The core is 37.79 m long and contains deglacial to Holocene aged sediments. The  
127 base of the core is a stiff, massive diamict, overlain by fining up sequences of sand, silt and clay,  
128 indicating deposition at or near the marine terminating Iceland Ice Cap margin (Geirsdóttir et al., 2002).  
129 Above these sediments is a more distal silty clay and sandy silt glaciomarine facies with ice rafted debris  
130 (IRD) which eventually transitions into post glacial massive fine-grained sand with abundant shells  
131 (Geirsdóttir et al., 2002). 24 radiocarbon dates were previously published by Geirsdóttir et al. (2002) and  
132 Ólafsdóttir et al. (2010), although the radiocarbon dates below 30 m likely indicate reworking. Our age  
133 model only uses the 19 dates used by Ólafsdóttir et al. (2010) and indicate the upper 27.5 m span the  
134 last ~15 kyrs, with high accumulation rates suitable for our study from ~9-15 ka. Two visible ashes, the  
135 Saksunarvatn ash found at 5 m and the Vedde ash found at 11.83 m, were reported (Geirsdóttir et al.,  
136 2002). Paleomagnetic data for MD99-2264 has not been published previously; however, the data were  
137 previously discussed in the Ph.D. thesis of Ólafsdóttir (2010).

138

## 139 2.2 MD99-2265

140 Core MD99-2265 was recovered from Jökulfirðir, a tributary fjord system of Ísafjarðardjúp in the  
141 Vestfirðir region of Iceland in a basin formed between two submarine moraine ridges (66.28° N, 22.86°  
142 W; 93 m water depth). The core is just over 17 m long and lithology is primarily silty clay, with IRD  
143 present near the base of the core, below ~10 m (Geirsdóttir et al., 2002). 14 radiocarbon dates have

144 been reported by Geirsdóttir et al. (2002) and indicate that MD99-2265 spans the last ~13 kyr, with  
145 suitable accumulation rates for our study between ~7 and 12 ka. The Saksunarvatn ash was identified at  
146 10.69 m (Geirsdóttir et al., 2002). Paleomagnetic data for MD99-2265 has not been published  
147 previously; however, the uncorrected data with flux jumps on the X-axis was previously discussed in the  
148 Ph.D. thesis of Ólafsdóttir (2010).

149

### 150 2.3 MD99-2266

151 Core MD99-2266 was recovered from near the mouth of Ísafjarðardjúp, in the Vestfirðir region of  
152 Iceland behind a shallow-water sill (66.23° N, 23.27° W; 106 m water depth). This core is 38.9 m in  
153 length and has 24 published radiocarbon dates, spanning the last ~11 kyr with high enough  
154 accumulation rates for this study spanning almost that entire interval (Andrews et al., 2008; Quillmann  
155 et al., 2010). The Saksunarvatn ash was identified at 35.91 m (Quillmann et al., 2010). Declination and  
156 inclination were previously published by Andrews et al. (2008) with broad similarities in inclination  
157 noted when compared with MD99-2269, previously published by Stoner et al. (2007). However, much  
158 of the noise in MD99-2266 noted by Andrews et al. (2008) can be attributed to the previously  
159 mentioned undetected flux jumps on the X-axis. The Xuan and Channell (2009) UPMAG corrected data  
160 presented here are a significant improvement with lower maximum angular deviation (MAD; Kirschvink,  
161 1980) values and better agreement with other records, as documented later in this study and in  
162 **Supplementary Figure 2.**

163

### 164 2.4 MD99-2269

165 Core MD99-2269 was recovered from Húnaflóadjúp on the North Iceland Shelf (66.63° N, 20.85° W; 365  
166 m water depth). The core is 25.33 m in length with 27 published radiocarbon dates, spanning ~12 kyr  
167 with accumulation rates that vary between ~300-400 cm/kyr from 9.5-12 ka and ~100-300 cm/kyr after  
168 9.5 ka (Stoner et al., 2007). Detailed tephra and cryptotephra analysis has identified numerous ash  
169 layers, including the Saksunarvatn ash (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2007), which, through correlation to  
170 equivalent tephra in terrestrial sequences, has been used to assess radiocarbon reservoir ages (Stoner et  
171 al., 2013). The core has received considerable attention for paleoenvironmental and paleoclimate  
172 purposes, thanks to its strong age model and high accumulation rates (Andrews et al., 2003; Cabedo-  
173 Sanz et al., 2016; Geirsdóttir et al., 2020; Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2017). The paleomagnetic data were

174 originally published and discussed by Stoner et al. (2007), who noted a high resolution, high amplitude,  
175 and regionally reproducible signal that has since been further documented as a robust signal (Hagen et  
176 al., 2020; Stoner et al., 2013; Walczak et al., 2017), been used as a template to assess or constrain  
177 regional records (Caron et al., 2019; Korte et al., 2019; Ólafsdóttir et al., 2019, 2013; Reilly et al., 2019;  
178 Strunk et al., 2018), and is an important record for Holocene field modeling (Nilsson et al., 2022). It is  
179 one of the two records, with MD99-2322, used to create the Greenland/Iceland PSV stack of Stoner et  
180 al. (2013).

181

## 182 2.5 MD99-2322

183 Core MD99-2322 was recovered from the deepest part of the Kangerlussuaq Trough (67.14° N, 30.83°  
184 W; 714 m water depth). The core is 26.17 m in length with 20 published radiocarbon dates, with ~300-  
185 600 cm/kyr accumulation rate from 9-12 ka and ~100-200 cm/kyr accumulation rates after (Stoner et al.,  
186 2007). Detailed tephra and cryptotephra analysis has identified many tephra, but none are definitively  
187 correlative to those found in the four North Iceland cores used in this study (Jennings et al., 2014). The  
188 paleomagnetic data were first published and discussed by Stoner et al. (2007) and, like MD99-2269, has  
189 been studied in subsequent work and demonstrated to be a high resolution and reproducible signal  
190 (Hagen et al., 2020; Stoner et al., 2013).

191

## 192 3. Results

193

### 194 3.1 Paleomagnetism and Rock Magnetism

195 Like previously documented (e.g., Stoner et al., 2007), cores from this region often have well defined  
196 Characteristic Remanent Magnetizations (ChRM) that have low MAD values with single component  
197 magnetizations that trend towards the origin on an orthogonal projection plot (**Figure 2; Supplementary**  
198 **Figure S1**). ChRMs were isolated using a principle component analysis over a range of AF  
199 demagnetization steps. The same demagnetization steps were used for all the horizons in each core,  
200 but varied between cores depending on which measurements were made and what range best isolated  
201 the ChRM for Cores 2264 (20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 mT peak AF), 2265 (10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 mT peak  
202 AF), 2266 (10, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, and 50 mT peak AF), 2269 (10, 20, 30, 40, 50, and 60 mT peak AF), and

203 2322 (10, 20 25, 30, 35, 40, 50, 60 mT peak AF). Nearly all resulting MAD values for the 5 cores reported  
204 here are less than 5° (Figure 2).

205 For Cores 2265, and 2266, the data presented here differ from those initially presented in the Ph.D.  
206 thesis of Ólafsdóttir (2010) and by Andrews et al. (2008), due to the previously mentioned flux jumps  
207 that appear to have been common on the X-axis of the UC Davis magnetometer when these cores were  
208 run in Fall 1999. These flux jumps were detected and corrected using the algorithms in UPMAG and  
209 UDECOR MATLAB tools (Xuan and Channell, 2009; Xuan and Oda, 2015). We are confident that these  
210 flux jump corrections improve the data, as it decreases the number of abrupt changes in downcore  
211 declination changes, and it improves the agreement between demagnetization steps (Supplementary  
212 Figure S1A). The latter of these points is especially important, as the flux jump corrections for each  
213 demagnetization step was processed separately and the improvement can be seen in more systematic  
214 demagnetization to the origin on orthogonal demagnetization plots and resulting decrease in MAD  
215 values (Supplementary Figure S1B). Previously, the original data for Core 2266 were published by  
216 Andrews et al. (2008) and, while having many similarities to the long-period signal documented in Core  
217 2269, showed many additional high amplitude features in inclination and declination and high MAD  
218 values. The flux jump corrections we apply in this study remove many of these spurious inclination and  
219 declination features, significantly lowered MAD values, and, as we discuss later in this study, significantly  
220 improve regional correlation with other PSV records (Supplementary Figure S2).

221 High mass normalized  $M_s$  values for Cores MD99 2269 and 2322 (median values 0.75 and 0.83 Am<sup>2</sup>/kg,  
222 respectively) suggest high concentration of ferrimagnetic minerals (Figure 3A). Within each core,  
223 hysteresis loops are relatively uniform, indicating both homogeneity and downcore stability in the  
224 magnetic mineral assemblage. All hysteresis loops acquire 95 – 97 % of their  $M_s$  value in a field of 300  
225 mT, consistent with (titano)magnetite being the dominant remanence carrying mineral (Figure 3B). In  
226 Day Plot space (Day et al., 1977), samples from both cores cluster tightly and fall within the  $M_{rs}/M_s$   
227 range of terrestrial clays, silts, and sands from Greenland and Iceland and the range of previously  
228 published sediment cores from the Iceland and Greenland margins (Figure 3C). Slightly lower  $M_{rs}/M_s$   
229 values in Core 2322 occur during the early Holocene and their timing likely reflects increased input of  
230 terrestrial silt-sized sediments from Greenland (Figure 3C; Hatfield et al., 2017) rather than the effect of  
231 significant sediment diagenesis, which from the rock magnetic data appears to be minor.

232

### 233 3.2 Age Model and Reservoir Ages

234 One of the major challenges in radiocarbon age modeling is determining a suitable reservoir correction  
235 to account for the fact that the ocean has a spatially and temporally variable reservoir of old carbon,  
236 relative to atmospheric radiocarbon contents. The Marine20 calibration curve accounts for this  
237 reservoir effect through the use of a carbon cycle model to develop global scale marine reservoir age  
238 (MRA) (Heaton et al., 2020). A parameter called  $\Delta R$  is used at the site level to account for regional water  
239 mass deviations from the global MRA (Stuiver et al., 1986). It is important to note that the Marine20  
240 MRA correction is different than previous marine radiocarbon calibration curves, with Marine20  
241 attempting to take most large scale MRA effects into account (Heaton et al., 2022). The result is an  
242 offset from atmospheric calibration that is on average  $\sim 150$  years greater than Marine13 during the  
243 Holocene (Heaton et al., 2020; Reimer et al., 2013) (**Supplemental Figure S3**). However, we note that  
244 this is not a constant offset and Marine20 implies a time variation in global MRA relative to Marine13  
245 with an amplitude of about 100 years in the Holocene. Thus, the  $\Delta R$  values discussed in this work are not  
246 equivalent to  $\Delta R$  values discussed in previous work (but, in the Holocene, Marine13  $\Delta R$  values can  
247 roughly be compared by adding 150 years to the Marine20  $\Delta R$ ).

248 We begin by assessing the optimal  $\Delta R$  through comparison of independent radiocarbon age models for  
249 each core, with uncertainty quantified using the Undatable age-depth modeling method (Lougheed and  
250 Obrochta, 2019), compared with independent ages for tephra events dated with terrestrial materials  
251 (**Supplementary Table S3**). There is uncertainty in the identification and appropriate ages for some  
252 tephra layers, with the most pronounced tephra in this interval, Saksunarvatn and Vedde, known to be  
253 originated from volcanic centers that experienced multiple geochemically similar eruptions over periods  
254 of  $\sim 500$ - $1000$  yrs (Harning et al., 2022; Jennings et al., 2014; Óladóttir et al., 2020). For example, three  
255 basaltic tephra layers in MD99-2322 between 9.9 and 10.4 ka are geochemically similar to the  
256 Saksunarvatn tephra (Jennings et al., 2014), which is consistent with the Saksunarvatn ash actually being  
257 part of a series of eruptions of the Grímsvötn volcanic system referred to as the G10ka series tephra  
258 (Óladóttir et al., 2020). Thus, these and other tephra horizons may be more appropriately used as time  
259 intervals rather than as precise markers. For our analysis, we first calculate age models for each core in  
260 radiocarbon years without calibration, quantifying uncertainty using Undatable (Lougheed and  
261 Obrochta, 2019). Then we compare the difference between cores predicted radiocarbon age  $\pm 1$  sigma  
262 range for each tephra versus accepted terrestrial ages for each tephra, converted to an  $\pm 1$  sigma  
263 radiocarbon age range from calendar years before present using the MARINE20 calibration curve (**Figure**

264 **2G**). Considering the Undatable quantified uncertainties of our age model and the uncertainties in the  
265 tephra ages themselves, we find that a simple 0 yr MARINE20  $\Delta R$  provides good agreement (the  
266 summed tephra-based estimate distributions have a central tendency of 1 yr). Previous PSV studies  
267 found that a  $\Delta R$  of  $\sim 130$  yrs, but up to 250 yrs, is needed for the INTCAL04 Marine curve which has a  
268 built in MRA correction of 400 yrs (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2007) and a  $\Delta R$  of  $150 \pm 50$  yrs was needed for  
269 the Marine13 curve (Nilsson et al., 2022) in order to fit the tephra age constraints. These  $\Delta R$  choices are  
270 consistent with our observations, given the different approach taken in construction of the Marine20  
271 curve (**Supplementary Figure S3**).

272 While our uncertainties are large, there is some indication that  $\Delta R$  may vary in this region as a function  
273 of time. This is not surprising given that radiocarbon calibration curves are not designed for polar  
274 regions where sea ice extent, ocean upwelling and air-sea gas exchange may cause larger changes  
275 (Heaton et al., 2020; Reimer et al., 2013) and Holocene paleoceanographic reconstructions from the  
276 North Iceland Shelf indicate water mass variability (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2017). There is evidence from  
277 shells for North Iceland shelf MRA variations on the order of about 100 years over the last 1,300 years  
278 that are thought to be related to ocean circulation changes (Wanamaker et al., 2012). MRA variations  
279 were likely largest prior to the onset of the Holocene, as suggested by the large  $>200$  yr  $\Delta R$  implied by  
280 the  $\sim 12$  ka Vedde Ash deposited in Core 2264 during the Younger Dryas (**Figure 2G**). Significant  $\Delta R$   
281 variations in the North Atlantic during the deglaciation have been documented elsewhere. Using corals  
282 in the Labrador Sea, Cao et al. (2007) found Younger Dryas aged waters had a  $\Delta R \sim 200$  yrs greater than  
283 the Bølling–Allerød or Holocene. Bondevik et al. (2006) found a similar  $\sim 200$  yr offset for the Younger  
284 Dryas using paired terrestrial and marine materials from sediments deposited on the Norwegian Margin.  
285 Additionally, Stern and Lisiecki (2013) demonstrated similar MRA changes using a network of North  
286 Atlantic deep sea cores. With these observations in mind, for the purposes of this study we use a  
287 constant  $\Delta R$  of  $0 \pm 70$  yrs for our final product. We feel that this is more straight forward than trying to  
288 apply a variable  $\Delta R$  and reduces the number of assumptions we need to make. However, we recognize  
289 that on centennial timescales, time variations in  $\Delta R$  are a large source of uncertainty in our age model  
290 and that our ages are likely at least 200 yrs too old during the Younger Dryas. Future studies that use  
291 this reconstruction as a tuning target may want to recalculate the age model based on their choice of  $\Delta R$   
292 and its uncertainty and time variation (all data required to make these calculations are available in the  
293 Zenodo database; doi: 10.5281/zenodo.7734229).

294 Finally, to reduce uncertainties associated with post-depositional remanent magnetization processes we  
295 only use sediment deposited at rates greater than 100 cm/kyr. We calculate the age models for each  
296 core using the MARINE20 curve and  $\Delta R$  of  $0 \pm 70$  yrs to calculate sedimentation rates (Figure 2F) and  
297 disregard intervals with accumulation rates less than 100 cm/kyr in further analyses (grey regions in  
298 Figure 4).

299

### 300 3.3 Stratigraphic Correlation

301 On each core's independent age model, sediments deposited at rates greater than 100 cm/kyr show  
302 excellent agreement on millennial timescales, but this correlation is less clear on shorter timescales  
303 (Figure 4). We assume some unknown proportion of the mismatches on these timescales is related to  
304 imperfect age models and resulting misalignment and some other proportion is related to noise  
305 introduced during remanence acquisition, coring, sampling, and/or measurement.

306 Previously, it has been demonstrated that alignment of PSV signals between Cores 2269 and 2322 on  
307 depth does not violate radiocarbon uncertainty and improves the correlation of percent carbonate data  
308 in each core (Hagen et al., 2020; Stoner et al., 2007). Using the reasonable assumption that both cores  
309 share a common geomagnetic history on these length scales (c.f., Korte et al., 2019), this alignment  
310 allowed reorganization of radiocarbon and tephra constraints from multiple sequences to a single  
311 regional correlated equivalent depth (CED) ultimately providing higher dating density to constrain the  
312 Greenland/Iceland PSV stack (Stoner et al., 2013). We apply the same principle here using objective  
313 alignments determined using the PSV Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) algorithm of Hagen et al. (2020).  
314 This DTW algorithm, modified from that of Hay et al. (2019), utilizes dynamic programming to generate a  
315 library of potential alignments that minimize the cumulative angular difference (quantified as the cosine  
316 distance) between vector time series while varying two parameters that control how variable sediment  
317 accumulation rates can be (g value) and how much the two records overlap (edge value). Considering  
318 cosine distance of the vectors instead of simply using inclination and/or declination is particularly useful  
319 for studies of higher latitude PSV like this, as, when the field is steeply dipping and inclination is near  
320  $90^\circ$ , small angular changes in the vector can result in large declination changes. The resulting library of  
321 possible DTW solutions can then be evaluated in geologic context and with statistical tests to find the  
322 optimal solution(s) (Hagen et al., 2020). Other DTW algorithms have previously been used to prepare  
323 data for single variable stacks, like benthic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (Lisiecki and Raymo, 2005) and relative paleointensity

324 (Channell et al., 2009). However, this is the first time this approach has been applied to building a  
325 radiocarbon dated PSV vector stack.

326 First, we develop a target curve and CED scale for the DTW alignment using Cores 2269 and 2264. Core  
327 2269 is used for the last ~11 kyr as it has the most linear apparent accumulation rates (<20.86 m depth  
328 in the core) and Core 2264 is used below that as it goes the furthest back in time (>5 m depth in the  
329 core, offset by 15.865 m), with the overlap determined using a prominent PSV feature (**Figures 2 and 5**).  
330 Next, Cores 2322, 2265, and 2266 were aligned to this target curve using the PSV DTW algorithm. The  
331 library of potential alignments between Cores 2322 and 2269 were previously presented by Hagen et al.  
332 (2020) and the best fit was determined by considering the highest cross correlation with sufficient  
333 overlap within the parameter range that showed statistical significance when comparing algorithm  
334 results for the data versus alignment to synthetic randomly generated PSV curves. We perform identical  
335 analyses using Cores 2265 and 2266 and similarly assess the DTW results, choosing the best fits that  
336 meet the same criteria as used by Hagen et al. (2020) (**Figure 5A-C; Supplementary Figure S4**).  
337 Transferring each core's radiocarbon dates from their original depth to the regional CED scale provides  
338 confidence in this approach, with radiocarbon dates falling in stratigraphic order (**Figure 5D**). This high  
339 density of 71 dates from the intervals of the cores with >100cm/kyr accumulation rates, averaging one  
340 date every 210 yrs although unevenly distributed in time, provides a higher resolution age model than  
341 would be possible with any core alone (**Figure 5E**).

342

### 343 3.4 The GREENICE15k Stack

344 Paleomagnetic data were stacked on the DTW aligned CED scale using the Gaussian weighted moving  
345 window method described by Reilly et al. (2018) at 10 year time increments using a Gaussian function  
346 with 30 yrs full width at half maximum. Due to the magnetometer response function, successive u-  
347 channel data are not independent. Accordingly, the N value used in the calculation of the Fisher  
348 statistics is the number of cores that contribute to each time increment, not the number of  
349 measurements, so that uncertainty estimates are not artificially suppressed (Reilly et al., 2018).  
350 Declinations for each core were rotated to a mean of zero, assuming that each core spans enough time  
351 that they average to a geocentric axial dipole. This assumption is likely imperfect and absolute  
352 declination remains an unconstrained uncertainty in the final stack; however, we choose this approach  
353 as it provides a reasonable agreement between cores (**Figure 5A**) and requires the least number of  
354 assumptions. Ages were determined for each core on their CED scale using the combined radiocarbon

355 dataset using the Undatable algorithm, an  $x$ -factor = 0.1, the Marine20 calibration curve, and  $\Delta R = 0 \pm 70$   
356 yrs (Heaton et al., 2020; Lougheed and Obrochta, 2019) (Figure 5E). The result is a 15 kyr inclination and  
357 declination reconstruction with centennial resolution.  $\alpha_{95}$  values are lowest between  $\sim 3$  and 11 ka,  
358 where the stack is constrained by the greatest number of overlapping cores, as  $\alpha_{95}$  is a function of  
359  $1/\sqrt{N}$  (Figure 5I). Uncertainties that we are unable to constrain include the absolute declination  
360 rotation and where the stack is only constrained by a single record in the last  $\sim 1$  kyr (2269) and in the  
361 time older than  $\sim 12$  ka (2264). For the time periods constrained by only one core,  $\alpha_{95}$  values are  
362 calculated from only the single core values within the  $\sim 30$  yr wide interval. These  $\alpha_{95}$  values are  
363 typically higher as  $N = 1$ , but could also have unquantified errors inherent to sediment paleomagnetic  
364 records (see Section 1) that could be addressed in future work with replication from other sedimentary  
365 archives. On centennial timescales, unaccounted for variations in  $\Delta R$  beyond the  $\pm 70$  yrs used in the age  
366 model are another source of uncertainty, particularly  $\sim 11$ -13 ka during the Younger Dryas where  
367 reservoir effects are likely 200 yrs or more than the constant  $\Delta R$  used here.

368

## 369 4. Discussion

370

### 371 4.1 Fidelity of the GREENICE15k Reconstruction

372 Thompson (1984) and Peck et al. (1996) outline a number of reliability criteria used to assess if  
373 directional changes in sediment PSV accurately reflect the geomagnetic field, related to the quality of  
374 the magnetizations and, perhaps more importantly, the reproducibility of the signal on a variety of  
375 levels, as discussed below.

376 The magnetizations of the cores presented here have well-defined ChRMs with low MAD ( $< 5^\circ$ ) values  
377 that demagnetize towards the origin carried by (titano)magnetite (Figures 2 and 3; Andrews et al., 2003;  
378 2008; Hatfield et al., 2019; Stoner et al., 2007). Hysteresis data in MD99-2269 and MD99-2322 are  
379 consistent with well characterized nearby core top samples (Hatfield et al., 2019), stream sediments  
380 from nearby Iceland and Greenland margin source regions (Hatfield et al., 2013; 2017), and regional  
381 North Atlantic sediments that have previously yielded quality paleomagnetic records (Kissel et al., 1999;  
382 2009; Snowball and Moros, 2003; Ballini et al., 2006; Evans et al., 2007) (Figure 3C). Previous work  
383 demonstrated that there is a strong inverse correlation between magnetic susceptibility and weight

384 percent  $\text{CaCO}_3$  in Cores JM96-1232 (collected near MD99-2264), MD99-2269, and MD99-2322 with low  
385  $\text{CaCO}_3$  and high magnetic susceptibility common in late deglacial and early Holocene sediments when  
386 terrigenous flux was highest to both the Greenland and Iceland margins (Andrews et al., 2003; 2008;  
387 Stoner et al., 2007). Down core NRM intensity variations (**Figure 2A**) are largely controlled by the  
388 concentration of ferrimagnetic minerals driven by changes in lithogenic versus biogenic composition.

389 The  $>100$  cm/kyr accumulation rates required for the construction of this stack should be high enough to  
390 resolve centennial to millennial trends in PSV with minimized complications from post-depositional  
391 remanent magnetization (pDRM) acquisition processes and smoothing by the response function of the  
392 magnetometer while make u-channel measurements. The accumulation rates required to resolve  
393 centennial variations in PSV are likely higher than typically needed for paleoclimate reconstructions  
394 (Anderson, 2001), as magnetizations are thought to be acquired over a lock-in zone that acts as a low  
395 pass filter (e.g., Balbas et al., 2018; Lund and Keigwin, 1994; Roberts and Winklhofer, 2004) and can  
396 cause offsets in the paleomagnetic signal of 0-25 cm in marine sediments (Channell and Guyodo, 2004;  
397 Hagen et al., 2020; Simon et al., 2018; Stoner et al., 2013; Suganuma et al., 2010; Tauxe et al., 1996).  
398 While the exact lock-in offset is unknown and unable to be tested here, its impacts are likely minimal for  
399 the purposes of this study and we can approximate its effect using a reasonable estimate of 15 cm. With  
400 this offset, the maximum offset in time for our stack would be 150 yrs for sediments deposited at 100  
401 cm/kyr and on sub-centennial timescales for the majority of the sediments deposited  $>100$  cm/kyr that  
402 contribute to our stack (see **Figure 2F**). These are essentially the same timescales of uncertainties  
403 associated with our radiocarbon age model and choice of  $\Delta R$ .

404 The greatest uncertainties more likely stem from coring/sampling disturbance or noise inherent to the  
405 magnetic acquisition process related to variations in sedimentation and/or bioturbation. So perhaps the  
406 best reliability criteria for this region is to assess PSV reproducibility to provide the strongest support for  
407 the fidelity of a PSV signal on a variety of scales, from the sample level, to basin level, to regional level.  
408 On a sample and basin level, being that these and likely other high-accumulation rate depocenters on  
409 the North Iceland and Southeast Greenland shelves have proven to be high fidelity PSV archives, it  
410 would be worthwhile for future coring efforts to re-core these basins with multiple cores to better  
411 quantify the uncertainty of the PSV signals at each core location and to better capture the latest  
412 Holocene sediments. On a regional level, where these cores overlap, we find that signal must be well  
413 reproduced, as the objective alignments accomplished with the DTW algorithm agree especially well  
414 with the radiocarbon constraints (**Figure 5**).

415 One major contribution of the GREENICE15k stack is the extension to 15 ka through MD99-2264, which  
416 provides a longer perspective on geomagnetic change and can serve as a PSV template through the  
417 abrupt Bølling–Allerød and Younger Dryas climate transitions. As mentioned earlier, uncertainties within  
418 the 12-15 ka interval are also difficult to constrain as only one core is used in this interval. It is, of  
419 course, increasingly difficult to recover ultra-high resolution sediments the further one moves back in  
420 time using surface coring devices. However, Core JM96-1215/2GC, taken near MD99-2322 in the  
421 Kangerlussuaq Trough, is an incomplete record, but captures an interval of expanded deglacial  
422 accumulation rates (Jennings et al., 2006, 2002) and seemingly well-resolved inclination and declination  
423 (Jennings et al., 2014). While the 6 m JM96-1215/2GC does not meet our accumulation rate and  
424 radiocarbon criteria for inclusion in this study, correlation of the JM96-1215/2GC directional record to  
425 the GREENICE15k stack using the objective DTW algorithm of Hagen et al. (2020) illustrates that it  
426 captures the major ~11.5-14 ka GREENICE15k PSV features with variation consistent with available <sup>14</sup>C  
427 dates, considering previously recognized complications (Jennings et al., 2006) (Figure 6). This includes a  
428 ~500 yr interval around 13 ka where the field was steeply dipping over the Northern North Atlantic,  
429 characterized by >85° inclinations and large variation in declination. The large variations in declination,  
430 highlighted in pink shading in Figures 6A, 7C, and 8, are likely in part a reflection of the uncertainties in  
431 the paleomagnetic data themselves. For example, at inclinations of 85° with an  $\alpha_{95}$  of 10°, as estimated  
432 around 13 ka in GREENICE15k (Figure 5I), the 95% confidence interval for declination would be 155°.

433 There are few high-resolution (>50 cm/kyr) PSV records in the circum-Northern North Atlantic region  
434 that extend back to 15 ka to compare to (Figure 7). Some of the sites that do exist include Eastern USA  
435 Lake records, including Lake Seneca and Sandy, that span the last ~13.5 kyr (King and Peck, 2002), a  
436 combination of Northern European sediments from Finland, Sweden, Russia, and the Baltic Sea that  
437 include stacks that span 0-10 ka and 11-14 ka (Haltia-Hovi et al., 2010; Loughheed et al., 2014), and the  
438 Meerfelder Maar PSV record from Germany that spans the entire studied interval (Stockhausen, 1998).  
439 The SHADIF14k spherical harmonic model extends back to 14 ka using only archeomagnetic and lava  
440 flow data, although 83% of the data that constrain this model span only the last 3 kyr and only 3% of the  
441 data used span the 8 - 14 ka interval (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014). The GGF100k model spans this  
442 interval, however it is also limited by available data and has low temporal resolution as the model is  
443 focused on modeling longer-period variations (Panovska et al., 2018). For the purposes of these  
444 comparisons, all records are relocated via their VGP paths to Reykjavik, Iceland in Figure 7 to account for  
445 geometric effects on the inclination and declination signals (c.f., Korte et al., 2019). This transformation  
446 would be valid if Earth's magnetic field was a pure dipole that deviates (or wobbles) from the axis of

447 rotation (i.e., it could be described with just the spherical harmonic degree 1 coefficients). Of course,  
448 the field is more complicated than this and on these length scales, differences could be explained by  
449 non-dipole contributions in addition to chronological and paleomagnetic uncertainties. While  
450 GREENICE15k has superb resolution in both the paleomagnetic signal and chronology (**Figure 5**), some of  
451 the other records may be further complicated by pDRM smoothing due to their lower accumulation  
452 rates and more limited chronological constraints.

453 We find some broad similarities in our regional comparison, acknowledging issues in chronology and  
454 record resolution. As previously noted by Ólafsdóttir et al. (2019) there is good agreement between  
455 North Iceland PSV records and the Finnish Lake stack of Haltia-Hovi et al. (2010) in the Holocene if the  
456 records are relocated to common geographic coordinates (**Figure 8**). This comparison also seems to  
457 hold for the deglacial Fennoscandia PSV stack of Lougheed et al. (2014), including evidence for a steeply  
458 dipping field over the Northern North Atlantic ~13 ka. In general, while the timing of features generally  
459 agrees with centennial uncertainty, the amplitude of declination changes is significantly less and  
460 inclination values are somewhat shallower for the Holocene Finnish Lake stack. Some of the differences  
461 are likely related to non-dipole contributions to the field, but others may be related to other difficult to  
462 assess uncertainties related to coring artifacts, chronology, smoothing as a result of post-depositional  
463 remanence acquisition in these lower accumulation rate sediments (~50-75 cm/kyr) and/or depositional  
464 and magnetic recording complexities. Even with our density of radiocarbon dates, there are still likely  
465 chronological uncertainties on the order of ~100-200 years related to uncertainties in the radiocarbon  
466 method itself and unknown time variations in  $\Delta R$ , particularly during the deglacial time.

467

## 468 4.2 Amplitude and Timescale of PSV

469 To investigate the amplitudes and timescales of PSV in the Northern North Atlantic, we first convert  
470 inclination and declination into a single parameter, angular deviation from what would be expected if  
471 the Earth was a geocentric axial dipole (GAD). This was done for the GREENICE15k stack, the 5 records  
472 used in constructing the stack, a suite of site predictions from published time varying spherical harmonic  
473 models (Constable et al., 2016; Jackson et al., 2000; Nilsson et al., 2022; Panovska et al., 2018; Pavón-  
474 Carrasco et al., 2014), and a nearby deep sea sediment record with a long and continuous PSV  
475 reconstruction, ODP Site 983 (Channell, 1999; Channell et al., 1997) (**Figure 9**). Time series analysis was  
476 performed using the multi-taper method using the MATLAB implementation of Husson et al. (2014).

477 The GREENICE15k stack agrees well with the variance of the five individual records at millennial and  
478 centennial timescales but has significantly less variance at decadal timescales (**Figure 9A**). This is not  
479 surprising as this high frequency variance could be noise in the individual records that is removed by the  
480 30 yr wide filter used in our stacking process (see Section 3.4) or high frequency geomagnetic field  
481 behavior that is not resolved with our stacking and chronologic methods. As it is likely some  
482 combination of both, new dedicated efforts to recovered parallel cores at each location would be  
483 required to assess reproducibility at this level. At millennial and centennial timescales, the variance in  
484 the cores are generally in agreement with the stack with some minor differences. Core 2264  
485 consistently has the greatest variance but is biased towards the high amplitude PSV observed in the 11-  
486 15 ka interval (**Figures 4, 6, 8 and 9A**). Cores 2265 and 2266 generally have lower variance but are  
487 shorter in duration and biased towards the lower amplitude PSV observed in the 3.5 -11 ka interval  
488 (**Figures 4, 8 and 9A**). This indicates that individual records that only span a few thousand years may not  
489 be representative of long term variance. Given these comparisons, we argue that the GREENICE15k  
490 stack does a good job of capturing the variance of PSV in the Northern North Atlantic at centennial and  
491 millennial timescales, with highest confidence in the <12 ka interval where the stack is constrained by  
492 multiple cores.

493 The variance of the GREENICE15k stack at decadal timescales is difficult to assess given the limits of our  
494 methods. However, comparisons with GUFM1 model predictions (Jackson et al., 2000) constrained by  
495 400 years of historical observations, have been previously used to be representative of variance on this  
496 timescale for intensity changes (e.g., Sadhasivan and Constable, 2022) and could be instructive. The  
497 GREENICE15k stack has similar but higher variance than GUFM1 at decadal timescales if the entire 0-15  
498 ka portion is used, but is nearly identical if only the 0-12 ka portion that is constrained by multiple cores  
499 is used (**Figure 9B**). The difference could be noise at this timescale in the MD99-2264 record even after  
500 it is smoothed by the 30 yr filter in our stacking procedure (**Figure 9A**). However, It is also difficult to  
501 assess how representative the decadal scale variance in the 400 yr GUFM1 reconstruction is when  
502 compared to longer geomagnetic change. Thus, as discussed in the comparison with individual cores,  
503 even though the decadal variance of GREENICE15k is consistent with variance in the GUFM1  
504 reconstruction, it is difficult to separate decadal scale signal and noise in PSV even with these very well  
505 dated and high-resolution sediment cores.

506 Variance at centennial timescales in our stack is consistently higher than Holocene time varying  
507 spherical harmonic models, although many of the models come close or agree to the variance of our

508 stack at millennial timescales (Figure 9B), particularly the pfm9k.2 model of Nilsson et al. (2022). These  
509 comparisons reinforce the fact that the current state of the art geologically constrained geomagnetic  
510 field models do a good job at capturing longer period variation of the field, but are missing the  
511 centennial scale variations that can be captured in very high resolution sediment records. Continued  
512 work to develop globally distributed sedimentary records with strong chronologies, optimally >100  
513 cm/kyr sedimentation rates, and regional reproduction is needed to improve modeling efforts of the  
514 sub-millennial dynamics of the geomagnetic field. Sub-millennial timescales are important to consider,  
515 as they are likely the same timescales over which dynamic geomagnetic features such as south Atlantic  
516 anomaly type events (Nilsson et al., 2022), regional geomagnetic intensity changes (e.g., geomagnetic  
517 spikes; Shaar et al., 2022), geomagnetic excursions (Nowaczyk et al., 2012) and perhaps even reversals  
518 operate on. We hypothesize that some of these 0-15 ka Northern North Atlantic sub-millennial PSV  
519 variations are likely a reflection of rapid sub-millennial regional intensity variations, like those  
520 documented in the Levant region (Shaar et al., 2022) (Figure 10). Where the Levant Archeomagnetic  
521 Intensity Curve (LAC) and GREENICE15k overlap, we observe easterly GREENICE15k VGPs over Eurasia  
522 around 50° east during periods of LAC paleointensity highs and more westerly GREENICE15k VGP  
523 longitudes during LAC paleointensity lows. GREENICE15k VGP latitudes reach exceptionally low values  
524 between 2500 and 3000 cal yrs BP, approaching 50° N over Eurasia near the end of this period, during  
525 the very high paleointensity intervals of the LAC 'geomagnetic spike' (Figure 10). The amplitude of the  
526 ~2500 BP GREENICE15k VGP latitude minimum is likely robust, as it is driven by the large declination  
527 feature reproduced in MD99-2266, MD99-2269, and MD99-2322 (Figure 4). Given these observation,  
528 we might also predict that there were similar intensity variations during past times of eastern VGP  
529 longitudes and low VGP latitudes, like we observe around 11,500 and 13,000 cal yrs BP.

530 There are likely lower frequency variations of geomagnetic change that cannot be captured by a 15 kyr  
531 record. While our record has significantly higher variance at all timescales than the GGF100k model that  
532 is designed to study longer period variations of the field (Panovska et al., 2018), the nearby deep sea  
533 sediment record ODP Site 983, recovered from the Gardar Drift south of Iceland and deposited at ~14  
534 cm/kyr mean sedimentation rates has similar variance at millennial timescales (Figure 9C). The  
535 similarity at this timescale may suggest moderate resolution deep sea PSV records like these may be  
536 suitable for PSV stratigraphy at millennial resolution, however it may also indicate that 15,000 years is  
537 not long enough to fully resolve millennial scale geomagnetic variance and that the generally high  
538 intensities of last 15,000 may not be truly representative of the long-term geomagnetic field (e.g., Wang  
539 et al., 2015). The ODP Site 983 record shows significantly higher variance at multi-millennial timescales

540 than GREENICE15k, suggesting there are likely lower frequency but high amplitude variations or  
541 unidentified variations in mode behavior that are not captured in our relatively short stack.

542

## 543 5. Conclusion

544 GREENICE15k is a very high resolution and well-dated inclination and declination PSV stack that captures  
545 15 kyr of centennial and millennial scale geomagnetic variability in the Northern North Atlantic. These  
546 results validate and improve upon prior results, while providing additional geochronological constraints  
547 with modern radiocarbon calibration and reservoir age considerations and demonstrating the  
548 reproducibility of the PSV signal including its amplitude. Furthermore, GREENICE15k provides a well  
549 dated template of geomagnetic change that extends through abrupt climate variability of the last  
550 deglaciation and can be used to assess or constrain regional deglacial to Holocene chronologies in future  
551 studies. In general, our results are similar to predictions from global reconstructions, but have higher  
552 amplitude of variability, particularly at sub-millennial timescales. While millennial scale variability of the  
553 geomagnetic field is often captured in field models and globally distributed sedimentary records, sub-  
554 millennial scale variability, like that captured in the GREENICE15k stack, has been much more difficult to  
555 reconstruct. This is because the full amplitude of centennial scale variation is often attenuated in lower  
556 resolution sediment records or, in the case of very high resolution records, it has been challenging to  
557 demonstrate reproducibility of centennial scale variability on a regional scale.

558 Although the amount of variance at centennial and decadal scales over longer geologic time remains  
559 uncertain, the GREENICE15k stack is consistent with decadal and centennial variance observed in the  
560 400 year historical reconstruction of the GUFM1 model (Jackson et al., 2000). Furthermore, similar to  
561 the LAC high-resolution paleomagnetic intensity reconstruction of Shaar et al. (2022), our findings  
562 highlight the potential for dramatic regional scale geomagnetic variability on sub-millennial timescales. A  
563 more comprehensive understanding of these sub-millennial timescales using sedimentary records like  
564 we present here is important for advancing our knowledge of some of the most intriguing features of  
565 the geodynamo, like south Atlantic anomaly-like features, geomagnetic spikes, excursions, and reversals.

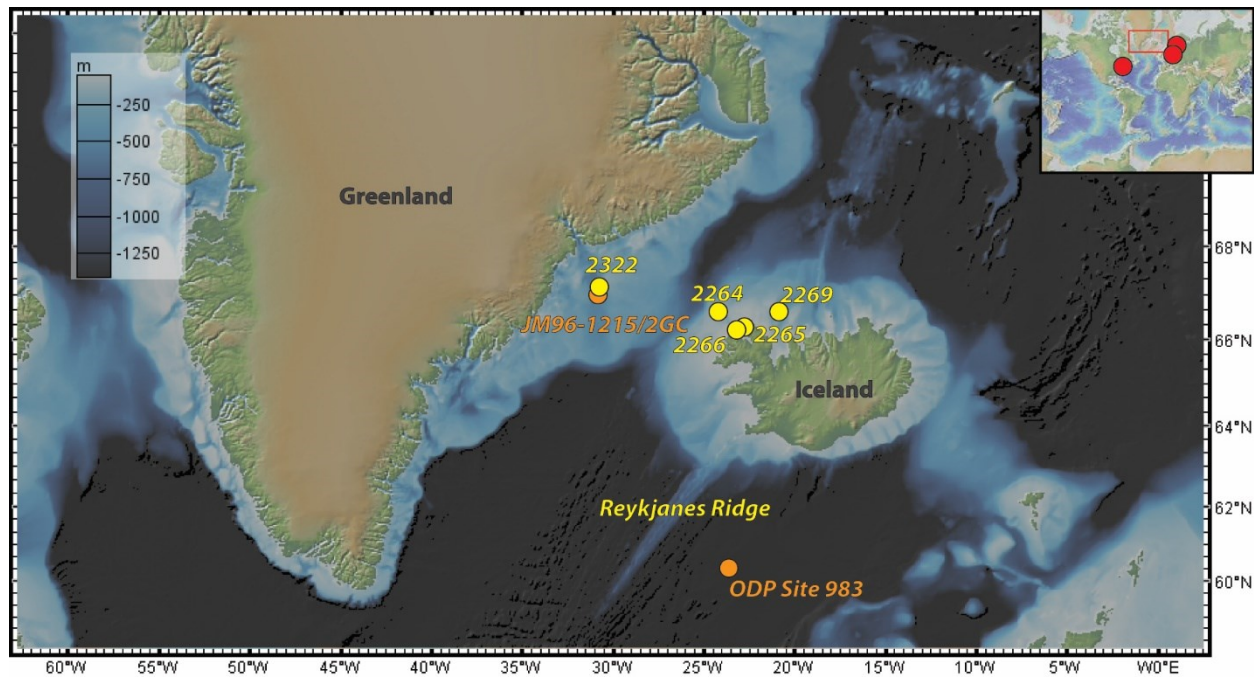
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## 567 Acknowledgements

568 Brendan Reilly and Joseph Stoner were supported by National Science Foundation awards EAR-1645411  
569 and OCE-2300114. Data are available in Magic (doi: 10.7288/V4/MAGIC/19300 and  
570 10.7288/V4/MAGIC/19360) and Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.7734229). PSV Dynamic Time Warping  
571 code is available through GitHub (<https://github.com/CedricHagen/PSV-dynamic-time-warping>). We  
572 thank Bernie Housen and Cristina Garcia-Lasanta for their help collecting hysteresis data at Western  
573 Washington University. We thank editor Mark Dekkers, associate editor Daniel Pastor-Galán, reviewer  
574 Ron Shaar and an anonymous reviewer for their insightful and constructive suggestions.

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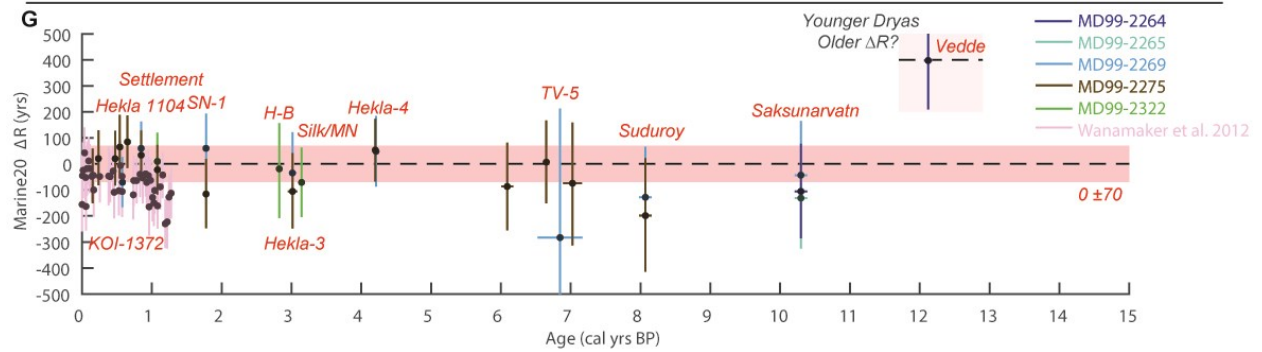
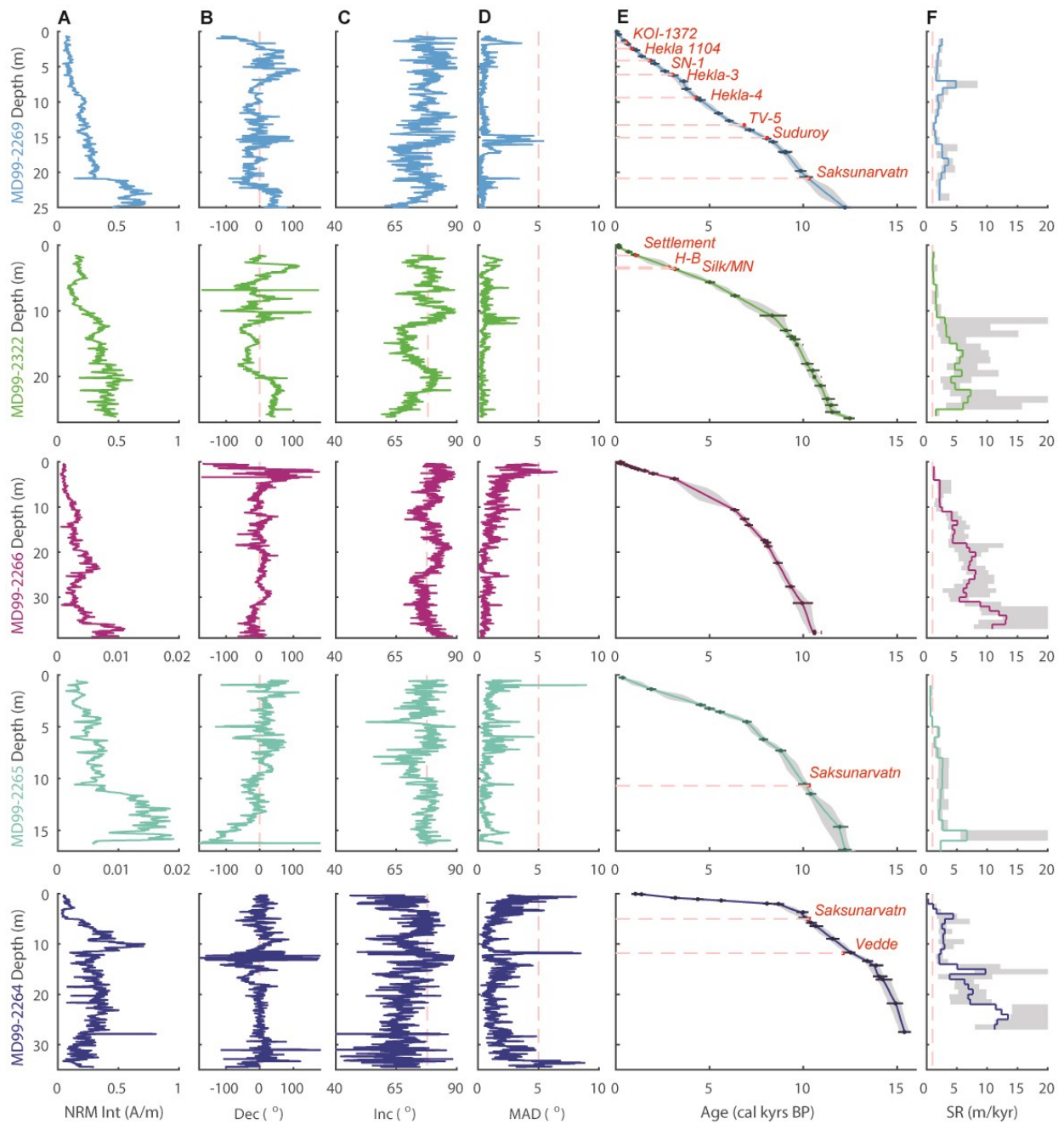
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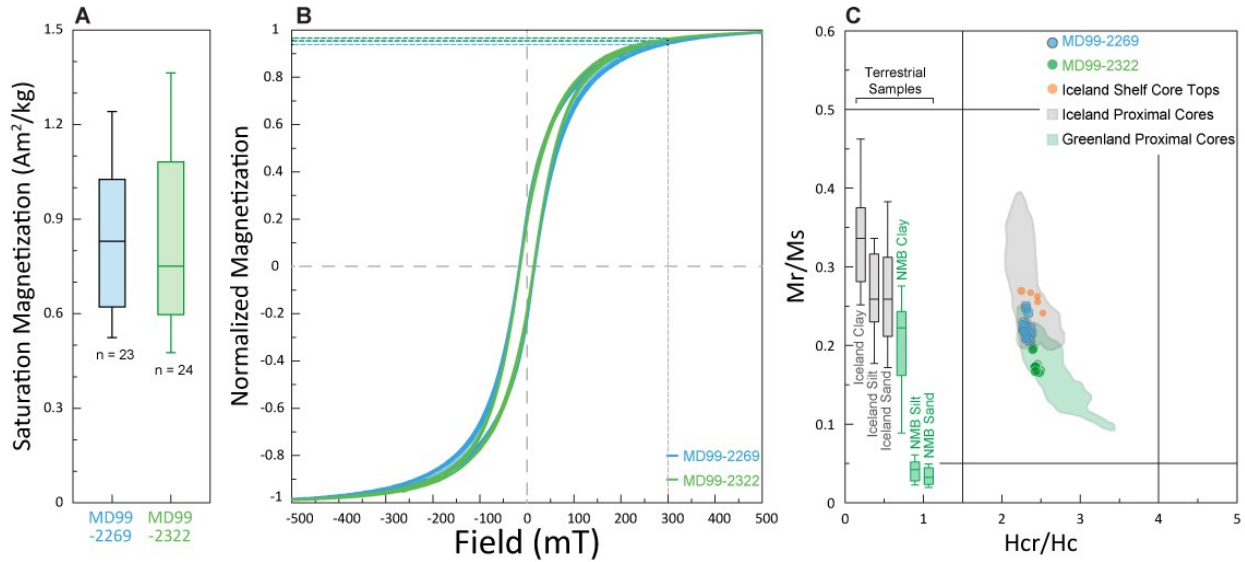
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579 **Figure 1. Map.** Sediment core locations from the Northern North Atlantic (NNA), including those studied  
580 here (yellow), additional NNA sites discussed in the text (orange), and more distal PSV records that  
581 extent back to 15 ka at moderate to high resolution (red). This map was created using the Global Multi-  
582 Resolution Topography (GMRT) synthesis and GeoMapApp (Ryan et al., 2009).

583



585 **Figure 2. Paleomagnetic data on depth, age models, and constraints on radiocarbon reservoir age. (A)**  
586 Natural Remanent Magnetization (NRM) intensity. **(B)** Characteristic Remanent Magnetization (ChRM)  
587 declination rotated to a mean of zero. Vertical dash line =  $0^\circ$ . **(C)** ChRM inclination. Vertical dashed line  
588 is the predicted value based on the geocentric axial dipole (GAD) hypothesis. **(D)** ChRM MAD value.  
589 Vertical dashed line at  $5^\circ$ , for which values below are considered to be very well defined magnetizations.  
590 **(E)** Marine20 calibrated radiocarbon based age models ( $\Delta R = 0 \pm 70$  yrs). Colored solid line is median age  
591 model. Gray shading is the  $\pm 2\sigma$  interval. Black dots/horizontal lines are the calibrated radiocarbon  
592 constraints and  $\pm 2\sigma$  interval. Horizontal red dashed lines indicate tephra horizons for which there are  
593 terrestrial radiocarbon or ice core ages and red dots indicate the mean independently derived ages. **(F)**  
594 Sedimentation rate (SR). Colored line is median estimate. Gray shading is  $\pm 1\sigma$  interval. Vertical dashed  
595 line indicates 1 m/kyr. **(G)** Estimates of Marine20  $\Delta R$  from tephra layers found in five sediment cores  
596 from the north Iceland and southeast Greenland continental shelves (four cores discussed in this study,  
597 plus the tephra record of MD99-2275; Eiríksson et al., 2004; Gudmundsdóttir et al., 2011) and north  
598 Iceland shelves clam shells (29 shell records). Shells were absolutely dated using cross dating techniques  
599 derived from dendrochronology (Wanamaker et al., 2012). Dark horizontal red shading indicates the  $\Delta R$   
600 used in this study. Lighter horizontal red shading indicates a possible older  $\Delta R$  during the Younger Dryas  
601 interval.  
602



603

604 **Figure 3: Hysteresis data for the Southeast Greenland (MD99-2322) and North Iceland Shelves (MD99-**

605 **2269).** (A) Box whisker plot of mass normalized saturation magnetization ( $M_s$ ) values showing the

606 median (center line), upper and lower quartiles (box), and full range of values (whiskers). (B) Normalized

607 magnetic hysteresis loops following paramagnetic correction, colored dashed lines show the range of

608 normalized magnetization values acquired in a 300 mT field. (C) Day plot of measured core samples

609 (green and blue symbols). These values cluster tightly and fall within the range of previous cores taken

610 from the Greenland and Iceland margins (shaded areas) as summarized by Hatfield et al. (2013; 2019)

611 and include original data from Iceland proximal cores SU90-33 and PS2644-5 (Kissel et al., 1999), SO80-

612 05, SO82-07 and LO09-18 (Snowball and Moros, 2003), MD99-2247 (Ballini et al., 2006), MD03-2674,

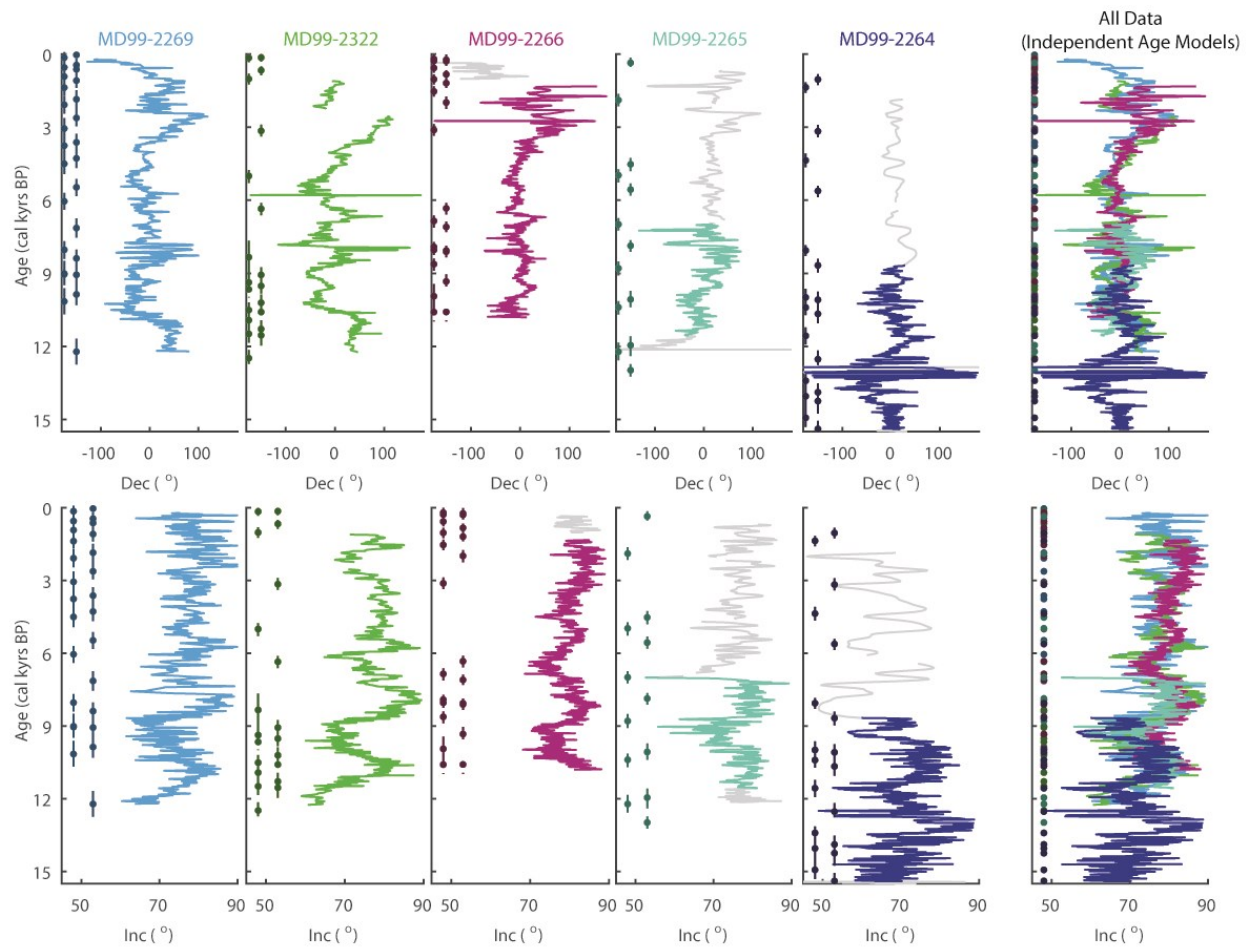
613 MD03-2678, MD03-2684, MD03-2680, and MD03-2676 (Kissel et al., 2009), and Iceland Basin core tops

614 (Hatfield et al., 2019) and Greenland proximal cores SU90-24 and SU90-16 (Kissel et al., 1999), MD99-

615 2244 (Ballini et al., 2006), and MD99-2227 (Evans et al., 2007). The core samples also fall within the

616 terrestrial sediment sources (box whiskers) from Iceland (gray) and from the proximal Nagssugtoqidian

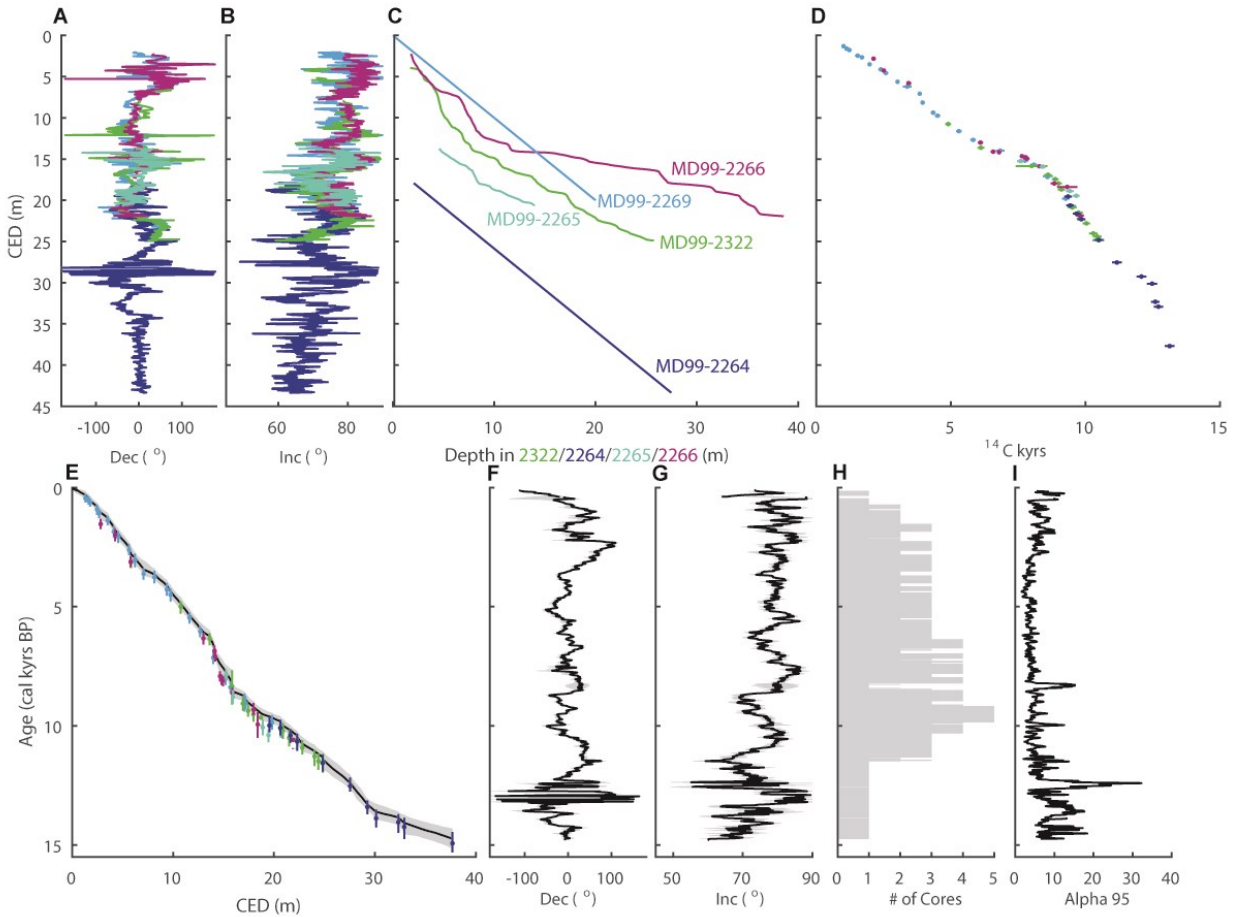
617 Mobile Belt (NMB; green), Greenland (Hatfield et al., 2017).



618

619 **Figure 4. Paleomagnetic data on independent radiocarbon age models.** ChRM declination (top row)  
 620 and inclination (bottom row) with locations of radiocarbon constraints indicated, offset in two columns  
 621 to improve visibility. Paleomagnetic data with colored lines are intervals with sedimentation rates  
 622 greater than 1 m/kyr used in this study, while gray intervals have lower sedimentation rates and were  
 623 not used in this study.

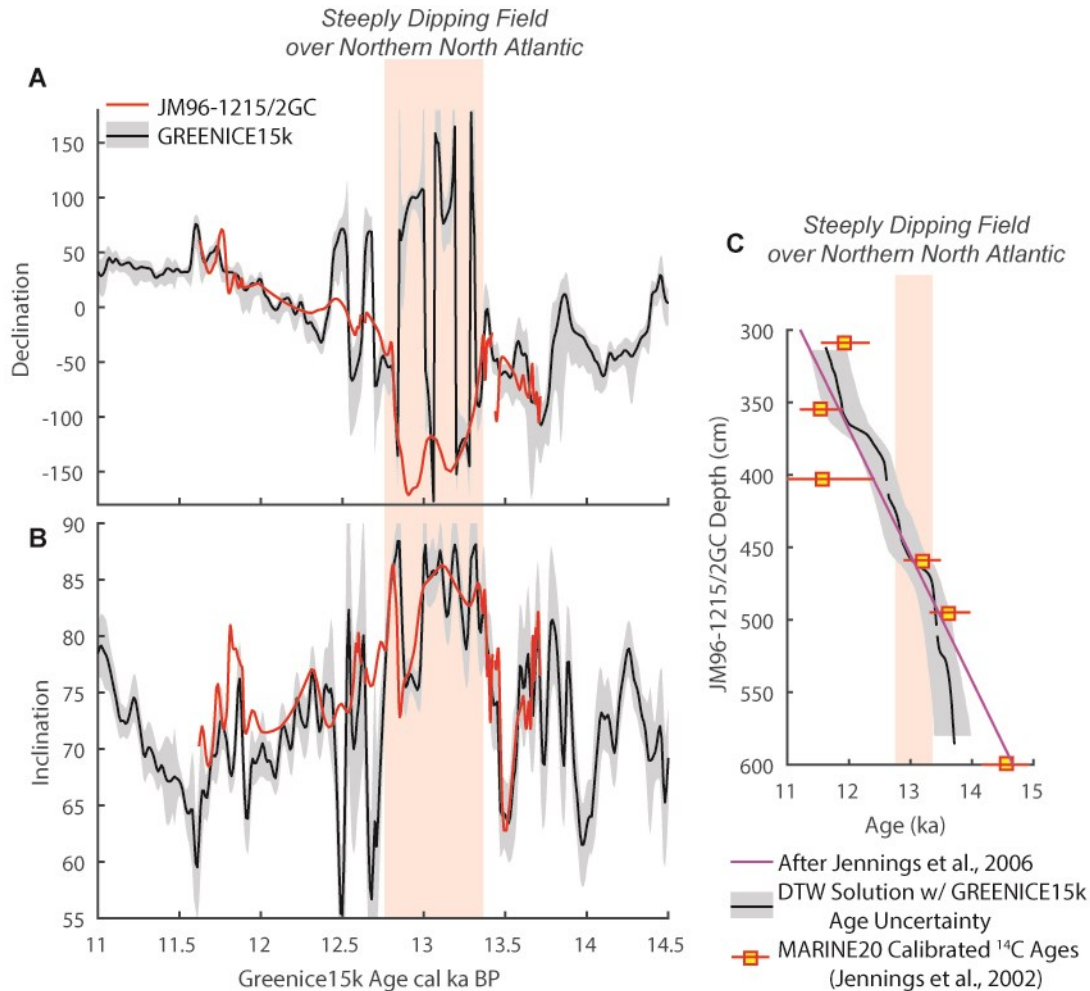
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625

626 **Figure 5. Stratigraphic correlation, regional age model, and paleomagnetic secular variation stack. (A,**  
 627 **B)** ChRM declination and inclination on correlated equivalent depth (CED) scales. **(C)** CED depths relative  
 628 to original coring depths, with MD99-2322, 2265, and 2266 derived via Dynamic Time Warping (Hagen et  
 629 al., 2020) and MD99-2264 via simple offset. DTW results for Core MD99-2322 were previously discussed  
 630 by Hagen et al. (2020). DTW results for Cores MD99-2264 and 2265 are presented in **Supplemental**  
 631 **Figure S4**. The depth scale of MD99-2269 was not changed. **(D)** Radiocarbon constraints transferred to  
 632 the CED scale. **(E)** Marine20 calibrated age model for the combined radiocarbon data. **(F, G)** Stacked  
 633 declination and inclination with the Fisher mean (black line) and  $\pm 1\sigma$  uncertainty (gray shading). **(H)**  
 634 Number of cores that contributed to each horizon of the stack. **(I)**  $\alpha_{95}$  of the Fisher mean.

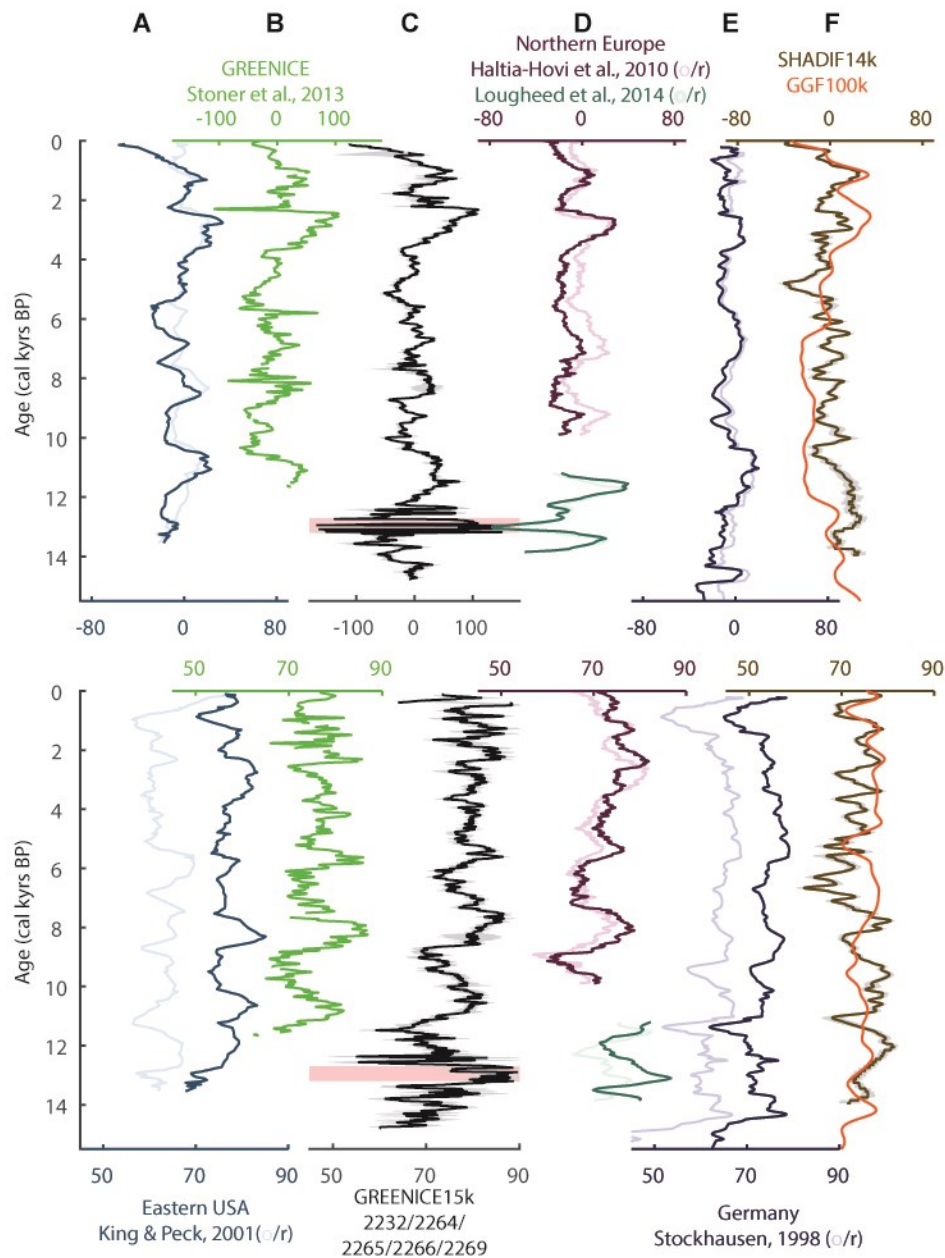
635



636

637 **Figure 6. Comparison to JM96-1215/2GC, Kangerlussuaq Trough. (A)** Declination and **(B)** inclination for  
 638 the GREENICE15k stack (black) with  $\pm 1\sigma$  uncertainty (gray) compared with the directional record of  
 639 JM96-1215/2GC (red; Jennings et al., 2014) transferred to PSV age through Dynamic Time Warping  
 640 (DTW) using the method of Hagen et al. (2020) in the latest Pleistocene. **(C)** Age-depth plot comparing  
 641 JM96-1215/2GC MARINE20 calibrated radiocarbon constraints (Jennings et al., 2002), with the linear age  
 642 model used by Jennings et al. (2006; updated using MARINE20 and identical  $\Delta R$  of this study), and the  
 643 DTW correlation to GREENICE15k age with age uncertainty (**Figure 5E**) propagated. Light red shading  
 644 indicates time interval of a steeply dipping geomagnetic field over the Northern North Atlantic  $\sim 13$  ka.  
 645 The declination mismatch in **A** around 13 ka is likely the result of this steeply dipping field, where small  
 646 angular differences in the paleomagnetic vector can result in large declination differences.

647

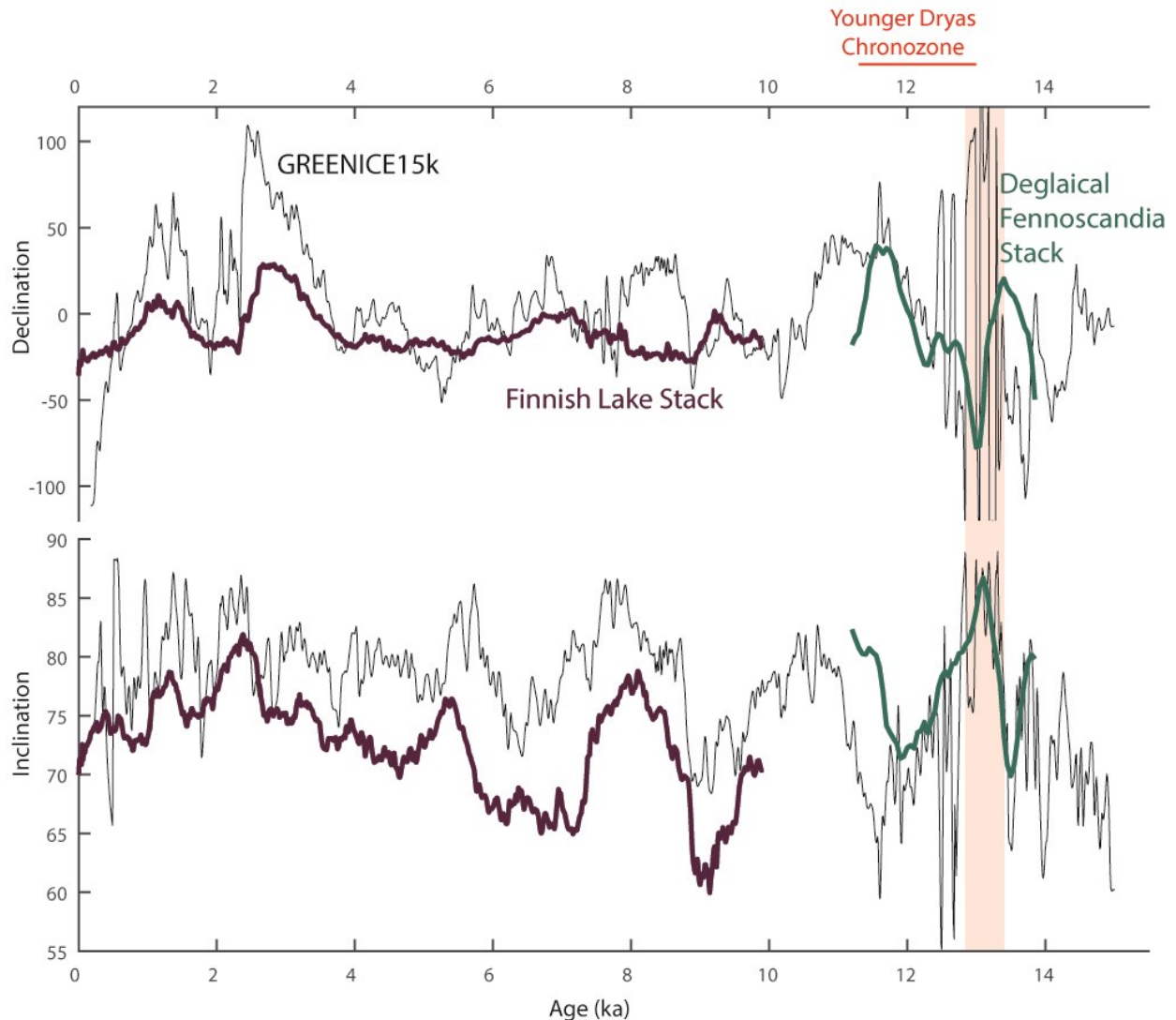


648

649 **Figure 7. Comparison to regional records. (A)** Eastern USA PSV stack, using data from LaBoeuf Lake,  
 650 Seneca Lake, and Sandy Lake (King and Peck, 2002). **(B)** The original GREENICE Stack, using data from  
 651 MD99-2269 and 2322 only (Stoner et al., 2013, 2007). **(C)** The new Northern North Atlantic PSV Stack,  
 652 GREENICE15k, with red shading indicating interval with inclinations near 90°. **(D)** Finnish Lake PSV stack,  
 653 using data from Lake Lehmilampi and Lake Kortejärviä (Haltia-Hovi et al., 2010). Deglacial PSV stack for  
 654 Fennoscandia, using data from Halsjön, Northwest Russia outcrops, and Lake Onega (Lougheed et al.,  
 655 2014). **(E)** PSV from Meerfelder Maar, Germany (Stockhausen, 1998). **(F)** Model predictions for  
 656 Reykjavik, Iceland from the archeomagnetic constrained SHA.DIF.14k (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014) and

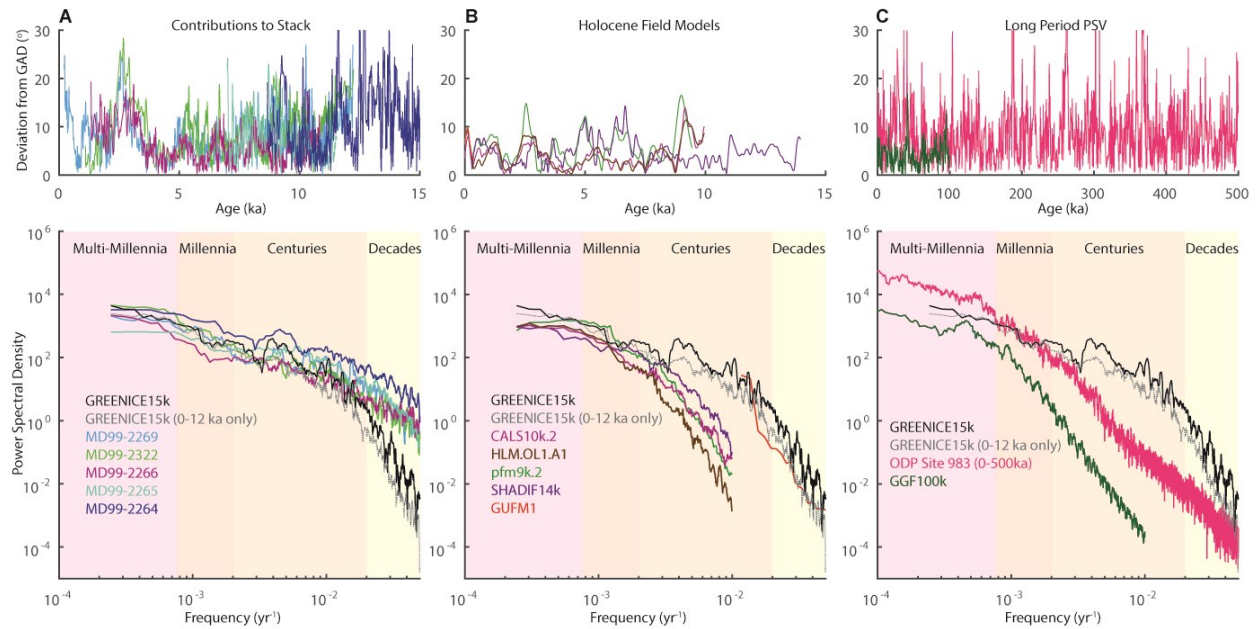
657 GGF100k (Panovska et al., 2018). For the Eastern USA and European PSV data, lighter colors are the  
658 original data/stacks (o) and darker colors are those data relocated to Reykjavik, Iceland via their VGP  
659 paths (r).

660



661

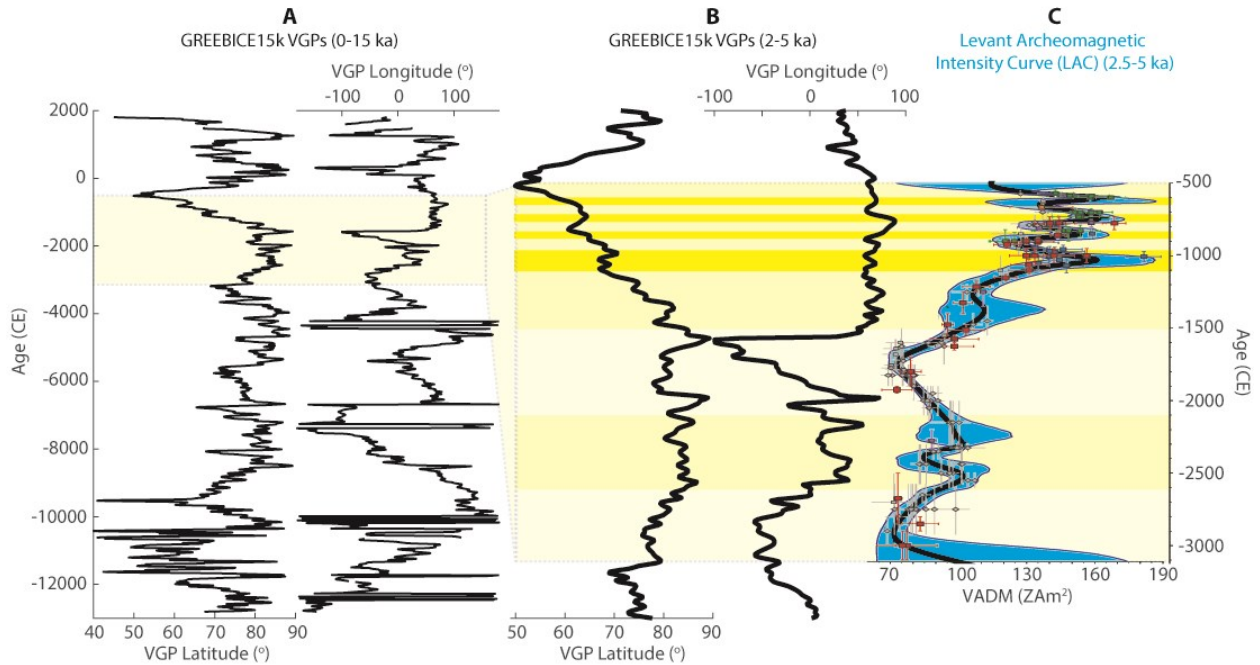
662 **Figure 8. Comparison of GREENICE15k to Northern European Records.** The Finnish Lake stack (purple),  
 663 using data from Lake Lehmilampi and Lake Korteäjvi, is dated by counting annual layers back to 5.1 ka,  
 664 while the older sediments were dated by correlation to the varve-dated Lake Nautajärvi (Haltia-Hovi et  
 665 al., 2010). The deglacial PSV stack for Fennoscandia (teal), using data from Halsjön, Northwest Russia  
 666 outcrops, and Lake Onega, is dated through a variety of methods (Lougheed et al., 2014). Both records  
 667 are relocated to Reykjavik, Iceland via their VGP paths. Differences between the two records could be  
 668 related to non-dipole contributions to the field, uncertainties in chronology, geologic or sampling noise,  
 669 and magnetic acquisition processes. The Younger Dryas Chronozone is indicated as a time around which  
 670 there are known uncertainties in  $\Delta R$  in the Northern North Atlantic.



671

672 **Figure 9. Timescales of PSV variance in the Northern North Atlantic.** Angular deviation from the  
 673 predicted values of a geocentric axial dipole (GAD) as a function of time (top row) and frequency  
 674 (bottom row). **(A)** Comparison of the individual records discussed in this study and the GREENICE15k  
 675 stack. **(B)** Comparison with the CALS10k.2, HFM.OL1.A1 (Constable et al., 2016), pfm9k.2 (Nilsson et al.,  
 676 2022), SHADIF14k (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014), and GUFM1 (Jackson et al., 2000) Holocene field model  
 677 predictions for Reykjavik, Iceland. **(C)** Comparison with the GGF100k model (Panovska et al., 2018) and  
 678 the last 500 kyrs of the ODP Site 983 record (Channell, 1999; Channell et al., 1997). In each of the lower  
 679 panels, the analysis is performed on the entire GREENICE15k stack (black line) and just the 0-12 ka  
 680 portion of the GREENICE15k stack (gray stippled line), as the ~12-15 ka portion is only constrained by  
 681 one core, MD99-2264.

682



683

684 **Figure 10. Comparison of GREENICE15k to high resolution archeomagnetic intensity data.** Virtual  
 685 Geomagnetic Pole (VGP) latitudes and longitudes of the GREENICE15k stack (black) for **(A)** the last 15 kyr  
 686 (left) and **(B)** a zoom in (center) where the stack overlaps with **(C)** the recent 3000 – 500 BCE Levant  
 687 Archeomagnetic Intensity Curve (LAC) compilation of Shaar et al. (2022; blue shading and points on  
 688 right). Yellow shading is used to highlight the time interval of comparison and intervals of high  
 689 paleointensity in the Levant region.

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