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A multi-proxy stalagmite reconstruction of the climate of southwestern North America from the Middle to Late Holocene

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A MULTI-PROXY STALAGMITE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE CLIMATE OF SOUTHWESTERN NORTH AMERICA FROM THE MIDDLE TO LATE

HOLOCENE

BY

CHRISSY ALLEN

B.S. Geological Sciences, University of Florida, 2014

THESIS

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A MULTI-PROXY STALAGMITE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE CLIMATE OF SOUTHWESTERN NORTH AMERICA FROM THE MIDDLE TO LATE HOLOCENE

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Chrissy Allen B.S., Geological Sciences, University of Florida, 2014 M.S., Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of New Mexico, 2017

ABSTRACT

The seasonal balance of moisture has a significant effect on natural ecosystems and culture in southwestern North America (SWNA), and it thus is necessary to understand the cause of this moisture variability in order to better predict the scope of potential future changes. Studies of modern SWNA climate indicate that most of the annual moisture at this site comes from monsoonal summer precipitation and a lesser amount of Pacific winter moisture. The climate of the Holocene is of particular interest for constraining natural variability of interglacial climates prior to any anthropogenic influence. An overall transition to a wetter Late Holocene climate in SWNA has been established by different climate proxies, and a definable shift in climate around 4.2 ka is observed in records from various locations around the world. However, the lack of highly resolved records in SWNA limits our ability to determine the mechanisms and timing of this climate shift in this region. In this study we present a high-resolution U-Th dated speleothem record from ~ 6500 to ~ 1000 yr BP of oxygen and carbon stable isotopes, Sr and Ba trace elements, grayscale, and $^{234}U^{238}U$ isotope ratios from two caves in southeastern New Mexico. Our data suggests the climate of the Middle Holocene was warmer and dominated by monsoonal precipitation, and the Late Holocene was cooler

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and experienced an increase in winter precipitation. Our record further suggests this shift occurred around 4.2 ka. High-frequency climate variability observed in SWNA during the Late Holocene has been attributed to an active ENSO/PDO system, yet this was limited by lack of direct comparison with the Middle Holocene. Spectral and wavelet analyses from this study show interdecadal and decadal variation observed in the Late Holocene that is not observed in the Middle Holocene, suggesting that strengthened ENSO/PDO activity is responsible for the increased moisture observed in SWNA during the Late Holocene by increasing winter precipitation.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

How the earth will respond to increasing human-induced warming is one of the fundamental questions facing society globally, and how the response and impact of these rapid changes are likely to vary regionally is equally important. The impact of climate change on southwestern North America (SWNA) is expected to be significant if not severe given past records of climate-driven changes on the environment and culture (Hodell et al., 1995; deMenocal, 2001; Polyak and Asmerom, 2001; Haug et al., 2003; Asmerom et al., 2013). Understanding and characterizing past climates is an essential tool for predicting the effects of future climate variability. Of particular importance in this region is effective moisture, defined as precipitation minus evaporation. Previous speleothem, lake sediment, and tree ring studies (Antevs, 1955; Betancourt et al., 2001; Polyak and Asmerom, 2001; Menking et al., 2003; Rasmussen et al., 2006; Asmerom et al., 2007; Anderson et al., 2008) have documented significant climate variability in SWNA during the Holocene. A paleoclimate record of this time period from speleothem growth and oxygen isotope time-series shows a transition from a warmer and more arid early Middle Holocene to a cooler and wetter Late Holocene in SWNA (Polyak and Asmerom, 2001; Asmerom et al., 2007). The differences between the Middle and Late Holocene are subtle and require well-dated highly resolved records sensitive to these small differences.

SWNA has two rainy seasons (Metcalfe et al., 2015) with distinct summer versus winter moisture sources. The summer North American Monsoon (NAM) (Adams and Comrie, 1997) precipitation is sourced from the Gulf of Mexico and Gulf of California, whereas the winter moisture is derived from the Pacific Ocean. It is necessary to

understand how the strength of these sources of moisture and their balance have varied with climatic changes over time in order to better determine how the effective moisture will respond to changes in future climate variability. The objective of this study is to construct a high-resolution climate record for the Middle to Late Holocene in SWNA and determine when a climatic transition occurred, and discuss the forcing mechanisms responsible for the transition observed in the speleothem record from SWNA. In addition, given that the Middle Holocene was notably warmer, this period should provide crucial information that can be used to predict climate sensitivities to future warming temperatures. This study uses three stalagmites from two different caves in the Guadalupe Mountains, New Mexico, U.S.A. that spans a period from 6500 to 1000 years before present (yr BP). The proxies represented by these stalagmites are oxygen and carbon stable isotopes, growth rates (banding and hiatuses), grayscale, elemental concentrations, and ²³⁴U/²³⁸U isotope ratios expressed as permil (%) δ^{234} U.

CHAPTER 2 BACKGROUND

2.1 Speleothem formation: from rainwater to soil to stalagmites

Speleothems have become essential for reconstructing Earth's climatic teleconnections because of their ability to produce continuous precise and absolute highresolution chronologies and terrestrial paleoclimate records. Unlike ice cores they provide records from low latitudes and unlike marine cores they provide records of terrestrial climate. Preserved in them are an abundance of measurable paleoenvironmental proxies that are used in this study such as stable isotopes, trace elements, and growth bands that are used to interpret climatic and hydrologic processes of the past. Speleothem calcite deposition begins when rainwater infiltrates through the soil above the cave. As water flows through the epikarst and bedrock it dissolves $CO₂$ from plant/soil respiration and from the decay of organic matter and produces carbonic acid (Eq. 2.1).

$$
H_2O + CO_{2(g)} \rightarrow H_2CO_{3(aq)}
$$
\n(2.1)

After water moves through the soil it reaches limestone bedrock where some dissolution of the bedrock occurs (Eq. 2.2).

$$
CaCO_{3(s)} + H_2CO_{3(aq)} \to Ca^{2+}(aq) + 2HCO_{3(aq)}^{-}
$$
 (2.2)

Finally, when carbonate-saturated water enters a cave where the air has a lower $pCO₂$ than the infiltrating water, $CO₂$ degasses from the water and the precipitation of speleothems occurs (Eq. 2.3).

$$
Ca^{2+}(aq) + 2HCO_{3}^{-}(aq) \rightarrow CaCO_{3}(s) + CO_{2}(g) + H_{2}O
$$
 (2.3)

The entire process affects the geochemical composition of the resulting speleothem calcite.

2.2 Geologic Setting

There are over 300 known caves within the Guadalupe Mountains of southeastern New Mexico and western Texas. These caves lie within the northern margin of the Delaware Basin within the Permian Basin, which is composed of Permian-age reef deposits (Capitan limestone and associated backreef and forereef limestones and dolostones) and contains some of the country's largest oil fields (Hill, 2000). During the Miocene and through the Pliocene, hydrogen sulfide and carbon dioxide from the petroleum reservoirs mainly in the Delaware Basin migrated upward toward the water table of the Capitan aquifer along the Capitan reef rocks. These mixed with oxygen in the aquifer groundwater to form sulfuric and carbonic acid that dissolved the limestone and dolostone. This type of cave genesis where the aggressive components migrate from below is sulfuric acid hypogene speleogenesis. The majority of the dissolution thus occurred along the water table and has produced the large entrances and cavern chambers that are characteristic of these caves (Hill, 2000; Jagnow et al., 2000).

Figure 1 Schematic map showing cave locations in southeastern New Mexico. Stalagmites in this study were collected from Pink caves and Christmas Tree Cave.

2.3 Cave Setting

Speleothem samples were collected from two Guadalupe Mountain caves, Pink Dragon Cave and Christmas Tree Cave (Fig. 1). Both caves have large entrances that allow for exchange with the atmosphere, and both samples were collected from within 100 meters of those entrances.

In general, caves are relatively stable environments year round, where cave temperature and relative humidity are stable compared to the surface temperature and relative humidity (Rasmussen, 2006). For example, for Carlsbad Cavern the mean surface temperature is 63°F, while the cave temperature in much of the cave is 57°F (McLean, 1971). These caves with large entrances and passages that descend from the entrances create cold air sinks, explaining why the cave temperature is slightly lower than the mean annual surface temperature. The cave temperature in the deeper, more remote parts of Carlsbad Cavern is the same as the mean annual surface temperature of 63°F (McLean, 1971). Because cave environments mimic mean annual temperature and relative humidity it makes speleothems powerful recorders of terrestrial climate.

Christmas Tree Cave is located in Carlsbad Caverns National Park at an elevation of 1491 meters. The entrance to the cave is \sim 5 meters in diameter and consists of a 7meter vertical drop to enter the cave. It opens up to a room ~ 8 meters tall and ~ 20 meters wide, and 15-20 meters deeper into the cave from the entrance drop is the site where the two samples for this study were collected. Both small columnar stalagmites grew 20 and 40 meters from the entrance in a well-ventilated area of the cave. Christmas Tree Cave is very well decorated with many types of speleothems; stalagmites, stalactites, huge columns, soda straws, helictites, and cave clouds.

Pink Dragon Cave is located on the Lincoln National Forest and its entrance is 1800 meters in elevation. The entrance is similar to that of Christmas Tree Cave, and the cave passage descends from the entrance to the passage where the sample was collected 50 meters into the cave and 20 meters below the entrance. Pink Dragon Cave is well decorated, and the cave setting is similar to Christmas Tree Cave.

The cave setting in Carlsbad Cavern where stalagmites BC2 and BC11 were collected and from which results were published by Polyak and Asmerom (2001) and Asmerom et al. (2013) is similar to that of Christmas Tree and Pink Dragon caves, except greatly up scaled.

These large entrance caves are considered evaporative relative to many other caves used in paleoclimate studies where relative humidity and air temperature do not fluctuate much (typically $>95\%$ and $\pm 1\degree$ C) throughout the year. These conditions allow speleothem calcite to remain in equilibrium with the cave water percolating from the surface precipitation (McDermott, 2004; Lachniet, 2009). However, Rasmussen (2006) measured drip rate, temperature, and relative humidity in Carlsbad Cavern and demonstrated that these Guadalupe Mountain caves experience a larger annual temperature and relative humidity difference, reflecting seasonality observed on the surface. Carlsbad Cavern showed an annual relative humidity and temperature range of $90.5 - 69\%$ and 8° -16.5°C respectively, demonstrating the role of ventilation in these large entrance caves. Annual banding in these small columnar stalagmites is evidence that stalagmite growth is continuous throughout each year recording both summer and winter seasons. Therefore, these seasonal, annual, decadal, and millennial changes are recorded in the stalagmites.

While this more evaporative cave environment would be considered less suitable by the majority of previous speleothem-based studies, a more evaporative cave environment is likely to reflect the conditions of the environment above the cave more directly. Thus, the extent that the climate of the surface environment changes seasonally, decadally, and millennially should be more directly recorded in the speleothem that grew during that time.

2.4 Sample Descriptions

Sample PD3 is a \sim 200 millimeter long stalagmite (Fig. 2) that shows slow but continuous growth from about 6000-2000 yr BP and grew through the Middle to Late Holocene transition. Sample X2 is a \sim 270 millimeter long calcite stalagmite (Fig. 3) that grew from about 6500-4000 yr BP, which represents the latter half of the Middle Holocene. Sample X3 is a \sim 280 millimeter long calcite stalagmite (Fig. 4) that grew from about 1900-950 yr BP and represents the core of the Late Holocene. Both stalagmites show comparable high growth rates, allowing them to be sampled for stable isotopes at near-annual resolutions. Their records can therefore be used to compare segments of the Middle and Late Holocene climate at a high resolution. Long-term paleoclimate information is represented by stalagmite PD3.

Figure 2 Stalagmite PD3 from Pink Panther Cave.

Figure 3 Stalagmite X2 from Christmas Tree Cave.

Figure 4 Stalagmite X3 from Christmas Tree Cave.

2.5 Modern Climate System in SWNA

SWNA is a semi-arid region where the amount of effective moisture is extremely sensitive to small changes in climate. Summer NAM precipitation is the dominant moisture source for this region as it accounts for more than half of the annual rainfall in the study area (Adams and Comrie, 1997). The NAM produces an increase in rainfall from late July to September in SWNA. At the start of monsoon season the Bermuda High, a subtropical high-pressure cell that typically sits south of the Azores in the eastern Atlantic Ocean, expands and migrates west toward SWNA. This in addition to intensified continental heating during the summer drives a monsoonal wind pattern (Adams and Comrie, 1997; Sheppard et al, 2002; Poore et al., 2005). By late July most of SWNA experiences increased rainfall due to clockwise circulation around the Bermuda High sweeping moisture into this region from the Gulfs of Mexico and California. The amount of effective moisture making it into the study area is also dependent on seasonal shifts in the relative position of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) that impacts the prevailing wind directions as well as the source of moisture in this region (Metcalfe et al., 2015).

During the El Niño months warming of the Northern Hemisphere causes the ITCZ to shift north, resulting in southeasterly winds moving across the gulfs (Poore et al., 2005) that enhance monsoon effects. In addition, during the winter months the ITCZ migrates down near the equator and the dominant winds are the Westerlies that bring moisture to this region from the Pacific. The winter moisture systems coming from the Pacific are driven by the polar jet stream, an active storm track that brings important precipitation for groundwater recharge to SWNA during winter months (Asmerom et al.,

2010; Sheppard et al., 2002). Phases of El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) enhance that precipitation (Rasmussen, 2006; McCabe et al., 2004).

2.6 Holocene Climate Variability

In general the climate of the Holocene is stable relative to the latter portion of the Pleistocene (Rasmussen et al., 2014). Temperature variation globally during the Holocene is only a few degrees Celsius (Marcott et al., 2013). Evidence for differences in Middle and Late Holocene climate are therefore overall subtle when compared to the last glacial period, and long high-resolution paleoclimate records are necessary to measure and illustrate these changes. Very few studies from SWNA have produced highly resolved records of this period, but a climate transition from a warmer, drier Middle Holocene climate to a cooler and wetter Late Holocene climate has been reported in numerous studies using various proxies. A speleothem record of annual bands suggests that SWNA experienced an increase in effective moisture in the Late Holocene starting around 4000 yr BP based on stalagmite growth (Polyak and Asmerom, 2001), and a study of mites preserved in speleothems from SWNA by Polyak et al. (2001) suggests a wetter climate from 3200-800 yr BP. The majority of other climate records in SWNA come from packrat middens, lake records, and tree rings. Tree rings provide records of annual moisture in SWNA, however the longest record of precipitation only extends ~2000 yr BP (Grissino-Mayer et al., 1997). Evidence from lake levels in Estancia Basin found evidence for low groundwater during the Middle Holocene (7000-5400 yr BP) followed by a rise in the water table through the Late Holocene (Menking and Anderson, 2003). Persistent dry conditions throughout the Middle Holocene at Potato Lake in central

Arizona have also been recorded (Anderson, 1993), and arroyo cutting and filling in SWNA increased after 4000 yr BP as a result of wetter conditions (Waters and Haynes, 2001). A "midden gap" occurs in the packrat midden record from \sim 4 to \sim 9 ka (Betancourt et al.,1993) and two possible explanations are provided. It is suggested that there were either very dry winters and hot summers during the Middle Holocene that led to decreased midden production or increased monsoon precipitation and high humidity that would have hindered the crystallization of rat urine necessary for preservation of middens, which would argue for increased summer moisture during the Middle Holocene (Poore et al., 2005).

Elsewhere, Antevs (1955) defined the Middle Holocene in the Great Basin as significantly drier and referred to this period as the 'Altithermal' period, and since then climate studies such as Booth et al. (2005) present further evidence of a severe drought that affected mid-continental North America. A timberline study in the Sierra Nevada that suggests a warmer climate occurred from 6300-3500 yr BP (Scuderi, 1987) and a paleoflood study from the Mississippi River also suggests that during a drier period of 5000-3300 yr BP the flood maximums were less extreme than they were after 3300 yr BP when the climate became cooler and wetter (Knox, 1993). A continuous 8000-year record of temperature reconstructed from hydrogen isotopes in bristlecone pine tree rings from the White Mountains of California also suggests a general cooling trend from 6800 to 2000 yr BP (Feng and Epstein, 1994), which supports a timberline record from the area that shows declining treelines from 7400 to 200 yr BP (LaMarche, 1973).

This transition to cooler and wetter conditions corresponds with a shift from high Northern Hemisphere solar insolation during the Middle Holocene, known as the

Holocene Thermal Maximum, to decreased solar insolation during the Late Holocene (Renssen et al., 2012; Wanner et al., 2008; Berger and Loutre, 1991). Monsoon strength is positively correlated with solar intensity, and some evidence and models show that Northern Hemisphere monsoon strength, including the NAM, was greatest during the Middle Holocene (Metcalfe et al., 2015; Poore et al., 2005; Jiang et al., 2006). Higher insolation and a strengthened monsoon should have delivered more effective moisture to SWNA, but also resulted in higher temperatures (Feng and Epstein, 1994). It was followed by a relative decrease in monsoon strength and cooler temperatures, yet many of these records suggest an overall increase in effective moisture during the Late Holocene. This is unexpected given that summer monsoon moisture is the largest component of the annual moisture budget (Adams and Comrie, 1997).

Globally a definable climate transition has been established around 4.2 ka, formally subdividing the Middle and Late Holocene based on various proxy datasets (Walker et al., 2012), however, very few climate records from SWNA have the resolution to delineate these changes. This study aims to examine the Late Holocene 'greening' of SWNA, determine whether or not the 4.2 ka climate event is observed in the speleothem record, and discuss the potential climate forcings associated with the Middle and Late Holocene.

2.7 Climate forcing mechanisms

Variations in solar insolation correlate well with climatic changes (Asmerom et al., 2007), although the change in solar insolation forcing of climate itself is reportedly relatively small and should not directly account for the magnitude of change observed in climate records (Morely et al., 2014). In contrast, large changes in the UV flux in the

upper atmosphere are observed and may help drive atmosphere-ocean coupled climate variability (Graham, 2004; He and Guan, 2013; Scaife et al., 2013). Variations in these climate patterns are likely to impact the strength and balance of both winter and summer precipitation in SWNA.

El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) is one pattern that is a naturally occurring phenomenon characterized by fluctuations in temperature between the atmosphere and ocean in the tropical Pacific with a frequency of roughly every 2-8 years (Cole and Cook, 1998). Southern Oscillation refers to the seesaw-like atmospheric pressure differences between eastern and western tropical Pacific. There are two extreme phases of ENSO, El Niño and La Niña, each of which causes extreme weather in certain regions of the world. Because this is a Pacific phenomenon it primarily its effect is strongest on winter moisture in SWNA. During an El Niño event changes in atmospheric pressure gradients result in weakened trade winds and anomalously warm sea surface temperatures (SSTs) in the eastern and tropical Pacific Ocean. This reflects reduced strength of the Walker circulation, the east-west convective cycle that originates due to the SSTs along the equatorial Pacific. During El Niño years the storm track tends to shift farther south making winters wetter and cooler in SWNA. La Niña conditions involve strengthened trade winds (strengthened Walker circulation) and subsequently cooler SSTs along the equator and western coast of South America due to stronger upwelling. During La Niña years the storm track tends to shift farther north and SWNA receives less winter precipitation than normal (Metcalfe et al., 2015; Cook et al., 2007). ENSO may not have a significant effect on long-term effective moisture; however, if El Niño or La Niña are locked in a persistent pattern at the millennial scale, it could play an important role.

Another climate pattern, Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO), is a north Pacific phenomenon similar in character to ENSO in that it has a warm and cool phase that affects atmospheric winds, but it has a longer periodicity (15-30 years) than ENSO (Gray et al., 2003; Minobe, 1997). It is indexed by North Pacific SST anomalies, where the warm/positive phase tends to correlate with wetter winter conditions in SWNA (Asmerom et al., 2013; Metcalfe et al., 2015). Winter precipitation is especially important for groundwater recharge (Sheppard et al., 2002). Thus, it is likely that a shift in the amount of winter precipitation and groundwater recharge is related to changes in the strength and duration of ENSO and PDO phases (Menking and Anderson, 2003; Rasmussen et al., 2006).

Overall, as the insolation forcing in the Northern Hemisphere lessened in the Late Holocene, other forcings such as these described above likely became more influential on the NAM (Knudsen et al., 2011; Metcalfe et al., 2015) and overall climate of SWNA. It is possible that stalagmites may respond to seasonal moisture and represent seasonal changes rather than annual changes in effective moisture. However, the drip study in Carlsbad Cavern (Rasmussen, 2006) and observations of cave conditions over the last three decades favor that stalagmites in these caves preserve a record of annual effective moisture. For example, caves in the Guadalupe Mountains were wet with much active dripping and filled small pool basins during the 1980s when annual rainfall was greater, and with the onset of drought conditions beginning in 1991 the caves dried up significantly (V. Polyak, personal communication).

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

This study is based on uranium (U)-series dating of three stalagmites and respective analysis of climate proxy data within each sample. Stable isotope ($\delta^{18}O$ and δ^{13} C), grayscale, δ^{234} U, and trace element (Sr and Ba) data have been obtained for sample PD3. Stalagmite growth, grayscale, and stable isotope data have also been obtained for samples X2 and X3, both at a higher resolution than PD3 and similar resolution to one another. An ultra high resolution \sim 100-year section of X3 is also provided for proxy comparison that includes annual banding. Time-series for each set of data were constructed for comparison in order to establish climate proxies that relate to the difference in climate between the Middle and Late Holocene.

3.1 U-series dating

U-series dating works by utilizing the decay chain of Uranium-238 (Eq. 3.1).

$$
^{238}U \to {}^{234}Th \to {}^{234}U \to {}^{230}Th
$$
 (3.1)

The half-life of 230 Th is 75,584 years (Cheng et al., 2013), which enables us to date materials up to about 650,000 years old, after which secular equilibrium is effectively reached. At secular equilibrium,

$$
\lambda_1 N_1 = \lambda_2 N_2 \tag{3.2}
$$

where λ_1 is the decay constant of the parent and N₁ is the number of atoms of the parent nuclide, and λ_2 is the decay constant of the daughter and N_2 is the number of atoms of the daughter nuclide.

U-series dating is an ideal method for determining the age of carbonate rocks because when in its oxidized state as U^{6+} , which occurs easily on the surface environment, is very soluble and mobile, and Th has one oxidation state as Th^{4+} and is

not soluble. Thus, groundwater and surface water are enriched in uranium compared to thorium, and when carbonate minerals precipitate from cave drip water they typically have sufficiently high uranium concentrations and very low to essentially no thorium and therefore no initial ²³⁰Th. ²³⁰Th present in the sample is (1) ²³⁰Th produced from radioactive decay of ²³⁴U and ²³⁸U and (2) ²³⁰Th inherited with detrital ²³²Th, where the initial ²³⁰Th $/2^{32}$ Th atomic ratio is typically assumed to be 4.4 x 10⁻⁶, based on the assumption that the contaminant has a bulk silicate earth $^{232}Th/^{238}U$ (κ -value) of 3.8. Assuming secular equilibrium between ²³⁰Th and ²³⁸U gives a ²³⁰Th/²³²Th atomic ratio of 4.4×10^{-6} , detailed below in Equations 3.3 and 3.4.

$$
\frac{^{232}Th}{^{238}U} = 3.8 \cdot \frac{\lambda_{230}}{\lambda_{238}}
$$
 (3.3)

$$
\frac{^{230}Th}{^{232}Th} = \frac{\lambda_{238}}{\lambda_{230} \cdot 3.8} = 4.4 \times 10^{-6}
$$
 (3.4)

This initial value, however, is not applicable for Guadalupe Mountains stalagmites because the contaminant has a strong carbonate component, and a non-linear equation has been constructed and used to correct U-series ages of these stalagmites (Rasmussen, 2006). Thus, if the sample is pure and the system remains closed we can acquire dates from the isotope ratios as described in Equation 3.5 where the ²³⁰Th $/^{238}$ U ratio is measured and the decay constants are known. This technique allows for direct measurement of accurate and precise dates and is used to construct high-resolution chronologies for three speleothems in this study.

$$
\left(\frac{^{230}Th}{^{238}U}\right) = \left(1 - e^{-\lambda 230t}\right) + \left(\frac{\delta^{234}U}{1000}\right)\left(\frac{\lambda_{230}}{\lambda_{230} - \lambda_{234}}\right)\left(1 - e^{\left(\lambda 234 - \lambda 230t\right)}\right) \tag{3.5}
$$

Calcite subsamples of \sim 100 mg were drilled from stalagmite samples. The powders were weighed, transferred, and dissolved in 15N HNO₃. They were spiked with

approximately 1 gram of mixed synthetic isotopes 229 Th- 233 U- 236 U, and were fluxed on a hot plate for 30 minutes. One drop of $HCIO₄$ was added to dissolve any organic matter and then samples were dried down. Samples were brought up in 7N HNO₃ and Th and U were isolated in 2 mL anion exchange columns using Eichrom 1x8, 200-400 mesh chloride form resin; samples were flushed (cleaned) with $7N HNO₃$ then Th was collected using 6N HCl and U was collected using H_2O and and 1N HBr. Th and U were dried down and dissolved in 3% HNO₃ to be analyzed separately using the Thermo NEPTUNE multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) at the University of New Mexico Radiogenic Isotope Lab.

The instrument is equipped with switchable Faraday cup resistors with four 10^{12} Ω resistors, five 10¹¹ Ω resistors, one 10¹⁰ Ω resistor and secondary electron multiplier (SEM). The SEM or Faraday cup with a $10^{12} \Omega$ resistor in the center position can be used interchangeably to measure the least abundant isotope $(^{234}$ U or 230 Th) depending on the strength of the signal (Asmerom et al. 2006). Signals of 5mV or less are measured using the SEM detector. When the SEM is used, a gain must also be measured throughout the duration of sample measurements in order to calibrate the SEM results to the Faraday cup measurements. Resistor settings of $10^{10} \Omega$ are set for larger signals up to 500 volts used for the ²³⁸U and in some cases the ²³²Th signal, $10^{11} \Omega$ for less than 50 volt signals, and 10^{12} Ω for less than 5 volt signals. The NEPTUNE is coupled to the Aridus II desolvating nebulizer that increases the signal by 4 times and reduces the necessary sample size by half, ultimately increasing efficiency by 8 times. The U standard NBL-112 and Th inhouse standard were used to establish the efficiency control between the SEM and Faraday cups. Procedural blanks are \sim 10 pg and \sim 30 pg for Th and U, respectively.

Complete U-series chronologies were measured for stalagmites X2, X3, and PD3, and a high-resolution $\delta^{234}U$ time-series was constructed for stalagmite PD3.

3.2 Stable Isotope Analysis

Stable isotope data for speleothems in this study have been obtained from Matthew Lachniet at the Las Vegas Isotope Science Lab at the University of Nevada Las Vegas. Powders were drilled every 0.5 mm, 1 mm, and 2 mm for analysis on samples X2, X3, and PD3, respectively, using a 0.015" diameter drill bit. This provided a stable isotope measurement approximately every 4 years for both X2 and X3, and every 40 years for PD3. Stable isotopes are expressed in delta notation (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (V-PDB) standard as defined by equation 3.6.

$$
\delta^{18}O = \left(\frac{\frac{^{18}O}{^{16}O}}{\frac{^{18}O}{^{16}O}}\right) \times 1000
$$
\n(3.6)

3.3 Trace Element Analysis

Powders of \sim 10 mg were milled every 2 mm along the growth axis of stalagmite PD3, diluted in 3% ultrapure HNO₃, and spiked to 10 ppb In (internal standard). Samples were then measured for Mg, Ca, Sr, Ba, and U on a Thermo X-Series II Quadrupole ICP-MS using multiple-element standards. Calibrations were performed approximately every twenty sample runs. Analytical uncertainties are generally <2% standard errors and reported as 1σ absolute errors. Concentrations were determined using dilution factors for each sample, and these match trace element ratios divided by Ca concentrations (e.g. Mg/Ca, Sr/Ca, Ba/Ca).

3.4 $\delta^{234}U$

Small powders $(\sim 10 \text{ mg})$ were milled along the growth axis of stalagmite PD3 every 2 mm to construct a high-resolution δ^{234} U time-series comparable with the elemental and stable isotope time-series. These powders were dissolved and processed in the anion resin columns described above in Section 3.1 for U-series analyses, except they were not spiked. The ratio of $^{234}U/^{238}U$ is expressed as the per mil (‰) amount (Eq. 3.7), and measured values were converted to initial δ^{234} U using the U-series chronology for each distance from the stalagmite top using Equation 3.8.

$$
\delta^{234}U = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{234}{238}\right)}{\left(\frac{\lambda_{238}}{\lambda_{234}}\right)} - 1\right] \times 1000\tag{3.7}
$$

$$
\delta^{234}U_i = \delta^{234}U_m \times e^{\lambda_{234}t} \tag{3.8}
$$

3.5 Grayscale Analysis

Grayscale was measured for samples PD3, X2, and X3 by taking high-resolution images of thin sections using a slide scanner and splicing them together to produce a high-resolution grayscale stratigraphic record. The images were converted from bluescale to grayscale using Digital Micrograph, a digital image-processing program used primarily for electron microscopy. A multiple pixel transect through the growth axis and close to the stable isotope transect was analyzed for grayscale values over the length of the samples. The gray values were measured from thin sections. Grayscale values are assigned from 0 to 250 (black to white), where lower values therefore indicate dark layers and higher values indicate light layers in the transmitted light through the sections. Values for these speleothems range from 13 to 216 and the resolution is sub-annual. Grayscale appears to respond to rainfall amount or drip water availability, however,

processes that control darkness of calcite layers are complex and variability in the apparent darkness of a speleothem can be misinterpreted for a number of reasons including potential differences in thin section thickness. Grayscale data in this study is therefore primarily used for spectral and wavelet analyses.

3.6 Annual Growth Bands

The types of speleothems used in this study show annual growth banding that are demonstrated by comparison with U-series age measurements along the same transect. Growth band thickness has been shown to be a proxy for rainfall amount in the study area, as speleothem growth is directly related to drip water availability. Thinner bands result from decreased rainfall and thicker bands from increase rainfall (Polyak and Asmerom, 2001; Asmerom et al., 2013). The banding is formed because of the seasonal variations in precipitation amount. The banding was primarily measured from thin sections using an optical microscope and Digital Micrograph.

3.7 Spectral Analysis

The REDFIT program works as an effective preliminary analysis of the different proxy time-series for paleoclimate records because it allows for spectral analysis from unevenly spaced time-series without needing to interpolate data. Spectral analysis enables the identification and strength of periodicities in a time-series (ie. seasonal, annual, 11 year sunspot, precession, etc.) by using a first-order autoregressive (AR1) process to estimate a null-hypothesis of "red-noise" to test if peaks in a spectrum are significant (Schulz and Mudelsee, 2002). Significant frequencies were measured using REDFIT for each proxy time-series. Periodicities observed at the 90% confidence interval or greater are reported in this study.

3.8 Wavelet Analysis

Wavelet analysis is another means of identifying periodicities in a time-series that allows for the determination of the dominant modes of variability and also how those modes vary in time (Torrence and Compo, 1998), which was not demonstrated by spectral analysis. This technique requires an evenly spaced data set, so proxy time-series data were interpolated using a built-in Matlab function "interp1." Wavelet analysis was conducted on the interpolated data sets in a Matlab script using a Morlet wavelet with a wavenumber of 6. The character of periodicities measured by REDFIT can be directly observed in wavelet analyses to determine where they occur in time.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Multiple climate proxies have been used in this study for the purpose of producing both a high-resolution and low-resolution record of climate in SWNA from the Middle to Late Holocene. Age models for stalagmites PD3, X2, and X3 using U-Th disequilibrium methods were used to construct stable isotope, grayscale, trace element, and δ^{234} U time-series. Stalagmite PD3 provided the long-term continuous lower resolution record from the Middle Holocene through the transition between Middle and Late Holocene and into the Late Holocene. Stalagmites X2 and X3 provided a highresolution segment of the Middle and Late Holocene, respectively.

4.1 Stalagmite PD3

Age Model

The U-Th chronology as well as petrographic observations shows that this stalagmite grew continuously but nonlinearly from about 6000-1900 yr BP; top and bottom U-series ages are 2063 ± 231 years and 6077 ± 193 years. A total of 24 calcite powders were drilled and collected along the stalagmite's growth axis and 21 results were used to construct the age model. The average error for all samples is ± 235 years with individual errors ranging from ± 166 to ± 516 years. The chronology is composed of a 6order polynomial equation fit to the corrected U-Th ages (Fig. 5). U-series data is in Table 1.

Figure 5 U-series age model for stalagmite PD3 constructed from 21 measured ages. 2σ errors are represented by the vertical bars. Polynomial equation defined in Eq. S1 in Appendix A.

Table 1 **U-series age data for stalagmite PD3.**

mm P _D 3	238 U ppb	232 Th pg/g	230 Th/ 232 T Activity	230 Th/ 238 U Activity	δ^{234} U Initial	δ^{234} U Meas	Age Uncorr	Age Corr
3.8	255 ± 0.21	1902 ± 48	18 ± 0.511	0.0449 ± 0.0005	760 ± 1.8	755 ± 1.8	2822 ± 34	2063 ± 231
12.1	377 ± 0.26	5647±50	10 ± 0.123	0.0512 ± 0.0004	759 ± 1.9	754 ± 1.8	3223 ± 26	2353±262
23.2	336 ± 0.26	3574 ± 46	15 ± 0.228	0.0524 ± 0.0004	759 ± 1.8	754 ± 1.8	3300 ± 27	2516 ± 236
30.2	295 ± 0.22	3014±49	16 ± 0.307	0.0550 ± 0.0005	769 ± 1.9	763 ± 1.8	3451 ± 31	2634±247
41	280 ± 0.21	2332 ± 44	21 ± 0.439	0.0576 ± 0.0005	771 ± 1.8	765 ± 1.8	3608 ± 33	2848±230
50.1	264 ± 0.17	4064±49	13 ± 0.205	0.0639 ± 0.0007	778 ± 1.8	772 ± 1.8	3995±44	2943±318
58.4	291 ± 0.21	$2197+44$	26 ± 0.565	0.0650 ± 0.0005	769 ± 1.8	762 ± 1.8	4090 ± 35	3379±216
72.2	271 ± 0.24	1787±43	32 ± 0.808	0.0690 ± 0.0005	777 ± 1.8	769 ± 1.8	4328±32	3642±209
80.2	305 ± 0.29	2736±49	26±0.487	0.0755 ± 0.0005	777 ± 1.9	769 ± 1.8	4745 ± 32	3995±227
91.4	305 ± 0.25	1744 ± 41	40±0.986	0.0755 ± 0.0006	786 ± 1.8	777 ± 1.8	4723 ± 36	4122±184
110.4	298 ± 0.24	2543±39	31 ± 0.504	0.0871 ± 0.0005	789±1.9	779 ± 1.8	5455±32	4720±223
113.4	594±0.47	6964 ± 39	23 ± 0.144	0.0867 ± 0.0003	809 ± 1.9	798 ± 1.8	5370 ± 19	1775±179
121.5	478 ± 0.58	3706±40	34 ± 0.404	0.0871 ± 0.0004	803 ± 1.9	792 ± 1.8	5415±26	1868±166
124.4	347 ± 0.27	3121 ± 39	30 ± 0.402	0.0893 ± 0.0004	809 ± 1.9	799 ± 1.8	5536 ± 28	4846±209
133.9	298 ± 0.23	2529±45	33 ± 0.630	0.0926 ± 0.0006	789 ± 1.9	777 ± 1.8	5809±36	5075 ± 223
142.3	263 ± 0.20	1740 ± 46	43 ± 1.174	0.0935 ± 0.0006	793 ± 1.9	782 ± 1.8	5852 ± 41	5159±212
153.8	319 ± 0.27	3209±53	29 ± 0.536	0.0967 ± 0.0007	802 ± 1.9	791 ± 1.8	$6028 + 47$	5264±234
162.8	260 ± 0.24	1287 ± 42	61 ± 2.065	0.0991 ± 0.0010	799 ± 1.9	787 ± 1.8	6200 ± 62	5597±192
172.8	292 ± 0.25	15968±53	7 ± 0.045	0.1179 ± 0.0007	799±1.9	786 ± 1.8	7411±47	5690±516
181.1	245 ± 0.23	1925 ± 50	41 ± 1.132	0.1063 ± 0.0009	824 ± 1.9	810 ± 1.8	6568 ± 55	5799±238
193.1	286 ± 0.22	1672 ± 43	56 ± 1.480	0.1070 ± 0.0007	801 ± 1.9	787 ± 1.8	6699 ± 48	6077 ± 193

Stable Isotopes, Trace Element, Transmitted Grayscale, and δ234U Time-series

Stable isotopes in speleothems are understood to be important recorders of hydrologic processes and variability (McDermott, 2004; Lachniet, 2009) that provide information about relative temperature and moisture amount in the environment during growth.

δ18O

Modern spatial variations in δ^{18} O of precipitation are well characterized and are a function of several factors including distance from the source (ocean), altitude, latitude, temperature, and amount of precipitation (McDermott, 2004). Cave drip water and therefore speleothems from which they form are products of the local moisture, so the isotope values in the calcite reflect the local precipitation values. However, there are several processes that take place leading up to speleothem formation that can further affect isotope values. They give indications of a variety of environmental processes and features including the moisture source, temperature, amount effect, and temperature effect (Lachniet, 2009). Summer monsoon gulf moisture and Pacific moisture have distinctly different oxygen isotopic compositions over the study area. Summer NAM precipitation δ^{18} O values are around -3‰, which is significantly heavier than Pacificderived moisture that has values around -11‰ (Asmerom et al., 2010). Because speleothems are a product of the groundwater from which they precipitate, they will primarily reflect the isotope values of the respective moisture source. In the case of SWNA, heavier calcite values in speleothems indicate a more dominant summer monsoonal moisture and lighter values indicate a more dominant Pacific-derived winter moisture in the absence of kinetic fractionation effects. Secondly, oxygen isotopes give

an indication of temperature because fractionation in isotopic equilibrium conditions is increased with colder temperatures. Air temperatures at mid-latitude sites affect the $\delta^{18}O$ value of precipitation by about 0.5-0.69‰ $^{\circ}C^{-1}$ but also affect calcite precipitation by affecting the cave air temperature, which results in about -0.24‰ $^{\circ}C^{-1}$ in oxygen fractionation. The net result of this temperature affect is 0.25-0.35‰ $^{\circ}C^{-1}$ in speleothems that formed in or near isotopic equilibrium, such as Fort Stanton Cave (Asmerom et al., 2010), north of the study area. Lighter isotopes are therefore expected in the calcite from cooler temperatures and heavier isotopes are expected from warmer temperatures (Lachniet, 2009). Additionally, the amount of rainfall can change isotope values in speleothems. Knowing that the heavy isotope is preferentially condensed and precipitated out first, we would expect the heavy isotope to be the product of precipitation. However, if all of the moisture is precipitated from a cloud, both the heavy and light isotope would be released and this would drive δ^{18} O values in the rain lighter than would be otherwise expected, a result known as the amount or rainout effect (Sharp, 2007). Evaporation also takes place on the surface and in the caves, which evaporates the light isotope preferentially and leaves the heavier isotope to be crystallized in the calcite. All of these processes and effects shape the values preserved in stalagmites.

δ13C

 δ^{13} C data tend to reflect local productivity (vegetation amount and type), which is ultimately related to the effective moisture. Carbon isotopes in speleothems reflect the soil $CO₂$ composition, which indicates the type of plant system (C3 or C4) present during the time of growth (McDermott, 2004; Lachniet, 2009). The different photosynthetic pathways between C3 and C4 plants result in significant fractionation differences. C3

plant systems represent the majority of plants in the world and are indicative of an environment with ample water availability. δ^{13} C values for C3 plants are very light and range from -23‰ to -33‰ (Sharp, 2007). Conversely, C4 plants grow in arid regions and represent moisture-limited environments. They show less isotopic fractionation than C3 plants and have significantly heavier δ^{13} C values ranging from -9‰ to -16‰ (Sharp, 2007). Knowing the type of plant system present during speleothem growth therefore gives valuable information about the amount of effective moisture at the time of formation.

In addition to organic matter as a carbon source for speleothems, limestone bedrock contributes a heavy $\delta^{13}C$ signal (3‰ to 8‰) (Hill, 1987). During dry periods, water has a longer residence time in the ground and therefore has more time to pick up a larger bedrock carbon signal, driving the values heavier. During wet periods, water flows through the bedrock readily and does not pick up as much carbon from the bedrock, driving values lighter. Like oxygen isotopes, evaporative environments kinetically fractionate carbon and therefore aridity will result in heavier δ^{13} C values.

Covariance in δ13C and δ18O

Given that the samples used in this study come from evaporative cave environments, it is expected that more evaporation results in more kinetic fractionation, a process that drives both the carbon and oxygen isotopes of the precipitated calcite to heavier values as a result of different masses experiencing different translational velocities during a phase change (Sharp, 2007). Kinetic fractionation tends to occur where cave relative humidity is low; therefore, carbon and oxygen isotope ratios tend to

co-vary and change linearly in well-ventilated caves in semi-arid areas such as Pink Dragon Cave and Christmas Tree Cave.

 δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C measured values for stalagmite PD3 are in Table S1 (in appendix). The average δ^{13} C value is -5.2‰ and the average δ^{18} O value is -3.7‰. Both carbon and oxygen time-series exhibit decadal to centennial-scale variability, but do not demonstrate a distinct transition between Middle and Late Holocene climate (Fig. 6), although there are periods of elevated values for the δ^{18} O between 6000 and 5000 yr BP.

Strontium and barium trace element data for stalagmite PD3 are used in this study for providing a continuous record through the Middle to Late Holocene transition. Concentrations of trace elements such as strontium and barium in precipitated carbonate minerals reflect the chemical composition of drip water and the physical conditions present at the time of formation. Trace element concentrations in speleothems are therefore understood to be paleoclimate indicators that are controlled by rates of evaporation and degassing as well as changes in water residence time and the degree of water-rock interaction (Fairchild et al., 2000; Fairchild and Treble, 2009; Tremaine and Froelich, 2013; Banner, 1995; Railsback et al., 1994). In semi-arid locations such as the Guadalupe Mountain caves it is suggested that trace element variations in speleothems are predominantly driven by evaporative concentrations of drip waters. Evaporative conditions increase the concentration of ions in solution, which causes greater ionic strength and supersaturation relative to calcite. This results in higher concentrations during more arid periods and lower concentrations during wetter periods (Railsback et al., 1994). Trace element data are in Table S2. Sr and Ba show higher concentrations in the
Middle Holocene and a distinct shift from higher concentrations to lower concentrations around 4200 yr BP (Fig. 6).

The decay of 238 U to 234 U occurs by an intermediate step to 234 Th but involves decay by an alpha particle that results in damage of the crystal lattice site that 234 U occupies. When alpha particle emission occurs in limestone, this calcite/dolomite lattice weakening makes ²³⁴U susceptible to leaching into water that is infiltrating through the bedrock. Secondary minerals such as such as calcite and aragonite that make up speleothem carbonate are thus typically enriched in 234 U in semi-arid regions. The ratio of $^{234}U^{238}U$ is therefore another proxy used to describe variations in effective moisture (Ayalon et al., 1999, Zhou et al, 2005, Polyak et al., 2012). δ^{234} U values tend to be higher during drier periods when water moves more slowly through the bedrock, leaching more ²³⁴U along the way. δ^{234} U values thus tend to be lower during wetter periods when water is more readily flushed through the bedrock. δ^{234} U measured values are in Table S3. A total of 84 subsamples were used to produce the δ^{234} U time-series. The record shows an overall decrease in values from the Middle to the Late Holocene (Fig. 6) with a distinct decrease at 4200 and 3800 yr BP.

Grayscale data is in Table S4. The grayscale time-series constructed from transmitted light of thin sections has a sub-annual resolution and shows greater variability during the Late Holocene beginning around 4000 yr BP. (Fig. 6).

Figure 6 Stalagmite PD3 proxy time-series records. From top to bottomcarbon and oxygen stable isotopes, Sr and Ba, δ^{234} U, and grayscale. Blue rectangle overlaps proposed 4.2 ka transition period.

Spectral and Wavelet Analyses

Significant periodicities (above the noise level at the 90% confidence interval) produced by spectral analysis of these proxies using REDFIT are in Table 4. Wavelet analysis results for grayscale data from stalagmite PD3 are shown in Figure 7. Significant

decadal periodicities (between 10 and 30 years) were measured and are more prominent over the last ~4000 years.

Figure 7 Wavelet analysis of stalagmite PD3 grayscale data. Spectral power is indicated by colors from blue (weak) to red (strong). Solid black line indicates 95% confidence interval (power significance). The 10-30 yr scale-average indicates PDOlike periodicities. There is increased decadal variability during the Late Holocene beginning around 4200 yr BP.

4.2 Stalagmites X2 and X3

Age Model X2

Stalagmite X2 represents a high-resolution segment of the latter part of the Middle Holocene. Stalagmite X2 grew continuously but nonlinearly from about 6500- 4000 yr BP; top and bottom U-series ages are 4155 ± 87 years and 6363 ± 100 years. A total of 13 calcite powders were collected along the stalagmite's growth axis and used to produce a chronology composed of three polynomial age equations (Fig 8). The average error for all samples is \pm 113 with individual errors ranging from \pm 54 to \pm 384. U-series age data for stalagmite X2 is in Table 2.

Figure 8 U-series age model for stalagmite X2. 2σ errors are represented by the vertical bars. Three polynomial equations defined in Eq. S2 in Appendix A.

Table 2 **U-series age data for stalagmite X2.**

Age Model X3

Stalagmite X3 grew continuously from 1946-1024 yr BP; top and bottom U-series ages are 999±105 and 1853±147. An age model was produced using three polynomial

age equations (Fig. 9). The average error for all samples is ± 88 with individual errors ranging from ± 49 to ± 147 . U-series age data for stalagmite X3 is in Table 3.

Figure 9 U-series age model for stalagmite X3. 2σ errors are represented by the vertical bars. Three polynomial equations defined by Eq. S3 in Appendix A.

Table 3 **U-series age data for stalagmite X3.**

mm	238 ^U	$\overline{^{232}}$ Th	$\sqrt[230]{\text{Th}/^{232}\text{Th}}$	230 Th/ 238 U	δ^{234} U	δ^{234} U	Age	Age
$X-3$	ppb	pg/g	Activity	Activity	Initial	Meas	Uncorr	Corr
3.4a	855±6.56	2980±31	18.95 ± 0.84	0.02 ± 0.0009	1009 ± 11	1006 ± 11	1182 ± 52	999 ± 105
3.4 _b	848 ± 5.87	2897 ± 43	18.88 ± 0.97	0.02 ± 0.0010	1010 ± 11	1008 ± 11	1152 ± 58	969 ± 108
27	879 ± 2.18	500 ± 56	109.4 ± 12.3	0.02 ± 0.0003	$972+4.7$	970±4.7	1135 ± 15	1035 ± 53
58a	841 ± 6.29	1665 ± 23	34.96 ± 1.81	0.02 ± 0.0011	1029 ± 13	1026 ± 13	1226 ± 63	1074 ± 98
58b	837 ± 5.44	1619 ± 22	37.48 ± 1.93	0.02 ± 0.0012	1024 ± 13	1021 ± 13	1287 ± 65	1135 ± 100
88a	850 ± 2.03	1700 ± 49	39.84 ± 1.20	0.03 ± 0.0002	1032 ± 1.1	1028 ± 1.1	1410 ± 13	1259±77
88b	892 ± 2.18	3242 ± 54	21.08 ± 0.42	0.03 ± 0.0003	964.9 ± 5.4	961.6 ± 5.4	1403 ± 16	1218 ± 49
104a	967 ± 2.36	3359 ± 78	24.33 ± 0.63	0.03 ± 0.0003	1032 ± 1.4	1028 ± 5.2	1496 ± 17	1330 ± 85
104 _b	949 ± 2.30	2063 ± 54	37.98 ± 1.04	0.03 ± 0.0002	1035 ± 1.2	1031 ± 1.2	1460 ± 13	1316 ± 73
104c	928 ± 2.26	6600 ± 87	13.12 ± 0.25	0.03 ± 0.0004	1028 ± 2.0	1023 ± 2.0	1657 ± 23	1439 ± 111
104d	879 ± 2.11	4406±50	17.28 ± 0.25	0.03 ± 0.0003	1022 ± 1.11	1018 ± 1.06	1542 ± 14	1340 ± 102
133	918 ± 2.27	1707 ± 57	46.05 ± 1.63	0.03 ± 0.0003	1006 ± 4.82	1002 ± 4.80	1538 ± 18	1395 ± 73
161	829 ± 3.94	1723 ± 22	46.25 ± 1.29	0.03 ± 0.0007	1037 ± 6.01	1032 ± 5.98	1703 ± 44	1547 ± 89
197	1328 ± 3.2	10703 ± 75	13.25 ± 0.13	0.03 ± 0.0003	1063 ± 4.17	1058 ± 4.15	1868 ± 14	1692 ± 89
226	1123 ± 2.7	11768 ± 60	10.87 ± 0.09	0.04 ± 0.0003	1051 ± 3.76	1046 ± 3.72	2004 ± 15	1788 ± 109
249a	986 ± 12.9	5753 ± 50	20.07 ± 0.56	0.04 ± 0.0011	1071 ± 16.9	1065 ± 16.8	2043 ± 63	1850 ± 114
249b	983 ± 8.95	5811 ± 59	19.87 ± 1.07	0.04 ± 0.0021	1073 ± 10.6	1067 ± 10.6	2046 ± 111	1853 ± 147

Stable Isotope and Grayscale Time-series X2

 δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C measured values for sample X2 are in Table S5. The mean δ^{13} C value for sample X2 is -5.2‰. δ^{13} C shows a ~7‰ variation through the record with

values ranging from -8.2‰ to -1.0‰ (Fig. 10). It shows an excursion up to 2.4% at the end of the record around 4140 years B.P. associated with the top of the sample and termination of growth. The mean $\delta^{18}O$ value is -4.9‰. $\delta^{18}O$ shows approximately a 5‰ variation through the record with values ranging from -7.2‰ to -2.0‰ and also shows an excursion at 4140 years B.P. up to -1.0‰ (Fig. 10). Grayscale data constructed from transmitted light of thin sections is in Table S7.

Stable Isotope, Grayscale, and Growth Banding Time-series X3

 δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O measured values for sample X-3 are in Table S6. The mean δ^{13} C value for sample X3 is -7.0‰, which is about 2‰ lower than sample X2. $\delta^{13}C$ shows approximately a 6‰ variation through the record with values ranging from -8.6‰ to - 2.6‰ (Fig. 10). The mean $\delta^{18}O$ value is -6.1‰, which is about 1‰ lower than sample X2. The δ^{18} O record shows approximately a 5‰ variation through the record with values ranging from -8.0‰ to -2.9‰ (Fig. 10). Grayscale data is in Table S7. Annual growth band thickness was measured for sample X3 and values are in Table S8. Band thickness measurements range from 0.1 to 0.7 mm.

Correlation coefficients were measured for carbon versus oxygen in stalagmites X2 and X3. The Late Holocene shows slightly higher correlation with an $R^2 = 0.64$ than the Middle Holocene that has an $R^2 = 0.54$.

Figure 10 δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O time-series records for stalagmites X2 (Middle Holocene) and X3 (Late Holocene).

Spectral and Wavelet Analyses X2

Spectral analysis of $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$ were determined using REDFIT. The measured periodicities and their confidence intervals are in Table 4. In addition to spectral analysis, the carbon and oxygen isotope and grayscale time-series were interpolated to 5-year resolution and analyzed using a continuous wavelet transform in Matlab to determine the timing of observed periodicities. Significant decadal periodicities (between 10 and 30 years) were measured to compare the Middle and Late Holocene decadal variance. $\delta^{13}C$ and δ^{18} O in sample X2 record effectively the same periodicities because of their strong covariation and thus show similar wavelet results. Overall, spectral and wavelet analyses results in the X2 proxies show that the decadal variance is very weak (Fig. 11).

Spectral and Wavelet Analyses X3

(Fig. 11).

Spectral analysis of δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O, grayscale, and band thickness were determined using REDFIT. The measured periodicities and their confidence intervals are in Table 4. Measured frequencies range from 2 to 186 years. The shorter frequencies (3-5 years) are detected in the growth banding data.

 δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O data was interpolated to a 5-year resolution and wavelet analysis results of the carbon and oxygen isotope records for sample X3 show a strong decadal variation

Figure 11 Wavelet analysis of stalagmites X2 (top) and X3 (bottom) δ^{18} O data. Spectral power is indicated by colors from blue (weak) to red (strong). Solid black line indicates 95% confidence interval (power significance). Significant 10-30 year periodicities were tested. X3 shows much greater PDO-like variability.

4.3 Stalagmite X3 Slide 9

High-resolution analysis of a 100-year period in thin section slide 9 of stalagmite X3 provides a comparison of speleothem proxies used in this study. This period was \sim 1400 yr BP. Carbon and oxygen stable isotopes grayscale, and growth band thickness were measured in this sample and spectral and wavelet analysis were performed. Grayscale values are inversely correlated with the stable isotope values. During periods when δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C are high it is interpreted as a more arid climate during which there is less water dripping into the cave, resulting darker speleothem layers in transmitted light. The darker layers produce lower grayscale values, which is the cause of the inverse relationship with $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$. Spectral and wavelet results of this period show the same dominant frequencies (Table 4), which implies that these proxies are responding to similar mechanisms to record the same periodicities and can thus be used together to make climatic interpretations.

Figure 12 Scanned image of 3 slide 9 thin section.

Table 4 REDFIT spectral analysis results for $\delta^{13}C$ and $\delta^{18}O$, grayscale, and growth banding in stalagmites PD3, X2, and X3. Confidence interval percent values refer to the frequency above noise level. Reported values are in units of years.

Time-series	99% confidence interval	95% confidence interval	90% confidence interval
PD3 carbon	93, 212	81, 106	125, 157, 170
PD3 oxygen	93	85, 101, 115, 125, 212, 283	163, 353, 1060
PD3 Sr	$\overline{}$	123, 167, 245	208, 463
PD3 Ba		123, 167, 231	208, 463
$PD3 \delta^{234}U$	$\qquad \qquad \blacksquare$	113, 185	\blacksquare
PD3 gray	6, 7, 8, 10, 14, 15, 20, 33	11, 12, 13, 16, 18, 25, 28, 200	40
X2 carbon	9, 17, 18, 20, 25, 602	10, 11, 12, 13, 22, 402	10, 29, 69, 104
X2 oxygen	9, 16, 17, 19, 20, 25	11, 13, 17, 18, 22, 27, 402, 806	12, 23, 55, 71, 105, 121
X2 gray	11, 13, 17, 241	10, 11, 12, 13, 16, 18, 22, 30	13, 14, 16, 17, 20, 24,89
X3 carbon	8, 154	7, 10, 17	11, 12, 15, 16, 42
X3 oxygen	8, 16, 154	7, 11, 42	9, 10, 15, 17
X3 grayscale	\blacksquare	11, 13, 15	13, 16, 85, 186
X3 banding	3, 4, 5, 37, 155	2, 6, 9, 62	\blacksquare
X3 slide 9 carbon	6, 9, 12	14, 18	\blacksquare
X3 slide 9 oxygen	$\overline{6, 11, 14}$	7, 8, 9, 18	\blacksquare
X3 slide 9 gray	$\frac{1}{2}$	2, 3, 10	7, 12
X3 slide 9 bands	$\overline{4}$	2, 3	10, 32

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Characterizing differences in the Middle versus Late Holocene climate by integrating multiple proxies is challenging due to disparities in temporal resolutions, climate sensitivities, and the extent that the chronologies are constrained (Barron and Anderson, 2011). These difficulties are evident in this study; partly due to the apparent subtle differences between these two periods; however, by establishing a continuous record that defines the climate transition from the Middle to Late Holocene by several independent proxies in one stalagmite we are able to constrain the timing and nature of the transition as well as the overall trend of the climate over this period. Additionally, by producing a record from two stalagmites of similar growth rate, climate sensitivity, chronological resolution, and proxy resolution, direct comparison of portions of the Middle and Late Holocene high-frequency climate variability can be made for SWNA.

5.1 Long-term climate transition

Trace element and δ^{234} U data from stalagmite PD3 show a subtle transition around 4200 yr BP from higher values to lower values. Trace element partitioning in speleothems is complex but it reflects hydrologic changes over time because it depends on the rates of $CO₂$ degassing and calcite precipitation (Fairchild and Treble, 2009). In evaporative settings such as caves in the Guadalupe Mountains it is therefore likely that trace element partitioning in speleothems is accentuated and reflects changes in the climate, where higher concentrations of Sr and Ba would indicate a warmer and more arid climate and lower concentrations would indicate a cooler and wetter climate. Similarly, variations in $\delta^{234}U$ values are interpreted to indicate residence time or infiltration rate of precipitation through soil and bedrock (Polyak et al., 2012), where

more 234 U is picked up during drier periods when water flows more slowly through the bedrock. Based on these interpretations, higher trace element concentrations and $\delta^{234}U$ values that are observed during the Middle Holocene from $~6000$ to $~4200$ yr BP in stalagmite PD3 suggest it was slightly warmer and drier than the Late Holocene where values lowered around ~4000 yr BP. These results are similar to other speleothem records from SWNA that suggest the Middle Holocene climate was overall slightly warmer and drier than the Late Holocene, evidenced by the general lack of growth during the Middle Holocene until around ~4000 yr BP (Polyak and Asmerom, 2001). The trace element and δ^{234} U data further demonstrate that there was an observable shift in the climate around 4200 yr BP in SWNA, consistent with the timing of the Middle to Late Holocene transition observed in other global records (Walker et al., 2012).

Additionally, the grayscale record from stalagmite PD3 shows a slight increase in values overall (lightening of gray) from the Middle to Late Holocene, which indicates the climate became gradually wetter overall. The visual increase in variability observed in the grayscale time-series also suggests that the Late Holocene experienced greater climate variability than the Middle Holocene starting around 4000 yr BP, and the wavelet analysis results provide evidence that stronger interdecadal and decadal periodicities began around 4000 yr BP (Fig. 7). Increased variability in the Late Holocene is likely a result of increased ENSO/PDO activity that is evidenced to have begun around 4000 yr BP (Barron and Anderson, 2011; Conroy et al., 2008) and would suggest that a gain in effective moisture was due to the introduction of greater Pacific-derived winter precipitation.

While the stable isotope records do not show a clearly defined transition, they do show a dip in values and higher variability between ~4200-3800 yr BP. This period overlaps with a strong decadal variance observed in the grayscale wavelet analysis results, which we interpret as increased ENSO/PDO activity. The dip in values may suggest this was a cooler and wetter interval that could be the result of more frequent El Niño events and/or positive PDO phases during the period of global transition from Middle to Late Holocene. The stable isotope record also shows centennial-scale periodicities, and the dominant modes of centennial variability from spectral analysis are 93, 123, 167, 212, and 167 that indicate the climate of SWNA is in part modulated by fluxes in solar radiation (Asmerom et al., 2007; Ogurtsov et al., 2002; Sonett and Finney, 1990). However, sampling resolution of stable isotopes in stalagmite PD3 prevents the observations of frequencies below the 50-year interval, which prevents drawing conclusions about ENSO/PDO variability from the stable isotope time-series. The stable isotope values are effectively the same in the Middle Holocene as they are in the Late Holocene, suggesting the climate was overall similar.

Trace elements and δ^{234} U are hydrological indicators that record changes in residence time of groundwater, so it is likely that they are more sensitive to changes in subsurface hydrology than stable isotopes, which are affected more by cave and atmospheric air dynamics. If increased moisture observed in the Late Holocene is a result of increased winter precipitation, which is critical for groundwater recharge (Sheppard et al., 2002), trace elements and δ^{234} U might be more likely to record this signal and could account for the shift observed in their records that is not observed in the stable isotope records.

5.2 High resolution climate variability in the Middle and Late Holocene

In this study stalagmite X2 represents the Middle Holocene and stalagmite X3 represents the Late Holocene. They provide high-resolution records of climate variability during these periods because of their fast growth rates and sampling resolutions. Although the record is established from two different samples, their stable isotope values are comparable under the assumptions that they grew near each other in the same cave, have similar growth rates, and are measured at similar resolutions.

The δ^{13} C and δ^{18} O records produced from stalagmites X2 and X3 shows a simple observational trend somewhat congruent with the stalagmite PD3 record. In general the stable isotope values are 1-2‰ heavier during the Middle Holocene than the Late Holocene, which we interpret as slightly warmer and more arid conditions accompanied by a potentially greater summer monsoonal input. This interpretation corresponds with the decreasing strength of summer insolation from the Middle to Late Holocene where the NAM was at its peak around 6000 yr BP (Metcalfe et al., 2015). Increased summer insolation during the Middle Holocene would have increased the land surface temperature, giving more convective potential for monsoonal circulation. However, whether the Middle Holocene NAM was likely stronger (wetter), extended over a larger region geographically, or was simply the primary moisture source due to lack of winter precipitation is difficult to conclude from the data in this study. Higher temperatures strengthening the monsoon would also be accompanied by enhanced evaporation, lowering the effective moisture during the Middle Holocene. We interpret the lighter stable isotope values during the Late Holocene as cooler and wetter conditions with additional moisture from an increase in winter precipitation. Snowmelt from winter

precipitation is an important contributor to groundwater supply, whereas much of the summer monsoonal precipitation evaporates before it infiltrates into groundwater reservoirs (Sheppard et al., 2002). Decreasing evaporation in response to dropping temperatures into the Late Holocene would have additionally reduced the impact of evaporation, resulting in an overall wetter climate.

This trend is consistent with the trace element and δ^{234} U records from stalagmite PD3. However, the growth periods of stalagmites X2 and X3 would suggest that the period from ~4000-2000 yr BP represents a growth hiatus and would indicate that conditions were not suitable for stalagmite growth, perhaps due to slightly more arid conditions. Alternatively, because only two samples were collected from this cave this may also be due to lack of sampling in Christmas Tree Cave. Powders drilled at tops and bottoms of broken segments of another stalagmite left on the cave floor shows growth of <2300 and greater than 2900 yr BP, which would fill in much of this ~4000-2000 yr BP gap. Overall, this record does show that the latter part of the Middle Holocene climate was similar to that of the Late Holocene and that overall differences are subtle.

Multicentury variability that is observed in the Middle Holocene record is almost completely absent from the Late Holocene record except for a 154-year periodicity. This likely reflects the 126-year solar signal that is also preserved in the Late Holocene speleothem record from stalagmite BC2 (Rasmussen et al., 2006) and was demonstrated to contribute to SWNA climate variability during the Holocene (Asmerom et al., 2007). Variations in the $\delta^{18}O$ record are visibly more frequent and more extreme during the Late Holocene, suggesting a more variable climate compared to the Middle Holocene. This is supported by the wavelet results that show a strong decadal frequency during the Late

Holocene that is not observed during the Middle Holocene (Fig. 11). Spectral analysis of this data also indicates a 2, 3, and 7-year periodicity present in the Late Holocene record that is not observed in the Middle Holocene record. These observations suggest the Late Holocene experienced increased PDO and ENSO-like variability, and are consistent with Rasmussen (2006) and Rasmussen et al. (2006) who suggested the Late Holocene climate is modulated strongly by PDO. The combined X2 and X3 record extends the highresolution Late Holocene speleothem record established in Rasmussen (2006) into the Middle Holocene for comparison. Common behavior is observed in $\delta^{18}O$ data from stalagmite X3 and annual growth band data from stalagmite BC2 (Rasmussen et al., 2006) in which wavelet analysis demonstrates that both show significant decadal variability around ~1800 and between 1400-1600 yr BP, then relatively weak decadal variability after \sim 1400 yr BP.

A more active PDO would increase Pacific-derived precipitation during the winter in SWNA when in its positive phase and cause droughts in SWNA when in its negative phase. However, depending on its alignment with ENSO phases these effects can be enhanced or dampened (Wang et al., 2014). Frequent droughts and pluvial episodes have been observed in Late Holocene climate records (Kirby et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014; Rasmussen et al., 2006; Cook et al., 2007; Woodhouse et al., 2009), and this highfrequency variability is attributed to increased ENSO/PDO activity. Even though brief drought episodes were likely more frequent in the Late Holocene, the pluvial episodes and overall cooler climate probably resulted in slightly greater overall effective moisture in the Late Holocene relative to the latter part of the Middle Holocene.

Strong correlation between carbon and oxygen isotopes is indicative of more evaporation (drier conditions), and though comparable for the two periods, correlation between carbon and oxygen in the Middle Holocene is lower than during the Late Holocene. This is unexpected under the interpretation that the Middle Holocene was more arid, and this finding suggests that it was not significantly drier than the Late Holocene. One explanation for the higher R^2 value in the Late Holocene could be the result of more frequent La Niña induced droughts that caused more periodic periods of evaporation to occur in the cave. The greater variability likely results in greater correlation of carbon versus oxygen isotope values, and may be caused by more frequent pluvial as well as drought episodes, with an overall slightly wetter average. Additionally, overall cooler temperatures in the Late Holocene would drive more ventilation in the caves, leading to more evaporation and higher correlation of carbon and oxygen isotope values.

5.3 Comparison to other climate proxies

Dongge cave in southeastern China receives the majority of its moisture from the East Asian monsoon (EAM) that is demonstrated to have weakened from the Middle to Late Holocene based on speleothem δ^{18} O data, lake sediment, and other climate proxies generally following the decrease in summer insolation (Chen et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2005) and its influence on land-sea temperature contrasts. $\delta^{234}U$ data from Dongge cave (Wang et al., 2005) shows increasing values from the Middle to the Late Holocene, which is opposite that of stalagmite PD3 (Fig. 13).

The aridification observed in the δ^{234} U record from Dongge Cave is interpreted to directly represent the weakening of the EAM into the Late Holocene because the hydroclimate variability in the EAM region is monsoon-dominated. If SWNA received moisture from the NAM alone we would expect there to be a similar trend in these data because of the relationship between monsoon strength and solar intensity; however, SWNA got wetter as the EAM region got drier. SWNA therefore must have been receiving moisture from an additional source and it is thus likely that the observed increase in effective moisture in SWNA during the Late Holocene came from increased winter precipitation.

It is necessary to note that the $\delta^{234}U$ signal is source (decay)-limited and could deplete over time from preferential groundwater leaching of 234 U regardless of any changes in the climate. However, we suggest the $\delta^{234}U$ record from stalagmite PD3 is a climate signal based on comparison with $\delta^{234}U$ data from PP1, a stalagmite collected from a cave adjacent to the cave from which stalagmite PD3 was collected. PP1 roughly follows the summer insolation curve (Fig. 14); both insolation and PP1 $\delta^{234}U$ values increase from 12 ka to 6 ka, then peak and begin decreasing from 6 ka to the present. This

correlation suggests the $\delta^{234}U$ signal is responding to changes in the climate. Both $\delta^{234}U$ records from PD3 and PP1 decrease over the last 6000 years (Fig. xx).

In order to test the hypothesis that more winter precipitation was introduced into SWNA during the Late Holocene we used speleothem δ^{18} O data from Leviathan Cave, an alpine cave in south-central Nevada, which is interpreted as a proxy for temperature and moisture source for winter precipitation in the Great Basin (Fig. 13; Lachniet et al., 2014). Leviathan cave receives the same Pacific winter moisture as SWNA and very little addition of summer precipitation because NAM circulation does not extend that far north. The climate is therefore controlled predominantly by winter precipitation and this site provides a record of temperature and season-specific moisture that could indicate changes in the Pacific teleconnections that affect winter moisture in SWNA.

Figure 15 δ^{18} O data from Leviathan cave (top) compared to stalagmite PD3 data. The Leviathan data shows a decrease in values and increase in variability from the Middle to Late Holocene similar to the stalagmite PD3 records.

The data from Leviathan Cave shows an abrupt shift to cooler and wetter conditions between 4200 and 3800 yr BP when the δ^{18} O values decrease by ~2‰. Sampling resolution prevents the detection of interdecadal periodicities, however a clear visual increase in stalagmite growth and variability begins around 4000 yr BP (Fig. 15) that is interpreted as a result of decreasing insolation and Pacific SST changes that produced more El Nino-like conditions during the Late Holocene (Kirby et al., 2015).

This record provides evidence that the increase in effective moisture observed in the Late Holocene in stalagmites from SWNA is a result of increased winter precipitation, given that SWNA shares the same winter moisture as Leviathan cave. The high frequency, large-amplitude variability recorded in the Late Holocene is likely attributed to the proposed increase in ENSO/PDO variability (Kirby et al., 2015; Conroy et al., 2008; Clement et al., 2000), which is demonstrated to effect winter precipitation in the modern climate.

Periodic signals observed in stalagmite records in this study are consistent with known solar cycles, which suggest the climate of SWNA is sensitive to changes in solar intensity. It is also likely that summer insolation is a driver of increased Middle Holocene monsoonal precipitation input and that Pacific SSTs become increasingly important in the Late Holocene. Studies by Clement et al. (2000) and Liu et al. (2000, 2003) suggest ENSO variability was present throughout the Holocene but that ENSO variability was suppressed by solar insolation during the Middle Holocene, and then increased in strength and variability during the Late Holocene. They suggest Middle Holocene El Niño events were less frequent and less extreme, and La Niña conditions were enhanced, which is also evident in sand proxy data from a lake in the Galapagos Islands (Conroy et

al., 2008). Figure 16 shows percent sand from El Junco Lake compared to stalagmites X2 and X3 stable isotope data.

(Conroy et al., 2008) displayed with X2 and X3 stable isotope data. Higher percent sand indicates higher frequency of El Nino conditions during the Late Holocene.

Higher percent sand indicates more El Niños (Conroy et al., 2008). There is a general lack of strong El Niño events during the Middle Holocene except for around \sim 6000 yr BP, and a clear increase in El Niño events during the Late Holocene from \sim 2000-1400 yr BP that corresponds with the high frequency variability observed in stalagmite X3 and BC11 records. The peaks in El Niño events observed in the sand proxy data roughly correspond with low δ^{18} O values in the Late Holocene speleothem record, which is consistent with the known expression of El Niño in SWNA. Further, SST reconstructions from the North Pacific (Barron et al., 2003) and tropical Pacific (Koutavas and Joanides, 2012) provide records of PDO and ENSO inferred activity, respectively. Warmer temperatures in the North Pacific represent positive PDO

conditions along with a weaker tropical Pacific SST gradient that suggest El Niño-like conditions. The coolest North Pacific temperatures and strongest tropical Pacific SST gradient are observed in those records occurs during the warm Middle Holocene, suggesting a more negative PDO combined with La Niña-like conditions for this period. This combined PDO/ENSO effect would amplify arid conditions in SWNA, which is observed in this speleothem record. These stalagmites also record high frequency variability in the Late Holocene that is consistent with the onset of stronger ENSO/PDO activity starting around 4000 yr BP (Gliganic et al., 2014; Barron and Anderson, 2011; Conroy et al., 2008). The increase in Pacific activity driving more winter storms during the Late Holocene could explain the shift to lighter isotope values and inferred increased winter precipitation observed in stalagmite records from SWNA.

Our data also provides evidence that SWNA did experience a climate shift around 4200 yr BP that, in a global context, is consistent with various records that discuss the importance of climate change during this period with respect to the development, sustainability, and collapse of civilizations. For example, Mayewski et al. (2004) described an interval of rapid climate change at 4200-3800 yr BP that was characterized by warming in the Arctic and associated with lower sea ice volume and accordingly warmer and drier climates in the North Atlantic region (An et al., 2005). This is consistent with the timing of the collapse of the Akkadian empire as well as the collapse of numerous Neolithic cultures in China and other parts of Asia (Liu and Feng, 2012; Yang et al., 2015). It is also coeval with the timing of the earliest evidence for maize in SWNA (Merrill et al., 2009), which emphasizes the importance of small climate changes

on cultural evolution and why it is necessary to understand the mechanisms behind these climate changes.

Modeling predictions of ENSO variability to increasing warming has remained inconclusive despite extensive and continuous efforts to determine if rising atmospheric temperatures will lead to more frequent El Niño or La Niña-like conditions (Dai, 2013; Sadekov et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2010; Timmermann et al., 1999). The complexity of atmosphere-ocean feedbacks that modulate ENSO behavior makes it difficult to model, but it is likely that one or more of them will be modified by anthropogenic climate change (Collins et al., 2010), demonstrating why understanding the conditions driving its behavior in the past is critical part of constraining the scope of changes in the future. A large majority of modeling experiments suggests that warming from increased greenhouse gases will result in a weakening of the Walker circulation (Sadekov et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2010; An et al., 2008; Vecchi et al., 2006), which would decrease the tropical pacific SST gradient. These model results and the relationship between zonal SST gradient and ENSO variability suggests that future warming would therefore lead to enhanced ENSO variability (Sadekov et al., 2013), which would increase the frequency of both drought and pluvial periods in SWNA. This does not necessarily inform the likelihood of more El Niño or La Niña events, which will be dependent on preferential heating of the eastern (El Niños) or western (La Niñas) tropical Pacific.

In addition to predicting changes in ENSO behavior, the question of how increasing warming will impact the NAM is equally important with respect to SWNA climate and water availability. Data from stalagmite PD3 suggests the warmer temperatures of the Middle Holocene coincided with a monsoon-dominated climate that

was notably drier than the Late Holocene when temperatures were cooler. This alone would suggest heating would return SWNA to a predominantly monsoonal-dominated climate and is supported by the findings in Asmerom et al. (2013) that suggest increased warming will be accompanied by stronger (wetter) monsoons. However, whether ENSO becomes more or less important relative to its presence in the Middle Holocene could play a major role in the overall amount of effective moisture SWNA receives.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS

This study focused on the reconstruction of the relative effective moisture in SWNA from the Middle to Late Holocene climate using U-series dating of three stalagmites from SWNA and analyses of carbon and oxygen stable isotopes, trace elements, δ^{234} U, and grayscale time-series. Trace element and δ^{234} U data from stalagmite PD3 provide a long-term climate record from ~6000-2000 yr BP that suggests that there was a subtle but observable shift in the climate of SWNA around 4200 yr BP and this latter part of the Middle Holocene was slightly warmer and more arid than the Late Holocene. Grayscale data also suggests that the Late Holocene climate experienced higher frequency interdecadal and decadal climate variability. Stable isotope data from stalagmites X2 and X3 provide additional separate high-resolution records of segments of the Middle and Late Holocene that also suggest the Middle Holocene was slightly warmer/more arid and the Late Holocene was cooler/wetter and also experienced more decadal variability. The increased interdecadal and decadal variation observed in the Late Holocene from these speleothem records is consistent with the onset of a more active ENSO/PDO system and more frequent El Niños starting around 4000 yr BP.

In general it is likely that the climate of the Middle Holocene was somewhat similar to that of the Late Holocene and the transition in SWNA was subtle. The results of this study and their comparison with other climate proxies suggest the Middle Holocene climate from 6000 to 4000 yr BP was likely dominated by NAM precipitation and the transition into the Late Holocene involved the introduction of more winter precipitation as a result of increased ENSO/PDO activity and El Niño conditions. The increased strength and/or frequency of ENSO/PDO during the Late Holocene resulted in

greater climate variability due to brief pluvial and drought periods that produced an overall moist period. Overall, cooler conditions (less evaporation) in the Late Holocene plus the introduction of greater winter input resulted in slightly greater effective moisture compared to the Middle Holocene.

These results emphasize the importance of understanding how large-scale climatic teleconnections, such as ENSO and PDO, as well as global monsoon systems have evolved and varied over time, and how they affected water availability in semi-arid regions such as SWNA. Detailed climate reconstructions that extend data beyond the instrumental record provide necessary information about natural climate variability that are used to make better model predictions regarding the impact of increasing warming on water resources.

APPENDIX A: EQUATIONS

Equation S1. Stalagmite PD3 U-series polynomial age equation.

$$
y = -2.54 \times 10^{-9} x^{6} + 1.61 \times 10^{-6} x^{3} - 3.83 \times 10^{-2} x^{4} + 4.16 \times 10^{-2} x^{3} + 1.99 x^{2} + 55.7 x + 1850
$$

Equation S2. Stalagmite X2 U-series polynomial 3 age equations.

$$
y = -2.17 \times 10^{-8} x^6 + 5.75 \times 10^{-6} x^5 - 5.33 \times 10^{-4} x^4 + 2.05 \times 10^{-2} x^3 - 0.302 x^2 + 8.83 x + 4102
$$

\n
$$
y = -1.05 \times 10^{-5} x^4 + 6.08 \times 10^{-3} x^3 - 1.28 x^2 + 120 x - 2919
$$

\n
$$
y = -4.90 \times 10^{-12} x^6 + 1.12 \times 10^{-8} x^5 - 8.08 \times 10^{-6} x^4 + 2.69 \times 10^{-2} x^3 - 4.57 x^2 + 383 x - 7791
$$

Equation S3. Stalagmite X3 U-series polynomial 3 age equations.

$$
y = 7.24 \times 10^{-8} x^5 - 3.15 \times 10^{-5} x^4 + 4.56 \times 10^{-3} x^3 - 0.240 x^2 + 6.28 x + 966
$$

$$
y = -1.05 \times 10^{-5} x^4 + 6.08 \times 10^{-3} x^3 - 1.28 x^2 + 120 x - 2919
$$

$$
y = 3.10 \times 10^{-9} x^5 - 1.98 \times 10^{-6} x^4 + 2.99 \times 10^{-4} x^3 + 0.035 x^2 - 7.60 x + 1617
$$

APPENDIX B: SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table S1 Stalagmite PD3 carbon and oxygen stable isotope data.

Table S2 Stalagmite PD3 trace element data.

Age YBP	Sr (ppm)	Ba (ppm)	Age YBP	Sr (ppm)	Ba (ppm)
1908	122±0.19	167.1±0.61	4372	147.4±0.56	162.7±0.18
1924	117.6±0.58	165±0.63	4405	146.8±0.26	163.5±0.20
1946	107.4±0.29	148.3±0.47	4436	145.1±0.27	160.2±0.19
1978	110.7±1.30	152.7±0.80	4469	144.2±0.08	160.7±0.85
2014	112±1.31	156±0.78	4501	178.3±0.58	195.6±0.23
2058	106.1±0.31	147.1±0.62	4533	169.1±0.61	191.6±1.42
2107	112.6±0.19	150±0.11	4564	148.5±0.65	169±0.38
2158	106.3±0.30	141.5±0.90	4595	142.9±0.44	163.6±0.19
2214	120.1±0.29	162.6±0.28	4620	141.6±0.22	163.1±0.12
2275	126.1±0.19	166.6±0.33	4651	160±0.75	185.1±0.26
2341	102.6±103	142.2±0.21	4681	165.6±0.36	185±0.98
2407	122.7±0.51	160.3±0.65	4711	138.5±0.61	160.3 ± 0.52
2471	141.6±0.43	177.5±0.93	4745	147.9±0.46	170±0.41
2540	139.7±0.28	175±0.43	4777	188.7±0.13	204.7±0.82
2540	106.6±0.05	146.1±0.45	4810	159.9±0.5	174.5±0.26
2607	104.5±0.44	136.6±0.93	4841	175.4±0.45	189±0.71
2680	100.9±0.22	136±0.25	4875	156.6±0.17	167.8±0.92
2752	98.41±0.64	130.7±0.15	4907	150.7±0.84	160.8±0.47
2820	100.1±0.25	131.7±0.44	4940	148.7±0.17	158.6±0.45
2887	108.9±0.03	142.3±1.17	4975	153.6±0.41	159.7±0.08
2958	109.5±0.46	141.5±0.92	5012	150.6±0.73	158.8±0.56
3022	105.2 ± 0.13	133.4±0.24	5045	160.7±0.22	171.1±.047
3088	110.2±0.64	143.4±1.00	5081	157.3±0.38	166.5±0.76
3153	112.5±0.72	148.6±1.23	5118	158.2±0.42	165±0.63
3223	104.2±0.07	139.1±1.18	5156	158.2±0.22	165.5±0.54
3285	103.7±0.59	140.9±1.09	5197	223.6±0.13	210.2±0.74
3347	99.39±0.26	132.3±1.20	5235	214.3±1.07	211.3±0.43
3410	112.9±0.46	152.5±0.32	5275	238.8±1.34	219.5±0.21
3471	104.1 ± 0.16	137.3±0.82	5314	156.6±0.56	168.4±0.05
3531	108.4±0.53	144.6±0.18	5353	157.3±0.46	167.9±0.55
3587	101±0.33	132.9±0.24	5412	155.3±0.36	174.2±0.43
3610	101.1±0.24	132.2±0.78	5452	149.3±0.68	165±0.51
3643	96.47±0.29	125.3±0.35	5493	138.7±0.51	160.3 ± 0.28
3698	105.4±0.15	134.3±0.33	5536	142.1 ± 0.25	163.5±0.57
3707	108.9±0.28	142.2±0.72	5581	145.9±0.54	166.7±0.98
3747	126.1±0.53	153.9±0.22	5623	153.4±1.45	175.3±0.64
3770	111.1±0.21	138.1±0.49	5669	160±0.09	182.1±0.45
3799	107±0.42	126.6±0.05	5709	168.3±0.45	188.5±0.80
3851	122.2±0.54	142.6±0.25	5757	171.9±0.12	185.9±0.54
3899	95.29±0.24	114.6±0.25	5800	213.5±0.43	234±1.00

Table S3 Stalagmite PD3 δ^{234} U data

Age YBP	δ234U ‰	Age YBP	δ234U ‰	Age YBP	δ234U ‰
1916	762±1.76	3821	768±2.74	4952	806±2.76
1949	770±2.43	3865	768±2.26	4990	796±5.31
1983	801±2.60	3918	770±3.54	5028	794±2.64
2024	767±3.06	3974	770±0.14	5068	804±2.67
2093	762±1.69	4022	764±3.73	5108	804±2.33
2161	757±2.37	4080	785±2.86	5152	809±1.61
2225	778±2.78	4131	789±1.78	5192	813 ± 1.63
2307	777±1.87	4174	786±0.15	5233	817±1.07
2385	761±2.90	4213	796±2.70	5276	806±3.09
2463	758±2.27	4258	777±1.88	5326	814±1.46
2546	756±3.23	4296	795±1.51	5391	833 ± 3.25
2633	753±0.54	4335	804±3.00	5445	841±4.14
2713	771±3.94	4374	797±1.06	5498	832±1.46
2810	759±2.34	4424	799±2.48	5552	828±3.66
2893	764±2.81	4453	805±3.68	5614	829±5.53
2960	767±3.31	4484	807±5.08	5661	829±5.53
3044	781±2.93	4516	801±2.10	5709	829±4.85
3123	773±2.13	4554	803 ± 2.63	5757	833±3.96
3210	778±1.89	4588	808±3.64	5808	935±15.4
3281	784±0.13	4628	809±2.18	5852	850±3.28
3351	769±1.77	4663	815±1.58	5906	849±2.11
3416	761±2.85	4696	818±1.07	5953	824±10.6
3472	776±2.88	4730	819±2.08	6006	834±1.65
3531	768±1.30	4776	803±2.08	6053	809±4.66
3587	772±3.55	4813	798±1.68	6101	801±4.30
3650	769±2.42	4851	799±2.71	6136	806±2.77
3705	774±2.10	4883	794±2.64	6183	812±2.98
3769	774±0.15	4920	791±2.38	6217	812±2.98

Table S4 Stalagmite X2 carbon and oxygen stable isotope data.

			Age			Age			Age		
Age YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O	YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O	YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O	YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O
4106	-4.50	-3.34	4262	-7.44	-6.02	4428	-8.12	-5.73	4528	-5.17	-3.79
4111	-2.99	-3.01	4266	-4.43	-4.72	4431	-4.91	-4.95	4531	-6.46	-5.01
4115	-1.55	-2.38	4270	-6.96	-5.34	4434	-6.20	-5.15	4533	-5.47	-4.69
4119	-3.09	-2.52	4275	-7.20	-5.67	4437	-6.52	-5.05	4536	-5.10	-4.19
4122	1.70	-1.15	4279	-7.58	-6.11	4440	-7.57	-5.81	4539	-5.04	-4.64
4126	-2.16	-2.70	4283	-3.12	-4.65	4443	-7.06	-5.56	4542	-2.77	-3.90
4130	-6.23	-4.90	4288	-6.17	-6.00	4446	-7.07	-5.77	4544	-5.23	-3.79
4134	-3.57	-3.02	4292	-5.65	-5.43	4449	-7.17	-5.61	4547	-5.65	-4.57
4137	-0.11	-2.01	4297	-6.48	-5.25	4452	-6.73	-5.61	4550	-5.15	-4.62
4141	3.28	-0.67	4301	-7.77	-6.34	4454	-5.50	-5.39	4554	-4.95	-4.35
4144	-1.35	-3.35	4305	-8.20	-6.65	4457	-5.42	-4.75	4557	-5.79	-4.65
4148	-6.23	-4.99	4310	-7.43	-6.19	4460	-6.68	-5.47	4560	-4.97	-4.06
4151	-5.98	-4.39	4314	-6.51	-5.77	4462	-7.01	-5.54	4563	-5.73	-4.33
4155	-6.89	-5.29	4318	-7.05	-5.55	4465	-6.54	-5.38	4567	-6.07	-4.67
4158	-5.37	-4.62	4323	-7.84	-6.07	4467	-5.43	-4.67	4571	-5.54	-4.30
4162	-3.03	-4.63	4327	-7.72	-6.07	4470	-5.49	-4.35	4574	-6.40	-5.17
4165	-5.42	-3.97	4331	-7.91	-6.37	4472	-5.84	-5.27	4578	-5.74	-4.20
4169	-7.07	-5.37	4336	-7.28	-6.23	4475	-6.43	-5.13	4582	-6.66	-4.72
4172	-7.52	-5.66	4340	-6.45	-5.73	4477	-6.86	-5.39	4586	-6.31	-4.49
4176	-7.68	-5.64	4344	-6.26	-5.03	4479	-7.73	-5.97	4590	-6.08	-4.70
4179	-6.38	-5.34	4349	-7.41	-5.68	4481	-6.73	-5.01	4595	-6.60	-5.13
4183	-7.57	-5.83	4353	-7.87	-6.03	4484	-6.83	-5.04	4599	-5.88	-4.53
4187	-7.35	-4.75	4357	-7.27	-5.63	4486	-5.73	-4.41	4604	-5.36	-4.43
4190	-7.45	-4.93	4361	-6.49	-5.71	4488	-5.86	-4.34	4609	-5.31	-3.83
4194	-7.68	-5.44	4365	-8.04	-6.31	4490	-5.67	-4.05	4613	-5.90	-4.64
4198	-7.40	-5.27	4369	-8.20	-6.27	4493	-6.35	-5.16	4618	-6.80	-5.39
4201	-7.44	-5.36	4373	-7.47	-5.43	4495	-7.22	-6.07	4624	-5.47	-4.19
4205	-7.74	-5.65	4377	-7.46	-5.54	4497	-7.60	-6.20	4629	-5.43	-4.34
4209	-7.05	-5.69	4381	-4.51	-4.33	4499	-7.80	-6.57	4634	-6.31	-5.14
4213	-6.15	-5.11	4385	-7.04	-4.96	4501	-7.80	-6.47	4640	-5.84	-4.55
4217	-6.43	-5.14	4389	-8.06	-5.62	4503	-6.94	-5.31	4646	-6.13	-4.49
4221	-4.25	-4.81	4393	-7.25	-5.62	4505	-6.32	-5.34	4651	-6.26	-4.78
4225	-6.61	-5.50	4396	-7.51	-5.11	4508	-5.28	-4.42	4657	-5.12	-3.92
4229	-7.08	-5.56	4400	-7.57	-5.55	4510	-6.41	-4.77	4664	-5.21	-4.65
4233	-7.72	-6.29	4404	-6.89	-4.83	4512	-6.13	-4.26	4670	-5.57	-4.45
4237	-8.38	-6.70	4407	-6.87	-4.72	4514	-6.95	-5.22	4676	-5.73	-4.66
4241	-7.46	-6.40	4411	-7.19	-5.02	4516	-7.75	-5.89	4683	-4.34	-4.42
4245	-5.74	-5.44	4414	-7.12	-5.23	4519	-7.32	-5.70	4689	-4.37	-4.43
4249	-7.06	-5.98	4418	-7.76	-5.57	4521	-7.18	-5.40	4696	-5.77	-4.99
4253	-8.11	-6.91	4421	-6.72	-5.19	4523	-6.53	-4.91	4701	-6.44	-5.43

Table S5 Stalagmite X3 carbon and oxygen stable isotope data.

Age YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O	Age YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O	Age YBP	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O		$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{18} O
1024	-6.49	-5.68	1154	-5.83	-4.94	1288	-4.01	-4.29	Age YBP 1425	-5.90	-5.58
1028	-7.08	-6.19	1157	-6.13	-5.68	1292	-5.07	-4.85	1429	-7.15	-6.84
1032	-7.59	-6.51	1160	-6.25	-5.71	1295	-5.16	-4.63	1432	-7.26	-6.82
1035	-7.96					1299					
		-6.86	1164	-6.12	-5.57		-4.99	-4.31	1436	-6.31	-4.52
1039	-6.92	-5.95	1167	-5.45	-5.16	1302	-4.82	-4.51	1439	-6.94	-5.63
1042	-7.16	-6.17	1170	-5.77	-5.19	1306	-6.60	-5.86	1442	-6.70	-5.37
1046	-7.19	-6.28	1174	-6.39	-5.70	1309	-7.05	-6.10	1446	-6.63	-4.75
1049	-7.67	-6.51	1177	-7.39	-6.55	1313	-6.76	-6.15	1449	-5.47	-2.82
1052	-7.99	-6.79	1180	-7.52	-6.60	1316	-5.39	-5.20	1453	-3.60	-2.52
1056	-7.97	-6.72	1184	-7.93	-6.72	1320	-6.43	-5.96	1456	-6.16	-3.50
1059	-7.60	-6.32	1187	-8.08	-6.71	1324	-5.84	-5.50	1459	-6.80	-5.70
1062	-8.15	-6.82	1190	-8.14	-6.53	1327	-7.51	-6.61	1463	-7.06	-5.98
1066	-7.97	-6.64	1194	-7.20	-6.11	1331	-6.28	-5.70	1466	-3.53	-3.76
1069	-8.14	-6.85	1197	-7.84	-6.69	1334	-7.84	-7.04	1469	-7.36	-6.53
1072	-7.83	-6.79	1201	-8.07	-6.67	1338	-7.64	-6.67	1473	-7.61	-6.50
1076	-7.63	-6.43	1204	-8.04	-6.51	1341	-6.77	-6.25	1476	-7.08	-6.35
1079	-7.49	-6.42	1207	-8.17	-6.37	1345	-5.76	-6.15	1479	-7.57	-6.67
1082	-7.93	-6.93	1211	-7.72	-6.04	1349	-6.87	-6.34	1483	-7.01	-6.17
1086	-7.91	-6.73	1214	-7.31	-5.78	1352	-5.65	-5.84	1486	-7.32	-6.41
1089	-7.91	-6.99	1218	-7.79	-6.21	1356	-6.73	-6.00	1489	-6.13	-5.55
1092	-7.91	-7.05	1221	-7.63	-6.07	1359	-7.03	-6.03	1492	-5.89	-5.65
1095	-7.97	-7.01	1225	-7.98	-6.44	1363	-7.16	-6.06	1496	-4.71	-4.67
1098	-8.06	-7.08	1228	-7.95	-6.52	1366	-7.55	-6.22	1499	-2.55	-4.39
1102	-8.06	-7.13	1232	-8.00	-6.61	1370	-7.23	-6.06	1502	-5.36	-5.69
1105	-7.95	-7.17	1235	-6.70	-5.59	1373	-6.89	-5.92	1505	-7.19	-7.01
1108	-7.52	-6.77	1239	-7.47	-6.32	1377	-7.37	-6.21	1509	-7.27	-7.18
1111	-7.27	-6.27	1242	-8.27	-6.62	1380	-5.91	-5.06	1512	-7.76	-7.76
1115	-7.08	-6.17	1246	-5.60	-5.11	1384	-7.00	-6.13	1515	-4.02	-5.18
1118	-7.25	-6.06	1249	-6.83	-5.87	1387	-7.97	-6.79	1518	-7.12	-7.15
1121	-6.48	-5.42	1253	-8.02	-6.80	1391	-7.88	-6.91	1521	-6.87	-7.08
1124	-4.48	-3.88	1256	-7.25	-6.22	1394	-7.96	-6.71	1525	-6.92	-6.95
1128	-6.28	-5.09	1260	-7.58	-6.53	1398	-7.89	-6.66	1528	-6.17	-5.97
1131	-5.39	-4.31	1263	-6.53	-5.78	1401	-7.58	-6.70	1531	-6.41	-6.17
1134	-7.03	-5.71	1267	-6.30	-5.70	1405	-8.08	-7.06	1534	-7.02	-6.57
1137	-6.78	-5.72	1270	-7.82	-6.82	1408	-8.05	-7.13	1537	-6.67	-6.11
1141	-7.13	-5.86	1274	-7.81	-6.86	1412	-8.37	-7.32	1541	-7.75	-6.99
1144	-7.08	-5.95	1277	-5.79	-5.68	1415	-7.16	-6.56	1544	-7.91	-7.15
1147	-7.70	-6.49	1281	-7.01	-6.12	1419	-6.36	-3.97	1547	-5.02	-5.23
1150	-7.31	-6.38	1284	-5.27	-4.86	1422	-7.83	-6.88	1550	-7.62	-6.86
1553	-7.77	-6.90	1677	-6.58	-4.91	1811	-6.73	-6.31	1664	-7.13	-5.52

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