- 1 Volcanic ash fall events identified using principal component analysis of a high-resolution
- 2 speleothem trace element dataset
- 3 Robert A. Jamieson^{a,*}, James U.L. Baldini^a, Amy B. Frappier^{b,} Wolfgang Müller^c
- 4 ^a Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, United Kingdom
- 5 ^b Department of Geosciences, Skidmore College, NY, United States
- 6 ^c Department of Earth Sciences, Royal Holloway University, London, United Kingdom
- 7 * Corresponding author at: Department of Earth Sciences, Durham University, United Kingdom. E-
- 8 mail address: <u>r.a.jamieson@durham.ac.uk</u>
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- 11 Abstract
- 12 Large multivariate trace element datasets produced by LA-ICP-MS speleothem analysis can pose
- 13 difficulties for analysis and interpretation. Processes acting on various timescales and magnitudes
- 14 affect trace element concentrations, and deconvolving the most important controls is often
- 15 complex. Here Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is applied to identify the modes and timings of
- 16 variation which best explain the overall variability in an exceptionally high-resolution (10µm vertical
- 17 resolution) multivariate trace element record produced by LA-ICP-MS from a modern (1979-2001)
- 18 Belizean stalagmite with excellent age control.
- 19 Principal Component 1 (PC1) in this dataset is defined by a weak correlation between multiple
- 20 elements, and may reflect non-carbonate material incorporated within the speleothem. Elevated
- 21 PC1 scores in ATM-7 occur following regional volcanic eruptions with ash clouds extending over the
- 22 cave site, as demonstrated using NASA remote sensing data from the Total Ozone Mapping
- 23 Spectrometer and HYSPLIT trajectory modelling. Spikes in PC1 occur at the beginning of the wet
- 24 season, and this may reflect a seasonal flushing event that transports volcanogenic material through
- 25 the karst and incorporates it within the speleothem.
- 26 Our results suggest that PCA can simplify exploration of large laser ablation datasets, and that PCA is
- 27 a valuable tool for identifying the dominant controls on stalagmite trace element chemistry. Future
- 28 studies should evaluate how transferable this technique is to other sites with different
- 29 environmental conditions where volcanic ashfall has occurred. This research potentially adds
- 30 tephrochronology to the stalagmite dating toolkit or, conversely, opens the door to using
- 31 stalagmites to identify previously unknown or uncertainly dated eruptions.
- 32 1.1 Introduction
- 33 Speleothems are important terrestrial archives of high-resolution palaeoenvironmental information,
- 34 particularly for low latitudes. They are precisely dateable using a variety of techniques and contain a
- 35 wealth of different proxy information. Stable isotope ratios are the proxies most commonly used in
- 36 speleothem research to infer regional climatic information (McDermott, 2004). However, other

- proxies including laminae thickness (Baker et al., 2008), optical properties (Proctor et al., 2000),
- trace element concentrations (Fairchild and Treble, 2009), and calcite density (Zhang et al., 2010)
- 39 also record various climatic and hydrological information. Trace elements in particular preserve
- 40 diverse information including both climate (Cruz Jr. et al., 2007) and non-climatic signals such as
- 41 volcanism (Frisia et al., 2008), land use changes (Borsato et al., 2007) and anthropogenic emissions
- 42 (Tan et al., 2013).
- 43 Detection of volcanic signals in speleothems has focused on two primary avenues of inquiry: indirect
- 44 records of the effects of volcanism (e.g., aerosol forced cooling (Ridley et al., 2015)) or increased
- 45 growth rate (Baker et al., 1995)) or direct evidence of volcanism (e.g., elevated sulphate
- 46 concentrations in speleothems; (Frisia et al., 2005)). The former is generally inferred based on stable
- 47 isotope ratios (Ridley et al., 2015) as hydrological or temperature records, whilst direct detection of
- 48 volcanogenic material has thus far focused on measuring extremely low trace element
- 49 concentrations using techniques such as synchrotron radiation based micro X-ray fluorescence (Frisia
- 50 et al., 2005; Frisia et al., 2008). Higher detection limits and an inability to measure certain elements
- 51 due to common polyatomic interferences (such as high counts of ${}^{16}O_2$ swamping any ${}^{32}S$ signal (Reed
- 52 et al., 1994)) complicate the detection of volcanogenic material using more widely available
- 53 techniques such as inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). However, these
- 54 limitations can be overcome by examining multivariate ICP-MS data using methods that examine the
- 55 covariation of multiple elements derived from volcanogenic sources.
- 56 Here we use Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of high-resolution LA-ICP-MS data to detect the
- 57 signal of volcanic ash deposition in a Belizean stalagmite. PCA is a multivariate statistical analysis
- 58 technique used to identify the modes of variation within a multivariate dataset which best explain
- the overall variability (Abdi and Williams, 2010). For example, PCA has been successfully applied to
- 60 identify distinct signatures of components carried in separate air masses (e.g. atmospheric dust
- 61 versus sea ice aerosols) from a multivariate dataset of elemental measurements of ice cores, and
- 62 principal component scores plotted as a time series produced a record of the significance of
- 63 different components over time (Mayewski et al., 1994). In a speleothem context, this technique
- 64 could identify different modes of trace element variation within a time series. This method allows
- 65 the deconvolution of signals such as volcanism from the background variation in a multivariate trace
- 66 element dataset.
- 67

68 2.1 Methods

- 69 Stalagmite ATM7 was collected in January 2001 from Actun Tunichil Muknal (ATM) in central Belize
- 70 (Figure 1), dated using radiometric (¹³⁷Cs) and layer-counting methods (Frappier et al., 2002), and
- δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O records produced and published (Frappier et al., 2002; Frappier et al., 2007). Frappier
- et al. (2002) interpreted δ^{13} C variability as a proxy for ENSO driven changes in the soil and local
- 73 ecosystem carbon cycle. Frappier et al. (2007) interprets δ^{18} O variability as a proxy for rainfall
- amount, including a record of short-lived negative spikes in δ^{18} O during tropical cyclone events.
- Trace element concentrations were measured using a prototype RESOlution M-50 excimer (193 nm)
 laser-ablation system with two-volume laser-ablation cell coupled to an Agilent 7500ce/cs

- quadrupole ICPMS at Royal Holloway University, London. Full description of the analytical setup, as
 well as initial performance metrics can be found in Müller et al. (2009).
- 79 Eleven ablation tracks were measured using a 140 by 10μm rectangular laser slit across sections of
- ATM7 (Figure 2) such that the entire length of the stalagmite was measured by at least three parallel
- 81 tracks. Prior to measurement, all tracks were pre-ablated to remove any superficial contamination. A
- 82 15Hz repetition rate of a 90mJ laser spot and a stage scan speed of 10μm s⁻¹ were used during the
- 83 main track measurement. Two stalagmite areas were ablated for elemental mapping using a circular
- spot size of $34\mu m$ along tracks $50\mu m$ apart at a scan speed of $50\mu m s^{-1}$. Speleothem analyses were
- 85 bracketed by analyses of NIST 612, NIST 610 and MACS3 standards for quantification.
- 86 Data reduction was performed using the Iolite software package using NIST 610/612 standards for
- 87 external standardisation (Paton et al., 2011). Calcium-43 was measured throughout the sample runs 88 as an internal standard.
- 89 Individual ablation tracks were aligned using a "wiggle-matching" tuning technique to align variation
- 90 in magnesium concentrations onto a single absolute distance scale shared between all tracks. This
- 91 method allowed the combination of these datasets whilst also taking into account minor lateral
- 92 variation in lamina thickness. The lateral consistency in magnesium concentrations in the mapped
- areas shows this approach to be a viable method to combine transects (Figure 3). All data were then
- 94 linearly interpolated to allow averaging between the eleven different tracks at the same
- 95 distance/time intervals. Values at each distance interval outside two standard deviations of the
- 96 mean were excluded from the final averaged values to remove any outliers, which may have
- 97 resulted from contamination or heterogeneous areas of the stalagmite. The absolute distance scale
- 98 was then converted to the age model of Frappier et al., 2007 by matching the final magnesium
- 99 record to their δ^{13} C record. Good topological agreement between the Mg and δ^{13} C time-series data,
- 100 both proxies for rainfall at this tropical site, strongly support this approach. Comparison of distance
- 101 versus age between the stable isotope measurements and the laser ablation tracks show good
- similarity, with some slight variations resulting from varying growth rates laterally between the
- 103 micromilled isotope track and the ablation tracks.
- 104 To process the trace element dataset prior to performing PCA the data were normalized by
- 105 calculating the z-scores of each dataset to eliminate PCA's sensitivity to the scaling of the variables.
- 106 The principal component coefficients, component scores, and percentage variance explained were
- 107 calculated using the *pca* function in MATLAB (MathWorks, 2013).
- 108 Time periods where volcanic ash clouds were present over the cave site were identified using
- satellite maps of aerosol distributions obtained from the NASA Total Ozone Mapping Spectrometer
- 110 (TOMS) Volcanic Image Archive for eruptions for which these maps were available. Earth Probe
- 111 (TOMSEPL3.008) and Nimbus-7 (TOMSN7L3.008) version 8 TOMS daily level 3 global 1.0°x1.25°
- 112 gridded Aerosol Index data provide a qualitative UV absorbing aerosol record over central and
- 113 northern Belize (Acker and Leptoukh, 2007; Carn et al., 2003; Krueger et al., 2008).
- 114 The NOAA Air Resources Laboratory HYSPLIT Volcanic Ash model was used to compute ash cloud
- trajectories for eruptions to confirm the aerosol data and increase confidence that the ash cloud had
- in fact reached the cave site (Draxler and Rolph, 2003; Rolph, 2003). Volcanic Explosivity Index values
- 117 for known eruptions were used to estimate approximate plume heights (Newhall and Self, 1982).

119 3.1 Results and Discussion

120 3.1.1 Principal Component 1

Principal component analysis of the 20-element trace element dataset generated for ATM7 yields a first principal component which explains 81.9% of the variability within the dataset. Principal Component 1 (PC1) consists of a weak correlation between all of the analysed elements, many of which are typically excluded from calcite (Table 1), and probably represents non-calcite material incorporated in the speleothem. The PC1 score time series is characterised by short period high amplitude spikes indicating that, although it explains a substantial portion of the variation within the dataset, PC1 is only a dominant control during infrequent short-lived events (Figure 4).

128 Previous studies have documented peaks in elements such as Zn, Cu, Pb, Y and other metals as a

pulse of colloidally transported material driven by a seasonal flushing event (Borsato et al., 2007;

130 Hartland et al., 2012). In this dataset these signals do not occur annually, but instead occur

131 sporadically through the record. Notably however, in years when they do occur, the spikes are

132 synchronous with the wet season onset as inferred from Mg concentrations (Figure 6) where a

- 133 flushing event would typically occur.
- 134 We suggest that the observed signal is in fact recording a seasonal flushing event at our site;
- 135 however, this event is evident only after sufficient raw material has been delivered to the karst to
- 136 generate detectable levels of these elements. Tropical karst soils are depleted in many
- 137 micronutrients due to high levels of biological productivity as well as leaching from high rainfall
- 138 (Vitousek and Sanford, 1986). Substantial additional trace elements delivered to the ATM cave
- 139 system are limited to particulate material sourced from wind-blown dust or volcanic ash, as the only
- sources of material above the cave are the karst, thin soil and canopy forest.
- 141 The NASA TOMS Aerosol Index dataset identifies intervals when aerosol levels are elevated in the
- 142 atmosphere over the ATM cave site. Three primary sources of aerosols contribute to elevated
- 143 Aerosol Index values over central and northern Belize: i) a seasonal signal of wood ash derived from
- biomass burning (Prins et al., 2003), ii) short-lived spikes in El Niño years corresponding to increased
- 145 wildfires (Peppler et al., 2000), and iii) volcanic ash plumes over the area (Krueger et al., 2008).
- 146 Correlation with records of known eruptions in Central America and the Caribbean (Smithsonian,
- 147 2014) (Figure 4) as well as HYSPLIT trajectory modelling of those eruptions (Figure 5) allows
- 148 identification of intervals of elevated Aerosol Index where volcanic ash is transported over the cave
- site. Significant spikes in PC1 scores occur at the onset of the wet season following volcanic
- 150 eruptions that produced an identifiable increase in the TOMS Aerosol Index over the cave site
- 151 (Figures 4 and 7). These spikes record the addition and subsequent flushing of material by volcanic
- ashfall from these eruptions. Aerosol spikes not corresponding to historical eruptions probably
- 153 reflect biomass burning which produces aerosols composed primarily of carbon and therefore do not
- 154 have a subsequent spike in PC1 score.
- 155 A comparison of seasonal trace element variability for all years with (Figure 7a) and without (Figure
- 156 7b) eruptions recorded in the stalagmite record clearly demonstrates the difference resulting from
- 157 the addition of volcanogenic material to the dripwater. In both cases, magnesium concentrations are

used to infer seasonality. Mg concentrations gradually rise through the dry season as mean

- 159 dripwater residence time in the karst increases, then decreases precipitously to a lower baseline
- 160 level through the wet season. This pattern is consistent through years with and without eruptions. A
- 161 slight uptick in concentrations occurs in August and September, particularly years with eruptions,
- 162 which may record the "little dry" midsummer drought which occurs in the region (Magaña et al.,
- 163 1999).

164 Lead spikes occur at the onset of the wet season in most years, however in years without eruptions

the spikes are barely above the mean background levels at only 1-2ppm. During wet season

deposition following volcanic eruptions significant spikes of up to 15ppm of lead occur. This is

- apparent even in the normalised data, where the post-eruption spike is significantly above the
- background level of the rest of the year. These spikes coincide with, and indeed are part of, spikes inPC1 scores.

170 The temporal offset between the eruption date and the recorded spike in the stalagmite record 171 varies from year to year. This reflects eruptions occurring at differing times of the year, rather than 172 the timing of the spike changing. The eruption is always recorded at the start of the wet season 173 following the eruption; this can lead to lags of from between two months up to one year (Figure 8). 174 This is true of eruptions occurring in either the dry and wet seasons, as volcanogenic material 175 appears to remain in the soil or karst until flushed through at the start of the subsequent wet 176 season. A possible explanation for this phenomenon is the fact that particle and colloid release from 177 soil is at its highest during the initial irrigation of the soil (El-Farhan et al., 2000). Flushes of 178 volcanogenic material may only occur when both the material itself and sufficient mobile organic 179 matter is present to transport it. Additionally, some studies have suggested that the mobilisation of 180 elements such as lead are linked to the magnitude of rainfall events (Jo et al., 2010). Hartland et al. 181 (2012) suggest that in regions with large seasonal extremes the kinetic energy of flow may be 182 important to the transport of particulate organic matter and associated elements. Each of these 183 factors would lead to volcanic ash deposition only being recorded in the stalagmite during the first 184 large initial rainfall event of the wet season following the eruption.

- 185 3.2 Recorded Eruptions
- 186 3.2.1 El Chichón (Mexico)

The very large VEI 5 April 1982 eruptions of El Chichón erupted approximately 0.38km³ direct rock 187 equivalent (DRE) of juvenile material and 0.16km³ DRE of lithic material, much of which erupted in a 188 189 17km high ash cloud which extended across a large area of Central America (Rose and Durant, 2008; 190 Varekamp et al., 1984). TOMS aerosol data (Figure 5) demonstrates that an ash cloud extended over 191 Central and northern Belize. Earlier trace element work on ATM-7 using Empirical Orthogonal 192 Function analysis (Frappier, 2006) identified a major perturbation in dripwater chemistry in 1982 193 that was attributed to the El Chichón eruption. This analysis reproduces that signal using new higher-194 resolution trace element data whilst also identifying several other comparable events from the rest 195 of the time series.

196 3.2.2 Concepción (Nicaragua)

- 197 A VEI 2 Concepción eruption (March 1983) also produced a detectable spike in aerosol levels over
- Belize. This is followed by a small amplitude spike in PC1. The reduced size of this spike may be the
- result of a smaller amount of ash delivered to the cave site from this eruption resulting in a weaker
- signal. Meteorological conditions at the time produced a more diffuse ash cloud which HYSPLIT
- modelling suggests was carried eastwards over the Caribbean Sea (Figure 5). The modelled ash
 distribution does not show the ash cloud passing over the cave directly, but the small spike in TOMS
- aerosol data at the time may suggest that some of the ash was deposited over the cave site.

204 3.2.3 Arenal (Costa Rica)

- 205 Arenal has been erupting intermittently since 1968 and experienced a significant period of column 206 collapses and pyroclastic flows in 1987-1989 (Cole et al., 2005). These eruptive events are not 207 apparent as large elevations of TOMS aerosol levels, but could conceivably deliver material to the 208 cave site over a sustained period resulting in the low amplitude, longer period signal observed in the 209 PC1 time series. The lack of corroborating TOMS evidence for an ash cloud from Arenal coincident 210 with this signal means that we have low confidence that this eruption is truly recorded. HYSPLIT 211 modelling of one of the larger eruptions of Arenal during this time period shows the ash cloud being 212 carried westwards (Figure 5), but this does not preclude the possibility of one of the many smaller 213 eruptive episodes resulting in an ash cloud reaching the cave site at another time. In summary, 214 Arenal can be neither confirmed nor ruled out as the source of this PC1 spike, but remains the most
- 215 probable source.
- 216 3.2.4 Colima (Mexico) and Pinatubo (Phillipines)

217 The VEI 2 eruption of Colima in early 1991 is the most distant eruption that apparently influenced 218 the geochemistry of the ATM7 stalagmite. It is recorded largely because of fortuitous wind 219 conditions following the eruption. HYSPLIT modelling illustrates that the ash cloud passed directly 220 over central Belize (Figure 5), very strongly suggesting that Colima is the source of elevated aerosol 221 levels and the initial PC1 signal in 1991. However, the double spike in PC1 is somewhat difficult to 222 explain based on a single eruptive event. This signal suggests either a short period of time when 223 transport of ash sourced elements to the karst stopped prior to a second flush, or a second source of 224 material.

The June 1991 Mount Pinatubo eruption (VEI 6) was the largest volcanic eruption of the late 20th 225 Century (Newhall and Punongbayan, 1996; Torres et al., 1995), erupting 1.8-2.2km³ DRE of tephra as 226 227 a 40km high column (Wiesner et al., 2003). Although no clear signal of the eruption exists in the 228 TOMS data over Belize it is conceivable that some material from the eruption was capable of 229 reaching the cave site in the months subsequent to the eruption. Mount Pinatubo and Actun Tunichil 230 Muknal are at similar latitudes, of 15 degrees and 17 degrees respectively, and aerosols (although 231 not necessarily ash) from the eruption were detectable in the atmosphere above the Caribbean for 232 over a year after the eruption (Antuña, 1996). Any ash transported this distance would have been 233 diffuse in both concentration and timing so therefore may not have registered above the 234 background summer signal of biomass burning over Belize but could have accumulated in the soil 235 over time. The available data cannot differentiate between Pinatubo or a second flush of remaining 236 material from Colima as the cause of the second PC1 spike.

237 3.2.5 Rincón de la Vieja (Costa Rica)

- 238 The February 1998 Rincón de la Vieja eruption (VEI 2), is apparent as a large aerosol spike over the
- cave site. This is subsequently followed by a large, short-lived spike in PC1 scores at the onset of the
- 240 subsequent wet season. HYSPLIT modelling demonstrates that the ash cloud from this eruption was
- carried northwards over the Caribbean Sea over the first 48 hours following the eruption, from
- where the prevailing easterlies would carry the ash over the cave site (Figure 5).

243 3.2.6 Fuego (Guatemala)

- 244 Volcán de Fuego in Guatemala began a period of increased activity in May 1999 with a VEI 2
- eruption (Lyons et al., 2009). This eruption produced a small but detectable increase in aerosol levels
- and is subsequently followed by a spike in PC1 scores. HYSPLIT modelling confirms that a significant
- 247 portion of the ash cloud was blown eastwards towards ATM (Figure 5).
- 248 3.3 Unrecorded Eruptions and Potential False Positives
- 249 Not all eruptions in Central America during the depositional period are apparent in the ATM-7 trace 250 element record (Figure 4). This is clearly attributable to ash only reaching the cave site when wind 251 and ash plume conditions are in the correct configuration. Because prevailing winds in this region 252 are the easterly trade winds (Polzin et al., 2014) this results in the majority of ash clouds being 253 carried away from the cave and over the Pacific Ocean. Eruptions are only recorded when the wind 254 conditions at the time of eruption are such that ash clouds are carried eastwards over the cave site. 255 HYSPLIT modelling for several recorded eruptions demonstrate that wind fields at the time of the 256 recorded eruptions do indeed carry ash clouds over the cave site (Figure 5 – a-b,d-f). Whilst HYSPLIT 257 modelling of an unrecorded or uncertain eruption do not show an ash cloud over the cave site 258 (Arenal – Figure 5c).
- 259 Several small magnitude spikes in PC1 score occur throughout the record which we have not linked 260 to known eruptions. The spike in 1979 corresponds to a prominent red layer visible in the stalagmite (Figure 3), that was deposited during a year of extreme rainfall where precipitation in the area was 261 262 almost three standard deviations above the mean (reflected by low stable oxygen and carbon isotope values within the same layer). We suggest that this spike occurs due to an area of high levels 263 264 of detrital material and low density calcite. The lower proportion of calcite in this section of the 265 stalagmite would result in the data reduction procedure applied here overestimating the trace 266 element content. As such, we believe that this spike probably results from extremely atypical 267 weather, rather than a volcanic signal.
- The remaining small spikes in late 1981, late 1988/early 1989 and 1995 are very low in amplitude (<0.5), suggesting that the PC1 relationship between variables is much weaker during these events. Indeed, they are at or below background in several of the trace elements measured (e.g. Fe, Rb, Cd, Si and potentially Th – see figures S1-S4). These spikes are not associated with elevated aerosol levels above the cave or known volcanic eruptions, but may result from the diffuse delivery of material, flushing of residual material within the soil or another unknown source that we are unable to identify from the available data.

275 3.4 Geochemistry of Eruptions

- 276 Examining the elemental concentrations at the stalagmite depths corresponding to the spikes in PC1
- 277 (Figure 9) enables comparison of the chemistry of each presumed volcanic ash signal. Elemental

concentrations were normalised by ratioing to lead to eliminate differences due to varying amountsof ash incorporation, assuming that the majority of lead incorporated within the speleothem is solely

- from a volcanic source. These values were also compared to the mean value of calcite with the
- 281 lowest PC1 scores (n=100) to provide a non-volcanic baseline to compare against. A sample of El
- 282 Chichón ash obtained from the Smithsonian Institution was analysed by solution ICP-MS to assess
- 283 the potential for fingerprinting specific eruptions.

284 Each ash influenced depth interval is broadly similar in elemental profile with similar values of each 285 elemental ratio relative to the other elements measured. This is consistent with broadly similar 286 material (i.e. volcanic ash) being present in each one. Of particular note is the much higher Al/Pb relative to the other elements. In the low PC1 value calcite the Al/Pb ratio is similar to the Ba/Pb and 287 288 Sr/Pb ratios, whilst in the ash influenced series and ash sample itself the Al/Pb ratio is approximately 289 two orders of magnitude higher. This may suggest the incorporation of aluminosilicate material into 290 the speleothem. This is consistent with the incorporation of clay or feldspar minerals, both common 291 constituents of volcanic ash.

292 The El Chichón ash sample cannot be definitively matched to the El Chichón PC1 spike rather than 293 the other spikes based on geochemistry alone. This suggests that biogeochemical processing of 294 volcanogenic material in the soil and karst complicates geochemical fingerprinting of eruption- or 295 volcano-specific ash in a speleothem. Several processes between source and sink alter the 296 elemental distributions of the analysed elements. Cycling in the soil and nutrient uptake by overlying 297 vegetation will preferentially lower the concentrations of certain elements. Elements will respond 298 differently to adsorption and chemical reactions in the soil, as well as being flushed though the karst 299 preferentially as a result of binding to different organic matter fractions (Hartland et al., 2012). For 300 example, lead and yttrium have a much greater binding affinity to soil organic matter than most 301 other measured metals (Baldini et al., 2012; Hartland et al., 2012). Future studies focusing on 302 elements that behave similarly between deposition and incorporation may prove more effective. A 303 possible candidate for such a study would be the rare earth elements, although REE measurement 304 challenging by very low concentrations within speleothems and natural waters (Aliaga-Campuzano 305 et al., 2013).

306 4.1 Implications and Future Work

307 Principal component analysis of high-resolution trace element datasets has the potential to produce 308 speleothem eruption records that complement and supplement ice core and sediment 309 tephrochronology, providing a precisely dated, low-latitude, continental, and regional archive of ash 310 deposition even after removal or reworking of surface sediments. Eruptions recorded in ice cores 311 that influence global climate, but which are of unknown location, could be more accurately located 312 to within a specific region using this technique. Additionally, the high precision of speleothem dating 313 allows determination of precise dates of eruptions (such as the Minoan eruption of Santorini), which 314 are disputed or imprecisely dated by archaeological, stratigraphic or historical records (Friedrich et 315 al., 2006). Geological records of prehistoric records are exceptionally incomplete, with estimates for 316 the percentage of known events less than 0.17% globally for eruptions 5-20Ka and as low as 0.0005% 317 for some regions (Watt et al., 2013). This technique enables the use of speleothems as an additional 318 archive of eruption records, particularly in tropical areas where historical eruption records are often

- poor. Improved eruption records allow better estimation of recurrence intervals and are essentialfor assessing volcanic hazards.
- 321 In this study remote sensing and meteorological data very strongly suggest that PC1 reflected
- 322 volcanic ash deposition by linking PC1 spikes to specific historical eruptions. Studies extending
- further into the past (e.g., beyond the satellite or historical record) will not have this information
- 324 available. However, these studies could still apply this technique by first calibrating a PC record using
- 325 modern information, and then extend interpretations back through time. Similar PC spikes as those
- 326 reflecting historical volcanic ash deposition are interpretable as unknown volcanic eruptions.
- 327 Furthermore, a modern calibration provides information regarding the proportion of regional
- 328 eruptions detectable at a specific cave site, as well as any false positives. The proof-of-concept study
- 329 presented here captured 5 out of 5 volcanic eruptions that produced aerosol clouds that passed over
- the cave site, and 5 out of 28 total Central American eruptions larger than VEI 2. Studies of older
- 331 stalagmites that were not growing during historical times could still benefit from the technique, but
- determination of the stalagmite's sensitivity to eruptions would remain unknown.
- 333 Speleothem trace element eruption records can also function as chronological markers. The date of
- a well-recorded eruption detected in a speleothem can be incorporated into the age model,
- 335 providing even greater precision in speleothem dating.
- Additional future work could focus on further confirming that the trace element spikes recorded in
- this stalagmite by PC1 are indeed the results of volcanic ash deposition. Geochemical techniques
- 338 which are impractical for analysis of an entire stalagmite could be employed now that the physical
- 339 location of the spike within the sample is known. These include employing sulphur isotopes (Frisia et
- al., 2005; Frisia et al., 2008) or using synchrotron radiation based micro X-ray fluorescence to detect
- 341 elements diagnostic of volcanism which are only present in low concentrations such as Br or Mo
- 342 (Badertscher et al., 2014).
- 343 4.2 Comparison to Previous Work
- 344 These trace element results are consistent with previous work which suggested that the El Chichón
- eruption was recorded in the trace elements of ATM-7 (Frappier, 2006), as well as detecting several
- additional volcanic ash deposition events to the record. Magnesium concentrations are broadly
- 347 similar to δ^{13} C, showing similar patterns in response to seasonality and El Nino events as in Frappier
- et al. (2002). Trace elements do not show a clear response to the tropical cyclone events which are
- observed in the δ^{18} O record (Frappier et al., 2007). We suggest that although tropical cyclone rainfall
- is isotopically distinct from normal rainfall it does not represent a substantial additional volume, and
- 351 therefore has a much smaller influence on trace element proxies for precipitation.
- 352 5.1 Conclusions
- 353 Here we show the potential of Principal Component Analysis as a statistical technique for
- 354 exploratory analysis of large stalagmite trace element datasets. The technique can deconvolve the
- 355 different modes of trace element variation and, when principal components are linked to physical
- 356 processes or inputs, can produce time series of the shifting influence of those modes of variation.
- 357 For a stalagmite where intermittent signals such as the addition of volcanic ash material are
- 358 recorded, this technique can clearly identify these discrete events within the record. It is important

- to note that Principal Component Analysis of individual trace element datasets will produce unique
- 360 principal components and correlation coefficients. Volcanic ash deposition may not always appear as
- the first principal component; instead, it may explain a lower proportion of the variability or consist
- 362 of slightly different elemental distributions due to local soil or plant chemistry. However, for any
- 363 stalagmite where volcanic ash deposition has a measurable influence on stalagmite geochemistry
- 364 PCA should produce a corresponding principal component.
- 365 We demonstrate that the stalagmite ATM-7 from Actun Tunichil Muknal cave in central Belize
- 366 records the occurrence of volcanic ash deposition over the cave site. Comparison of ashfall events
- 367 recorded in speleothems can be used as a tephrochronological tool in conjunction with existing local
- 368 historical, archaeological or sedimentological records. Additionally, analysis of stalagmites using this
- technique can yield absolutely dated, high resolution, low latitude records of volcanic eruptions,
- 370 providing important low latitude counterparts to volcanogenic sulphate records in glacial ice cores.
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515 Figure List





- 517 Figure 1: Left: Location of Actun Tunichil Muknal and all volcanoes in Central America. Right:
- 518 Location of ATM in Belize, with contoured mean annual rainfall (Medina-Elizalde and Rohling, 2012).



- 520 Figure 2: Polished section of ATM7 used in this study. Black outlines with grey shading highlight
- 521 micromilled track used for generating the stable isotope records used in Frappier et al. (2002) and
- 522 Frappier et al. (2007). Purple lines show laser ablation tracks. Blue shaded areas show areas of laser
- 523 ablation mapping.

Mapped Area - Optical Scan Mg Elemental Map (ppm) Sr Elemental Map (ppm) 20 Ba Elemental Map (ppm) 12 Pb Elemental Map (ppm) 25mm **Direction of Growth**

524

- 525 Figure 3: Elemental map of magnesium, strontium, barium and lead concentrations in the right hand
- 526 mapped area of Figure 2. Concentrations show strong lateral consistency along growth layers.
- 527 Optical scan image shown for comparison.



Figure 4: Linking remote sensing derived records of volcanic ash clouds to variations in ATM-7 trace element geochemistry. a) Demonstrating synchronicity of Central American volcanic eruptions of VEI 531

532 2 or greater (red) with spikes in TOMS aerosol index above the ATM cave site (black). This identifies

- volcanic eruptions with ash clouds which reach the cave site. b) Comparing labelled spikes in TOMS
- 534 Aerosol Index (black) with PC1 scores over time (blue). c) Volcanic eruptions previously identified as
- resulting in elevated aerosol levels above the cave plotted against PC1 scores over time. A spike in
- 536 PC1 follows each of these eruptions within one year. †Elevated Aerosol index levels in these years,
- 537 which have no corresponding volcanic eruption, due to a higher prevalence of large wildfires due to
- 538 droughts in El Nino years. *Uncertain records of eruptions; discussed in text.



- 540 Figure 5: HYSPLIT modelling of ash dispersion 48 hours after eruptions of (a) El Chichón, (b)
- 541 Concepcion, (c) Arenal, (d) Colima, (e) Rincon de la Vieja, and (f) Fuego. (g) TOMS aerosol index
- 542 image of El Chichón ash cloud on April 5th 1982 taken approximately one day after the climactic
- 543 eruption. The triangles mark erupting volcano position, the black circles denote the position of ATM.
- 544 (a-f) Results of HYSPLIT modelling on the READY system. (g) Courtesy of the NASA TOMS Volcanic
- 545 Image Archive.
- 546



549 Figure 6: Magnesium concentrations (purple) plotted against lead concentrations (red). Seasonality

550 is inferred from fluctuations in magnesium concentrations, assuming abrupt decreases in Mg

- indicate the onset of the wet season and that the initiation of steadily increasing values marks the
- 552 more gradual onset of the dry season. Lead concentration spikes occur at the start of the wet
- season, coincident with PC1 spikes, and are interpreted as representing flushing of volcanogenic
- 554 compounds accumulated in the soil over the previous dry season.



- 557 Figure 7: a) Average patterns of variation during the sixteen years (out of twenty-one total) without
- an identified eruption affecting the cave site. Magnesium concentrations (purple) are used to infer
- seasonality. b) Average patterns of variation during the five years with detectable volcanic ash
- 560 influence. Spikes in lead (red) and PC1 (blue) occur at the onset of the wet season. Elemental
- 561 concentrations for each year are normalised such that the maximum concentration in the year is
- 562 equal to one. PC1 scores in each plot are the summed values over the plotted years.



- 565 Figure 8: Comparison of PC1 spike timings to known eruptions affecting the cave site. Size of markers
- 566 corresponds to magnitude of PC1 spike. A one-to-one concordance line marks the position where
- 567 spikes would occur if they were synchronous with the eruptions. All PC1 spikes occur to the right of
- this line, within up to one year, as expected. Diameter of blue circles is proportional to magnitude of
- 569 PC1 spike. Markers on x-axis denote PC1 spikes with no definitive corresponding eruption. Insert:
- 570 length of lag times for El Chichón and Concepción eruptions.
- 571



- 573 Figure 9: Comparison of geochemistry of stalagmite regions containing ash-derived material
- 574 compared to mean values of calcite containing no ash signal. Also plotted are the results of ICP-MS
- analysis of an El Chichón ash sample. All elements ratioed to lead to eliminate the effect of varying
- amounts of ash-derived material within the speleothem. Symbols in red are values where the
- 577 concentration of the element analysed are below the detection limits; these are plotted at detection
- 578 limit values for comparison only whilst the actual values will be lower.

	PC1	Max (ppm)	Median (ppm)	Mean (ppm)	StdDev (ppm)	%RSD
Μ	lg 0.108	1137.22	317.45	348.16	162.04	46.54
9	Sr 0.070	58.12	12.25	13.13	4.22	32.16
B	a 0.217	109.06	2.68	3.60	5.09	141.84
ļ	Al 0.236	13655.19	2.84	138.75	730.31	526.33
9	Si 0.207	31554.61	1475.52	1526.03	1774.48	116.28
	P 0.240	37413.33	12.52	181.91	1496.98	822.93
	V 0.238	23.69	0.08	0.26	1.20	459.88
Μ	n 0.230	58.74	0.65	1.06	3.11	292.25
F	e 0.234	676.20	227.67	230.42	23.93	10.38
C	u 0.243	149.63	1.01	1.95	6.49	332.51
Z	n 0.242	466.39	0.37	4.10	21.87	534.15
R	b 0.242	30.40	0.01	0.17	1.35	802.08
	Y 0.227	7.44	0.00	0.08	0.54	666.68
Z	Zr 0.244	23.09	0.02	0.17	1.04	603.27
C	d 0.231	5.39	0.00	0.04	0.24	570.04
L	.a 0.233	9.25	0.00	0.08	0.57	681.99
C	Ce 0.242	12.30	0.00	0.09	0.73	787.31
Ρ	b 0.225	36.48	0.06	0.65	2.41	368.40

Th

U

0.232

0.239

1.95

2.23

Table 1: Table of principal component coefficients for Principal Component 1. Also shown aredescriptive statistics for the entire dataset population.

0.00

0.01

0.01

0.02

0.10

0.09

802.77

425.74