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EVIDENCE OF AN ACTIVE ENSO AND PDO DURING THE MID-

HOLOCENE FROM A COSTA RICAN SPELEOTHEM

by

April Dianne Azouz

Bachelor of Science Boston University 2004

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Master of Science Degree in Geoscience Department of Geoscience College of Sciences

Graduate College University of Nevada, Las Vegas August 2006

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Thesis Approval

The Graduate College University of Nevada, Las Vegas

JULY 14 _____, 2006

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Entitled

EVIDENCE OF AN ACTIVE ENSO AND PDO DURING THE MID-HOLOCENE FROM

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is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTERS IN GEOSCIENCE

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ABSTRACT

Evidence of an active ENSO and PDO during the mid-Holocene from a Costa Rican speleothem

by

April D. Azouz

Dr. Matthew Lachniet, Examination Committee Chair Professor of Geoscience University of Nevada, Las Vegas

The El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) are the most important sources of interannual to multidecadal climate variability in the tropics. A high resolution (~3.8 years/sample) paleoclimate record of Central American rainfall variability has been reconstructed from a U/Th-dated stalagmite (7890 to 6490 yrs B.P.) from Costa Rica to constrain the onset and variability of ENSO throughout the Holocene, and to determine its role in generating regional climate anomalies. I suggest drier conditions, forced by El Niño and/or the PDO, are represented by higher δ^{18} O values, and are correlative with higher δ^{13} C values, indicating that soil respiration rates are affected by regional climate variability, which are recorded in the speleothem stratigraphy grayscale values. This study provides new evidence, based on 3 different proxies, that throughout the middle Holocene, rainfall was

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varying at interdecadal timescales, which I attribute to low frequency variability in ENSO and the PDO.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of Study

The development of high quality Holocene paleoclimate records throughout the tropical Pacific is crucial to our understanding of the driving forces that produce the two dominant modes of Pacific climate variability: the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO). The tropics receive the greatest amount of solar radiation, and as the 'heat engine' for global circulation are responsible for driving atmospheric and oceanic circulation to higher latitudes. Few quantitative terrestrial isotopic paleoclimatic studies exist for this part of the world, therefore, understanding tropical climate history is important because it provides information for ENSO and PDO predictive climate modeling and future water use planning in Central America.

Many studies throughout the Pacific basin suggest that the Holocene is characterized by an increase in ENSO frequency and amplitude towards the present since the mid-Holocene (Moy et al., 2002; Tudhope et al., 2001; Cole, 2001; Rodbell et al., 1999). The middle Holocene is of

special interest because various proxy records and modeling studies suggest that ENSO was suppressed/weakened during this period (Otto-Bleisner,1999; Tudhope et al., 2001; Clement et al., 2000; Koutavas et al. 2002), and only between 7000-5000 years B.P. did the onset of modern ENSO conditions begin (Moy et al. 2002; Rodbell et al., 1999; Sandweiss et al., 2001). Not all regions are affected by tropical Pacific climate variability in the same manner and magnitude, therefore knowledge of the stability of teleconnections between Costa Rica and other regions directly affected by ENSO and the PDO during the Holocene will help elucidate how the tropics respond to climatic shifts and variations in moisture availability.

Tropical climate change is reflected in speleothem carbonate because oxygen isotope variations reflect the amount of rainfall. Speleothems are cave calcite deposits that incorporate rainfall derived oxygen into their precipitated calcite, and can be precisely dated by U-series isotopes (Richards and Dorale, 2003). In this study, a speleothem is used as a paleoclimate proxy to determine the role of ENSO and the PDO in generating regional climate anomalies in Costa Rica throughout the middle Holocene.

Costa Rica is located between 9-11° N and is found at almost the narrowest point on the Central American isthmus (Figure 1.1). Costa Rica is segmented by high cordilleras, therefore, the oceanic and climatological affects on Costa Rica are produced from both the Pacific

Ocean and Caribbean Sea (Waylen et al., 1996). Costa Rica is an important area to document the speleothem isotope record because it is a region directly affected by Pacific climate variability and should provide a reliable record to track changes in the migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). During El Niño events and the positive phase of the PDO, drier conditions throughout Costa Rica are produced (Waylen et al., 1996) due to an increase in SSTs across the equatorial Pacific Ocean, which displaces the ITCZ further south. Costa Rica is a key region affected by ENSO and the PDO, therefore, paleoclimate records generated there should reflect ENSO and PDO history.

The goal of this study is to determine the role of Pacific climate variability, ENSO and the PDO, in Central America throughout the mid-Holocene. A high resolution rainfall proxy based on oxygen isotope (δ^{18} O) variations has been reconstructed from a Costa Rican speleothem. The amount effect is the dominant control on δ^{18} O variations, therefore during El Niño events and the warm phase of the PDO, drier conditions with higher δ^{18} O values should be recorded in speleothem carbonate.

Carbon isotope (δ^{13} C) variations, combined with δ^{18} O as a rainfall proxy, were analyzed to address the relationship between tropical rainfall and biological respiration. Carbon isotope values in speleothems are dependent on the photosynthetic pathway of overlying vegetation (Dorale et al., 1998; Richards and Dorale, 2003), soil respiration, soil/water rock equilibration time (Baker et al., 1997), and climate (Burns et al., 2002).

Grayscale stratigraphic analysis was also performed, and provides an ultra high resolution record of the internal speleothem stratigraphy, resulting in three time series which will be compared to establish a climate proxy that can be used to resolve rainfall variability and carbon cycling within the soil zone, overlying limestone bedrock, and atmospheric CO₂, over the interval of speleothem growth.



Figure 1.1. Map of Central America. Star indicates location of field area in Barra Honda National Park in Costa Rica

CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND

Geological Background

During the Pliocene, the convergence of the Caribbean plate with the Cocos and Nazca plates produced the Isthmus of Panama, which includes Costa Rica and Panama (Duque-Caro, 1990). The oldest rocks found in Costa Rica are the ophiolitic Late Mesozoic Nicoya Complex, which are Jurassic to Upper Cretaceous sea floor rocks (Mora, 1992; Castillo-Munoz, 1983). Since the late Mesozoic, several tectonic events have accreted, faulted, uplifted, and allowed deposition of oceanic and neritic sediments (Mora, 1992). The Rivas formation, which consists primarily of interbedded mudstones and siltstones, directly overlies the Cretaceous ophiolite sequence.

During the Eocene, the Barra Honda formation, consisting of shallow water reef limestones, were later uplifted above sea level and commonly show evidence of karstic features (Figure 2.1). Barra Honda National Park, which is one of the best known and best developed areas of karst in Central America, is located in the Tempisque Basin where the Nicoya Peninsula joins the mainland (Figure 2.2). The maximum thickness of

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the Barra Honda formation is ~250 m and it is not overlain by any other unit, suggesting that continuous uplift of this region occurred since deposition during the Eocene (Mora, 1992).

Terciopelo cave, which is where sample CT-7 was collected, is one of the many caves located in Barra Honda National Park. Barra Honda presently receives ~1.5 m of rain each year (Coen, 1983) and the mean monthly temperature in the Guanacaste dry forest was 28°C for the period between 1960-1970 (Gordon et al., 1974).

Cave and Speleothem Formation

Unsubmerged limestone caves provide a favorable environment for speleothem calcite deposition, which precipitates from dripwaters entering the cave from the land surface above (e.g. White, 2004). Speleothem formation results from rainfall percolating through the soil zone. As rainwater infiltrates the soil, biological respiration increases the pCO₂, which is higher than the pCO₂ in the atmosphere. This soil moisture is charged with the biogenic CO₂, which increases the acidity of water by the formation of carbonic acid. Water infiltrates downward until it reaches the carbonate bedrock, where it percolates through fractures within the limestone, dissolving the calcite until reaching calcite saturation. Upon reaching a pre-existing cave with atmospheric pCO₂ concentrations, calcite saturated groundwater will degas CO₂ (Hendy, 1971), resulting in precipitation of solid calcite speleothems

(Figure 2.3). Paleoclimate information, in the form of δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values are also preserved within the calcite structure of the speleothem (Gascoyne, 1992).

The internal speleothem stratigraphy can display varying degrees of color and intensity when viewed in both reflected and ultraviolet light (Van Beynen et al., 2001), and can provide paleoclimate information in combination with stable isotope analysis. Speleothems fluoresce due to the presence of organic acids trapped within the calcite (Gascoyne, 1977), varying concentrations of trace elements (James, 1997), and can result from differences in porosity of individual layers, driven by infiltration and dripwater rate (Genty, 1992). Luminescent laminations are dependent on surface climate, soil/ vegetation characteristics, and groundwater hydrology at the site (Baker et al., 1999), therefore, the internal speleothem stratigraphy provides an excellent paleoenvironmental proxy.

Oxygen and Carbon Isotopes

Isotopes are used as tracers of certain geochemical processes, such as evaporation, precipitation, and photosynthesis. An isotope is an atom with the same number of protons and a different number of neutrons located in its nucleus. Isotopes of an element have identical chemical properties, but differ in their masses. Isotopic fractionation occurs due

to the difference in masses, in which certain geochemical processes prefer either the heavier or lighter form of that element.

Isotopic values are reported as ratios expressed in delta (δ) notation where R= ${}^{18}O/{}^{16}O$ or ${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C$, expressed in per mil (‰) notation with respect to two standards: Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (VPDB) for calcite, and Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW) for water.

$$\delta (\%) = \frac{R_{sample} - R_{standard}}{R_{standard}} \times 1000$$
where R= ¹⁸O/¹⁶O or ¹³C/¹²C

Many factors contribute to the δ^{18} O values of speleothem calcite. The average δ^{18} O values of rainfall may reflect the temperature of condensation, seasonality of precipitation, ice volume effect, continental effects, sources of water vapor and the amount effect (Dansgaard, 1964; Harmon et al., 1978). The air temperature in Costa Rica does not vary more than a few degrees annually, and within a cave system, temperature variations are dampened relative to the atmospheric temperature. Variations in δ^{18} O values due to temperature dependent fractionation are likely to be constant, because at ~25°C, cave temperature variations of ~1°C should result in only a 0.25‰ effect on δ^{18} O values of speleothem calcite precipitating in isotopic equilibrium with drip waters (Kim and O'Neil, 1997). Also, in poorly ventilated tropical caves, such as Terciopelo cave, where relative humidity is near 100% year-round, kinetic fractionation from evaporation should be minimal.

In the tropics, variations in δ^{18} O values of rainfall indicate changes in the amount of precipitation due to the 'amount effect' (Dansgaard, 1964), in which the initial rainfall is enriched in ¹⁸O isotopes, while further precipitation becomes increasingly depleted in ¹⁸O isotopes (Dansgaard, 1964; Rozanski, 1993; Lachniet and Patterson, 2003, 2006) (Figure 2.4). Kinetic fractionation caused by rapid CO₂ degassing, rapid calcite precipitation and cave-water evaporation may also affect the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of stalagmite carbonate (Mickler et al., 2004). In tropical regions, the most likely source of kinetic fractionation would be due to rapid degassing of CO₂ from carbonate-saturated drip waters, and not from evaporation of water (McDermott, 2004), due to the high relative humidity within the cave system. Evaporation within the soil zone could affect the δ^{18} O values of speleothem calcite and would increase the δ^{18} O value of drip water before reaching the stalagmite (Lachniet et al., 2004a). Rapid CO₂ degassing produces an enrichment in δ^{18} O values, which results in a shift in the δ^{18} O values in the same direction as the amount effect (Burns et al., 2002). For example, rapid degassing produces higher δ^{18} O value, similarly to the amount effect, where drier conditions produce higher δ^{18} O values. Therefore, kinetic fractionation due to rapid degassing or evaporation within the soil zone, leads to an increase in the δ^{18} O values of the speleothem calcite.

Many factors influence speleothem δ^{13} C values. The carbon isotope composition of speleothems can be used to infer the isotopic composition

of atmospheric CO₂ (Baskaran and Krishnamurthy, 1993), type of vegetation overlying the cave (Dorale et al., 1992), contribution of soil carbon relative to aquifer limestone, the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) content of the dripwater, and climate (Burns et al., 2002). Dry tropical rainforest vegetation, which is located throughout Barra Honda National Park, is dominated by C₃ plants, which produce δ^{13} C values in speleothems to have a range between -14 to -6‰ VPDB. Plants that utilize the C₄ pathway, such as warm season grasses and maize, exhibit higher δ^{13} C values and produces speleothem δ^{13} C values between -6 to +2‰ VPDB. In environments where the soil-water residence time is short, complete isotopic equilibration between soil CO₂ and infiltrating water may not occur, resulting in water containing an isotopically heavier atmospheric CO₂ component (McDermott, 2004).

Kinetic fractionation processes, such as evaporation, rapid CO₂ degassing, and prior calcite precipitation would enrich the δ^{13} C values of the precipitated calcite. To determine the effects of equilibrium versus kinetic fractionation of tropical speleothems, Mickler et al. (2004) analyzed drip water samples, CaCO₃ precipitated on glass plates, and speleothem δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values. Although speleothems may appear to precipitate in isotopic equilibrium, Mickler et al. (2004) concluded that kinetic fractionation effects most likely are occurring, which can increase or decrease the δ^{13} C values. Precipitation of calcite in isotopic equilibrium is assumed to occur when cave environments have high

relative humidity, which is an assumption that must be made in order to use δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values of speleothems as a paleoclimate proxy.

Climatological Background

The two dominant factors that control intra- and inter-annual precipitation throughout much of Central America are the annual migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) and ENSO (Waylen et al., 1996). The ITCZ is a zone of low pressure that occurs where the Northeast and Southeast trade winds converge at ~5-10° N, resulting in a band of heavy precipitation. The ITCZ migrates seasonally following the most intense solar radiation and the warmest sea surface temperatures (SSTs) to reach ~12° N in August and recede to its southernmost position in February (Coen, 1983).

The annual migration of the ITCZ results in wet and dry seasons in the tropics, and together with seasonal changes in wind direction, is referred to as the Central America Monsoon (Giannini et al., 2000). The wet season in Costa Rica commonly starts in May and lasts through November, while the dry season occurs from December to April (Coen, 1983). Although rain can occur in the dry season, ~70% of the annual precipitation falls during the wet season (Coen, 1983).

The El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) also affects Costa Rican climate. There is a strong link between ENSO events and large-scale precipitation patterns (Ropelewski and Halpert, 1987). ENSO events

occur from the complex interaction between the ocean and atmosphere. ENSO refers to tropical Pacific Ocean variability, including both El Niño and La Nina events. El Niño warm events disrupt normal atmospheric and oceanic circulation, which produces anomalous weather patterns throughout the world every 2-7 years (Enfield and Cid, 1991). El Niño modulates the annual migration of the ITCZ by displacing it further south near South America. This prolongs the dry season of El Niño and produces drought on the Pacific Coast drainage of Costa Rica (Waylen et al., 1996).

During an El Niño year, a warm tongue of water spreads eastward along the equator due to a weakening of the trade winds and produces large changes in atmospheric circulation (Figure 2.5). Above average SSTs in the Eastern Equatorial Pacific during El Niño years can induce an early dry season through much of southern Central America (Enfield and Alfaro, 1999). When SSTs are elevated for five or more consecutive months, an El Niño warm phase is generated. The warm phase is associated with lower mean annual precipitation over much of the equatorial Americas (Waylen et al., 1996; Vuille et al., 2003). During a La Niña year, the opposite occurs, in which a cool tongue spreads eastward along the equator due to a strengthening of the trade winds and increases rainfall on the Pacific slope of Costa Rica and decreases rainfall on the Atlantic slope.

Similarly to ENSO, the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) is a longlived El Niño-like pattern of Pacific climate variability (Mantua and Hare, 2002) (Figure 2.6). Three main characteristics distinguish the PDO from ENSO. First, 20th century PDO events occur on longer timescales (20-30 years) (Mantua and Hare, 2002) compared to ENSO events (2-7 years) (Enfield and Cid, 1991). Second, the primary effects of the PDO occur in the extratropics, more specifically in the North Pacific, with secondary climatic effects in the tropics. However, ENSO primarily affects the tropics with teleconnections to the extratropics occurring later. Third, while the causes for ENSO variability are relatively well-understood, the causal mechanisms for the PDO remain unclear (Mantua and Hare, 2002).

The PDO varies from warm to cool phases, similarly to ENSO. During warm PDO phases, SSTs are anomalously cool in the central North Pacific with anomalously warm SSTs along the west coast of North America. Sea level pressure (SLP) in the northern North Pacific is low, causing enhanced counterclockwise (cyclonic) winds. High SLP occurs over the northern subtropical Pacific, causing enhanced clockwise (anticyclonic) winds. The cool phases of the PDO are opposite of those associated with the warm PDO phases (Mantua and Hare, 2002). Temporally, the PDO fluctuates between common periodicities in the 15-25 year and 50-70 year bands (Minobe, 1999). PDO variability demonstrates that "normal" climate conditions can vary, resulting in

climate anomalies that can persist on decadal to multi-decadal time periods. The PDO is dependent on ENSO variability on all time scales (Newman et al., 2003); therefore, it is their interaction that determines interannual variability of the tropical Pacific (Lluch-Cota et al., 2001).

Previous Work

Although the instrumental record of tropical climate is only present for the past ~150 years, various proxy records throughout the tropical Pacific record past ENSO events during the Holocene, which indicate variable intensities and recurrence intervals (e.g. Sandweiss et al., 2001). Rodbell et al. (1999) and Moy et al. (2002) used sediment cores from an alpine lake in Ecuador that contains clastic laminae deposits that directly correlate with historical El Niño events. They suggested that interannual ENSO variability was dramatically weaker prior to ~7000 years B.P as shown by the increase in frequency of the clastic laminae deposits after 7000 yrs B.P.

Corals can record seasonal to annual resolution (Gagan et al., 2000) and are excellent paleoclimate proxies. The stable isotopic composition of corals can extend the instrumental record of tropical climate back to the late Quaternary (Charles et al., 2003). Since corals only grow in warm tropical waters and ENSO is focused primarily in the tropics, corals record annual to monthly variations and can produce long-term ENSO records relative to the historical record of ENSO. Corals from the tropical

Pacific have been the focus of many paleoclimate studies due to the importance of ENSO in global climate variability (Gagan et al., 1999). However, high resolution coral records are often discontinuous and of short duration (Cole et al., 1993). A further problem is that corals may bleach during very warm El Niño events, which could alter the original isotopic signature (Linsley et al, 1994).

ENSO paleoclimate records based on speleothems can complement those derived from corals (Lachniet et al., 2004; Brooks et al., 1999). Most speleothem-based paleoclimate reconstructions rely upon oxygen isotopic measurements of speleothem calcite or upon thickness of annual growth bands (e.g., Fleitmann et al., 2004) because oxygen isotopes from tropical speleothems provide a detailed rainfall record relating to ENSO. For example, to better predict the Indian Monsoon and its link to ENSO, Fleitmann et al. (2004) analyzed three stalagmites from Southern Oman which provided a detailed Indian Ocean monsoon rainfall record for the past 780 years. Lachniet et al. (2004) generated a high resolution δ^{18} O rainfall record from the Isthmus of Panama to determine the influence ENSO has on generating regional hydrologic anomalies. Speleothems collected from locations surrounding the Pacific Ocean, and throughout the world, can generate high resolution long-term records of ENSO variability throughout the Holocene.

To illustrate the long-term trends in the PDO, several studies have used proxy evidence to demonstrate PDO-related climate change. A

dendrochronology study reconstructed for North American air temperature since 1600 A.D., demonstrated the 50-70 year PDO periodicity throughout the entire record (Fritts, 1991; Minobe, 1997). The Sr/Ca variability in long-lived corals from the western tropical Pacific show a strong PDO signal in the extracted SST history (Linsley et al., 2000), suggesting that robust teleconnections to the tropics and the southern hemisphere exist (Evans et al., 2000).







Interbedded siltstone and mudstone: Rivas Formation (Paleocene)



Ophiolite Sequence (not shown): Nicoya Complex (Jurassic-Cretaceous)

Figure 2.1. Cross-sectional view of Barra Honda National Park. Stratigraphically, the oldest unit is the Nicoya complex, although it is not visible in Barra Honda National Park. Black lines overlying the Rivas Formation illustrate folded beds. Adapted from Mora Castro, 1981.



Figure 2.2. Digital Elevation Model of southern Central America. The star represents Barra Honda National Park located on the Nicoya Peninsula of Costa Rica. The DEM source is the USGS GTOPO30 data set US Geological Survey (1996).



Figure 2.3. Schematic diagram illustrating cave formation processes. Water infiltrates through the soil zone where biological respiration increases pCO₂ in the soil, and increases the acidity of the infiltrating water. As water reaches the limestone bedrock, it dissolves the limestone until saturation. Once the water reaches a preexisting cave with lower pCO₂, CO₂ degasses and calcium carbonate precipitates out of solution. Modified from Holland et al., 1964.



Figure 2.4. The amount effect of rainfall in Panama and Costa Rica. From Lachniet et al. 2004.



Figure 2.5. Schematic diagrams comparing A) normal conditions of the tropical Pacific and B) El Niño conditions. Modified from http://www.elnino.noaa.gov/.



Figure 2.6. The Pacific Decadal Oscillation during its positive and negative phases. The colors represent sea surface temperatures (SST), the contours represent sea level pressure (SLP), and the vectors represent surface wind stress anomaly patterns. From http://jisao.washington.edu/pdo/

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Sample Collection

Stalagmite CT-7, which is ~37cm long along the growth axis (Figure 3.1), was collected from Terciopelo cave in Barra Honda National Park. The entrance to Terciopelo cave is a vertical shaft with a ~17 m drop onto an inclined surface that descends ~39 m below the surface to the back of the cave (Figure 3.2). Sample CT-7 was collected in January of 2004 and was removed from a constricted, poorly ventilated passage approximately ~25 m laterally and ~50 m vertically from the cave entrance. Within the cave system, no streams were present. At the sample location in March 2005, the temperature was 26-27° C and the relative humidity was 94-97%.

Sample Preparation

Sample CT-7 was halved along the growth axis. The surface was polished to reveal an interior of white and clear calcite with visible submillimeter layers of calcite of varying density. Thin sections were made

sequentially, from the base to the tip, to analyze and identify any possible hiatuses, inclusions, and detritus within the calcite. By illuminating sample CT-7 with ultraviolet light, the internal speleothem stratigraphy is displayed in greater detail, which allowed for more accurate drilling within single layers, and provided more confidence in the age calculated with U-series dating.

Stable Isotope Sampling

Calcite subsamples were drilled from the cut and polished speleothem surface at 1mm intervals along the growth axis to sample for oxygen and carbon isotopes. Using a Sherline[™] drill press model 5410, fitted with a 0.5mm drill bit, 374 calcite subsamples of ~100 µg were extracted and analyzed for oxygen and carbon isotopic ratios using a Finnigan Delta +XL ratio mass spectrometer with dual inlet system coupled to a Kiel III automated carbonate preparation device. This work was performed at the University of Massachusetts stable isotope laboratory.

Radiometric Dating

Sixteen calcite subsamples of ~400 mg were removed, along growth bands, from sample CT-7 for U/Th analysis at the University of New Mexico Radiogenic Laboratory. Four calcite subsamples were removed along an individual growth band, at four different locations throughout CT-7, to produce one weighted average age per growth band.

Chemical separations were performed to purify and separate uranium from thorium according to a modified version of the procedures followed by the isotope lab at the University of Minnesota as described by Polyak and Asmerom (2001). Calcite powders were transferred to pre-weighed 30 ml teflon vials and reweighed. The samples were covered with deionized water and then dissolved in 15N HNO₃. Once dissolved, the samples were spiked with ~1g of a solution containing known concentrations and isotopic composition of ²³⁶U, ²³³U, and ²²⁹U and then the solution was dried on a hot plate. Then, a few drops of deionized water and perchloric acid were added to the samples and re-dissolved in a few drops of 15N HNO₃ and dried. The U and Th are co-precipitated with Fe by adding NH₄OH, until Fe coagulates and precipitates. The mixture is centrifuged and the supernatant discarded. The solution is re-dissolved in 15N HNO₃, transferred back to the clean 30 ml Teflon vial, dried and redissolved twice in 15N HNO₃. The sample is dissolved again in 7N HNO₃ and loaded on an anion exchange column to separately extract purified U and Th fractions. For a more detailed description of chemical separations and procedures, see Appendix I.

Measurements were made on a Micromass Sector 54 Thermal Ionization Mass Spectrometer (TIMS) with a WARP filter. It has seven Faraday cups and an ion-counting Daly multiplier. Samples were loaded onto filaments using the graphite sandwich method in which the sample
is loaded onto the center of the filament between two layers of graphite in order to amplify ionization efficiency.

Speleothems can be dated by the ²³⁸U- ²³⁴U- ²³⁰Th disequilibrium techniques (Dorale et al., 2004). Uranium series dating is based on the fractionation of parent U isotopes (238U, 235U and 234U) from their longlived daughters ²³¹Pa and ²³⁰Th. The ²³⁸U decay series, and the $^{234}\text{U}/^{230}\text{Th}$ ratio of a sample can be used to determine the time since carbonate deposition in karst environments (Richards and Dorale, 2003). Uranium is soluble in water and therefore is mobilized in the meteoric environment. In typical groundwater, uranium combines with water to form the uranyl ion (UO_2^{+2}) which is stable in carbonate complexes (Gascoyne 1992b). In contrast, thorium is insoluble and is essentially left behind, and is either precipitated or adsorbed onto detrital particulates (Richards and Dorale, 2003). Therefore, during the formation of secondary calcite deposits, such as speleothems, uranium is co-precipitated with the CaCO₃, while the immediate daughter products (²³⁰Th) is absent. This form of disequilibrium occurring in speleothem deposition is referred to as the daughter- deficiency method (Richards and Dorale, 2003).

The general equations used in determining the age of speleothems assume that all ²³⁰Th present was formed *in situ* by radioactive decay of the co-precipitated U. For pure authigenic calcite or aragonite, the thorium content at the time of formation can be negligible, although,

allochthonous material, such as detrital clays with a significant amount of Th can become cemented or occluded within the speleothems. Initial ²³⁰Th can also be incorporated into the speleothems by being transported in the colloidal phase, attached to organic molecules, or as carbonate complexes in solution (Richards and Dorale, 2003).

The isochron methodology allows one to separately distinguish between the amount of ingrown radiogenic daughter and its initial abundance. To determine and accommodate for initial ²³⁰Th, four separate isochrons were created by dating 3 to 5 subsamples along the same growth layer to determine the initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th activity ratio. By comparing ²³⁴U/²³²Th and ²³⁰Th/²³²Th data for age equivalent carbonate, the initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th can be estimated from the intercept of this straight line relationship (Richards and Dorale, 2003). In speleothems with clean calcite where ²³²Th contamination is minimal, the effect of using the incorrect ²³⁰Th/²³²Th initial ratio will be negligible (Richards and Dorale, 2003). U-series dates are presented with a 2 σ error based on an initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratio of the global value, 4.4 × 10⁻⁶, with an uncertainty of ± 50 % applied.

Grayscale Analysis

An ultraviolet luminescence record for CT-7 was obtained by taking high resolution digital images from the base to the tip and splicing them together to produce one high resolution digital image. The image was converted from blue-scale to grayscale with Adobe Photoshop. No adjustments for color contrast, resolution, or filtering were done to the image. Using Scion, a National Institute of Health grayscale image processing program, a multi-line transect paralleling the growth axis was analyzed for grayscale values throughout the entire length of the sample. Values range from 0 to 255, with lower values indicating lighter layers, and higher values indicating darker layers.

Statistical Analyses

Statistical analyses of paleoclimate time series provides a synthesis of proxy data that enhances the understanding of trends in the data set. The proxy data is analyzed with mathematical techniques that allow us to interpret the data in terms of the underlying geological mechanisms and processes.

Spectral analysis decomposes the original data set into underlying sine and cosine functions of particular wavelengths to determine the strength (power) of a given signal and helps elucidate the physical processes which generate variability within the time series (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002).

Spectral analysis using the Lomb-Scargle Fourier transform was performed on all three data sets: oxygen and carbon isotopes, and grayscale values using the REDFIT program (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002). REDFIT is useful because it allows spectral analysis from

unevenly spaced time series without requiring interpolation (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002).

Wavelet analysis was performed on the detrended and normalized time series, which takes basic spectral analysis a step further by localizing variations of power within a time series (Torrence and Compo, 1998). The wavelet transform decomposes a time series into timefrequency space, which helps determine both the dominant modes of variability and how those modes vary with time (Torrence and Compo, 1998). The advantage of wavelet analysis over a Fourier transform is that it allows time localization of statistically significant variance within a time series.



Figure 3.1. Photograph of stalagmite sample CT-7. Major tick marks on sample are in centimeters.



Figure 3.2. Schematic diagram of cave Terciopelo in plan view and in cross-section. Red star indicates sample CT-7 location. Modified from the National Speleological Society Costa Rica Project, 1982.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Cave Environment

The cave from which speleothem sample CT-7 was removed is relatively shallow (≤ 50 m) below the surface. Rainwater infiltrating through the soil zone and limestone bedrock likely flows into the cave within the same year that it fell. Sample collection occurred in March 2005 during the dry season in northern Costa Rica. Active dripping was occurring very slowly during the dry season in March 2005, suggesting that rainfall during the wet season enters the cave system before the end of the dry season. Since groundwater typically represents the average isotopic composition of rainfall (Darling, 2004), this short residence time allows the climatic δ^{18} O variability to be recorded in the stalagmite calcite.

Thin Section Qualitative Analysis

Speleothem sample CT-7 contains columnar calcite crystals with irregular and interlocking crystal boundaries. Secondary alteration, such as corrosional features were not found. Laminations are present throughout CT-7, but vary in thickness and continuity. White, relatively porous laminae alternate with slightly darker, more dense laminae throughout the sample. Detrital material, such as silt particles, was not observed in thin section, indicating very clean calcite. Under magnification with cross-polarized light, crystal growth transects laminae throughout the entire length of the sample, suggesting continuous growth with no apparent hiatuses.

Geochronology

The U/Th chemical analyses of four, three- and five-point isochrons produced weighted average dates of 8017 ± 330 yrs B.P. near the base, and a date of 6639 ± 250 yrs B.P. near the tip (Table 1). All dates are in correct stratigraphic order, which suggests continuous growth throughout. The final weighted ages were calculated using an Excel addin ISOPLOT (Ludwig, 2003) and the associated errors are 8017 ± 330 for ISO-1, 7274 ± 290 for ISO-2, 6929 ± 310 for ISO-3, and 6639 ± 250 for ISO-4. Ages were assigned to stable isotope subsamples according to a linear best fit age model (Figure 4.1) between ~7890 to 6490 yrs B.P using the equation:

Age = $-3.79234 \times (\text{distance from base in mm}) + 7898.32$

The isochron methodology was attempted to determine and correct for initial ²³⁰Th contamination. Initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratios were determined for each isochron: ISO-1, $1.18 \times 10^{-6} \pm 9.7 \times 10^{-5}$ (near base); ISO-2, $1.04 \times 10^{-5} \pm$

1.1×10⁻⁵; ISO-3, -1.42×10⁻⁵± 2.9×10⁻⁵; and ISO-4, -3.71×10⁻⁶± 5.7×10⁻⁶ (near tip). Due to the low ²³⁰Th concentration and relatively clean samples with low detritus in thin sections and U-series leachates, the isochron method proved unsuccessful. Although there are four or five subsamples within each isochron, the errors associated with the ²³⁰Th/²³²Th and ²³⁴Th/²³²Th ratios for each subsample are too large to constrain the initial value with precision. Due to the very clean calcite, the ²³⁰Th/²³²Th and ²³⁰Th/²³⁴Th ratios for each subsample did not provide enough spread in the data. "Dirtier" calcite with more ²³²Th and/or older samples with more ²³⁰Th would have provided a larger spread within the data, which would constrain the initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratios better. The negative initial ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratios for ISO-3 and ISO-4 are implausible; therefore, by omitting the negative ²³⁰Th/²³²Th ratios, the average ²³⁰Th/²³²Th initial value of ISO-1 and ISO-2 is 5.79×10⁻⁶.

Despite a wide range of initial 230 Th/ 232 Th values for all four CT-7 isochrons, the "global" initial value of 4.4×10^{-6} was used to correct their ages for detrital thorium, as it falls within the errors of ISO-1 and ISO-2. A global value for initial 230 Th/ 232 Th is the best choice, despite the failed attempts of the isochron method. A sensitivity analysis was performed using a 230 Th/ 232 Th value of 1.0×10^{-5} , to determine the effect of using a higher value. Although the age model is significantly shifted up to 700 years in some places, in absence of data to the contrary, we use the global initial value. Given continuous growth, CT-7 grew at an average

rate of 0.26 mm per year, over ~1400 yrs between the interval 7890 and 6490 yrs B.P.

Stable Isotopes

CT-7 was sampled for stable isotopes at 1mm intervals, therefore representing ~3.79 years of growth between each sample. Stable isotope analysis of CT-7 calcite yielded 372 δ^{18} O values, excluding 2 outliers, ranging from -11.8‰ to -6.4‰ relative to VPDB. The δ^{18} O values show a small linear trend, and oscillate about a mean of ~ -8.5‰ (Figure 4.2). Greatest variability occurs between 7200 and 6800 yrs B.P. with a high δ^{18} O anomaly at ~7000 yrs B.P. In general, the δ^{18} O values rise slightly from -8.5‰ at ~7890 yrs B.P. to -7.3 at ~7540 yrs B.P., then decline to -9.1‰ at ~7340 yrs B.P. The δ^{18} O values then rise sharply to -7.4‰ at ~7170 yrs B.P. and then steeply decline to -9.0‰ at ~7120 yrs B.P. The δ^{18} O values rise again to the most significant peak of -6.7‰ at ~7050 yrs B.P., quickly decline to -8.9‰ at ~6920 yrs B.P., slightly rise to -7.4% at ~6850 yrs B.P., significantly decline to -9.8‰ at ~6610 yrs B.P. and rise to -7.2‰ at ~6490 yrs B.P. at the end of the time series.

Since tropical rainfall δ^{18} O values are dominated by the amount effect (Dansgaard, 1964), I interpret the δ^{18} O values in stalagmite CT-7 as a paleo-rainfall record, with higher δ^{18} O values indicating drier conditions and lower δ^{18} O values as wetter conditions. The most significant peak

occurs at ~7000 yrs B.P., which is interpreted as the most prominent dry period of the record.

The δ^{13} C time series from stalagmite CT-7 shows values ranging from -11.9‰ to -6.8‰ relative to VBDP (Figure 4.3). There is a large δ^{13} C decrease of ~5‰ occurring at ~7000 yrs B.P. The δ^{13} C time series shows much more variability than the δ^{18} O time series. In general, the δ^{13} C values increase gradually from -11.2‰ at ~7880 yrs B.P. to -6.9‰ at 7000 yrs B.P., with many oscillations from higher to lower δ^{13} C values occurring throughout this time period. After the most significant peak at 7000 yrs B.P., there is a dramatic decrease in δ^{13} C values to -11.6‰ at ~6940 yrs B.P. The δ^{13} C values then increase gradually to -7.3‰ at ~6680 yrs B.P., decrease rapidly to -11.7‰ at ~6610 yrs B.P. and rise again to -6.8‰ at ~6490 yrs B.P.

Although the δ^{13} C variations are commonly interpreted to be indicators of vegetation type overlying the cave (Dorale et al., 1998), I interpret the δ^{13} C variations in stalagmite CT-7 are due to changes in the amount of soil moisture available for biological respiration. All the δ^{13} C values are within the range of C₃ type vegetation suggesting dry tropical forest was likely present over the cave during the early to mid-Holocene. The variability in the δ^{13} C time series may be interpreted due to soil moisture variability. The δ^{13} C record (figure 4.3) shows a broad increasing trend with a maximum δ^{13} C value ~7000 yrs B.P., which may reflect a general drying trend resulting in a decrease in soil moisture

available for biological respiration. At ~7000 yrs B.P., there is a dramatic peak in the δ^{13} C values, which may reflect a decrease in biological respiration and a decrease in the production of soil biogenic CO₂, resulting from isotopically heavier δ^{13} C values. I assumed no prior precipitation of calcite, which would produce an increase in the δ^{13} C values. Therefore in order to produce a decrease in biological respiration, a shift in climate to drier conditions must occur. Drier conditions would produce less water infiltrating into the soil zone and limit biological respiration which decreases soil pCO₂. Higher δ^{13} C values therefore result from less biological respiration within the soil zone, and a decrease in the proportion of soil CO₂ to the contributing drip waters, which should produce a δ^{18} O- δ^{13} C correlation.

Grayscale Analysis

Grayscale analysis yielded 19,651 grayscale values ranging from 105 to 227, with a value of 0 representing white, and a value of 255 representing black. With the use of the NIH grayscale program SCION, very high resolution sampling was possible at less than 1 year resolution. The grayscale values show a gradual decrease from 227 at ~7900 yrs B.P. to 110 at ~7230 yrs B.P (Figure 4.4). There is a sharp increase in values to 198 at 7060 yrs B.P., which represents one of the most significant peaks in the time series. There is a sharp decline to a

grayscale value of 109 at ~6920 yrs B.P. and then a gradual increase in values until 218 at ~6480 yrs B.P

Speleothems commonly contain annual couplets of white porous calcite, and dark compact calcite, resulting from seasonal variations in supersaturation and rate of dripwaters (Genty and Quinif, 1996; Genty et al., 1997). Although sample CT-7 does not appear to contain annual banding in which to observe seasonal fluctuations, I interpret the dark dense bands represent dry conditions, while the white porous bands are indicative of increased precipitation events (Figure 4.4). During periods of increased precipitation, more water is able to infiltrate through the soil zone, resulting in faster drip rate into the cave system, producing faster growing speleothems with lighter and more porous bands. During dry conditions, less infiltration occurs, producing slower drip rates into the cave leading to darker and denser bands.

Fourier Analyses

Spectral analysis based on the Lomb-Scargle Fourier transform, which uses a program (REDFIT) (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002), allowed for direct processing of an unevenly spaced time series without the requirement of interpolation between data points. Analysis on the oxygen isotope time series suggests statistically significant variance at the 99% confidence interval to occur at 191 years (Figure 4.5). At the 95% confidence interval, statistically significance variance is occurring at 15,

12, and 10 years. At the 90% confidence interval, statistically significant variance is occurring at 15 and 13 years. At the 85% confidence interval, statistically significant variance is occurring at 25, 20, and 8 years.

The Lomb-Scargle Fourier transform method on the carbon isotope time series suggests no statistically significant variance occurring at the 99% confidence interval. At the 95% confidence interval, there is statistical power occurring at 25 and 16 years (Figure 4.6). At the 90% confidence interval, statistically significant variance is occurring at 11 years. At the 85% confidence interval, statistical power is occurring at 14, 9, and 8 years.

Analysis on the grayscale time series suggests statistically significant variance at the 99% confidence interval occurring at 13, 12, 5, 4, 3, and 2 years (Figure 4.7). At the 95% confidence interval, statistical power is occurring at 19, 5 and 3 years. At the 90% confidence interval, there is statistical power at 9 and 6 years. At the 85% confidence interval, statistically significance variance occurring at 15 and 7 years, with many peaks of statistical power ranging from 6-2 years.

Another form of spectral analyses, called wavelet analysis, was also performed on the time series. Oxygen isotope time series at the 2-8 year time scale suggest statistically significant variance occurring at ~6800 and ~7500 years B.P (Figure 4.8). On the 10-20 year time scale, statistically significant variance is occurring at ~6800 years B.P. No

statistically significant variance at the 95% confidence interval was present at the 20-30, 30-50, 50-70, or 70-100 time periods.

Wavelet analysis was also performed on the carbon isotope time series and suggests statistically significant variance occurring at the 10-20 year time scale at ~6500, 6700, 6800, 7200, and 7300 years B.P (Figure 4.9). At the 20-30 year time scale, statistically significant variance is occurring at ~6700 years B.P. On the 30-50 year time scale, significant variance is occurring at ~6600 years B.P. There is no significant variance occurring on the 2-8, 30-50, 50-70, and 70-100 time scales.

Wavelet analysis suggests that the grayscale time series produces statistically significant variance throughout the growth period of stalagmite CT-7 at all time periods (2-8, 10-20, 20-30, 30-50, 50-70, and 70-100) (Figure 4.10).

	distance from base				1			230Th/238U				Corrected	
Sample ID	(mm)	U(ppm)	±2σ	Th(ppm)	±2 σ	²³⁰ Th/ ²³² Th _{ppm}	±2σ	(Activity)	±2 σ	δ ²³⁴ U _i	±2σ	Age (B.P.)	±2σ
CT-7 1A	11	0.09	5.06E-04	5.03E-04	1.27E-05	206.70	5.36	6.03E-03	0.0002	-6.49	11.27	8223	658
CT-7 1B	11	0.06	3.13E-04	4.00E-04	1.22E-05	183.39	5.66	6.56E-03	0.0002	-11.47	7.14	7949	459
CT-7 1C	11	0.08	4.58E-04	3.80E-04	1.65E-05	235.29	10.31	5.20E-03	0.0002	11.94	8.52	7945	676
ISO-1 (weighted average)												8019	340
CT-7 2A	110	0.08	3.74E-04	1.56E-03	1.45E-05	59.05	0.62	2.05E-02	0.0002	22.27	8.64	7347	598
CT-7 2B	110	0.06	2.87E-04	8.76E-04	2.04E-05	84.23	1.99	1.40E-02	0.0003	-1.64	11.96	7479	728
CT-7 2C	110	0.09	2.96E-04	8.55E-04	1.40E-05	108.57	1.82	1.03E-02	0.0002	8.56	6.96	7098	504
CT-7 2D	110	0.08	2.87E-04	1.43E-03	1.85E-05	64.13	0.86	1.92E-02	0.0003	-0.65	7.97	7699	609
CT-7 2E	110	0.09	2.71E-04	1.91E-03	1.52E-05	43.48	0.37	2.23E-02	0.0002	-2.59	3.63	5826	1178
ISO-2 (weighted average)												7 244	340
CT-7 3A	245	0.09	4.22E-04	5.53E-04	1.37E-05	172.42	4.36	6.57E-03	0.0002	8.74	7.55	7313	552
CT-7 3B	245	0.08	3.66E-04	9.02E-04	1.15E-05	98.81	1.33	1.11E-02	0.0001	39.18	8.53	6693	599
CT-7 3C	245	0.08	6.66E-04	6.20E-04	1.78E-05	136.43	4.07	7.68E-03	0.0002	-3.47	16.77	6783	493
ISO-3 (weighted average)												6939	330
CT-7 4A	355	0.08	3.39E-04	1.26E-03	1.16E-05	68.20	0.69	1.58E-02	0.0002	-0.98	7.31	6755	500
CT-7 4B	355	0.09	3.13E-04	2.12E-03	1.27E-05	42.29	0.30	2.50E-02	0.0002	6.78	5.70	6287	421
CT-7 4C	355	0.09	2.96E-04	1.41E-03	1.07E-05	69.54	0.58	1.66E-02	0.0001	2.90	5.61	7226	609
CT-7 4D	355	0.09	5.36E-04	1.12E-03	2.11E-05	79.71	1.58	1.33E-02	0.0003	-4.85	8.61	6703	754
CT-7 4E	355	0.09	5.59E-04	1.14E-03	1.22E-05	74.89	0.94	1.38E-02	0.0002	-0.78	14.68	6512	853
ISO-4 (weighted average)												6717	340

Table 1. Uranium/ thorium radiometric isotopic data and ages for sample CT-7. Isochrons are abbreviated as ISO and represent the weighted average of 3-5 subsamples along the same growth layer.



Distance from base (mm)

Figure 4.1. Chronology of CT-7 versus distance from the base in mm. Ages are based on U/Th dating. Each data point represent the weighted average of 3-5 subsamples along the same growth layer. The associated errors with each data point is represented by error bars. A linear trendline was fit to the data.



Figure 4.2. δ^{18} O time series with values ranging from ~-6.5 to -10‰. The gray line represents the raw data and the bold black line represents the 7-pt running average. A significant peak occurs at ~7000 years B.P. Values vary about a consistent mean of ~-8.5‰.



Figure 4.3. δ^{13} C time series with values ranging from ~-7 to -12‰ with the most significant peak occuring at ~7000 years B.P. The gray line represents the raw data and the bold black line represents the 7-pt running average.



Figure 4.4. Grayscale time series with values ranging from ~100-220. The gray line represents the raw data and the bold black line represents the 215-pt running average. Grayscale values are a result of digital image processing, in which sample CT-7 was illuminated with UV light and then converted into a grayscale record. A value of zero represents white and a value of 255 represents black.



Figure 4.5. Spectral analysis of the δ^{18} O time series illustrating the 99, 95, 90, and 85% confidence intervals (from top to bottom). The numbers above the peaks represent the years of statistical significance.



Figure 4.6. Spectral analysis of the δ^{13} C series illustrating the 99, 95, 90, and 85% confidence intervals (from top to bottom). The numbers above the peaks represent the years of statistical significance.



Figure 4.7. Spectral analysis of the grayscale time series illustrating the 99, 95, 90, and 85% confidence intervals (from top to bottom). The numbers above the peaks represent the years of statistical significance.



Figure 4.8. Wavelet analysis on δ^{18} O time series. A) Detrended normalized data in standard deviation units. B) Wavelet power spectrum for 3.8 year sampled δ^{18} O values. White contours represent 95% confidence interval.



Figure 4.9. Wavelet analysis on δ^{13} C time series. A) Detrended normalized data in standard deviation units. B) Wavelet power spectrum for 3.8 year sampled δ^{13} C values. White contours indicate the 95% confidence interval.



Figure 4.10. Wavelet analysis on grayscale time series. A) Detrended normalized data in standard deviation units. B) Wavelet power spectrum for 1 year sampled grayscale values. White contours indicate the 95% confidence interval. C) 2-8 yr scale average time series. Dotted line represents the 95% confidence interval. Data above the dashed line indicates statistically significant variance.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

ENSO and the PDO

The δ^{18} O values obtained from CT-7 are interpreted as a rainfall proxy and are used to evaluate if El Niño became more active since ~7ka (Rodbell et al., 1999; Moy et al., 2002; Sandweiss et al., 2001). The δ^{18} O values show rainfall varied about a consistent mean with no large isotopic shifts in δ^{18} O values (Figure 5.1 A). This suggests there was no significant rainfall regime shift throughout the growth of stalagmite CT-7. A climatic regime shift is defined as a transition from one climatic state to another, within a period substantially shorter than the lengths of each climatic state (Minobe, 1997). A major regime shift would have a noticeable shift in the δ^{18} O values and/or a shift in variability, from low to high frequency variability (or vice versa), after 7000 yrs B.P., but no such shift is evident.

To evaluate the relationship between rainfall δ^{18} O values and ENSO events, the δ^{18} O time series was compared with an El Niño proxy record spanning 15 ka from Laguna Pallcacocha, Ecuador (Figure 5.1 D) (Rodbell et al., 1999; Moy et al., 2002). In the Laguna Pallacocha record,

the deposition of clastic laminae were suggested to be a direct response to slope erosion associated with heavy El Niño rainfall events (Rodbell et al., 1999). The Pacific coast of South America experiences anomalous wet conditions during El Niño years due to the southern position of the ITCZ. After 7000 yrs B.P., the Laguna Pallcacocha record shows an increase in clastic laminae deposits, and an increase in ENSO-band variance, but the CT-7 δ^{18} O values do not show an increase in δ^{18} O variability after 7000 yrs B.P. A possible explanation for the lack of correlation between the two records could be that the wet season may have become shorter due to the southward migration of the ITCZ, but the intensity of rainfall and thus the δ^{18} O values remained the same. Although I observe a δ^{18} O peak at 7 ka, representing the most intense dry period, there is no evidence for enhanced δ^{18} O variability after this time, as would be expected if El Niño became more dominant. Spectral analysis of the CT-7 δ^{18} O values display decadal to multidecadal variability, indicating that low frequency ENSO-band variance was present throughout the middle Holocene.

Many researchers suggested that modern ENSO events began between 7000 and 5000 yrs B.P. and have increase in frequency and intensity to the present (Sandweiss et al., 2001; Rodbell et al., 1999; Moy et al., 2002). Sandweiss et al. (2001) suggested that modern ENSO events were absent before 5800 yrs B.P. in Peru, but spectral analysis of CT-7 grayscale values indicate decadal to multidecadal climate variability

throughout the mid-Holocene. Speleothem luminescence, which I interpret as a rainfall/moisture proxy record, displays dark dense bands representing slow drip rates and drier conditions, and white porous bands indicative of increased drip rates and wetter conditions. An important feature of the normalized/detrended grayscale time series (Figure 4.10 A) is a change in character of variability at ~7ka. Although previous studies suggested an increase in ENSO-band variance after 7ka (Koutavas et al., 2002; Otto-Bleisner, 1999; Tudhope et al., 2001; Clement et al., 2000), CT-7 grayscale analysis indicates greater variability before this time. Despite the evidence from South America suggesting that ENSO was weak or absent prior to ~5800 yrs B.P. (Sandweiss et al., 2001), the CT-7 grayscale time series suggest that ENSO-band variance was occurring throughout the mid-Holocene.

The coupled interactions of the ocean-atmosphere system associated with ENSO occur on both annual and seasonal cycles, and are also affected by extra-tropical forcings (Clement et al., 1999). Evidence of an active PDO during the middle Holocene is suggested by spectral analysis of the δ^{18} O time series, which illustrates spectral power occurring at decadal to multi-decadal periodicities (Figure 4.5). Minobe (1999, 2000) used wavelet analysis of SST and SLP from the North Pacific (north of 20° N), the epicenter of the PDO, and found the most statistical power occurring in the 15-25 year and 50-70 year periodicities. The PDO produces similar climate anomalies as those produced with ENSO

variations, though not as extreme (Mantua and Hare, 2002). In Central America and northern South America, the warm phase of the PDO coincide with dry periods, much like the warm phase of ENSO (Mantua and Hare, 2002). Although there are many dendroclimatic reconstructions of the PDO (e.g. Arrigo et al., 2001; Biondi et al., 2001; Gray et al., 2003), the CT-7 δ^{18} O time series indicates rainfall variability on decadal to multidecadal timescale, suggesting that the PDO was active at modern periodicities during the middle Holocene. Decadal to centennial scale climate variability is present in the δ^{18} O record of forams from a Santa Barbara Basin sediment core, and provides supporting evidence from modern PDO periodicities during the mid-Holocene (Friddell et al., 2003).

The main evidence for an active PDO during the middle Holocene is suggested by wavelet analysis of the grayscale time series, which illustrates statistically significant variance occurring at the two main PDO periodicities, 15-25 and 50-70 years (Minobe, 1997), throughout the interval of growth. Despite the lack of PDO periodicities in the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C wavelet analysis, the presence of PDO-band variance in the grayscale time series is interpreted as indicating that the PDO was active throughout the middle Holocene.

Solar Variability

Variations in solar activity and intensity are recorded by Δ^{14} C variations (Stuiver and Braziunas, 1993) from tree rings and other proxy data, and has been suggested as the primary control on centennial to decadal scale changes in rainfall and intensity of the Indian Ocean monsoon (Neff et al., 2001). Although there is no direct correlation between the atmospheric Δ^{14} C data and the CT-7 δ^{18} O values, spectral analysis of the δ^{18} O time series indicates statistically significant power at 10 and 191 years, which are similar to the 11 and 206 year solar cycles, and may be a result of solar forced variations in atmospheric Δ^{14} C values. Minor variations in solar variability could be amplified due to changes in atmospheric and/or oceanic circulation (Neff et al., 2001) and therefore, may result in some feedback mechanism that can act together with ENSO producing regional climatic anomalies in Central America.

Atlantic Climate Variability

Although modern climate variability in the Pacific Ocean is dominated by ENSO and the PDO, Costa Rica may also be affected by Atlantic Ocean variability. For example, ENSO forces weaker Atlantic SST anomalies with a lagged response of approximately 8 months (Hastenrath, 1978). Evidence from GCM modeling studies suggests that the Atlantic Ocean is also capable of forcing rainfall anomalies throughout northeast South America. When warm SST anomalies occur

in the north tropical Atlantic, northeast South America experiences dry conditions, similarly to Costa Rica. Therefore, climate variability in the Atlantic, such as the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO), may also affect climate in Costa Rica.

Carbon Isotopes

Paleoenvironmental interpretations based on speleothem δ^{13} C values are extremely complex due to the many factors that can influence δ^{13} C values. Both equilibrium and kinetic fractionation can alter the $\delta^{13}C$ values. Although the raw δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O correlation show a weak relationship most likely due to high frequency noise ($r^2=0.36$), the 7-pt running averaged δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O values are highly correlative (r²=0.68), suggesting a common forcing mechanism for the covariation. Covariation between the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values is likely to be due to variations in soil respiration rates. I interpret higher (lower) δ^{13} C values coincide with drier (wetter) conditions inferred from the δ^{18} O record, which is a common relationship observed in other tropical stalagmites (Burns et al., 2002). Drier periods may result in a thinner water film on the tip of the stalagmite due to slower drip rates into the cave, enhancing CO₂ degassing and enriching the δ^{13} C values. In regions where the amount effect is the dominant isotopic control, reduced rainfall increases the δ^{18} O values which may be enhanced by evaporation within the cave in correlation with δ^{13} C values (Fleitmann et al., 2004), although

evaporation within poorly ventilated tropical cave systems, such as Terciopelo cave, is not likely. It may be possible that the δ^{13} C values in speleothems are more sensitive indicators of climate variability than δ^{18} O values in the tropics, as suggested by increased variability in the δ^{13} C time series (Figure 4.3) compared to the δ^{18} O time series (Figure 4.2)

Similarly, δ^{13} C variations have been linked to variations in ENSO strength and frequency, producing variations in tropical rainfall δ^{18} O values which forces changes in biological respiration rates in the soil zone (Frappier et al., 2002; Burns et al, 2002). δ^{13} C values from a speleothem in Belize reveal a strong correlation to the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), providing evidence that ENSO-related changes in the terrestrial carbon cycle can be recorded by speleothems, despite the fact that Belize does not experience a change in weather patterns commonly associated with the SOI (Frappier et al., 2002). The CT-7 δ^{13} C values indicate that although the climatic response to ENSO may be weak, as suggested by the δ^{18} O values, the ecological system may be more sensitive to climatic variability (Frappier et al., 2002).

Covariation

Figure 5.2 illustrates that δ^{18} O, δ^{13} C, and grayscale values vary in a consistent manner, which are interpreted as being forced by changes in the amount of precipitation. The presence of common peaks (labeled #1-12) in the δ^{18} O, δ^{13} C, and grayscale time series, imply that there is a

common forcing mechanism responsible for the observed covariation. If all three proxies display similar patterns of change and/or trends, then it is likely that a common environmental variable is involved (Curtis et al., 1998). Rainfall variability is interpreted as the dominant force affecting grayscale values, and therefore, grayscale values can also be used as a moisture proxy. The observed covariation between the δ^{18} O, δ^{13} C, and grayscale values is interpreted as being forced by rainfall, such that during El Niño events and/or the warm phase of the PDO, drier conditions occur on the Pacific slope of Costa Rica (Waylen et al., 1996). Drier conditions (high δ^{18} O values) lead to a decrease in soil moisture and a decrease in biological respiration (high δ^{13} C values). As a result of a drier climate, less water percolates through the soil zone and into the cave, resulting in darker/denser laminae (high grayscale values).



Figure 5.1. Comparison between the Laguna Pallcacocha ENSO red intensity record (Moy et al., 2002) and CT-7. A) CT-7 δ^{18} O values with 7-pt running average in bold. B) CT-7 grayscale values with 215-pt running average in bold. C) CT-7 δ^{13} C values with 7-pt running average in bold. D) Laguna Pallcacocha, Ecuador sediment core red intensity record with 7-pt running average in bold.



Figure 5.2. Comparisons of all three detrended/normalized data sets with a 7-pt running average superimposed for the δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C time series and a 215-pt running average for the grayscale time series, which illustrate correlative peaks labeled by #1-12. A) Grayscale time series. B) δ^{18} O time series. C) δ^{13} C time series. Data shown in standard deviation units.
CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

Variations in ENSO and the PDO impact climate worldwide due to changes in the heat budget of the tropical Pacific, which can disrupt weather patterns in remote regions due to the complex teleconnections of the ocean-atmosphere system. The middle Holocene is a key time period in which many proxy records suggest the onset of modern ENSO conditions (Sandweiss et al., 2001, Rodbell et al., 1999; Moy et al., 2002).

Speleothems from tropical areas are ideal geologic material that can be used as terrestrial paleoclimate proxies because they can be precisely dated using U-series isotopes and may grow continuously for several thousand years. Speleothem-based ENSO paleoclimate records can provide high-resolution records that extend the climate record to prehistorical times and can elucidate Pacific climate variability.

During the mid-Holocene, proxy evidence and modeling studies suggest a suppressed and/or weakened ENSO compared to the modern ENSO cycle (Clement et al, 2000; Tudhope et al., 2001; Otto-Bleisner, 1999), but this study suggests that in Costa Rica, and most likely throughout much of Central America, low-frequency ENSO and the PDO

persisted throughout the mid-Holocene, from ~7890 and 6490 yrs B.P. The δ^{18} O and grayscale values from stalagmite CT-7 suggest there was no significant regime shift at ~ 7 ka, rather persistent decadal to multidecadal variability is occurring throughout the sample. Lowfrequency ENSO and/or the PDO seem to be operating in Costa Rica throughout the mid-Holocene.

Despite the complex processes and mechanisms that influence δ^{13} C values in speleothem calcite, the δ^{13} C values obtained from stalagmite CT-7 most likely record vegetation type and variations in the amount of biological respiration, If this is the case, the δ^{13} C values may be a more sensitive climate proxy than δ^{18} O values in the tropics. Grayscale values are assumed to be dependent on the amount of infiltrating water into the cave system and can provide an additional proxy for infiltration/drip rate into the cave.

A very prominent relationship exists between the δ^{18} O, δ^{13} C, and grayscale values (Figure 5.4), suggesting a common geological process or mechanism linking all three proxies together. Tropical climate variability is dominated by ENSO, such that during El Niño events in Costa Rica, enhanced orographic rainfall occurs on the Caribbean slope, while drier conditions occur on the Pacific slope (Waylen et al., 1996). Based on the amount effect (Dansgaard, 1964), drier conditions forced by El Niño produce higher δ^{18} O values. Less moisture leads to a decrease in biological respiration rates and produces higher δ^{13} C values. Due to drier

conditions, less water infiltrates through the soil zone, limestone bedrock, and into the cave system, producing slower drip rates into the cave and darker/denser calcite layers.

Since climate in the tropics is relatively stable throughout the year, the dominant control on climate variability in Costa Rica would be ENSO and/or the PDO. The paleoclimate record generated from stalagmite CT-7 demonstrates decadal rainfall variability throughout the interval of growth of CT-7, which can be interpreted as ENSO and PDO band variance.

Variations in the strength and frequency of ENSO and the PDO impact climate worldwide, due to the complex interaction between the ocean-atmosphere system in the tropical Pacific Ocean. Presently, ENSO operates on a 2-7 year frequency (Moy et al., 2002), but the paleoclimate record suggests that throughout the Holocene, ENSO has varied in both strength and frequency. By elucidating past variations in the ENSO cycle, the future will benefit from better ENSO predictions which can affect societies around the world. Determining ENSO and PDO variability throughout the Holocene will help resolve the history and dynamics of tropical Pacific climate variability.

APPENDIX I

STANDARD PROCEDURE - CARBONATE U-SERIES CHEMISTRY (Modified from the University of Minnesota and applied at University of New Mexico)

1. Add a few drops of clean water to 30 ml teflon beaker (to avoid dispersing powder).

2. Add sample (~200 to 300 mg) then add enough water to cover sample (no more).

3. Add drops of 15N HNO₃ until fizzing stops.

4. Spike sample (~1 g of spike) - see spiking procedures.

5. Dry down.

6. Add a few drops of 15N HNO₃ until just wet. May need to reduce volume by heating.

7. Add a couple of drops of perchloric acid. Dry down.

8. Re-dissolve in 2N HCl (~2-4 ml), then add enough H_2O to ensure that the sample is entirely dissolved. (WARNING - do not use 6N HCl during this step.)

9. Transfer solution to centrifuge (CF) tubes. Use the 12 ml tubes.

10. Clean the 30 ml beaker with 6N HCl, then H_2O ; ~1 ml at a time warming on a hot plate. Do this as you are centrifuging the sample after co-precipitation.

11. Add about 2 drops of Fe-solution.

12. Add water to make solution volume ~5 ml. (do not need to be exact)

13. Co-precipitate U & Th with ammonium hydroxide (NH₄OH). Add

drops of NH₄OH until pH=7. You will see the Fe coagulate and precipitate.

14. Make sure that centrifuge canisters are balanced to within ~0.10 g. 15. After 4 minute CF at 2700 rpm, decant solution (do not loose precipitate!).

16. Wash with H_2O (add H_2O and stir with teflon rod), then add 1 drop of NH_4OH .

17. Repeat 4 minute centrifugation and decant solution.

18. Add ~4-5 drops 15N HNO₃ to dissolve precipitate and transfer back to 30 ml beaker.

19. Dry EASY.

-

20. Add another 3-4 drops 15N HNO₃ and dry down.

21. Sample ready to dissolve in 1 column volume 7N HNO₃ for loading into columns.

Elution Sample size: 200 - 300 mg. Columns: large = 500μ l, small = 150μ l. Column and resin wash: $6 \text{ CV} 6 \text{N} \text{ HCl}, 6 \text{ CV} \text{ H}_2 \text{O}$, Clean Column reservoir: fill to brim with H₂O, let resin settle and empty water Column conditioning: 6 CV 7N HNO₃. 1st Stage of Column Work large column = $500 \mu l$ Load 1 CV 7N HNO₃ Clean 0.75 CV 7N HNO3 Clean 0.75 CV 7N HNO3 clean 30 ml beaker with ~1 ml of 6N HCl on hot plate, then with ~ 1 ml water on hot plate. Rinse well with water. Collect Th 4 CV 6N HCl (1 CV, then 3 CV)dry down Collect U $1 \text{ CV H}_2\text{O}$ 3 CV HBr (1N) dry down Add 3-4 drops 15N HNO₃, dry again easy. Repeat. 2nd Stage of Column Work small column = $150 \ \mu l$ Load (Th) 1 CV 7N HNO₃ Clean 1 CV 7N HNO₃ Clean 1 CV 7N HNO₃ optional Clean 1 CV 7N HNO₃ optional Collect Th 3 CV 6N HCl Do not clean beaker! (1 CV, then 2 CV) dry down Clean 10 CV H₂O Condition 6 CV 7N HNO₃ Load (U) 1 CV 7N HNO₃ Clean 2 CV 7N HNO₃ Clean (optional) 2 CV 6N HCl

Collect U 1 CV H₂O Do not clean beaker! 3 CV HBr (1N) dry down Add 3-4 drops 15N HNO₃, dry again easy.

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APPENDIX II

STABLE ISOTOPE DATA

Dist from				Dist. from				Dist. from			
base (mm)	δ1 3C	δ1 8Ο	age	base (mm)	δ 13C	δ 18Ο	age	base (mm)	δ 13C	δ 18O	age
1	-8.21	-8.42	7895	59	-10.50	-8,85	7675	116	-10.39	-8.72	7458
2	-9.06	-8.67	7891	60	-9.75	-8.01	7671	117	-10.62	-8.69	7455
3	-10.10	-8.47	7887	61	-9.63	-7.89	7667	118	-11.63	-9.14	7451
4	-11.24	-8.87	7883	62	-10.20	-8.17	7663	119	-10.24	-8.76	7447
5	-10.26	-8.72	7879	63	-10.35	-8.02	7659	120	-10.08	-8.68	7443
7	-11.09	-8.93	7872	64	-10.04	-8.07	7656	121	-10.08	-7.98	7439
8	-10.67	-8.35	7868	65	-10.62	-8.49	7652	122	-9.98	-8.39	7436
9	-10.59	-8.09	7864	66	-10.19	-8.09	7648	123	-9.29	-8.24	7432
10	-10.61	-8.57	7860	67	-11.03	-8.84	7644	124	-9.17	-8.79	7428
11	-11.03	-9.32	7857	68	-9.99	-7.87	7640	125	-9.53	-8.82	7424
12	-10.89	-8.80	7853	69	-10.81	-8.09	7637	126	-10.21	-8.57	7420
13	-10.71	-8.59	7849	70	-11.25	-8.70	7633	127	-10.09	-8.21	7417
14	-10.24	-8.35	7845	71	-10.56	-8.53	7629	128	-10.12	-8.30	7413
15	-11.35	-8.69	7841	72	-11.12	-8.59	7625	129	-9.75	-8.93	7409
16	-10.09	-8.11	7838	73	-10.75	-8.64	7621	130	-9.57	-8.67	7405
17	-10.62	-9.15	7834	74	-10.30	-8.31	7618	131	-9.85	-8.52	7402
18	-11.51	-8.62	7830	75	-10.96	-8.52	7614	132	-10.37	-8.60	7398
19	-11.19	-8.90	7826	76	-9.36	-7.31	7610	133	-10.71	-8,59	7394
20	-10.71	-8.52	7822	77	-10.34	-8.61	7606	134	-10.58	-8.51	7390
21	-11.37	-8.76	7819	78	-9.36	-8.44	7603	135	-9.57	-8.53	7386
22	-10.63	-8.31	7815	79	-10.19	-7.72	7599	136	-9.25	-8.21	7383
23	-9.89	-8.20	7811	80	-9.68	-8.49	7595	137	-9.01	-6.37	7379
24	-10.93	-8 66	7807	81	-9.52	-8 21	7591	138	-10.02	-8.58	7375
25	-10.30	-8.44	7804	82	-9 84	-8.17	7587	139	-10.19	-8 71	7371
26	-10.85	-8.01	7800	83	-8 93	-7.48	7584	140	-10 32	-8 66	7367
27	-11 60	-8 95	7796	84	-8 30	-8.02	7580	141	-9.93	-8.55	7364
28	-11.94	-8.82	7792	85	-9.60	-8.38	7576	142	-10.62	-8.89	7360
29	-11.17	-8.09	7788	86	-9.41	-8.40	7572	143	-10.29	-8.73	7356
30	-11 12	-8 67	7785	87	-9 47	-8 17	7568	144	-10.00	-8.96	7352
31	-11 11	-8.34	7781	88	-10.05	-8 45	7565	145	-9.53	-8 29	7348
32	-10.39	-8.38	7777	89	-10.48	-8 64	7561	146	-11 12	-9.12	7345
33	-10.62	-8 41	7773	90	-10.04	-8 47	7557	147	-11 07	-8.95	7341
34	-11 04	-8 44	7769	91	-10.81	-8 44	7553	148	-10.60	-8.53	7337
35	-11 37	-8 46	7766	92	-10 48	-8.58	7549	149	-8.68	-7 82	7333
36	-9.83	-7 78	7762	93	-10 70	-8 64	7546	150	-9 20	-8.33	7329
37	-10 89	-8.27	7758	94	-10 66	-8 75	7542	151	-7.91	-8 10	7326
38	-11 27	-8 60	7754	95	-8 55	-7 31	7538	152	-9.96	-8 71	7322
39	-11.00	-8.72	7750	96	-10 42	-8.32	7534	153	-9.37	-8.09	7318
40	-9.53	-8.30	7747	97	-10.52	-10.08	7530	154	-9.28	-7 76	7314
41	-10 15	-8 10	7743	98	-10.19	-8 31	7527	155	-9.89	-8 41	7311
42	-10.44	-8 30	7739	99	-9.51	-7.80	7523	156	-9.36	-8.64	7307
43	-9.61	-8 30	7735	100	-10 67	-8 28	7519	157	-9.09	-8 14	7303
40	-10 19	-8 45	7731	101	-10.42	-8.08	7515	158	-8.59	-6.91	7299
45	-10.97	-8 70	7728	102	-10.20	-8.22	7512	159	-0.00	-7 92	7295
46	-10.77	-8.31	7724	103	-10.20	-8.60	7508	160	-9.17	-8.28	7292
40	-10.66	-8.05	7720	104	-9.88	-8.61	7504	161	-9.87	-8.00	7288
48	-11.06	-8.42	7716	105	-9.00	-8.33	7500	162	-9.51	-7.93	7284
49	-10.68	-8 38	7712	106	-9.50	-8.52	7496	163	-9.73	-8.27	7280
50	-10.00	-8 24	7709	107	-9.55	-8.12	7403	164	-9.75	-8 13	7276
50	-10.27	-0.24	7705	108	-0.04	-0.12	7480	165	-9.07 _8.94	-0.13	7273
52	-11.19	-8 90	7701	109	-9.60	-0.21	7485	166	-0.04	-0.12	7269
53	-10.79	-8 37	7697	110	-9 75	-8 41	7481	167	-0.20	-9.13	7265
54	-11 73	-9.07	7694	111	-10 27	-8.95	7477	168	-10.00	-8.52	7261
55	-10 31	-8 24	7690	112	-10 45	-8 70	7474	169	-9.51	-8.44	7257
55	-10.01	-0.24	7686	113	-10.45	-0.70	7470	170	-0.01	-0.44	7254
57	-9.21	-0.20	7682	114	-10.37	-0.72	7466	170	-9.42	-0.70	7250
58	-9.02	-8 47	7678	115	-10.05	-8 57	7462	172	-10.49	-8.47	7246

Note: $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ values represented in ‰ notation relative to VPDB

Dist from				Dist. from				Dist. from			
base (mm)	δ13C	δ 18Ο	age	base (mm)	δ 13C	δ 18Ο	age	base (mm)	δ 13C	δ 18O	age
173	-9.60	-7.95	7242	231	-8.97	-7.54	7022	288	-9.71	-7.70	6806
174	-9.09	-8.01	7238	232	-8.45	-7.37	7018	289	-9.91	-8.01	6802
175	-8.18	-8.02	7235	233	-9.04	-7.74	7015	290	-10.15	-7.87	6799
176	-7.92	-7.83	7231	234	-7.81	-7.68	7011	291	-9.41	-7.67	6795
177	-8.57	-7.67	7227	235	-9.06	-8.33	7007	292	-10.35	-8.20	6791
178	-8.80	-8.50	7223	236	-7.24	-7.34	7003	293	-11.03	-8.59	6787
179	-8.42	-7.96	7219	237	-6.85	-7.61	7000	294	-10.88	-8.52	6783
180	-10.13	-8.42	7216	238	-8.73	-7.83	6996	295	-10.22	-7.96	6780
181	-9.34	-8.43	7212	239	-9.09	-8.13	6992	296	-9.94	-7.43	6776
182	-7.88	-7.66	7208	240	-8.34	-7.63	6988	297	-9.60	-8.39	6772
183	-7.64	-7.72	7204	241	-8.59	-7.61	6984	298	-9.16	-7.79	6768
184	-8.63	-8.22	7201	242	-9.03	-8.24	6981	299	-9.04	-7.69	6764
185	-9.37	-8.43	7197	243	-8.35	-8.04	6977	300	-10.14	-8.03	6761
186	-8.05	-7.99	7193	244	-9.22	-8.28	6973	301	-10.30	-8.40	6757
187	-9.35	-8.35	7189	245	-9.64	-8.07	6969	302	-10.73	-8.57	6753
188	-8.86	-7.86	7185	246	-10.11	-9.15	6965	303	-10.45	-8.37	6749
189	-8.56	-8.03	7182	247	-10.12	-7.90	6962	304	-9.35	-8.40	6745
190	-8.70	-8.08	7178	248	-9.77	-8.10	6958	305	-7.95	-7.75	6742
191	-7.50	-7.38	7174	249	-9.32	-8.10	6954	306	-8.75	-8.60	6738
192	-8.43	-7.44	7170	250	-10.49	-8.58	6950	307	-9.10	-8.28	6734
193	-9.11	-7.63	7166	251	-10.17	-8.38	6946	308	-9.07	-8.65	6730
195	-8.87	-7.63	7159	252	-9.55	-8.52	6943	309	-9.31	-8.68	6726
196	-8.99	-7.57	7155	253	-10.62	-8.43	6939	310	-8.61	-8.30	6723
197	-9.31	-8.33	7151	254	-11.61	-8.93	6935	311	-9.32	-7.95	6719
198	-9.45	-9.03	7147	255	-10.85	-8.69	6931	312	-9.54	-8.27	6715
199	-9.17	-8.31	7144	256	-10.32	-8.53	6927	313	-9.47	-8.11	6711
200	-10.17	-9.02	/140	257	-10.99	-8.36	6924	314	-9.98	-8.70	6708
201	-11.04	-8.84	7136	258	-10.77	-8.93	6920	315	-9.40	-8.59	6704
202	-9.50	-8.27	7132	259	-10.04	-8.27	6916	316	-8.65	-8.94	6700
203	-8.97	-7.94	7128	260	-10.33	-8.19	6912	317	-8.18	-7.76	0696
204	-9.87	-8.90	7125	261	-11.02	-8.92	6909	318	-7.89	-8.25	6692
205	-10.21	-9.20	7121	262	-9.43	-8.33	6905	319	-8.35	-8.87	6689
206	-10.63	-10.00	7117	203	-9.74	-8.24	6901 6807	320	-1.21	-7.39	6691
207	-9.13	-0.39	7110	204	-10.34	-0.00	6903	321	-0.17	-0.19	6677
200	-9.00	-0.01	7106	200	-9.02	-0.33	6800	322	-9.00	-0.34	6672
209	-9.00	-0.72	7100	200	-9.47	-0.11	6006	323	10.20	-0.12	6670
210	-10.07	-9.30	7102	207	-9.90	-7.94	6000	324	11 46	-0.52	6666
211	-9.00	-0.00	7090	200	-10.01	-7.97	6878	326	-11.40	-9.09	6662
212	-9.42	-0.09	7034	209	-9.02	-1.05	6874	320	-11.51	-0.01	6658
213	-8.60	-0.52	7091	270	-10.00	-0.05	6871	328	-10.72	-0.57	6654
214	-0.03	-9.00	7083	277	-10.00	-7.07	6867	320	-10.72	-8.03	6651
216	-0.27	-8.22	7070	272	-0.04	-8.23	6863	330	-0.00	-8.65	6647
210	-8.58	-0.22	7075	273	-10.02	-0.23	6859	331	-8.46	-8.14	6643
218	-9 10	-7 52	7072	275	-10.83	-8.09	6855	332	-8 67	-8.14	6639
219	-8.68	-7.51	7068	276	-9.60	-7.77	6852	333	-10.10	-9.02	6635
220	-8.73	-7.85	7064	277	-10.06	-7.36	6848	334	-10.54	-9.30	6632
221	-9.51	-8.06	7060	278	-10.31	-8.59	6844	335	-10.75	-8.31	6628
222	-9.03	-8.29	7056	279	-10.07	-7.94	6840	336	-11.45	-9.07	6624
223	-8.33	-7.94	7053	280	-10.55	-8.68	6836	337	-9.97	-8.40	6620
224	-8.12	-7.28	7049	281	-10.54	-10.17	6833	338	-10.25	-8.43	6617
225	-7.61	-6.69	7045	282	-9.20	-7.64	6829	339	-10.18	-8.27	6613
226	-8.68	-7.65	7041	283	-9.92	-7.67	6825	340	-10.47	-8.33	6609
227	-8.39	-7.54	7037	284	-9.53	-7.96	6821	341	-11.77	-9.75	6605
228	-8.30	-7.50	7034	285	-9.51	-7.49	6818	342	-11.11	-8.94	6601
229	-8.00	-7.49	7030	286	-9.67	-7.58	6814	343	-11.20	-8.82	6598
230	-9.05	-7.60	7026	287	-10.10	-7.90	6810	344	-11.43	-9.11	6594

70

.

Dist from			
base (mm)	δ13C	δ 18O	age
345	-11.16	-8.76	6590
346	-11.14	-8.21	6586
347	-11.13	-8.49	6582
348	-10.96	-8.28	6579
349	-9.78	-8.09	6575
350	-10.07	-8.12	6571
351	-7.93	-8.00	6567
352	-9.26	-8.48	6563
353	-9.71	-8.26	6560
354	-8.51	-8.05	6556
355	- 9.10	-8.09	6552
356	-9.59	-8.06	6548
357	-10.26	-8.44	6544
358	-9.72	-8.39	6541
359	-9.31	-8.20	6537
360	-8.46	-7.86	6533
361	-8.89	-7.98	6529
362	-8.74	-8.19	6525
363	-9.22	-8.55	6522
364	-9.10	-8.38	6518
365	-10.99	-8.57	6514
366	-10.61	-8.30	6510
367	-10.13	-8.06	6507
368	-9.81	-8.09	6503
369	-9.89	-8.11	6499
370	-9.46	-7.77	6495
371	-8.22	-7.29	6491
372	-6.84	-7.16	6488

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