

1 **Critical evaluation of climate syntheses to benchmark CMIP6/PMIP4 127 ka Last Interglacial**  
2 **simulations in the high-latitude regions.**

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13 **Abstract:**

14 The Last Interglacial (LIG, ~129-116 thousand years ago, ka) represents an excellent case study to  
15 investigate the response of sensitive components of the Earth System and mechanisms of high-latitude  
16 amplification to a climate warmer than present-day. The Paleoclimate Model Intercomparison Project (Phase  
17 4, hereafter referred as PMIP4) and the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (Phase 6, hereafter referred  
18 as CMIP6) are coordinating the design of (1) a LIG Tier 1 equilibrium simulation to simulate the time slice at  
19 127 ka, a time interval associated with a strong orbital forcing and greenhouse gas concentrations close to  
20 preindustrial levels and (2) associated Tier 2 sensitivity experiments to examine the role of the ocean,  
21 vegetation and dust feedbacks in modulating the response to this orbital forcing.

22 Evaluating the capability of the CMIP6/PMIP4 models to reproduce the 127 ka polar and sub-polar  
23 climate will require appropriate data-based benchmarks which are currently missing. Based on a recent data  
24 synthesis that offers the first spatio-temporal representation of high-latitude (i.e. poleward of 40°N and 40°S)  
25 surface temperature evolution during the LIG, we produce a new 126-128 ka time slab, hereafter named 127  
26 ka time slice. This 127 ka time slice represents surface temperature anomalies relative to preindustrial and  
27 associated with quantitative estimates of the uncertainties related to relative dating and surface temperature  
28 reconstruction methods. It illustrates warmer-than-preindustrial conditions in the high-latitude regions of  
29 both hemispheres. In particular, summer sea surface temperatures (SST) in the North Atlantic region were on  
30 average 1.1°C (with a standard error of the mean of 0.7°C) warmer relative to preindustrial and 1.8°C (with a  
31 standard error of the mean of 0.8°C) in the Southern Ocean. In Antarctica, average 127 ka annual surface air  
32 temperature was 2.2°C (with a standard error of the mean of 1.4°C) warmer compared to preindustrial.

33 We provide a critical evaluation of the latest LIG surface climate compilations that are available for  
34 evaluating LIG climate model experiments. We discuss in particular our new 127 ka time-slice in the context  
35 of existing LIG surface temperature time-slices. We also compare the 127 ka time slice with the ones  
36 published for the 125 and 130 ka time intervals and we discuss the potential and limits of a data-based time  
37 slice at 127 ka in the context of the upcoming coordinated modeling exercise. Finally we provide guidance on

38 the use of the available LIG climate compilations for future model-data comparison exercises in the  
39 framework of the upcoming CMIP5/PMIP4 127 ka experiments. We do not recommend the use of LIG peak  
40 warmth-centered syntheses. Instead we promote the use of the most recent syntheses that are based on  
41 coherent chronologies between paleoclimatic records and provide spatio-temporal reconstruction of the LIG  
42 climate. In particular, we recommend using our new 127 ka data-based time slice in model-data comparison  
43 studies with a focus on the high-latitude climate.

44

45 *Key words:* Last Interglacial, 127 ka surface temperature time slice, CMIP6/PMIP4 Tier 1 and Tier 2 simulations,  
46 quantitative uncertainty estimates attached to relative dating and temperature reconstruction methods.

47 *Highlights:*

- 48 • New 127 ka time slice based on a Last Interglacial high-latitude climate synthesis
- 49 • Warmer-than-preindustrial 127 ka surface conditions in high-latitude regions
- 50 • Benchmark to evaluate CMIP6/PMIP4 LIG simulations with 127 ka climate forcing
- 51 • Critical evaluation of existing LIG climate compilations as a guidance for modelers

52

### 53 **1. Introduction:**

54 Understanding the climate processes and feedbacks occurring in high-latitude regions is essential for  
55 predicting future high-latitude responses to rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. These areas are amongst  
56 the most affected by global climate change due to their sensitivity to changes in radiative forcing, and they act  
57 as amplifiers of climate change through changes in snow and ice cover and associated albedo feedbacks (e.g.  
58 Hartmann et al., 2013; Vaughan et al., 2013). The high latitudes provide also the climatic context responsible  
59 for polar ice sheet melting and consequently, sea level changes (e.g. DeConto and Pollard, 2016). Besides,  
60 surface oceanic conditions (e.g. temperature, salinity) in the Nordic Seas and North Atlantic Ocean play a key  
61 role in modulating the intensity of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), responsible for  
62 meridional heat transport and heat and carbon storage in the ocean (e.g. Wunch, 2002). However  
63 uncertainties remain in the ability of climate models (1) to correctly capture feedbacks involved in polar  
64 amplifications (e.g. Braconnot et al. 2012; Schmidt et al., 2014) and (2) to assess future climate changes in the  
65 North Atlantic that will affect the stability of the AMOC (e.g. Sgubin et al., 2017).

66 The Last Interglacial (LIG, ~129-116 thousand years BP, ka; Figure 1) represents an appropriate case  
67 study to test the skills of climate models and to assess feedbacks accounting for the amplified high-latitude  
68 warmth in a range of temperature changes comparable to present-day and projected changes in the near  
69 future. A recent study suggests that LIG peak global mean annual sea surface temperatures (SST) were  $0.5 \pm$   
70  $0.3^\circ\text{C}$  warmer than the preindustrial climatological mean (calculated from 1870 to 1889) but  
71 indistinguishable from the 1995 to 2014 climatological mean (Hoffman et al., 2017). Considering that LIG

72 global sea level was up to 6 to 9 m higher-than-today (e.g. Dutton et al., 2015), this warming trend raises  
73 further concerns on the response of the high-latitude regions to a globally warmer-than-preindustrial climate  
74 and the vulnerability of Greenland and Antarctica to climate change. Processes and feedbacks at play during  
75 the LIG are not yet fully understood and in particular large-scale discrepancies currently exist between LIG  
76 simulations and reconstructions for the surface temperature trends over the polar and sub polar regions (e.g.  
77 Lunt et al., 2013; Bakker et al., 2013; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2013).

78 The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP) and Paleoclimate Model Intercomparison Project  
79 (PMIP) coordinate climate and paleoclimate modelling activities and evaluate the capability of models used in  
80 future climate projections to reproduce past climates (WCRP-Coupled-Model-Intercomparison-Project-  
81 Phase-5, 2011, Braconnot et al., 2012). In the framework of both Phase 6 of CMIP (CMIP6) and Phase 4 of  
82 PMIP (PMIP4), an experimental protocol for LIG Tier 1 equilibrium simulations referred to as *lig127k* has  
83 been prepared recently (Kageyama et al., 2017; Otto-Bliesner et al. 2016). 127 ka was identified as the most  
84 appropriate time interval to investigate the impact of a stronger orbital forcing compared to the preindustrial  
85 at a time when atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations were similar to preindustrial levels and the  
86 continental configurations were almost identical to modern (Figure 1). It also occurs sufficiently late within  
87 the LIG to only bear a limited climate imprint of the melting of the Northern Hemisphere ice sheets during the  
88 penultimate deglaciation (Govin et al., 2012; Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016).

89 One of the objectives of this *lig127k* equilibrium simulation is to examine the connections among  
90 large scale and regional climate changes leading to changes in land-sea contrast and amplified warming in the  
91 high latitudes under a strong orbital forcing context (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). To facilitate diagnosis of the  
92 Tier 1 *lig127k* equilibrium experiment, Tier 2 sensitivity simulations are also proposed to examine the impact  
93 of uncertainties attached to the boundary conditions and the role of the cryosphere, ocean, vegetation and  
94 dust feedbacks in modulating the response to this orbital forcing. In particular, one of the sensitivity  
95 experiments will explore the climate response to the release of freshwater into the North Atlantic Ocean (due  
96 to Northern Hemisphere ice sheet melting) and the role of such freshwater forcing in generating millennial-  
97 scale climate changes i.e. changes at a faster scale than what would be expected solely from the insolation  
98 forcing (Goelzer et al., 2016; Stone et al., 2016). Full information on the scientific objectives and design of the  
99 *lig127k* and associated sensitivity experiments can be found in Otto-Bliesner et al. (2016).

100 Evaluating these model simulations will require the use of appropriate paleoclimatic data syntheses  
101 as benchmarks. The syntheses of LIG quantitative climate reconstructions from Turney and Jones (2010) and  
102 McKay et al. (2011) have been used previously for climate model evaluation (Lunt et al., 2013; Otto-Bliesner  
103 et al., 2013). However, these compilations are attached to several limitations. First, they are based on  
104 paleoclimatic records taken on their original timescales, which introduce dating uncertainties of up to 6 ka  
105 (Govin et al., 2015). Second, they consist of a compilation of peak warmth values not occurring necessarily at  
106 the same time. Indeed, there is much evidence that the LIG warming was not synchronous globally (e.g. Bauch  
107 and Erlenkeuser, 2008; Cortese et al., 2007; NEEM-community-members, 2013; Govin et al., 2012; Masson-  
108 Delmotte et al., 2010). Thus, the Turney and Jones (2010) and McKay et al. (2011) syntheses do not represent

109 a climate state prevailing at any specific time periods across the LIG, but instead a virtual image on the LIG  
110 peak warmth across the globe. As a result and despite their global geographical extent, the Turney and Jones  
111 (2010) and McKay et al. (2011) datasets represent inadequate benchmarks for the upcoming *lig127k*  
112 simulation and associated sensitivity experiments.

113 We overcame the difficulty of harmonizing chronologies of marine and ice records from different  
114 hemispheres using a strategy based on climato-stratigraphic alignments (Capron et al., 2014). We produced a  
115 spatio-temporal representation of the LIG climate in the high-latitude regions using annual surface air  
116 temperature and summer SST from polar ice and marine records above latitudes of 40°N and 40°S. We also  
117 proposed four maps of surface temperature anomalies relative to present-day calculated for 2 ka- time slices  
118 centred on 130, 125, 120 and 115 ka. This time-evolving synthesis and associated time-slices provide robust  
119 data anchors to evaluate climate model capability in representing LIG processes and feedback mechanisms  
120 occurring in polar and sub-polar regions (Capron et al., 2014; Loutre et al., 2014; Stone et al., 2016; Pfeiffer  
121 and Lohmann, 2016). Following a similar climato-stratigraphic approach, Hoffman et al. (2017) built recently  
122 a compilation of annual sea surface temperature records extending down to the tropics, together with three  
123 associated maps of SST anomalies at 129, 125 and 120 ka.

124 Despite those recent progresses, no time slice centred on the 127 ka time interval chosen to run the  
125 CMIP5/PMIP4 LIG Tier 1 and Tier 2 experiments is available. Yet, studies have illustrated how crucial it is to  
126 compare climate simulations with the appropriate paleo-data time period. For instance, snapshot  
127 experiments performed by Otto-Bliesner et al. (2013) with the General Coupled Model (GCM) CCSM3 for the  
128 130 ka, 125 ka and 120 ka time intervals, simulate North Atlantic sea surface temperatures (SST) that range  
129 from little change relative to preindustrial values for 120 ka to 2 to 6 °C maximum warming for 125 and 130  
130 ka. These diverse warming signals simulated at different time intervals could not be evaluated by the LIG  
131 peak warmth-centred syntheses such as those from Turney and Jones (2010) and McKay et al. (2011), calling  
132 for syntheses at the corresponding time periods. Moreover, a study highlighted that when forced by the 130  
133 ka orbital configuration and GHG levels only, the CCSM3 and HadCM3 models could not reproduce the inter-  
134 hemispheric asynchrony observed in the surface temperature response at 130 ka (Capron et al., 2014). This  
135 observation cannot be drawn without comparing the simulations to the data time slice corresponding to 130  
136 ka. Building upon this observation, the model-data mismatch was then resolved when accounting for an  
137 additional forcing associated with a freshwater input in the North Atlantic to account for Northern  
138 Hemisphere ice sheet melting across the penultimate deglaciation (Stone et al., 2016).

139 In this study, we present a new 126-128 ka (hereafter referred to as 127 ka) time slice of surface  
140 temperature anomalies relative to preindustrial based on the Capron et al. (2014) synthesis to assist the  
141 assessment of the CMIP5/PMIP4 LIG Tier 1 and Tier 2 simulations in the high-latitude regions. After a brief  
142 description of the materials and methods (Section 2), we describe the main climatic features highlighted in  
143 the 127 ka time slice and differences with the ones existing for 130 and 125 ka (section 3). Finally, we  
144 compare our new 127 ka time slice with other existing LIG data syntheses, evaluating their strengths and

145 limitations. We also discuss the validity of such a data time slice at 127 ka in the context of the upcoming  
146 modeling exercise (Section 4).

## 147 **2. Material and Methods**

148 Full information on the recent LIG climate synthesis is available in Capron et al. (2014). Briefly, we  
149 combined 47 surface air and sea surface LIG temperature records with a minimum temporal resolution of 2  
150 ka for latitudes above 40°N and 40°S. Surface air temperature records are deduced from ice core water  
151 isotopic profiles. Sea surface temperatures (SST) are reconstructed in marine cores from foraminiferal Mg/Ca  
152 ratios, alkenone unsaturation ratios or microfossil faunal assemblage transfer functions (Figure 1 and Table  
153 S1 from Capron et al., 2014). With a LIG absolute dating uncertainty down to  $\pm 1.8$  ka ( $1\sigma$ ), the Antarctic Ice  
154 Core Chronology 2012 (hereafter referred to as AICC2012; Bazin et al., 2013; Veres et al., 2013) is chosen as  
155 the reference age scale for all paleoclimatic records. Marine records are transferred onto AICC2012 by  
156 assuming that surface-water temperature changes in the sub-Antarctic zone of the Southern Ocean  
157 (respectively in the North Atlantic) occurred simultaneously with air temperature variations above  
158 Antarctica (respectively Greenland). Details on the climate record alignments are presented in Capron et al.  
159 (2014).

160 We calculate temperature averages for the 126-128 ka interval to account for the record temporal  
161 resolution, dating uncertainties and potential delays in climate responses. Instead of using temperature  
162 anomalies relative to modern-day as in Capron et al. (2014), we calculate temperature anomalies relative to  
163 preindustrial to facilitate comparisons with the LIG Tier 1 simulation for which boundary conditions and  
164 forcing will be set relative to preindustrial. For each marine core location, we extracted the preindustrial SST  
165 from the HadISST dataset for the 1870-1899 interval (Rayner et al., 2003). For our marine core locations, the  
166 gridded NODC WOA98 summer SST dataset (representative of modern-day) is on average 0.1°C warmer than  
167 the gridded 1870-1899 HadISST dataset in the North Atlantic region and 0.2°C cooler in the Southern Ocean  
168 (see Table S1). Note that HadISST is a statistically blended and interpolated dataset of different  
169 measurements, representing optimal SST spatial distributions. Uncertainties associated to the HadISST are  
170 not currently available (Rayner et al., 2003). These HadISST values at the marine core sites cannot be tested  
171 against in-situ preindustrial SST reconstructions since the paleorecords selected for the LIG synthesis do not  
172 have a sufficient resolution to correctly establish the pre-industrial climate. Yet, the HadISST is shown to be  
173 consistent with other datasets across overlapping time span, therefore its uncertainties are likely small  
174 (Rayner et al., 2003), especially in comparison to the typical error related to the SST reconstructions included  
175 in our study. The preindustrial estimate ( $-28.8 \pm 0.7^\circ\text{C}$ ) of the Greenland NEEM ice core site is based on  
176 borehole temperature measurements (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2015). In the absence of such reconstructions  
177 for the Antarctic sites, the estimates corresponding to the 1870-1899 time interval rely on water isotopic  
178 profiles, they are similar to modern instrumental ones within less than 1°C except for EDML (less than 2°C; A.  
179 Orsi, personal communication).

180 We calculate 127 ka surface temperature anomalies relative to preindustrial and temperature  
181 differences between (1) 127 and 130 ka and (2) 125 and 127 ka, all associated with quantitative uncertainties  
182 by following the methodology presented in Capron et al. (2014). Briefly, we apply to both ice core and marine  
183 records a Monte Carlo analysis performed with 1000 age model simulations. For each site, it relies on the  
184 surface temperature record resampled every 0.1 ka after being transferred onto AICC2012 by linear  
185 interpolation between the defined tie points (details in Table S2 from Capron et al., 2014). From 1000 slightly  
186 different SST anomalies obtained for the 126-128 ka time windows, we calculated the median 127 ka surface  
187 temperature anomaly and associated confidence intervals ( $2\sigma$ ) defined by the 2.5<sup>th</sup> and 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles.  
188 These non-parametric uncertainties take into account temperature reconstruction errors and relative dating  
189 uncertainties. The 127 ka average uncertainty is  $\sim 3.0^\circ\text{C}$  ( $2\sigma$ ). Similar procedure is followed to deduce the  
190 temperature differences between (1) 127 and 130 ka and (2) 125 and 127 ka, and their respective  $2\sigma$   
191 uncertainties.

192 Note that originally this approach was not used for ice core records in Capron et al. (2014) and only  
193 the uncertainty associated with temperature reconstructions based on water isotopic profiles, i.e.  $1.5^\circ\text{C}$  and  
194  $4^\circ\text{C}$  for Antarctic and Greenland ice core records respectively was provided. Now, time slice surface air  
195 temperature and associated  $2\sigma$  errors are estimated also for ice core-based temperature records following  
196 the same Monte-Carlo based-procedure as for SST reconstructions. While EDC, EDML, Vostok and Talos Dome  
197 records are not associated with relative dating errors since they were directly used to produce the reference  
198 AICC2012 chronology (Bazin et al., 2012; Veres et al., 2012), we consider relative dating uncertainties  
199 associated with the transfer of the NEEM and Dome F records onto AICC2012, in addition to temperature  
200 reconstruction errors. For the Dome F ice core, we use an updated site temperature reconstruction (Uemura  
201 et al., 2012), it leads to differences of only  $0.6^\circ\text{C}$  and  $0.1^\circ\text{C}$  for the 130 and 125 ka temperature estimates  
202 respectively. Published and updated 130, 127, 125, 120 and 115 ka surface temperature estimates and  
203 associated  $2\sigma$  errors are provided in Table S1.

204 We also provide regional mean SST anomalies for the North Atlantic, the Southern Ocean and  
205 Antarctica at 130, 127 and 125 (Table 1). Because of the little amount of records available but also the larger  
206 dating uncertainties, we prefer to avoid providing average SST anomalies for the Labrador and Norwegian  
207 Seas. Also an average value cannot be provided for Greenland since only one quantitative temperature  
208 reconstruction (for the NEEM site) is available so far. The North Atlantic and the Southern Ocean average  
209 estimates were calculated by averaging anomalies in  $8^\circ \times 8^\circ$  boxes after weighting each zonal average by the  
210 area of ocean for each latitudinal band. The Antarctic averages were calculated using the same method and  
211 grid box resolution. Note that we also apply the same methodology to the 129, 127 and 125 ka SST anomalies  
212 from North Atlantic and Southern Ocean sites above  $40^\circ\text{N}$  and  $40^\circ\text{S}$  respectively presented in the recent  
213 Hoffman et al. (2017). Details are given in the Supplementary Material.

214

### 215 **3. Results**

216 The 127 ka time slice illustrates mostly warmer than preindustrial conditions in both hemispheres  
217 (Figure 2). The area-weighted average summer SST warming relative to preindustrial was 1.1°C (with a 0.7°C  
218 standard error of the mean, noted SE hereafter) in the North Atlantic and 1.8°C (SE: 0.8°C) in the Southern  
219 Ocean (using 14 and 15 reconstructions respectively, Table 1). However, colder than preindustrial conditions  
220 are mostly recorded in the Nordic Seas. A Nordic Seas average SST estimate is not proposed here because of  
221 the paucity of available records, reduced proxy sensitivity to record low SST variations and large  
222 chronological uncertainties (Capron et al., 2014). In Antarctica, the area-weighted average 127 ka annual  
223 surface air temperature was 2.2 (SE: 1.4°C) warmer compared to preindustrial (using four records). Only one  
224 quantitative surface air temperature reconstruction above Greenland covering unambiguously the LIG is  
225 currently available based on the NEEM ice core water isotopic record. It results in a precipitation-weighted  
226 temperature estimate warmer by  $7.8 \pm 7.9^\circ\text{C}$  ( $2\sigma$ ) at 127 ka (NEEM-community-members, 2013), however a  
227 value possibly twice as small was suggested through the recent work from Masson-Delmotte et al. (2015).  
228 The correct value remains under discussion (Landais et al., 2016).

229 Surface temperature anomaly calculations between 127 and 130 ka and between 125 and 127 ka  
230 (Figure 2, Table 1) highlight differences and similarities between the three intervals. North Atlantic summer  
231 SST (S-SST) are  $5.3 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$  (mean squared error) warmer at 127 ka compared to 130 ka while small  
232 differences are observed between 125 and 127 ka ( $0.1 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ ). In the Southern Ocean, the 127 and 130 ka  
233 time slices evidence a relatively similar pattern ( $0.1 \pm 1.2^\circ\text{C}$  of temperature difference) and a slight cooling is  
234 observed between 127 and 125 ka ( $-0.3 \pm 1.2^\circ\text{C}$  difference). Larger differences are calculated for Antarctica  
235 with warmer conditions at 127 ka by  $0.3 \pm 2.0^\circ\text{C}$  and  $0.9 \pm 2.0^\circ\text{C}$  compared to 130 and 125 ka respectively.

236

## 237 4. Discussion

### 238 4.1. On the potential remnant imprint of the millennial-scale bipolar seesaw pattern at 127 ka

239 The hemispheric surface temperature patterns deduced at 127 ka from Capron et al. (2014) are very  
240 different compared to those observed at 130 ka in the Capron et al. (2014) time slice (Figure 3). While the  
241 North Atlantic and the Southern Ocean are both warmer than preindustrial at 127 ka ( $+1.1^\circ\text{C}$  with SE:  $0.7^\circ\text{C}$   
242 and  $+1.8^\circ\text{C}$  with SE:  $0.8^\circ\text{C}$  respectively), at 130 ka, the North Atlantic temperatures are much cooler than  
243 preindustrial ( $-4.2^\circ\text{C}$  with SE:  $0.8^\circ\text{C}$  on average) and the Southern Ocean was already warmer than  
244 preindustrial ( $+1.8^\circ\text{C}$  with SE:  $0.9^\circ\text{C}$  on average). The differences for the North Atlantic region are clearly  
245 illustrated by the large warming calculated between 130 and 127 ka ( $5.3 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ ) while only the small climatic  
246 difference observed between 125 and 127 ka ( $0.1 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ ; Table 1). These patterns are the expression of the  
247 asynchronous establishment of peak warmth observed between the Northern Hemisphere temperature  
248 records and those from the Southern Hemisphere (Figure 1). The LIG temperature peak in the Southern  
249 Hemisphere is reached at  $129.3 \pm 0.9$  ka and at  $126.4 \pm 1.9$  ka in the North Atlantic (Capron et al., 2014). This  
250 hemispheric asynchrony illustrated best in the 130 ka time slice from Capron et al. (2014) is attributed to  
251 dynamics independent from orbital forcing and related to the bipolar seesaw mechanism (Capron et al.,  
252 2014). This mechanism is likely related to the disruption of the Atlantic overturning circulation due to

253 freshwater discharges into the North Atlantic (e.g. Govin et al., 2012; Marino et al., 2015; Stone et al., 2016),  
254 leading to the northern high latitudes prolonged cold conditions while contributing to the southern high  
255 latitudes early warming (Broecker, 1998; Stocker and Johnsen, 2003; Figure 1). Warmer Antarctic conditions  
256 at 127 ka compared to 130, 129 and 125 ka illustrate a remnant of the so-called overshoot, a millennial-scale  
257 Antarctic temperature peak occurring at the end of the penultimate deglaciation, and identified as a shorter  
258 excursion in GHG records (Figure 1). This overshoot is interpreted as a regional response of the bipolar  
259 seesaw mechanism (see discussion in Past-Interglacials-Working-Group-of-PAGES, 2016).

260 Because of the overall dating uncertainties of paleoclimatic records (at least 2 ka) and the potential  
261 remaining fingerprint of millennial-scale dynamics around 127 ka, the 127 ka data values should thus be  
262 treated with care for data-model comparison purpose of *lig127k* Tier 1 simulations. In particular, the excess  
263 warmth in Antarctica and more generally, the remnant of the millennial-scale bipolar seesaw imprint in  
264 paleo-records at 127 ka might not be simulated in the *lig127k* simulation solely forced by GHG and orbital  
265 forcing. However, additional Tier 2 sensitivity experiments will examine the impact of uncertainties in  
266 boundary conditions and in particular the role of cryosphere and ocean feedbacks in modulating the orbital  
267 forcing response (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). A specific Tier 2 sensitivity experiment will help disentangle the  
268 orbital vs. millennial-scale climatic variability by implementing in the baseline *lig127k* simulation a persistent  
269 freshwater flux of 0.2 Sv into the North Atlantic (details on the experiment design in Otto-Bliesner et al.,  
270 2016).

271 Also, potential delays in the response of specific components of the climate system (e.g. vegetation,  
272 deep ocean circulation) to the 127 ka radiative and GHG forcing may exist and these aspects require  
273 dedicated investigations. The transient behavior of the climate system will be investigated within PMIP4 with  
274 transient simulations to be run between 128 and 122 ka (Otto-Bliesner et al., 2016). In addition to the  
275 multiple surface temperature time slices that now exist across the LIG, surface temperature time series are  
276 also available and provide a comprehensive data base for studying the transient climate evolution of the LIG  
277 (Capron et al., 2014; Hoffman et al., 2017).

#### 278 279 **4.2. Comparison of the recent LIG surface temperature syntheses for the high-latitude regions**

280 Producing paleoclimate record syntheses to quantify LIG surface temperature changes is a long-  
281 standing goal in paleoclimate research (e.g. CLIMAP-project-members, 1984; CAPE-Last-Interglacial-Project-  
282 Members, 2006; Kaspar et al., 2005). Here, we focus on the four latest compilations (Turney and Jones, 2010;  
283 McKay et al., 2011; Capron et al., 2014; Hoffman et al., 2017; Figure 2) and provide an evaluation of their  
284 strengths and limitations (Table 2). First we discuss the similarities and differences in terms of temperature  
285 reconstructions at 127 ka (Table 3) between the two LIG peak warmth-centered syntheses and our new 127  
286 ka time slice (Section 4.1.1.). Second, we provide a more in-depth comparison between the recent Hoffman et  
287 al. (2017) synthesis and our 127 ka time slice (Section 4.1.2.). Finally, we provide guidance on the use of these  
288 various LIG compilations for future model-data comparisons in the framework of the CMIP6/PMIP4 127 ka  
289 experiments (Section 4.1.3.).



290

#### 291 **4.2.1. Comparing our 127 ka time slice with the two LIG peak warmth-centered syntheses**

292 The Turney and Jones (2010) synthesis has the largest spatial coverage and is currently the only  
293 synthesis integrating terrestrial records, however this synthesis is associated with four major limitations. (1)  
294 It relies on paleoclimatic records taken on their original timescales. (2) It represents a virtual image of the LIG  
295 peak warmth conditions but it does not represent a realistic climate for any given time interval during the LIG  
296 as it considers implicitly a synchronous maximum warmth across the globe. (3) SST records are all  
297 interpreted as annual means and Greenland maximum warmth estimates should be considered with caution  
298 (Table 2). (4) Quantitative uncertainties integrating errors on age models, analysis and the calibration of  
299 microfossil transfer functions are not provided. The McKay et al. (2011) compilation focuses on the global  
300 ocean. Their global mean SST anomalies account for the errors attached to SST tracers, the seasonality of the  
301 SST records and for the limited spatial range of paleoclimatic records. However, their synthesis is also  
302 centered on the LIG peak warmth and deduced from SST records taken on their original timescales. Also, only  
303 a limited number of SST records is included for the high latitudes compared to the other syntheses (Figure 3).

304 We now provide a comparison of the two peak warmth-centered compilations with our 127 ka time  
305 slice deduced from Capron et al. (2014). The compiled sites in McKay et al. (2011) do not exhibit the  
306 pronounced overall warmth in the North Atlantic observed in Turney and Jones (2010) and in our 127 ka  
307 time slice. In addition, the Turney and Jones (2010) synthesis does not illustrate the regional cooling  
308 prevailing in the Nordic Seas and in the West North Atlantic at 127 ka. In Table 4, we attempt to compare  
309 quantitatively the two peak warmth-centered compilations with the 127 ka time-slice. Such an exercise is  
310 challenging mainly because (1) temperature records from different sites are included from one synthesis to  
311 the other and (2) different time-intervals are used as references for temperature anomaly calculations. We  
312 extract SST values from 13 marine sites that were included in Capron et al. (2014) and in either Turney and  
313 Jones (2010; four sites in common) or McKay et al. (2011; three sites in common), or in both syntheses (six  
314 sites in common between the three syntheses). For each site, we calculate the difference between the  
315 provided peak warmth anomaly value and the 127 ka anomaly. To estimate the overall and regional degree of  
316 agreement of each of these peak-warmth syntheses with our 127 ka time slice at these common sites we  
317 calculate the resulting Root Mean Standard Deviation (RMSD) considering 1) all sites, 2) the North Atlantic  
318 sites only and 3) the Southern Ocean sites only.

319 For a given site, the offset between the value extracted from Turney and Jones (2010) and the 127 ka  
320 value varies between  $-2.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $+8.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ . When considering the 10 sites in common between Turney and Jones  
321 (2010) and our 127 ka time slice, the RMSD is  $3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . It is likely due to the fact that at 127 ka, peak warmth  
322 conditions are not systematically already reached in the North Atlantic region (the RMSD including only the  
323 six North Atlantic sites is  $4.0^{\circ}\text{C}$  while the RMSD including the four Southern Ocean sites is  $1.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ , see also  
324 discussion in section 4.3). Note that we made the same calculation considering the 127 ka values relative to  
325 the World Ocean Atlas 1998 instead of a preindustrial reference and the resulting North Atlantic RMSD is  
326  $3.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (not shown). As a result, the large offsets cannot be fully explained by the fact that the time interval of

327 reference chosen for the two syntheses is different. For a given site, the difference between the value from  
328 McKay et al. (2011) and the 127 ka value varies between -2.2°C and +3.9°C. Overall, the discrepancies are  
329 reduced between the McKay et al. (2010) synthesis and our 127 ka time slice but they are still large especially  
330 in the North Atlantic region (total RMSD of 1.7°C based on nine sites and of 2.3°C when considering only the  
331 three North Atlantic sites). This comparison exercise is somewhat fictional since the Turney and Jones (2010)  
332 and McKay et al. (2011) do not represent any particular time interval across the LIG and instead a snapshot  
333 on the LIG peak warmth. Still, it enables to illustrate that these two peak warmth-centered syntheses do not  
334 represent robust data benchmarks in the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean regions in the framework on the  
335 CMIP6/PMIP4 127 ka simulations.

336

#### 337 **4.2.2. Comparing our 127 ka time slice with the most recent Hoffman et al. (2017) compilation**

338 Recently, Hoffman et al. (2017) published a new LIG SST compilation of global extent and associated  
339 with a coherent temporal framework and quantitative estimates of the errors combining SST tracers and  
340 dating uncertainties (Table 2). Using the data provided in the Supplementary Online Material of Hoffman et al.  
341 (2017), we extracted a subset of their synthesis for the high latitudes at 127 ka following the methodology  
342 they used for building the 129, 125 and 120 ka time slices (Figure 3). Briefly we took for each core the SST  
343 value corresponding to the age 127 ka on the mean 0.1-ka interpolated SST curve resulting from their  
344 Bayesian approach which integrates 1000 realizations of SST curves resulting from the propagation of  
345 uncertainties associated with age markers and the proxy-based SST calibrations. Surface temperature  
346 anomaly was then deduced by using the HadlSST1.1 1870-1889 values provided in the supplementary  
347 material of Hoffman et al. (2017).

348 Overall, a comparable number of high-latitude SST records is included in Hoffman et al. (2017) and  
349 Capron et al. (2014) but the latter includes in addition polar surface air temperature records from ice cores.  
350 The two SST datasets are somehow complementary since Capron et al. (2014) provide mostly summer SST  
351 records (40 summer and two annual SST reconstructions) and Hoffman et al. (2017) gather 17 summer and  
352 22 annual SST records. However differences in methodologies to define the common temporal framework  
353 and to estimate surface temperature changes prevent us to propose a 127 ka time slice combining directly  
354 both syntheses (see further discussion below). The two syntheses have 12 summer SST records in common.  
355 The difference in site selection in both compilations likely arises from (1) different minimum temporal  
356 resolution cuts to select the SST records (2 ka in Capron et al. (2014) and 4 ka in Hoffman et al. (2017)) and  
357 (2) a climate alignment strategy in Hoffman et al. (2017) that requires benthic foraminifera  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record  
358 which might not systematically be available in some of the sites selected in Capron et al. (2014).

359 Both syntheses highlight the hemispheric asynchronous pattern in surface temperatures at the  
360 beginning of the LIG as observed in the 129 ka time slice from Hoffman et al. (2017) and the 130 ka time slice  
361 from Capron et al. (2014) (Figure 3). This observation further supports the crucial need for time-evolving  
362 syntheses across the LIG. We now provide a quantitative comparison of the 127 ka time slices inferred from  
363 Hoffman et al. (2017) and from our data synthesis following the same method as the method used to compare

364 our 127 ka time slice with the ones from Turney and Jones (2010) and McKay et al. (2011) (Section 4.1.1,  
365 Table 3). Such a comparison is more straightforward in the present case since we are able here to use  
366 absolute surface temperature values given in the supplementary materials of Hoffmann et al. (2017) and  
367 Capron et al. (2014) so that the comparison is not affected by possible differences in preindustrial reference  
368 values. The resulting North Atlantic and Southern Ocean RMSD are of 1.2 and 0.8°C respectively. Overall, the  
369 resulting RMSD of 1.1°C based on 12 common SST records is much smaller than the RMSD values inferred  
370 when comparing our time slice with the LIG peak warmth syntheses and it is also within the range of stated  
371 quantitative  $2\sigma$  uncertainties for both syntheses.

372         Considering that Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al. (2014) use the exact same original SST  
373 datasets on a depth scale for these selected sites, we interpret the temperature differences recorded at 127 ka  
374 and ranging between 0.1 to 2.0 °C for the different sites in Table 3 as resulting from three main factors. (1)  
375 Capron et al. (2014) use AICC2012 (Bazin et al., 2012; Veres et al., 2012) as the reference chronology while  
376 Hoffman et al. (2017) use the SpeleoAge time scale which results from the adjustment of the ice core EDC3  
377 timescale using radiometric dates from Chinese speleothems (Barker et al., 2011). An offset of about 1 ka is  
378 observed between the two time scales around 127 ka, it increases through time reaching up to 3.4 ka around  
379 115 ka (Figure 4). (2) The definition of the tie points and associated relative uncertainty, which influence the  
380 determination of the final age model and thus the resulting 127 ka temperature values, are different. (3)  
381 Despite a similar approach based on a Monte-Carlo analysis with 1000 age model realizations, the two studies  
382 do not use the same method of calculation to deduce the age model for each site, as well as quantitative  
383 estimates of associated uncertainties. The methodology of Hoffman et al. (2017) is based on Bayesian  
384 statistics (Haslett and Parnell, 2008) and results in a greater smoothing of the SST changes on an age scale  
385 compared to those inferred with our methodology based on linear interpolation between tie-points. This is  
386 illustrated in Figure 4 with a comparison of the resulting dated surface temperature records for the North  
387 Atlantic site EW9302-8JPC (Oppo et al., 1997; Oppo et al., 2001) that show an offset of 2°C at 127 ka. This  
388 exercise of comparison shows how critical age models, and the way they are defined, are in LIG data  
389 compilations. Using different SST interpolation and smoothing scheme also potentially leads to changes in the  
390 timing of the LIG maximum warmth and thus to changes in the estimated amplitude of the SST temperature  
391 change. As a result, the Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al. (2017) climate syntheses cannot be merged  
392 unless a thorough work on harmonizing the chronologies of both compilations is carried out first.

393

#### 394         **4.2.3. Recommendations**

395         Overall, we do not recommend the use of the peak warmth-centered syntheses from Turney and  
396 Jones (2010) and McKay et al. (2011) as benchmarks for the 127 ka climate above polar ice sheets and at the  
397 surface of the North Atlantic and Southern Oceans in the CMIP6/PMIP4 127 ka simulations. For model-data  
398 comparison exercises focused on surface ocean changes at a global scale, a 127 ka time slice of global-scale  
399 inferred from the Hoffman et al. (2017) compilation should be favored over the McKay et al. (2011) synthesis  
400 changes at a global scale recorded in the ocean. For studies focusing on the high-latitudes regions, we

401 recommend the use of the 127 ka time-slice based on the Capron et al. (2014) as it gather not only the largest  
402 number of SST records but also provide information about climatic changes above the polar ice sheets.  
403 Finally, the surface temperature records included in Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al. (2014) cannot be  
404 combined in their current state.

405

### 406 **4.3. Regional and global surface temperature averages from LIG climate syntheses**

407 We discuss here new regional and existing global SST averages available across the LIG. While site-  
408 specific estimates provide detailed information about the spatial structure of the changes, regional averages  
409 provide first order estimate of mean responses across the LIG. Because of potential local bias affecting SST  
410 reconstructions and/or potential misrepresentation of processes at local scale in the CMIP6/PMIP4 models,  
411 they are particularly useful to evaluate models capability at a global and regional scale and also to benchmark  
412 models with reduced spatial resolution.

413 Because (1) air temperature estimates represent precipitation-weighted and annual signals for  
414 Greenland and Antarctica respectively, and (2) SST records are mostly interpreted as summer signals, we  
415 cannot propose a realistic 127 ka high latitude average surface temperature encompassing all records in our  
416 data synthesis. Instead, we propose regional temperature anomalies for the North Atlantic, the Southern  
417 Ocean (summer averages) and Antarctica (annual average) at 125, 127 and 130 ka (Table 1) based on records  
418 on coherent chronologies and relative to preindustrial. We infer from the Capron et al. (2014) dataset that  
419 North Atlantic and Southern Ocean summer averages were +1.1°C (SE: 0.7°C, based on 14 records) and +1.8°C  
420 (SE: 0.8°C; based on 15 records) respectively at 127 ka. Following the same methodology, we infer also  
421 annual and summer North Atlantic and Southern Ocean averages based on the sites poleward 40°N and 40°S  
422 included in the Hoffman et al. (2017) datasets. 127 ka North Atlantic and Southern Ocean summer averages  
423 were +1.9°C (SE: 1.7°C, based on nine records) and +1.6°C (SE: 0.9°C, based on seven records) respectively  
424 while North Atlantic and Southern Ocean annual averages were -0.2°C (SE: 1.4°C, based on nine records) and  
425 +2.7°C (SE: 1.0°C, based on 12 records, see footnote of Table 1 regarding this annual average). Despite  
426 existing surface temperature differences observed at 127 ka for a given site included in both compilations (c.f.  
427 section 4.1.2, Table 2), the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean regional summer averages from the two  
428 compilations based on different methodologies to infer a common chronological framework are overall  
429 consistent within their stated uncertainties. Combining the annual and summer averages represents useful  
430 quantitative information to evaluate (1) the seasonality of climate models in the high-latitude regions and (2)  
431 the sensitivity to the high-latitude summer warmth of the polar ice sheets whose melting caused a 6-9m  
432 global sea level rise.

433 The warming at 127 ka relative to preindustrial is greater over polar ice sheets (e.g. +2.2°C with SE:  
434 1.4°C above Antarctica) compared to the surface layer of the Southern Ocean and the North Atlantic. First, it  
435 likely originates from the fact that land areas on average change more rapidly than the ocean (land-sea  
436 contrast; e.g. Joshi et al., 2008; Braconnot et al., 2012). Second, it also arises from the polar amplification of  
437 surface warming (e.g. Holland and Bitz, 2003; Masson-Delmotte et al., 2006) due to feedbacks related to

438 surface albedo because of changes in land ice and sea ice cover, to ice sheet elevation and to atmospheric  
439 processes such as changes in cloud cover (and cloud radiative feedbacks, e.g. Curry et al., 1996) and  
440 variations in heat advection (Alexeev et al., 2005).

441 Finally, Hoffman et al. (2017) estimate that global annual SST were only  $0.5 \pm 0.3^\circ\text{C}$  warmer-than-  
442 preindustrial at 125 ka and a similar value is inferred at 127 ka based on their time-evolving global stack  
443 (Supplementary Online Material from Hoffman et al., 2017). In contrast, the high-latitude summer warming  
444 was at least 1.1 (SE:  $0.7^\circ\text{C}$ ) and 1.6 (SE:  $0.9^\circ\text{C}$ ) warmer-than-preindustrial in the North Atlantic and the  
445 Southern Ocean respectively (Capron et al., 2014; Hoffman et al., 2017). The high-latitude warmth compared  
446 to preindustrial conditions is compensated globally because of other regions affected by surface changes of  
447 smaller amplitude, i.e. the low-latitude SST records gathered in Hoffman et al. (2017) point toward an annual  
448 average SST in the tropics (between  $23.5^\circ\text{N}$  and  $23.5^\circ\text{S}$ ) slightly below the preindustrial mean at 127 ka ( $-0.1$   
449  $\pm 0.4^\circ\text{C}$  as inferred from Supplementary Online Material from Hoffman et al., 2017). Overall, these results  
450 emphasize the existence of considerable regional and seasonal differences in the amplitude of surface  
451 temperature changes at 127 ka, and in particular the large response of the high-latitude regions compared to  
452 global ocean surface conditions only slightly warmer than preindustrial.

453

## 454 **5. Summary and outlook**

455 Based on the Capron et al. (2014) compilation, we produce a 127 ka surface temperature time slice  
456 relative to preindustrial showing warmer-than-preindustrial conditions in the high latitudes (Table 1; Figure  
457 2). Because at 127 ka, (1) the warmest time period can be reconstructed when considering the two high  
458 latitude regions and (2) large millennial-scale climate shifts are limited (Figure 1), it represents the most  
459 suitable time interval to run the CMIP5/PMIP4 LIG Tier 1 and Tier 2 simulations. Differences in the climatic  
460 patterns observed between the 127 ka, 125 and 130 ka time slices inferred from the Capron et al. (2014)  
461 synthesis (and also observed between the 127, 125 and 129 ka time slices inferred from the Hoffman et al.  
462 (2017) synthesis) strengthen the need to benchmark the Tier 1 and Tier 2 climate snapshot simulations with  
463 data from the appropriate 127 ka time interval.

464 We provide an in-depth evaluation of existing LIG climate syntheses and guidance for using them to  
465 evaluate climate model simulations. Due to their chronological limitations and their focus on the LIG peak  
466 warmth only, we do not recommend the use of the syntheses of Turney and Jones (2010) and McKay et al.  
467 (2011) as benchmarks for the CMIP6/PMIP4 127 ka simulations performed in the high-latitude regions. We  
468 recommend instead using the new 127 ka surface temperature dataset. Associated with summer SST  
469 reconstructions, it will be particularly useful to evaluate data-model temperature differences seasonally in  
470 the context of a large summer insolation forcing in the North Hemisphere. Site-specific estimates provide  
471 detailed information about the spatial structure of the changes and the regional averages provide first-order  
472 estimates of mean responses at 127 ka.

473 The Turney and Jones (2010) compilation is the only one including continental records. Thus, the fact  
474 that it does not represent any specific nor realistic time window should be kept in mind when using it for

475 model-data comparison exercises over land or when using as a benchmark its global annual surface  
476 temperature estimate of  $+1.5 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$  relative to the 1961-1990 interval. Hoffmann et al. (2017) dataset  
477 represents currently the only global ocean synthesis associated with harmonized chronologies extending to  
478 the low latitude annual ocean surface temperatures and it should be favored over the McKay et al. (2011)  
479 synthesis when investigating LIG SST changes at a global scale.

480 It is common practice to evaluate simulations of present-day climate to multiple observation datasets  
481 considered independently because of different blending methods and assimilation systems. In the same way  
482 and because of the use of different reference chronologies and methodologies to infer temporal surface  
483 temperature changes, the Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al. (2017) datasets should not be combined as  
484 such but, instead, treated as independent data benchmarks. Overall, our critical evaluation of available  
485 climate syntheses for benchmarking upcoming CMIP6/PMIP4 LIG simulations at 127 ka calls for the urgent  
486 need to develop millennial-scale transient climate syntheses of global extent, integrating ice, marine and  
487 continental records in a coherent temporal framework accounting for age and tracer uncertainties. In  
488 addition, future syntheses should also extend temperature synthesis to additional parameters such as deep  
489 ocean circulation changes and sea ice extent.

490 The LIG is not a direct analogue to future climate due to differences in the primary forcing of the  
491 warming i.e. caused by larger boreal summer insolation forcing, and not from enhanced greenhouse gas  
492 concentrations. However, the recent quantitative regional reconstructions indicate a warmth in the polar and  
493 sub-polar regions of similar amplitudes to the ones that might be reached by 2100, in particular in the context  
494 of climate policies that would limit global warming to  $+1.5^\circ\text{C}$  compared to a preindustrial background state.  
495 This leaves the LIG as a particularly relevant target for understanding mechanisms and feedbacks at play, and  
496 the polar ice sheet response to such high-latitude warmer climate.

497  
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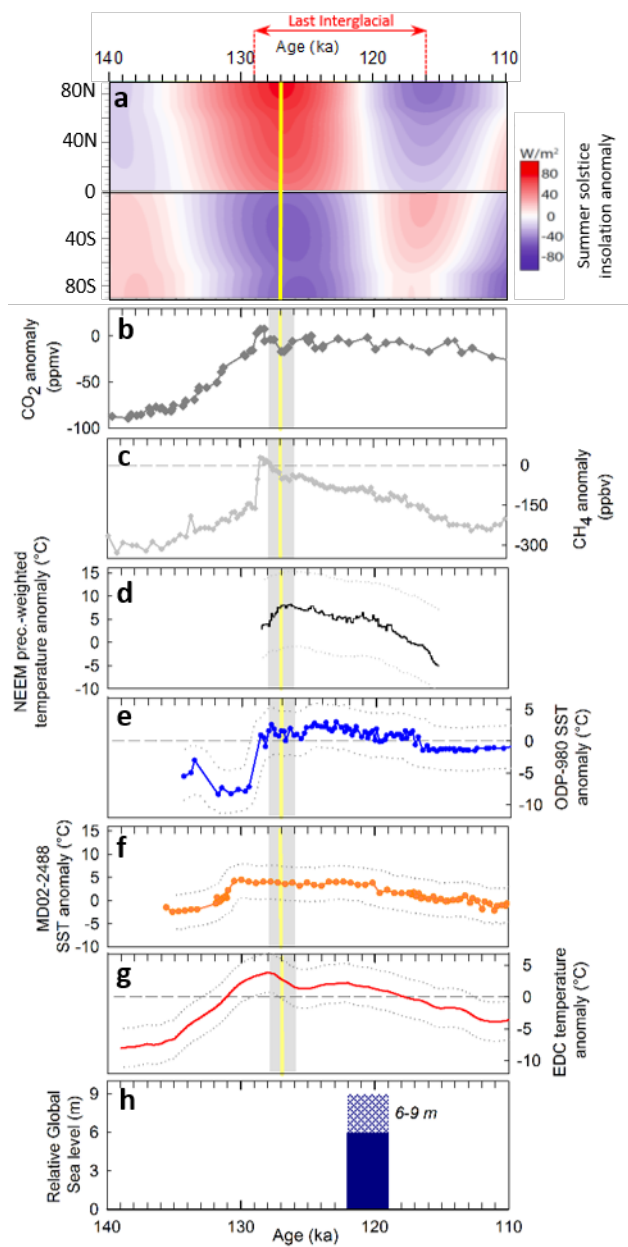
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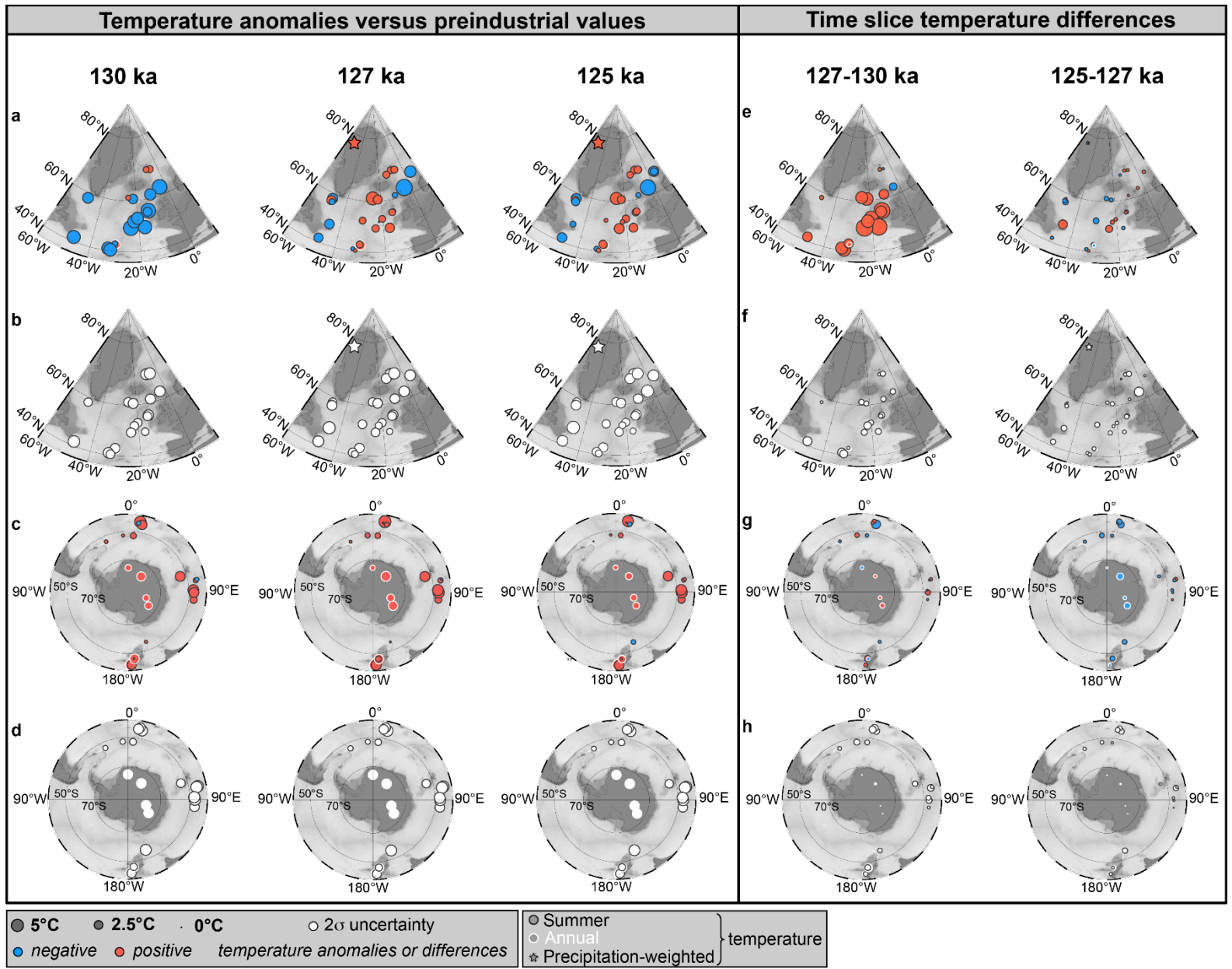
1 **Figure 1.** Forcing and climatic records across the 110-140 ka time interval. The LIG time interval is indicated by the red vertical dotted lines and  
2 horizontal arrow between 129 and 116 ka following the definition based on the eustatic sea level (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2013). Records are displayed  
3 in panels **a), b), c), d)** and **g)** as anomalies relative to the average value of the last 1000 years. As for the two marine records displayed in **e)** and **f)**, the  
4 reference summer SST are taken from the World Ocean Atlas 1998 (10m-depth; Capron et al., 2014).

5 **a)** 21<sup>st</sup> June across the Northern Hemisphere and 21<sup>st</sup> December insolation across the Southern Hemisphere respectively;  
6 **b)** Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (Lüthi et al., 2008);  
7 **c)** Atmospheric CH<sub>4</sub> concentration (Loulergue et al., 2008);  
8 **d)** Greenland NEEM precipitation-weighted temperature reconstruction, (NEEM community members 2012) and associated 2 $\sigma$  uncertainty envelope  
9 (dotted lines, this study);  
10 **e)** North Atlantic marine core ODP 980 summer SST reconstruction (Oppo et al., 2006) and associated 2 $\sigma$  uncertainty envelope (dotted line; Capron et  
11 al. 2014);  
12 **f)** Southern Ocean marine core MD02-2488 SST summer reconstruction (Govin et al., 2012) and associated 2 $\sigma$  uncertainty envelope (dotted lines;  
13 Capron et al., 2014);  
14 **g)** Antarctic EDC annual surface air temperature reconstruction (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2011) and associated 2 $\sigma$  uncertainty envelope (dotted line;  
15 this study).  
16 **h)** Maximum global mean sea level (GMSL) relative to present-day, uncertainties remain both in the amplitude (6 to 9 m; indicated by the shading) and  
17 in the exact timing of the LIG GMSL peak. However, most studies point toward a late LIG GMSL peak occurring between 119 and 122 ka (see Dutton et  
18 al., 2015 for a review).

19 Records on panels **b** to **g** are displayed on the AICC2012 chronology (Bazin et al., 2012; Veres et al., 2012; Capron et al., 2014). 2 $\sigma$  envelopes associated  
20 with surface temperature records on panels **d** to **g** account both for the relative dating and temperature tracer uncertainties. The vertical yellow line  
21 indicates 127 ka, the time interval chosen to run the coordinated CMIP6/PMIP4 LIG Tier 1 and Tier 2 simulations. The grey shading indicates the 126-  
22 128 ka time interval used to build the climate data-based 127 ka time slice.

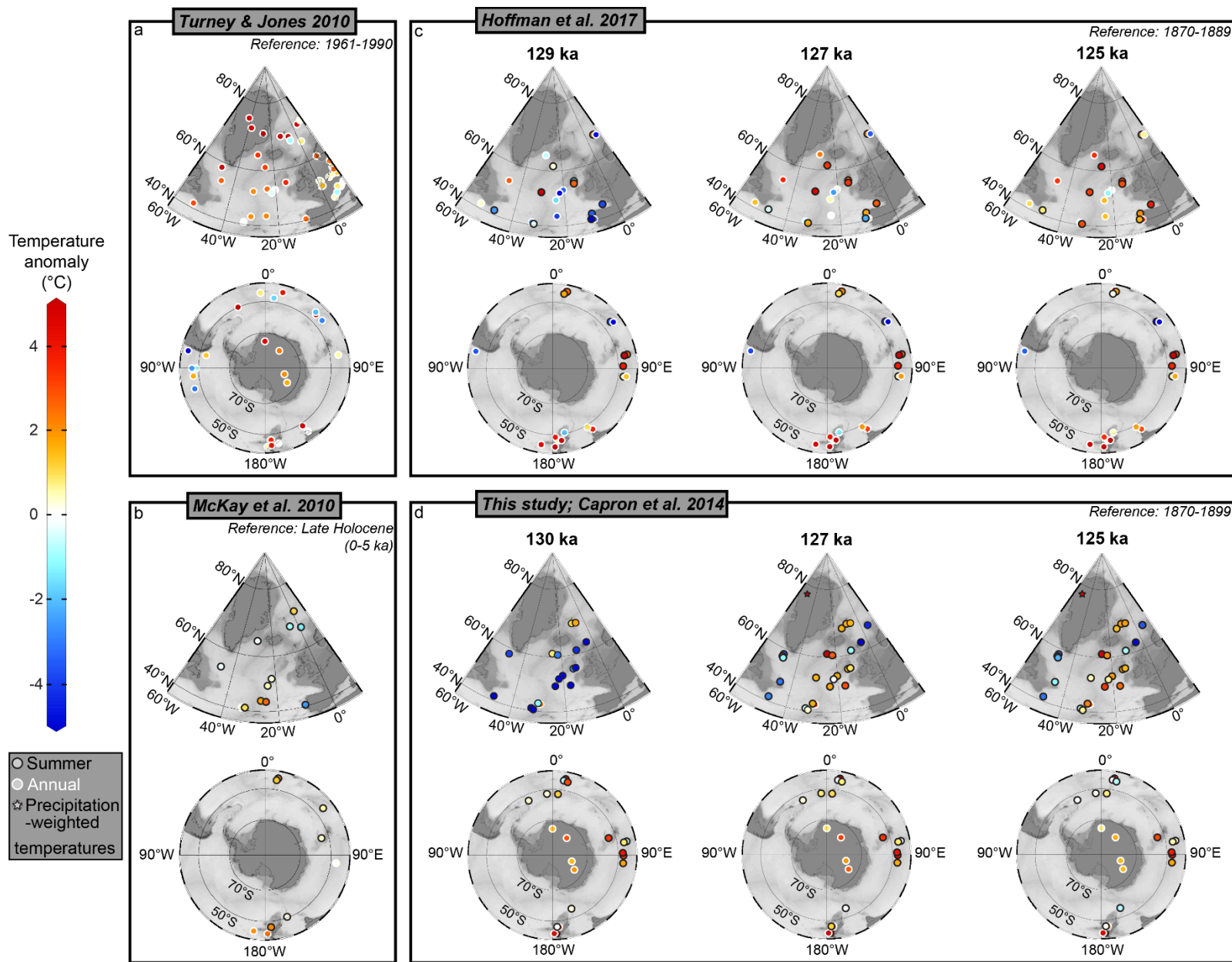


24 **Figure 2. LIG temperature anomalies obtained from the Capron et al. 2014 compilation.**  
25 Left panel: Air temperature and SST anomalies **(a, c)** calculated relative to preindustrial and associated  $2\sigma$  uncertainties of temperature anomalies **(b,**  
26 **d)** at 130 ka (left), 127 ka (middle) and 125 ka (right) obtained in the Northern Hemisphere **(a, b)** and the Southern Hemisphere **(c, d)**.  
27 Right panel: Temperature differences **(e, g)** and associated  $2\sigma$  uncertainties **(f, h)** between the 127 and 130 ka time slices (left) and between the 125  
28 and 127 ka time slices (right) in the Northern Hemisphere **(e, f)** and the Southern Hemisphere **(g, h)**. The bigger the dot is, the larger the anomaly **(a, b)**  
29 and the uncertainty **(c, d)** are. Warming (cooling) versus preindustrial temperature is represented in red (blue). Black circles indicate summer signals,  
30 white circles indicate annual signals and the star indicates the Greenland site whose temperature record is interpreted as a precipitation-weighted  
31 signal (NEEM community members, 2012).  
32 Values for the 130 and 125 ka SST anomalies and associated  $2\sigma$  errors are identical to the ones provided by Capron et al. (2014) but some differences  
33 exist regarding the 130 and 125 ka surface air temperature estimates and associated uncertainties for reasons described in Section 2.





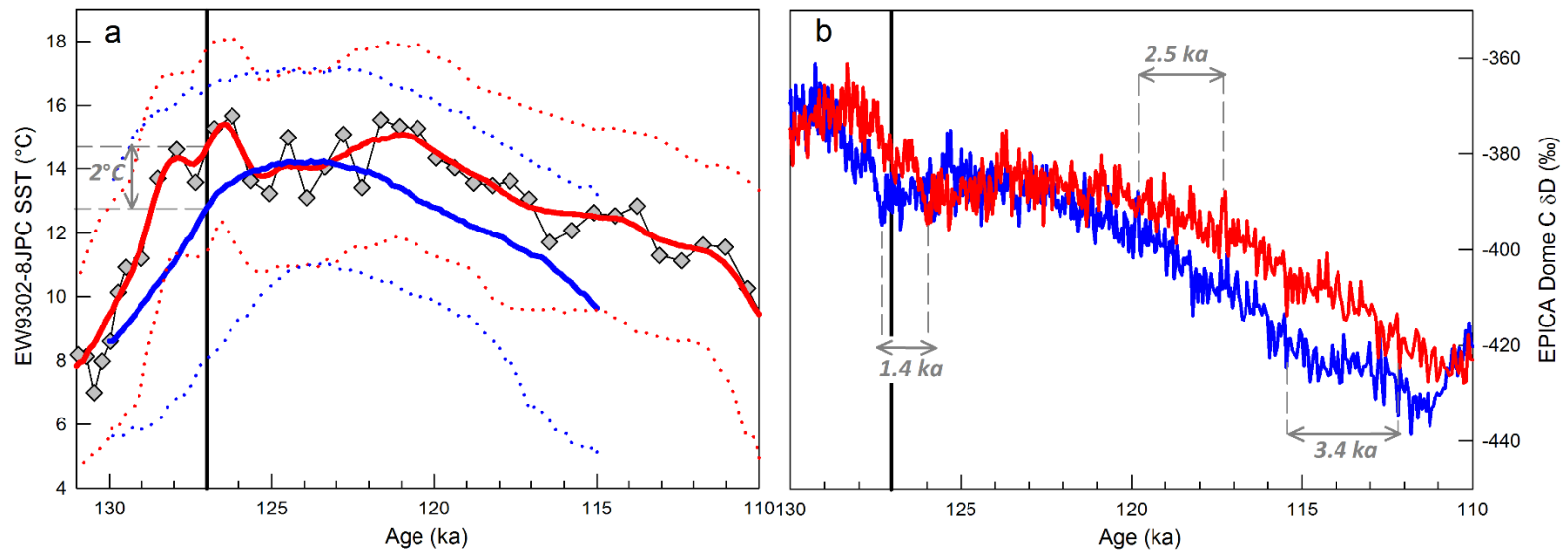
35 **Figure 3.** Comparison of four existing LIG surface temperature syntheses in the high latitude regions (poleward of latitude 40°N/S).  
36 **a)** The Turney and Jones (2010) synthesis of LIG peak surface warmth relative to the 1961-1990 mean, including reconstructions from terrestrial,  
37 marine and ice records and all interpreted as annual signals (white circle);  
38 **b)** The McKay et al. (2011) synthesis of LIG peak warmth relative to the Late Holocene (last 5 ka), including marine records interpreted as summer  
39 (black circle) or annual signals (white circle), following the information given for each core in the supplementary material of McKay et al., 2011);  
40 **c)** 129, 127 and 125 ka time slices of surface temperature anomaly relative to Preindustrial (1870-1889) including marine records interpreted as  
41 summer or annual signals from Hoffman et al. (2017). See Section 4.1.2 for details on the calculation of the 127 ka based on the Hoffman et al. (2017)  
42 synthesis.  
43 **d)** 130, 127 and 125 ka time slices of surface temperature anomaly relative to Preindustrial (1870-1899), including ice and marine records based on the  
44 Capron et al. (2014) synthesis.  
45



47 **Figure 4.** Illustrating the differences resulting from the use of different age methodologies and of different reference time scales as described in Capron  
48 et al. (2014) and in Hoffman et al. (2014). The North Atlantic core EW9302-8JPC SST record is used as a case study (Oppo et al., 1997; Oppo et al., 2001).  
49 Note that both compilations use the same raw SST dataset on a depth scale.

50 **a)** The black curve with grey diamonds represents the raw EW9302-8JPC SST data displayed on AICC2012 (Bazin et al., 2012; Veres et al., 2012). The  
51 SST data are transferred onto an age scale based on a linear interpolation between the age markers defined by Capron et al. (2014). The thick red line  
52 represents the median 100 year-interpolated record and associated non-parametric  $2\sigma$  (2.5<sup>th</sup> and 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles, dotted red lines) confidence  
53 intervals resulting from the 1000 Monte Carlo iterations (methodology described in Section 2 and Capron et al., 2014). The thick blue line represents  
54 the mean 100 year-interpolated curve presented on the Asian speleothem-based EDC3 chronology (Barker et al., 2011) as reference age model, and  
55 defined using Bchron, a Bayesian age-depth modeling routine (Haslett & Parnell, 2008) to propagate age and tracer uncertainties. These different  
56 methodologies explain the 2°C offset obtained at 127 ka (vertical black line) between the red and blue curves.

57 **b)** EPICA Dome C water isotopic profile (Jouzel et al., 2007) displayed on the AICC2012 timescale in red and on the SpeleoAge timescale in blue.  
58 Horizontal grey arrows indicate the age difference in specific events between the two age scales. An age difference of about 1.4 ka prevails between the  
59 two timescales at 127 ka. Age differences around 120 and 115 ka illustrate that the choice of a reference timescale becomes increasingly critical at the  
60 end of the LIG and over the glacial inception when an offset of more than 3 ka is observed between the two time scales around 115 ka.  
61 In both panels, the vertical black line indicates the 127 ka time interval.



62

1 **Table 1.** 130, 127 and 125 ka regional surface temperature changes deduced from the Capron et al. (2014) datasets and 129, 127 and 125 ka regional  
2 surface temperature changes deduced from the Hoffman et al. (2017) datasets. Area-weighted average summer (or annual) SST values, calculated for  
3 the North Atlantic and the Southern Ocean sectors and area-weighted annual air temperature values calculated for the Antarctic sector are indicated in  
4 bold. For each case, the associated standard error ( $2\sigma$ ) ranging 0.5 to 1.7°C is given in italics. The number of records considered for the calculation for  
5 each sector and each time slice is indicated in brackets. A value and associated mean squared error is also given for regional surface temperature  
6 differences between the (1) 127 and 130 ka and (2) 125 and 127 ka from the Capron et al. (2014) datasets. Details on the calculation methodology are  
7 provided in the Supplementary Material.

	<i>Sector</i>	<b>130 a Mean</b> <i>129 ka Mean</i>	<b>127 ka Mean</b>	<b>125 ka Mean</b> <i>127-130 ka difference</i>	<b>125-127 ka difference</b>		
<b>Capron et al. 2014 *</b>	<i>N. Atl. Summer SST</i>	<b>-4.2 ± 0.8 (13)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>1.1 ± 0.7 (14)</b>	<b>1.2 ± 0.7 (14)</b>	<b>5.3 ± 1.0</b>	<b>0.1 ± 1.0</b>
	<i>S. Ocean Summer SST</i>	<b>1.8 ± 0.9 (15)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>1.8 ± 0.8 (15)</b>	<b>1.6 ± 0.8 (15)</b>	<b>0.1 ± 1.2</b>	<b>-0.3 ± 1.2</b>
	<i>Ant. Ann. Air Temp.</i>	<b>1.9 ± 1.4 (4)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>2.2 ± 1.4 (4)</b>	<b>1.3 ± 1.4 (4)</b>	<b>0.3 ± 2.0</b>	<b>-0.9 ± 2.0</b>
<b>Hoffman et al. 2017</b>	<i>N. Atl. Summer SST</i>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>-0.8 ± 1.7 (9)</b>	<b>1.9 ± 1.7 (9)</b>	<b>2.7 ± 1.2 (9)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>
	<i>N. Atl. Annual SST</i>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>-3.0 ± 1.6 (9)</b>	<b>-0.2 ± 1.4 (9)</b>	<b>0.8 ± 1.0 (9)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>
	<i>S. Ocean Summer SST</i>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>1.8 ± 1.0 (7)</b>	<b>1.6 ± 0.9 (7)</b>	<b>1.3 ± 1.0 (7)</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>
	<i>S. Ocean Annual SST</i>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>2.7 ± 1.0 (12) **</b>	<b>2.7 ± 1.0 (12) **</b>	<b>2.7 ± 1.1(12) **</b>	<b>N/A</b>	<b>N/A</b>

8 \* Note that only marine sediment core records for which SST records are interpreted as summer signals are included in calculations from the Capron et al.  
9 al. (2014) datasets. It results in considering all marine records (sites shown on Figure 2) except the DSDP-594 temperature record from the Southern  
10 Ocean which is interpreted as an annual signal. All annual surface temperature reconstructions from the Antarctic ice core sites represented on Figure 2  
11 have been included (4 records).

12 \*\* The Southern Ocean Annual SST average is anomalously high considering the Southern Ocean summer average (1.8 ± 0.9°C). This is likely due to high  
13 SST anomalies calculated for cores ODP-1089, MD97-2121 and MD97-2120. For those three cores, HadISST preindustrial values are particularly low  
14 compared to core top SST estimates, which could explain the high SST anomalies reconstructed at these sites.

15 **Table 2.** Strengths and limitations of the four most recent LIG surface temperature compilations (Turney and Jones, 2010; McKay et al., 2011; Capron et  
 16 al., 2014; Hoffman et al., 2017).

	Climatic records	Geographical coverage	Time slice availability	Surface temperature anomaly averages and time period of reference	Record chronologies	Strengths	Limitations
Turney & Jones 2009	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 263 surface temperature records interpreted as annual signals;</li> <li>• SST from marine sediment cores based on Sr/Ca, unsaturated alkenone and Mg/Ca ratios, diatom and radiolarian transfer functions;</li> <li>• Surface air temperatures from polar ice cores based on water stable isotopes;</li> <li>• Surface air temperatures from terrestrial records based on pollen, macrofossil, coleptera.</li> </ul>	Global	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 map centered on LIG peak warmth:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>→ Average across the benthic <math>\delta^{18}\text{O}</math> plateau for marine records;</li> <li>→ Average across the ice <math>\delta^{18}\text{O}</math> plateau for ice records;</li> <li>→ Average across “the period of maximum warmth” for terrestrial records.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	Peak warmth global annual average: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <math>+1.5 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}</math> compared to 1961-1990);</li> <li>• <math>\sim +1.9^\circ\text{C}</math> compared to <i>preindustrial</i></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chronologies kept as in original publications of the records.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Global extent;</li> <li>• Largest spatial coverage;</li> <li>• Continental records are included.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No harmonized chronologies between records;</li> <li>• Peak-warmth centered map is not representative of any specific LIG time interval;</li> <li>• Global average not corrected for spatial coverage;</li> <li>• All SST records considered as annual signals;</li> <li>• Large uncertainties on Greenland maximum warmth estimates *</li> <li>• Lack of information on:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>→ systematic quantitative surface temperature uncertainty estimates;</li> <li>→ Calculation methodology of the global temperature average.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>McKay et al. 2011</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 76 SST from marine sediment cores (Mg/Ca ratios in foraminifera, alkenone unsaturation ratios and faunal assemblage transfer functions (for radiolaria, foraminifera, diatoms and coccoliths);</li> <li>• Annual and summer SST signals;</li> <li>• Temporal resolution cut: &lt; 3ka.</li> </ul>	<p>Global ocean</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 1 map centered on LIG peak warmth calculated as the average SST of a 5 kyr period centered on the warmest temperature between 135 and 118 ka.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Peak LIG global SST: <math>+0.7\pm 0.6^{\circ}\text{C}</math> compared to <i>late Holocene</i>.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chronologies kept as in original publications of the records.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Global ocean extent;</li> <li>• Global averages are ocean area-weighted (i.e. accounting for data sparseness)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No harmonized chronologies between records;</li> <li>• Peak-warmth centered map is not representative of any specific LIG time interval;</li> <li>• Limited to marine records</li> </ul>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Capron et al. 2014; this study</b></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 42 marine sediment and 5 ice cores;</li> <li>• SAT from polar ice cores based on water stable isotopes;</li> <li>• 42 summer and 2 annual SST records based on <math>U^{K_{37}}</math>, planktonic foraminiferal Mg/Ca, microfossil assemblage transfer functions of foraminifera, radiolarian and diatom assemblages, and percentage of polar foraminifera;</li> <li>• Temporal resolution cut: &lt; 2 ka.</li> </ul>	<p>Above 40°N and 40°S</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 115, 120, 125, 127, 130 ka time slices; They are calculated as the median value of interpolated temperature across a 2 ka time window centered on the given value.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ocean area-weighted averages for the North Atlantic, Southern Ocean and Antarctica (see Table 1);</li> <li>• 1870-1899 climatology (this study);</li> <li>• WOA 98 (Capron et al. 2014).</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Common temporal framework build for marine and ice records;</li> <li>• AICC2012 as a reference age scale (Bazin et al. 2012; Veres et al. 2012);</li> <li>• Calculation of surface temperature on age scale and associated uncertainty based on linear interpolation and Monte Carlo analysis.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Harmonized chronologies;</li> <li>• Uncertainty estimate through Monte-Carlo simulations;</li> <li>• Time series between 110 and 135 ka and associated with <math>2\sigma</math> uncertainties;</li> <li>• Ocean area-weighted regional averages;</li> <li>• Includes polar ice cores.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Spatial coverage limited to high latitude regions;</li> <li>• Does not include terrestrial records;</li> <li>• Relative uncertainty attached to age markers estimated visually.</li> </ul>

Hoffman et al. 2017	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 83 marine sediment cores</li> <li>• SST based on <math>U^{K_{37}}</math>, planktonic foraminiferal Mg/Ca and macrofossil assemblage transfer function (foraminifera, radiolarian, coccoliths, diatoms);</li> <li>• Temporal resolution cut: &lt; 4 ka</li> </ul>	Global ocean	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 120, 125 and 129 ka maps;</li> <li>• Global and regional temporal stacks between 115 and 130 ka;</li> <li>• Corresponding surface temperature taken at the given value from the 0.1 ka interpolated timeseries.</li> </ul>	• 1870-1889 climatology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Common temporal framework built for marine records;</li> <li>• SpeleoAge as a reference age scale (Barker et al. 2011);</li> <li>• SST on age scale and associated quantitative uncertainties deduced from Bayesian statistics and Monte Carlo Analysis</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Harmonized chronologies;</li> <li>• Uncertainty estimates through Monte-Carlo simulations;</li> <li>• Method to calculate age models based on Bayesian statistics;</li> <li>• Interpolated time series between 130 and 115 ka and associated <math>2\sigma</math> uncertainties.</li> <li>• Global and regional stacks with <math>2\sigma</math> uncertainties;</li> <li>• Ocean area-weighted global averages.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Does not include ice and terrestrial records;</li> <li>• Limitations associated with the use of global relationships to infer SST from Mg/Ca from planktonic foraminifera and from alkenone ratio.</li> <li>• Despite a correction attempt, potential bias linked to the calculation of annual SST from the combination of summer and winter SST estimates.</li> </ul>
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17 \* The GRIP ice core is affected by ice mixing near the bedrock preventing a robust dating of the LIG layers and the identification of the LIG maximum  
18 warmth (Johnsen et al. 1992). The NorthGRIP ice core unlikely records the LIG maximum warmth as it provides a continuous climatic record extending  
19 back to about 123 ka (NorthGRIP project members 2004).



20 **Table 3.** Quantitative surface temperature differences between the different LIG syntheses for marine sites included in our synthesis and at least one of  
21 the other syntheses from Turney and Jones (2010), McKay et al. (2011) and Hoffman et al. (2017).  
22 At the bottom of the table and for each column, the Root Mean Squared deviation (RMSD) is calculated considering (1) only North Atlantic sites, (2) only  
23 Southern Ocean sites and (3) all sites. Sites in italics are sites whose SST records are interpreted as annual signals in the Capron et al. (2014)  
24 compilation.

	Core	Latitude	Longitude	Temp. dif. [T&J Peak warmth vs. 127ka SST anomaly relative to PI] *	Temp. dif. [McKay peak warmth vs 127ka summer SST anomaly relative to PI] **	Temp. dif. [Hoffman 127 ka summer SST vs this study's 127 ka summer SST] ***
North Atlantic	<b>EW9302-JPC8</b>	61.0	-25.0	-2.5		-2.0
	<b>ODP 980</b>	55.8	-14.1	2.8		-0.2
	<b>NA87-25</b>	55.6	-14.8			0.0
	<b>M23414-9</b>	53.5	-20.3	-1.6	-0.7	
	<b>NEAP18K</b>	53.0	-30.0			1.0
	<b>K708-1</b>	50.0	-23.7	8.9	-0.2	
	<b>SU90-08</b>	43.4	-30.4	-1.2		
	<b>CH69-K09</b>	41.8	-47.4			-1.0
	<b>V30-97</b>	41.0	-32.9	0.5	3.9	
	<b>SU90-03</b>	40.5	-32.0			-1.6
Southern Ocean	<b>MD97-2121</b>	-40.2	177.6	-2.8	-0.9	
	<b>ODP1089</b>	-40.9	9.9		-2.2	-1.1
	<b>MD94-101</b>	-42.5	79.4			0.1
	<b>PS2489-2</b>	-42.5	8.6		1.4	-0.4
	<b>MD94-102</b>	-43.5	79.8			0.3
	<b>DSDP-594</b>	-45.3	174.6	-0.3	-1.5	
	<b>MD97-2120</b>	-45.5	174.9	2.6	1.0	
	<b>MD88-770</b>	-46.0	96.5	0.1		-1.4
	<b>MD02-2488</b>	-46.5	88.0			-0.1
	<b>SO136-111</b>	-56.4	160.1		0.3	
<b>RMSD (North Atlantic sites only)</b>				<b>4.0</b>	<b>2.3</b>	<b>1.2</b>
<b>RMSD (Southern Ocean sites only)</b>				<b>1.9</b>	<b>1.4</b>	<b>0.8</b>
<b>RMSD (All sites)</b>				<b>3.4</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>1.1</b>

25

26 \* Difference between the LIG peak warmth anomaly relative to the 1961-1990 Mean from Turney and Jones (2010) and the 127 ka surface temperature  
27 anomaly relative to the 1870-1899 mean (this study);

28 \*\* Difference between the LIG peak warmth anomaly relative to the late Holocene from McKay et al. (2011) and the 127 ka surface temperature  
29 anomaly relative to the 1870-1899 mean (this study);

30 \*\*\* Difference between the 127 ka value from Hoffman et al. (2017) and the 127 ka surface temperature from this study. Note that in this case we only  
31 consider sites with identical seasonal interpretation in both the Hoffman et al. (2017) and Capron et al. (2014) syntheses.

## Supplementary Material: Calculation of regional SST averages

The problem of estimating regional SST averages from locational SST estimates can be formulated in the following:

$$SST_{avg} = \mathcal{F}(SST_i)$$

$SST_{avg}$  is the regional SST averages of the North Atlantic (30 – 60 °N, 50 °W – 0°) or Southern Ocean (40 ° - 60 °S, 5°W – 180°), while  $SST_i$  is the SST at proxy location. Transfer relationship  $F$  is the regional scale that a proxy SST estimate can be extrapolated. We estimate  $F$  using the HadISST v3.

Similar to McKay et al., 2011, we first discretize the ocean basins into tiles of increasing spatial resolutions from 1 to 15 ° latitude and longitude spacing at an interval of 1 °. The 1 ° is the default resolution of the HadISST. Then, using the 1870-1899 climatology of the HadISST, we calculate the ratio ( $r(N)$ ) of the area-weighted SST averages using SSTs at individual proxy locations to the area-weighted mean SSTs of individual tiles as a function of grid intervals:

$$r(N) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \overline{SST}_i * S_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N SST_i * S_i} \quad (1)$$

$SST_i$  is the SST at the proxy locations (mean proxy SSTs if multiple proxies are located within the same tile).  $\overline{SST}_i$  is the averaged SSTs across the entire tile where proxies are located.  $N$  is the total number of tiles, determined by the grid intervals.  $S_i$  is the area of each tile, determined by  $N$ . The calculated  $r(N)$  as a function of grid sizes is displayed in Fig. S1. For Antarctica, a similar methodology is used for calculating an area-weighted surface temperature average. The ratio ( $r(N)$ ) is calculated based on the 1901 – 1930 interval (oldest climatology for the dataset) from the University of Delaware Air Temperature & Precipitation data (Willmott and Matsuura, 2001). The dataset contains the oldest statistically interpolated observations.

In order to select an optimal grid size, we want to minimize  $N$ , and hence each proxy data can represent as big an area as possible. Meanwhile,  $r(N)$  should be close to 1 and not be sensitive to grid boundaries. This selection criteria leads to a grid size of 8° to be applied for the Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al., (2017) dataset (Figure S1). Note that for grid sizes greater than 8°, the solution of  $r(N)$  becomes sensitive to changes in grid-boundaries between land and ocean and between a given ocean basin and its surroundings due to changes in grid size (Fig. S2), resulting in strong oscillation of  $r(N)$ . Using 8° tiles, we calculate  $r(N)$  equals 1.0 for the North Atlantic, 1.03 for the Southern Ocean, and 0.98 for Antarctic. The 8° grid size mean SSTs, surface air temperatures and site locations are shown in Fig. S3. Notice that coastal temperatures are averaged over fewer than 8×8 grids. Correspondingly, coastal sites are also weighted less comparing to the ocean/continental interior sites.

Finally, we calculate  $SST_{avg} = r(N) * \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N SST_{i-proxy} * S_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N S_i}$  for the North Atlantic and Southern Ocean using the 8° tiles. The same calculation is repeated with the proxy error estimates to determine the uncertainty ranges of the surface temperature averages. The final results are listed in Table 1.

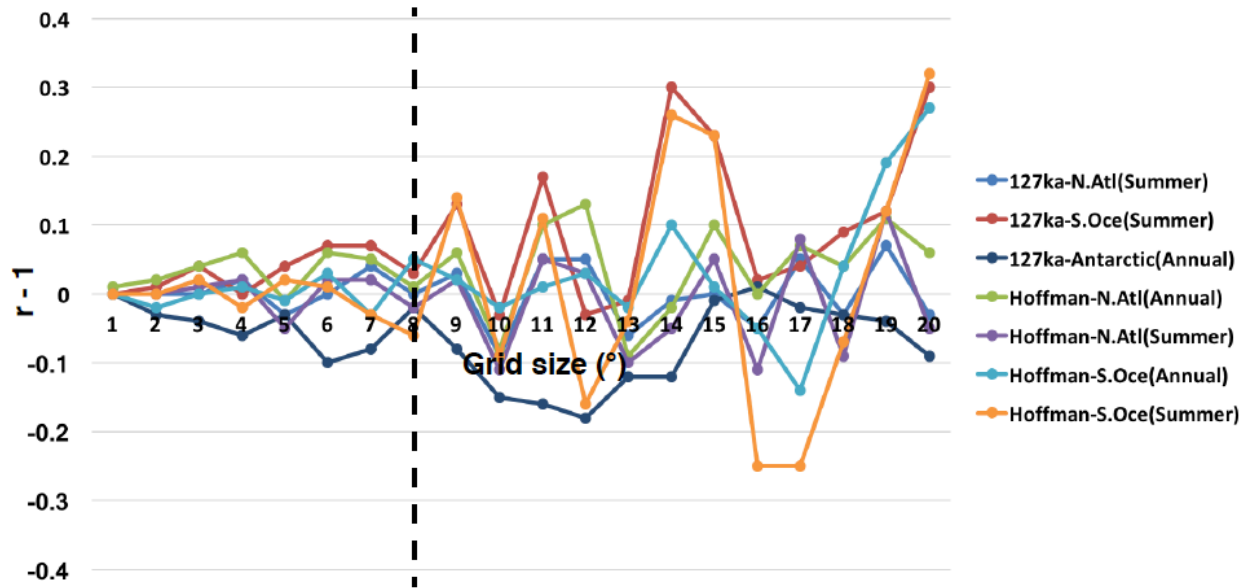


Fig S1. The ratio ( $r$ ) minus 1 ( $r - 1$ ) of area-weighted locational mean SSTs at proxy locations included in the Capron et al. (2014) and Hoffman et al., (2016) synthesis relative to area-weighted grid-mean SSTs for a range of grid sizes from  $1^\circ$  to  $20^\circ$  latitude/longitude. The  $r$  is separately calculated for the North Atlantic ( $30^\circ - 60^\circ, 50^\circ\text{W} - 0^\circ$ , red), Southern Ocean ( $40^\circ - 60^\circ\text{S}, 5^\circ\text{W} - 180^\circ$ , green), and Antarctic. We choose  $8^\circ$  grid-size for our calculations of mean SSTs (dash line).

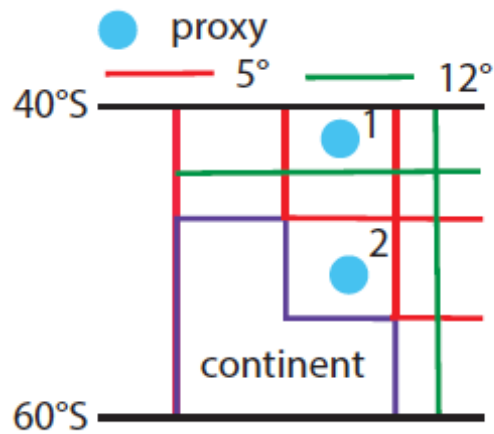


Fig. S2. Diagram of influences of boundaries of ocean basin (bold black lines) and between land and ocean (purple lines) on area-weighted mean of the  $SST_i$ . In this diagram,  $SST_1$  and  $SST_2$  are weighted equally for  $5^\circ$  resolution, whereas  $SST_2$  is weighted more than  $SST_1$  for  $12^\circ$  resolution.

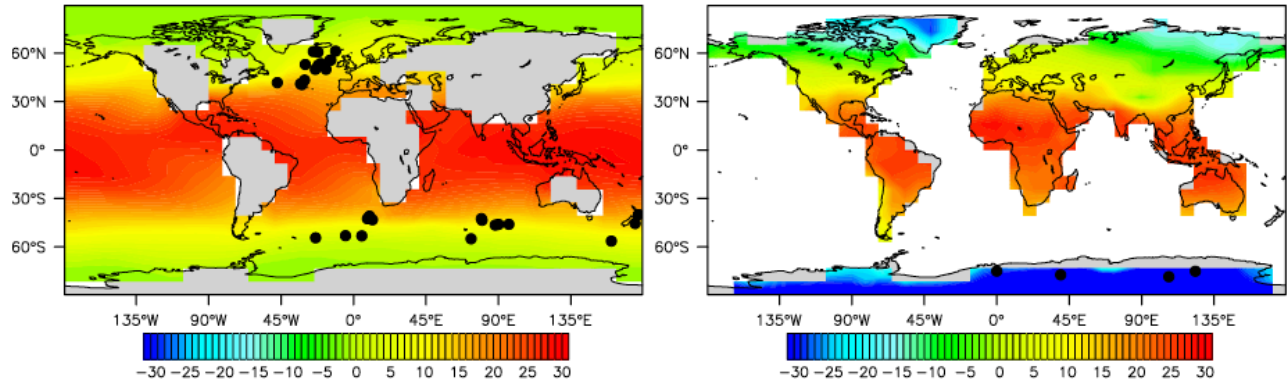


Fig. S3 Mean SST (left, °C) and surface air temperature (right, °C) of 1870-1899 and 1901-1930 of HadISST and University of Delaware datasets mapped at 8° grid size. 127 ka proxy sites are also mapped as black dots.

## References

- McKay, N.P., Overpeck, J.T., Otto-Bliesner, B.L., 2011. The role of ocean thermal expansion in Last Interglacial sea level rise. *Geophys. Res. Letters* 38, DOI:10.1029/2011GL048280.
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[http://climate.geog.udel.edu/~climate/html\\_pages/README.ghcn\\_ts2.html](http://climate.geog.udel.edu/~climate/html_pages/README.ghcn_ts2.html).





Hoffman, J.S., Clark, P.U., Parnell, A.C., He, F., 2017. Regional and global sea-surface temperatures during the last interglaciation. *Science* 355, 276-279.

Using the data provided in the Supplementary Online Material of Hoffman et al. (2017), we took for each core the SST value corresponding to the age 127 ka on the mean 0.1-ka interpolated SST curve resulting from the Hoffman et al. (2017) Bayesian approach which integrates 1000 realizations of SST curves resulting from the propagation of uncertainties associated with age markers and the proxy-based SST calibr. Surface temperature anomalies were deduced by using the HadISST1.1 1870-1889 values provided in the supplementary material of Hoffman et al. (2017).

This dataset contains:

Columns A to E: The information of marine sediment sites included in the study: name, latitude, longitude, type

Column F: HadISST1.1 value for time interval 1870-1889

Column G: 127 ka value extracted from interpolated timeseries (provided in the SDM from Hoffman et al. 2017)

Columns H & I: 127 ka temperature anomaly and 2 sigma errors (provided in the SDM from Hoffman et al. 2017)

Full references are provided in Hoffman et al. 2017

Station	Region	Latitude	Longitude	Type	HadISST1.1 (1880-1889) [°C]	Interpolated 127 ka value [°C]	127 ka SST anomaly [°C]	127 ka 2σ [°C]
EW9302-PC8	North Atlantic	61	-25	Summer SST	9.4	12.8	3.4	4.3
ODP980	North Atlantic	55.8	-14.11	Summer SST	11.9	14.5	2.6	5.8
NA27-25	North Atlantic	55.57	-14.75	Summer SST	11.9	15.3	3.4	2.9
NEAP18K	North Atlantic	53	-30	Summer SST	10.9	15.7	4.8	3.7
MDD4-2845	North Atlantic	45.35	-5.22	Summer SST	15.0	17.8	2.8	8.3
SU92-03	North Atlantic	43.2	-10.11	Summer SST	15.5	17.2	1.7	6.3
CH99-409	North Atlantic	41.76	-47.35	Summer SST	16.7	16.3	-0.4	4.8
MD95-2040	North Atlantic	40.58	-9.86	Summer SST	16.3	14.1	-2.2	6.7
SU90-03	North Atlantic	40.51	-32.05	Summer SST	19.2	21.0	1.7	4.6
MD-23323-1	North Atlantic	67.77	5.92	Annual SST	7.5	4.0	-3.5	5.3
V28-14	North Atlantic	64.78	-29.57	Annual SST	6.6	8.9	2.3	4.1
SH/M23414-9	North Atlantic	53.54	-20.28	Annual SST	12.1	12.2	0.2	4.9
V23-82	North Atlantic	52.58	-21.93	Annual SST	12.3	9.7	-2.5	5.1
R708-1	North Atlantic	50	-23.73	Annual SST	13.4	13.9	0.5	4.1
V29-179	North Atlantic	44	-23.51	Annual SST	16.2	16.2	0.1	4.5
D117	North Atlantic	42.1	-52.75	Annual SST	15.8	17.2	1.4	2.6
V29-97	North Atlantic	41	-32.93	Annual SST	18.3	17.4	-0.9	2.8
MD95-2040	North Atlantic	40.58	-9.86	Annual SST	16.3	16.3	0.0	4.8
ODP-1089	Southern Ocean	-40.94	9.9	Summer SST	14.4	16.5	2.1	2.8
MD94-101	Southern Ocean	-42.5	79.417	Summer SST	9.8	12.6	2.8	2.5
PS-2489-2	Southern Ocean	-42.52	8.58	Summer SST	9.2	10.2	1.0	3.2
MD84-527	Southern Ocean	-43.49	-51.2	Summer SST	10.6	6.6	-4.0	2.9
MD94-102	Southern Ocean	-43.5	79.833	Summer SST	7.5	12.8	5.4	2.5
MD88-770	Southern Ocean	-46.017	96.45	Summer SST	8.2	8.7	0.5	1.9
MD02-2488	Southern Ocean	-46.49	88.02	Summer SST	8.9	12.7	3.8	2.9
Y9	Southern Ocean	-48.24	177.34	Annual SST	9.6	13.6	4.0	4.3
MD97-2108	Southern Ocean	-48.5	149.11	Annual SST	9.5	11.4	1.9	4.8
MD97-2109	Southern Ocean	-50.63	169.38	Annual SST	8.9	7.5	-1.4	4.8
MD97-2121	Southern Ocean	-40	177	Annual SST	13.4	20.4	7.0	1.7
RC15-61	Southern Ocean	-40.62	-77.2	Annual SST	11.7	7.9	-3.7	3.0
ODP-1089	Southern Ocean	-40.94	9.9	Annual SST	11.7	23.2	11.5	1.8
ODP-1123	Southern Ocean	-41.79	171.5	Annual SST	11.7	16.5	4.8	4.1
MD73-025	Southern Ocean	-43.82	51.3	Annual SST	11.9	5.1	-6.8	1.9
MD97-2106	Southern Ocean	-45.15	146.29	Annual SST	10.9	14.1	3.2	4.3
ODP-594	Southern Ocean	-45.5	174.95	Annual SST	10.9	11.3	0.5	3.4
MD97-2120	Southern Ocean	-45.53	174.93	Annual SST	10.9	18.6	7.7	2.1
MD88-770	Southern Ocean	-46.017	96.45	Annual SST	8.2	10.1	1.9	2.1