

1 **Holocene hydroclimate in the Southeastern United States during abrupt climate events:**  
2 **evidence from new speleothem isotopic records from Alabama**

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16  
17 Abstract

18 We present new high-resolution absolute-dated stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records from Alabama,  
19 southeastern United States (SE US), spanning the last 12 thousand years (ka). A local  
20 relationship between annual rainfall amount and its amount-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition exists on  
21 interannual timescales, driven mostly by an amount effect during summer and spring seasons,  
22 and by an isotopically depleted composition of fall and winter precipitation. Based on a novel  
23 interpretation of modern rainfall isotopic data, stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability is interpreted to reflect  
24 the relative contribution of summer and spring precipitation combined relative to combined fall  
25 and winter precipitation. Precipitation amount in the SE US increases during the Younger Dryas,  
26 the 8.2 ka and Little Ice Age abrupt cooling events. High precipitation during these events  
27 reflects enhancement of spring and summer precipitation while the contribution of fall and  
28 winter rainfall remained unchanged or decreased slightly. Results from this study support model  
29 simulation results that suggest increased precipitation in the SE US during Atlantic Meridional  
30 Overturning Circulation (AMOC) slowdown/shutdown (LeGrande et al., 2006; Renssen et al.,  
31 2002; Vellinga and Wood, 2002). In association with Northern Hemisphere mid-latitude cooling

32 from the Early to mid-Holocene, annual precipitation in the SE US decreases, a pattern  
33 distinctive from that observed during abrupt cooling events related to AMOC shifts. Long-term  
34 hydroclimate change in the SE US is likely sensitive to summer insolation reduction as inferred  
35 for other tropical and subtropical regions. This study has implications for our understanding of  
36 the sensitivity of subtropical hydroclimate to factors both internal and external to the climate  
37 system in a warmer climate.

## 38 1. Introduction

39 The evolution of human societies and ecosystems are intimately related to the degree of  
40 climate stability over time at a regional scale (IPBES, 2019; Ipcc, 2014). The Intergovernmental  
41 Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) estimates that within the next three  
42 decades 1 million species are threatened with extinction, and it highlights temperature and  
43 hydroclimate change as chief driving factors (IPBES, 2019). Large uncertainty remains,  
44 however, regarding our understanding of past hydroclimate variability and its underlying drivers,  
45 and therefore also, in our capacity to predict the future. Considerable disagreement among state-  
46 of-the-art climate model predictions of precipitation for the end of this century underlines the  
47 need to better understand the drivers of hydroclimate variability to help improve the climate  
48 forecast (Anandhi and Bentley, 2018).

49 A potential driver of abrupt hydroclimate change relates to climate reorganizations associated  
50 with slowdown or complete shutdown of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation  
51 (AMOC). This circulation system is thought to be a key tipping point of the Earth's climate  
52 system and seems to already be responding to increasing anthropogenic climate forcings  
53 (Collins et al., 2019). The potential impacts of AMOC shifts on Northern Hemisphere  
54 hydroclimate remain unclear, however. The historical hydroclimate record remains too short and

55 fragmented to help validate long-term climate model simulations. Thus, model studies rely on  
56 the few existing paleoclimate records to assess their performance simulating climate change  
57 triggered by abrupt ocean circulation changes (Dahl et al., 2005; Otto-Bliesner and Brady, 2010;  
58 Vellinga and Wood, 2002).

59 Hydroclimate variability in the Southeastern United States (SE US) over the Holocene  
60 remains poorly understood and model predictions for the end of this century are highly variable,  
61 ranging from regional changes of -30 to +35% (Anandhi and Bentley, 2018). The possibility that  
62 SE US hydroclimate could respond to abrupt climate change resulting from AMOC shifts exists  
63 but remains to be examined with empirical observations.

64 The YD (12.8-11.8 ka) (Rasmussen et al., 2006), the 8.2 ka (Thomas et al., 2007) and the  
65 Little Ice Age (LIA, C.E. 1400-1900) (Matthes, 1939) cooling events are hypothesized to be in  
66 association with AMOC slowdown/shutdown (Broecker et al., 1989), and they provide a testbed  
67 to examine subtropical hydroclimate responses to ocean thermohaline circulation shifts.  
68 Paleoclimate and model results support the hypothesis that thermohaline circulation changes  
69 triggered the YD and 8.2 ka cooling events (Bard et al., 2000; Lea et al., 2003; LeGrande et al.,  
70 2006; Peterson and Haug, 2006; Renssen et al., 2002), and were associated with the LIA (Lund  
71 et al., 2006). The extent to which these climate oscillations propagated beyond the North Atlantic  
72 high-latitudes and affected subtropical hydroclimate, particularly within the SE US, remains  
73 poorly known.

74 There are currently very few paleoclimate records from the SE US that cover the critical time  
75 intervals during which ocean thermohaline circulation shifts have been recorded. Available  
76 paleoenvironmental records for this region (Goman and Leigh, 2004; Grimm et al., 1993)  
77 suggest a pattern of Holocene hydroclimate that does not seem to agree with observations from

78 the North Atlantic over these critical intervals (Grimm et al., 2006). Furthermore, climate model-  
79 hosing experiments produce hydroclimate results for the North Atlantic region that are model  
80 dependent and strongly contingent upon the duration, magnitude and location of freshwater  
81 forcing (Collins et al., 2019; Otto-Bliesner and Brady, 2010).

82 Stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  records from the North Atlantic offer a unique opportunity to reconstruct the  
83 long-term history of precipitation variability from interannual to millennial timescales in low and  
84 mid-latitudes (Aharon and Dhungana, 2017; Medina-Elizalde et al., 2017). Currently, there are  
85 only two stalagmite high-resolution climate records available from the SE US region covering  
86 the Holocene time interval; one from Alabama spanning from 6 ka to ~1 ka BP (Aharon and  
87 Dhungana, 2017) and another from West-Central Florida, spanning from 6.6 ka to 4.6 ka BP  
88 (Pollock et al., 2016). These high-resolution records reveal novel information about decadal and  
89 multidecadal hydroclimate variability in the SE US but do not span the critical YD, 8.2 ka, and  
90 LIA cooling intervals to enable assessing the regional impact of ocean thermohaline shifts.

91 In this study we present a hydroclimate record based on stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  timeseries  
92 from the SE US that span the last ~12 ka and allow us to examine subtropical climate responses  
93 to high-latitude climate change forced by thermohaline circulation shifts. There is an interest in  
94 determining the actual geographical extent of the YD, 8.2 ka and LIA events beyond the circum-  
95 North Atlantic region, especially if climate proxy records representing these events are to be  
96 used in helping validate models of thermohaline circulation shifts, in the context of potential  
97 changes in deep water formation during the Anthropocene (Collins et al., 2019).

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99

100 2. Methods

101 2.1. *Study Area*

102 In 2017 we retrieved an inactive stalagmite specimen (34 cm long) named War Eagle (WE)  
103 from an isolated cave chamber within War Eagle (WE) cave located in Jackson County,  
104 Alabama (Fig. 1 and Fig. S1). This cave is located on private property and is only accessible for  
105 half a year, when hunting season is off. WE cave has only one entrance requiring a 41m rappel.  
106 The cave is hosted within the Bangor Limestone and the thickness of the epikarst where the  
107 stalagmite was found is estimated to be between 30 and 35 m. The soil on the cave's exterior  
108 surface is scarce and the topography is categorized as stony colluvial, rockland limestone, and  
109 rockland sandstone (United States Department of Agriculture).

110

111 2.2. *Local and regional climatology*

112 Mean annual precipitation in the locality of WE Cave is 1,446 mm and mean annual  
113 temperature is 15°C (1981-2010, NOAA's weather station in Scottsboro, AL., 34.6736N,  
114 86.0536W). Precipitation shows almost no seasonality, with the lowest monthly rainfall amount  
115 typically observed in the month of October and the highest in December (Fig. S2). Monthly  
116 temperature variations range from the lowest in January (4°C) to the highest in July (26°C)  
117 (ncdc.noaa.gov). Alabama like many other locations in the interior southeast has nearly the same  
118 amount of precipitation in the warm season as in the cool season. Regional winter precipitation  
119 amount comprises the largest portion of the annual budget (29%), followed by spring and  
120 summer (~25% each) and lastly fall (~20%) (data from 2005 to 2015). Despite these long-term  
121 averages, in recent years summer precipitation has often been greater than other seasons (data

122 from Tuscaloosa, Alabama, 2005-2015) (Dhungana and Aharon, 2019; Lambert and Aharon,  
123 2010).

124         Spatial correlation analyses of the instrumental record of monthly precipitation (from  
125 1901 to 2013) across the SE US, Caribbean and Gulf of Mexico regions relative to the  
126 precipitation record from Alabama, suggest coherent in-phase variability within much of the SE  
127 US, and a weak anticorrelation with precipitation variability in the broader Caribbean region  
128 (Fig. 1). Anticorrelation reflects the underlying climate dynamics driving seasonal precipitation  
129 variability in these regions. Minor precipitation seasonality characterizes the SE US, whereas  
130 monsoonal-style seasonality is typical in the broader Caribbean (Karmalkar et al., 2011). End of  
131 21<sup>st</sup> century climate projections suggest contrasting climate responses of these regions as  
132 radiative forcing from greenhouse gases increases (Collins et al., 2013).

133         The spatial and temporal pattern of summer precipitation in the SE US is influenced by  
134 convective systems (Baigorria et al., 2007), synoptic-scale systems such as tropical cyclones ,  
135 and large-scale circulation changes (e.g. (Li et al., 2013) and references therein). During the  
136 spring and winter seasons mid-latitude cyclones advect moisture from the Gulf of Mexico and  
137 North Atlantic into this region (Keim, 1996). The subtropical North Atlantic ocean, the Mexican  
138 Caribbean and the Gulf of Mexico regions represent the main source of year-round moisture for  
139 precipitation in large areas of the continental US and particularly of the SE US (Gimeno et al.,  
140 2012). Li et al., (2013), examining multiple reanalysis datasets find that the North Atlantic  
141 Subtropical High western ridge position is a primary regulator of interannual variation of  
142 moisture transport to the SE US and that dynamical processes (atmospheric circulation) are the  
143 main control on interannual variations in precipitation.

144

145 2.3. *Cave Monitoring*

146 WE cave monitoring was established in order to better understand cave environmental  
147 conditions, particularly temperature and relative humidity; both factors affect the isotopic  
148 fractionation between drip water and stalagmite calcite. Two ONSET-HOBO instruments were  
149 placed inside the chamber where the WE stalagmite was retrieved, from October 2018 to  
150 October 2019. Monitoring results indicate WE cave remained at or near saturation conditions  
151 (RH 100%) and was thermally stable year-round with a constant temperature of 14.7°C, thus  
152 very close to local mean surface air temperature. These conditions favor isotopic equilibrium  
153 between calcite and drip water. Observed cave air thermal stability indicates that it is in thermal  
154 equilibrium with outside air temperature and thus responds to persistent air surface temperature  
155 change and not seasonal variability. We collected water at one drip site over the course of one  
156 year (i.e. from October 2018 to October 2019). Two six-month cumulative water samples yielded  
157 the same isotopic values ( $\delta^{18}\text{O} = -5.9\text{‰}$ ) similar to the amount-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of  
158 rainfall typically observed in Tuscaloosa (more details below). This indicates that drip water  
159 integrates several months and likely more than one year of precipitation amount and that surface  
160 and cave evaporative processes are not expected to significantly alter drip water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , similar to  
161 what it is observed in a cave in the Yucatan Peninsula, across the Gulf of Mexico (Lases-  
162 Hernández et al., 2019) .

163

164 2.4. *Chronology*

165 The WE stalagmite time scale was determined with 22 U/Th dates (Table S1 and Fig. S3),  
166 following the methods by (Cheng et al., 2013). Calcite powders weighing 50 to 130 mg were  
167 combined with a calibrated  $^{229}\text{Th}$ - $^{233}\text{U}$ - $^{236}\text{U}$  tracer solution, dissolved, and purified through iron

168 co-precipitation and anion exchange columns based on the methods of Edwards et al (1987)  
169 (Edwards et al., 1987). U-Th isotopic measurements were conducted on a Nu Plasma II-ES  
170 multi-collector inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) at the  
171 Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Analyses were conducted in static mode, with the minor  
172 isotopes ( $^{234}\text{U}$  and  $^{230}\text{Th}$ ) measured on a secondary electron multiplier, and all other isotopes  
173 measured on Faraday cups. U analyses were bracketed by analyses of standard CRM112a, and  
174 Th analyses were bracketed by an in-house  $^{229}\text{Th}$ - $^{230}\text{Th}$ - $^{232}\text{Th}$  standard. All dates are corrected  
175 for instrument background, tailing, mass bias, SEM yield, contributions from impurities in the  
176 spike, and chemistry blanks using an offline data reduction procedure. All errors of isotopic data  
177 and dates given are two standard deviations. Age uncertainties ranged from  $\pm 15$  to  $\pm 110$  years  
178 with a mean of  $\pm 40$  years. Only one date has an uncertainty of  $\pm 110$  years and the remaining 16  
179 dates have uncertainties lower than  $\pm 70$  years, across the 12 ka record.

180 U-Th dates indicate that WE stalagmite grew over three time intervals separated by two hiatuses.  
181 The stalagmite began to grow 12.2 ka BP and stopped growing at 10.8 ka BP. After an  
182 interruption of over 1 ka, the stalagmite resumed growth 9.4 ka BP and stopped growing 4.3 ka  
183 BP. Finally, after a  $\sim 2$  ka growth interruption, the stalagmite resumed growth once again 2.6 ka  
184 BP and stopped growing 300 years BP (years BP are relative to C.E. 1950). These two hiatuses  
185 are visually distinctive as a shift in color, fabric and vertical growth orientation (Fig. S1 & S4).  
186 Importantly, the stalagmite spans the intervals of interest corresponding to the YD and 8.2 ka  
187 cooling events and the LIA. We developed the chronology of these sections based on piecewise-  
188 linear models to account for non-linearity in stalagmite growth (Fig. S3).

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190

191 2.5.  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  &  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  Time Series

192 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data was obtained at the Paleoclimate and Stable Isotope Laboratory (PSI)  
193 in the Department of Geosciences at Auburn University, Alabama. Along the main growth  
194 axis, 688 calcite powder micro samples were drilled at a sampling resolution of 500  $\mu\text{m}$  (Table  
195 S2). The carbon and oxygen isotopic composition of calcite powders were analyzed with a  
196 Thermo Scientific Delta V Plus Isotope Ratio Mass Spectrometer interfaced with a  
197 Thermo Gasbench II. Long-term (3-year) reproducibility for reference standard IAEA-603 is  
198 0.09‰ and 0.07‰ for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , respectively. Reproducibility of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  (average  
199 standard deviation for each sample of the WE data-set) were 0.06‰ for both.

200

201 3. Results and Discussion

202 The WE stalagmite long-term average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition is -3.3 ‰, with a range from -4.3‰ to -  
203 2.1 ‰. The most negative isotopic values occur over the intervals 11.8-11ka BP, 9.4-8 ka BP and  
204 0.5-1 ka BP and the most positive over the intervals 6.5-5.5 ka BP and 10.8-11 ka BP (Fig. 2).

205 We focus this section on the climate interpretation of four separate windows of the WE  
206 stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record, which span the YD and 8.2 ka cooling events, the Early to Mid-Holocene  
207 and the Late Holocene. We provide a final discussion on the WE stalagmite  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  series in  
208 support of hydroclimate inferences from the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record.

209

210 3.1. *Precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability and the amount effect*

211 The amount effect is well documented within tropical to subtropical regions (Rozanski et al.,  
212 1993) but has not been well documented within the SE US, although modeling data with isotope  
213 tracers suggest its existence in the southernmost extension of this region (Vuille et al., 2003).

214 Relevant studies by Dhungana and Aharon (2019) and Lambert and Aharon (2010) suggested the  
215 existence of an amount effect on interannual timescales by examining a couple of years of  
216 rainfall isotopic data.

217 We examined a 10-year record (2005-2015) of precipitation amount and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data produced  
218 by the University of Alabama (Dhungana and Aharon, 2019; Lambert and Aharon, 2010; McKay  
219 and Lambert, 2015) in order to investigate the existence of an amount effect on seasonal and  
220 interannual time scales and the impact of shifts in seasonality on precipitation amount and  
221 annual precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  (Fig. S5 and Table S3).

222 Examination of decadal precipitation amount ( $P$ ) and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $\delta P$ ) data (2005-  
223 2015), reveals the existence of an interannual relationship between  $\delta P$  and  $\Delta P$  with a slope  
224  $\delta P/\Delta P = -0.0017 \text{ ‰ per mm}$  ( $r=0.34$ ) (Fig. S5A). Removal of three “anomalous” years suggests  
225 a much stronger relationship ( $\delta P/\Delta P = -0.003 \text{ ‰ per mm}$ ) ( $r=0.92$ ) (Fig. S5B). The observed  
226 relationship between precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and precipitation amount on interannual timescales is the  
227 result of an amount effect observed during the summer and spring seasons (hereafter jointly  
228 referred to as ‘summer’) combined with the distinctive depleted isotopic contribution of fall and  
229 winter precipitation (hereafter referred to as ‘winter’). Although instrumental observations  
230 support interpretation of interannual stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability in terms of precipitation amount  
231 change, the observed variability of the slope  $\delta P/\Delta P$  (i.e. Fig. S5A versus S5B) is significant  
232 enough to introduce uncertainty in quantitative precipitation estimates determined *sensu* Medina-  
233 Elizalde and Rohling (2012). In this study, we interpret stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability to reflect  
234 precipitation amount qualitatively, although we examine the shift in ‘winter’ and ‘summer’  
235 precipitation amount using the instrumental data necessary to explain stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability.

236 An observation from the instrumental record relevant to support hydroclimate  
237 interpretations of stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , is that ‘winter’ precipitation shows low interannual  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
238 variability, the highest frequency of depleted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values, and no amount effect on interannual  
239 timescales. An amount effect on interannual timescales is particularly observed during the  
240 summer and spring seasons (Fig. S6). In order to interpret WE stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability, we  
241 examine the effect of shifting the amount of precipitation during ‘summer’, relative to modern  
242 conditions, on the decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall, while maintaining ‘winter’  
243 precipitation amount constant, and vice versa, the effect of shifts in ‘winter’ precipitation on  
244 rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  while keeping ‘summer’ precipitation constant (Fig. 3 and Table S3). We explore  
245 decadal rainfall isotopic shifts because this time resolution is relevant to that of the WE  
246 stalagmite isotopic records (i.e. 7-44 years) (Fig. 2).

247 This analysis provides three main observations relevant to the hydroclimate interpretation  
248 of stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ : (i) a large increase in ‘winter’ precipitation amount does not produce *per se* a  
249 negative annual precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift, but only via dilution of isotopically enriched ‘summer’  
250 precipitation (Fig. 3). A doubling of ‘winter’ precipitation amount, for instance, would only shift  
251 the decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall by -0.24‰ when maintaining ‘summer’  
252 precipitation unchanged (Fig. 3). (ii) Peak negative decadal isotopic shifts can only be attained if  
253 ‘summer’ precipitation increases. This is the result of the amount effect observed during the  
254 summer and spring seasons (Fig. S6). Doubling of ‘summer’ precipitation amount would shift  
255 decadal average rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by -1.4‰, while doubling ‘winter’ precipitation amount would  
256 only shift it by -0.24‰, as mentioned above (Fig. 3). (iii) Maximum positive decadal rainfall  
257 isotopic shifts can only be attained by decreasing both ‘winter’ and ‘summer’ precipitation.  
258 Decreasing ‘summer’ precipitation amount alone can produce a maximum positive shift of

259 ~+0.21‰ when precipitation is reduced by 48%. A larger ‘summer’ precipitation reduction starts  
260 shifting rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in the opposite direction, by enhancing the influence of isotopically  
261 depleted ‘winter’ rainfall on the annual isotopic budget. Maximum decline of ‘winter’  
262 precipitation to zero, produces a decadal averaged positive rainfall isotopic shift of +0.85‰ (Fig.  
263 3). This shift corresponds to the difference between the decadal averaged annual amount-  
264 weighed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall (including all seasons) versus the decadal averaged  
265 ‘summer’ amount-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall.

266

### 267 3.2. *Expected equilibrium stalagmite $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values*

268 A necessary condition to interpret the oxygen isotopic composition of stalagmite calcite as a  
269 record of precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability is that calcite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  is precipitated under isotopic  
270 equilibrium conditions. Results from calculations using empirical isotopic equilibrium equations  
271 indicate calcite precipitated at or near equilibrium under the observed cave air temperature  
272 (14.7°C) and range of annual amount-weighted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall (i.e. -5.9 ‰ to -3.9  
273 ‰) would have a  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition ranging from -6.6 ‰ to -2.9 ‰ in agreement with the WE  
274 stalagmite isotopic composition (Table S4). Supported by these results, in addition to the  
275 observed cave environmental conditions (relative humidity ~100% and stable temperature), we  
276 suggest that stalagmite WE calcite was precipitated near isotopic equilibrium conditions and  
277 likely faithfully records precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  variability (Table S4). We note finally that WE  
278 stalagmite does not have distinctive temporal laminations to produce a conventional Hendy Test .

279

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281

282 3.3. *Younger Dryas and 8.2 ka cooling events*

283 Figures 4 and 5 place the WE stalagmite-precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record in the context of high-  
284 latitude climate variability during the YD and 8.2 ka cooling events. Stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values  
285 become progressively more negative during the evolution of these two events by about  $\sim -1.2\text{‰}$ .  
286 The observed relationship between precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and precipitation amount observed today  
287 on interannual timescales suggests that such negative shift in stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  reflects persistent  
288 increases in precipitation amount in the SE US during the peak of these events (Fig. S5). We  
289 acknowledge that the negative stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shift observed during the YD and 8.2 ka events  
290 could reflect regional atmospheric cooling via the same-sign relationship between water  
291 condensation temperature and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . Global circulation model hosing experiments  
292 with isotope tracers suggest, however, that precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  would have remained practically  
293 unchanged in the SE US (LeGrande et al., 2006). WE cave air cooling during these events, on  
294 the other hand, would have increased calcite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  not decrease it, due to thermodynamic isotopic  
295 fractionation between drip water and calcite, probably counterbalancing positive rainfall isotopic  
296 shifts driven by atmospheric cooling.

297 The sensitivity test we applied using the instrumental data (Fig. 3) suggests that the  
298 stalagmite isotopic shift of  $\sim -1.2\text{‰}$  can be explained by a 90% increase of ‘summer’  
299 precipitation relative to today’s conditions. As mentioned previously, an increase in ‘winter’  
300 precipitation by 100% would only shift rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by  $-0.2\text{‰}$  (while maintaining ‘summer’  
301 precipitation amount constant). We cannot discard that ‘winter’ precipitation declined at the  
302 time, because such a large increase in the influence of ‘summer’ precipitation would mask the  
303 isotopic signal of declining ‘winter’ rainfall amount. As an example, a coeval decrease of  
304 ‘winter’ precipitation amount by 100% would only shift rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by  $-0.1\text{‰}$  when ‘summer’

305 precipitation increases 90% (Table S3). We point out that a decrease of ‘summer’ precipitation to  
306 zero while maintaining ‘winter’ precipitation unchanged would decrease rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  only by a  
307 maximum of -0.7‰ and thus would fail to explain the observed stalagmite isotopic change of -  
308 1.2‰. An increase in ‘summer’ precipitation is thus necessary to explain observations. We lastly  
309 note that the suggested increase in ‘summer’ precipitation by 90% yields an increase in annual  
310 precipitation, even when winter precipitation amount is reduced by as much as 90%; in  
311 agreement with inferences based on the observed amount effect on interannual timescales (Fig.  
312 S6).

313           The YD and 8.2 ka events were associated with AMOC slowdown, North Atlantic  
314 cooling, a southward displacement of the ITCZ, and precipitation reductions in the NH low  
315 latitudes as suggested by climate model hosing experiments (Dahl et al., 2005; LeGrande et al.,  
316 2006; Otto-Bliesner and Brady, 2010; Vellinga and Wood, 2002) and paleoclimate records (Lea  
317 et al., 2003; Peterson and Haug, 2006). A southward displacement of the ITCZ during the YD  
318 and 8.2 ka events in particular is suggested by the Cariaco Basin  $\text{Ti}\%$  sediment record from  
319 offshore Venezuela and from its antiphase relationship with hydroclimate records from south  
320 America (Peterson and Haug, 2006) (Figs. 4 and 5). A southward displacement of the ITCZ due  
321 to AMOC slowdown is also supported by climate model simulations and expected to result from  
322 atmospheric circulation changes associated with significant tropical cooling (Otto-Bliesner and  
323 Brady, 2010; Stouffer et al., 2006; Vellinga and Wood, 2002).

324           Model simulations of AMOC slowdown/shutdown feature a ‘cold tongue’ of surface  
325 temperatures that extends from the North Atlantic high-latitudes through the eastern North  
326 Atlantic sector down to the tropical region (Otto-Bliesner and Brady, 2010; Vellinga and Wood,  
327 2002). This ocean ‘cold tongue’ is flanked by mild or warmer surface temperatures in the

328 western North Atlantic mid-latitude and Gulf of Mexico regions, the main sources of moisture  
329 into the SE US region (Gimeno et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013). Additional model hosing  
330 experiments that address shifts in seasonality (LeGrande et al., 2006; Renssen et al., 2002),  
331 suggest that AMOC slowdown decreases winter surface temperatures while summer  
332 temperatures remain unchanged or increase in the Gulf of Mexico and SE US. Warmer ocean  
333 conditions in the Gulf of Mexico and western North Atlantic, particularly in the summer, coeval  
334 with stronger meridional and zonal temperature gradients in the North Atlantic would be  
335 conducive to increasing local precipitation in the SE US. Enhanced precipitation in the SE US is  
336 actually supported by various model experiments of freshwater perturbation to AMOC that at the  
337 same time simulate coeval precipitation reduction in the tropical Atlantic (LeGrande et al., 2006;  
338 Renssen et al., 2002; Vellinga and Wood, 2002), in agreement with observations (Fig. 4 and 5).  
339 We acknowledge that these observations have potential implications for the inferred position and  
340 strength of the North Atlantic subtropical high pressure system during these climate events that  
341 deserve a deeper exploration beyond the scope of this study.

342         The results from this study suggesting the SE US was wet when the North Atlantic was  
343 cold and the tropics experienced negative precipitation anomalies agree with independent  
344 paleoclimate evidence based on pollen and plant macrofossil records from Lake Tulane, Florida.  
345 These records spanning the last 60 ka suggest that Florida was wet and warm during Heinrich  
346 events, including the YD, and during the stadial intervals of Dansgaard-Oeschger events (Grimm  
347 et al., 2006). Grimm et al., (2006) suggest that a reduction in North Atlantic deep water  
348 formation decreased the northward ocean heat transport and retained warmth in the subtropical  
349 Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, essentially producing a polar-subtropical seesaw. Paleoclimate  
350 evidence both supporting and opposing the seesaw pattern exists from the Caribbean, as

351 described in detail by Grimm et al. (2006). Regardless of the mechanism ultimately enhancing  
352 summer precipitation in the SE US, model simulations and paleoclimate records provide  
353 evidence of an antiphase climate relationship between the SE US and the eastern subtropical  
354 North Atlantic and southern Caribbean, during events of AMOC slowdown/shutdown. We note  
355 that the instrumental record indicates an antiphase relationship between precipitation in the SE  
356 US and the broader Caribbean on interannual timescales (Fig. 1) and during the summer season  
357 (Fig. S7).

358

### 359 3.5. *Early to Mid-Holocene Climate Variability*

360 The WE stalagmite suggests a long-term +1‰ isotopic shift occurring from ~ 7.5 ka to ~5.5  
361 ka (Fig. 6). A decline in ‘summer’ precipitation alone would not explain this large positive  
362 isotopic shift, because it would increase  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  by +0.2‰ maximum, when precipitation amount  
363 decreases by 49% (Fig. 3). As mentioned previously, a decrease of ‘summer’ precipitation  
364 amount beyond this level would no longer increase annual precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  because the  
365 depleted isotopic composition of ‘winter’ rainfall becomes dominant after this threshold (Fig. 3).  
366 An additional 75% decline of ‘winter’ precipitation amount would be needed to explain the Mid-  
367 Holocene stalagmite positive isotopic shift. We note that ‘summer’ precipitation must have  
368 declined together with ‘winter’ precipitation, because the maximum isotopic shift when ‘winter’  
369 precipitation becomes zero is 0.8‰, therefore it would still be insufficient to explain the mid-  
370 Holocene stalagmite shift (Fig. 3). The precipitation decline from ~7 to ~6 ka suggested by the  
371 WE stalagmite is consistent with pollen records from wetlands in the SE US that suggest a  
372 decline over this time of high-diversity taxa indicative of moist soils (Goman and Leigh, 2004).  
373 In addition, a hydroclimate transition from wet to dry conditions at the time is also suggested by

374 a decrease in the abundance of *Pinus* inferred from pollen records from lake Tulane, Florida  
375 (Grimm et al., 1993; Grimm et al., 2006).

376 Inferred climate evolution from the Early Holocene (9-7 ka BP) to the mid-Holocene (6-5 ka  
377 BP) in the SE US coincides with boreal summer insolation reduction, North Atlantic cooling  
378 (Marcott et al., 2013; Renssen et al., 2005; Wanner et al., 2011), decrease rainfall in the  
379 Caribbean (Haug et al., 2001) and weakening of Northern Hemisphere monsoon intensity  
380 (Fleitmann et al., 2007) (Fig. 6). Evidence of mid-Holocene precipitation reduction is also  
381 provided by paleoclimate records from Cuba (Fensterer et al., 2013), and from the central and  
382 northwestern US (Shin et al., 2006). Lastly, Early Holocene precipitation maxima in the SE US  
383 coeval with Northern Hemisphere warm conditions is consistent with projected hydroclimate  
384 change in the region by the end of this century resulting from anthropogenic warming (Collins et  
385 al., 2013).

386 The drying trend suggested by the WE stalagmite is interrupted by two climate reversals  
387 between 6 and 4.5 ka BP indicated by prominent negative isotopic excursions (Fig. 2 and Fig.  
388 S8). These inferred climate reversals are also represented, although more subtly, by the  
389 stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record from DeSoto Caverns, Alabama, that spans the interval between ~6 ka  
390 and 1 ka BP (Aharon and Dhungana, 2017) (Fig. S8). Similar but more subtle hydroclimate  
391 cycles are shown by paleoclimate records from the Caribbean which are coeval with North  
392 Atlantic temperature variability (Haug et al., 2001; Marcott et al., 2013)(Fig. 5). Isotopic  
393 reversals are observed in the WE stalagmite  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  record, also suggesting a local hydrological  
394 change at the time (Fig. 2). We propose that the speleothem isotopic records from Alabama  
395 probably record an amplified regional hydrological response to North Atlantic climate conditions  
396 perhaps reflecting that dynamical processes became progressively less influential in controlling

397 moisture sources into the SE US from the early to the mid-Holocene. During this time, the region  
398 began to experience an increase in precipitation recycling from precipitation of terrestrial origin  
399 (Dominguez et al., 2006) that became more important as oceanic sources of moisture became  
400 less dominant as the North Atlantic cooled (Gimeno et al., 2012; Li et al., 2013).

401

### 402 *3.6. Late-Holocene Climate Variability*

403 During the transition from the Medieval Climate Anomaly time interval to the Little Ice  
404 Age (Mann et al., 2009), WE stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  shows a negative isotopic shift from 1.2 to 0.4 ka  
405 BP of  $\sim -0.8\text{‰}$  (Fig. 7). The stalagmite negative isotopic excursion coincides with the LIA  
406 interval (Mann et al., 2009); arguably the Holocene's coldest period in the North Atlantic  
407 (Marcott et al., 2013) and the driest in the Caribbean (Higuera-Gundy et al., 1999; Hodell et al.,  
408 1991; Peterson and Haug, 2006). Similar to our interpretation concerning the YD and 8.2 ka  
409 events, we suggest this negative isotopic excursion reflects an increase in 'summer' precipitation.  
410 Tree ring records from the eastern SE US spanning the last 1000 years (Stahle and Cleaveland,  
411 1992) do not suggest a long-term shift in spring precipitation during the LIA interval. Thus, the  
412 long-term stalagmite isotopic shift associated with the LIA is likely to reflect mostly summer  
413 precipitation changes during this time. Climate variability in the SE US across the YD, 8.2 ka,  
414 and LIA events support a connection with AMOC shifts (Keigwin and Boyle, 2000; Lund et al.,  
415 2006); in the case of the LIA, perhaps reflecting ocean-atmospheric feedbacks to forcing from  
416 volcanic sulfur emissions and total solar irradiance at the time (Andres and Peltier, 2016; Free  
417 and Robock, 1999).

418

419

420        *3.7. Stalagmite Carbon Isotopes*

421        Across the full length of the WE stalagmite, and during the prominent climate events  
422 highlighted above, the stalagmite  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  record mimics the oxygen isotope record (Fig. 2). The  
423 carbon isotope response across these events suggests hydrological shifts affecting vegetation  
424 type, density, and/or soil microbial productivity. We note that most of the stalagmite  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  record  
425 have values that suggest a strong dominance of carbon of bedrock origin with positive isotopic  
426 compositions and only minor contributions of carbon from vegetation dominated by C4 plants  
427 (Fairchild and Baker, 2012). We therefore conclude that stalagmite calcite covariance between  
428  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  probably reflects shifts in karst hydrology whereby wetter conditions would favor  
429 faster infiltration, decreased  $\text{pCO}_2$  degassing and reduced prior calcite precipitation, ultimately  
430 producing lower  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from a bedrock-dominated carbon baseline (Fairchild and Baker,  
431 2012).

432

433        4. Conclusion

434        We produced high-resolution stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records of hydroclimate from  
435 Alabama spanning the last 12 ka, extending the existing regional paleoclimate record to the early  
436 Holocene. Hydroclimate in Alabama is linked to the broader Southeastern United States (SE US)  
437 as suggested by spatial correlation analysis using the instrumental record of precipitation  
438 amount. We interpret the stalagmite isotope records to reflect: (i) an amount effect observed on  
439 interannual timescales, and; (ii) shifts in the relative contribution of changes in spring-summer  
440 versus fall-winter rainfall amount. We find a close connection between hydroclimate variability  
441 in the SE US, North Atlantic high latitude climate variability and Caribbean/Gulf of Mexico  
442 hydroclimate. A consistent picture emerges whereby spring-summer precipitation in the SE US

443 increases during events of high latitude cooling associated with Atlantic Meridional Circulation  
444 slowdown/shutdown, such as during the Younger Dryas, 8.2 ka and Little Ice Age cooling  
445 events. Speleothem evidence of hydroclimate change is supported by pollen records from Florida  
446 and shows consistency with climate model studies of AMOC slowdown/shutdown. WE  
447 speleothem isotopic records suggest that annual precipitation decreased in the SE US across the  
448 climate transition from the early Holocene ('Holocene Climate Optimum') to the late Holocene  
449 (the 'Neoglacial') in the Northern Hemisphere, generally attributed to external orbital forcing.  
450 Results from this study have implications for our understanding of the sensitivity of subtropical  
451 North Atlantic hydroclimate to abrupt melting of the Greenland ice sheet and its influence on  
452 AMOC in a future dominated by increasing greenhouse gases.

453

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461

#### 462 **Figure Captions**

463 Figure 1. Spatio-temporal correlation analysis of precipitation (monthly values from 1901 to  
464 2013 and with a spatial coverage of 0.5° latitude by 0.5° longitude) at the location (34°31'N,  
465 86°11'W) (War Eagle Cave, Alabama). Location of War Eagle Cave indicated with light blue  
466 star. The precipitation data set comes from the GPCC Global Precipitation Climatology Centre

467 and is available from <https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.gpcc.html>. The map was created  
468 using the R software .

469

470 Figure 2. Stalagmite War Eagle (WE)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  records spanning the last 12.2 ka. Vertical  
471 colored bars indicate relevant time intervals discussed in the manuscript. The time resolution of  
472 these records is from 7 to 44 years, decreasing as time progresses from the Early to the Late  
473 Holocene.

474

475 Figure 3. Plot illustrating the change in the decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall  
476 resulting from shifting the amount of precipitation during spring and summer labelled as  
477 ‘summer’, and fall and winter, labeled as ‘winter’, relative to modern conditions. The X axis  
478 represents the fractional change in precipitation amount from modern conditions; 1= 100%  
479 increase or a doubling of precipitation amount, and -1=100% decline in precipitation amount.  
480 *Blue line* represents the expected decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition shift from changing the  
481 amount of precipitation during ‘winter’ from -100% (no precipitation) to plus 100% (doubling)  
482 while keeping ‘summer’ precipitation amount constant. *Dark orange line*, represents the  
483 expected decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition shift from changing the amount of precipitation  
484 during ‘summer’ keeping ‘winter’ precipitation amount constant. These calculations include the  
485 amount effect relationship during the summer and spring seasons observed today.  
486 A decrease in ‘summer’ precipitation increases the decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall,  
487 because of the inverse relationship between precipitation amount and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  during  
488 the summer and spring, up to the point when the decline of ‘summer’ precipitation amount and  
489 its relatively positive isotopic composition “enhances” the influence of the depleted isotopic

490 composition that characterizes ‘winter’ precipitation (shown in plot section as “ ‘winter’ isotopic  
491 composition dominates”). The maximum positive isotopic shift produced from a reduction in  
492 ‘summer’ precipitation amount *per se*, keeping ‘winter’ precipitation constant, is 0.21‰  
493 associated with a 40% precipitation amount reduction. A larger decrease in ‘summer’  
494 precipitation amount no longer increases the isotopic composition of rainfall, because as  
495 mentioned above the depleted isotopic composition of winter begins to dominate. On the other  
496 hand, because there is no relationship between precipitation amount and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$   
497 during ‘winter’ and there is an amount effect during summer, an increase in ‘winter’  
498 precipitation has a much modest effect that an increase in ‘summer’ precipitation amount on  
499 rainfall  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . A doubling in the amount of ‘winter’ precipitation is expected to decrease the  
500 decadal average  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  composition of rainfall by 0.24‰, whereas a doubling in ‘summer’  
501 precipitation amount would decrease the  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of rainfall by 1.4‰.

502

503 Figure 4. Blow up comparing the NGRIP ice core  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel A) (Rasmussen et al.,  
504 2006), the Ti‰ record from the Cariaco Basin, offshore Venezuela (panel B) (Haug et al., 2001)  
505 and the WE stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel C, this study) over the Younger Dryas time interval.  
506 Note that top X-axis representing panels A and B and the bottom X-axis representing panel C,  
507 are shifted relative to each other with a maximum offset of ~200 yrs, in order to accommodate a  
508 dating uncertainty in the layer counting of young ice of  $\pm 120$  yrs in the NGRIP ice core record  
509 (Rasmussen et al., 2006) and in the stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record ~12 ka BP of  $\pm 70$  yrs (Table S1).  
510 Top X-scale corresponds to that of the records presented on panels A and B and the bottom X-  
511 scale corresponds to the WE stalagmite record.

512

513 Figure 5. Blow up comparing the NGRIP ice core  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel A) (Rasmussen et al.,  
514 2006), the Ti% record from the Cariaco Basin, offshore Venezuela (panel B) and the WE  
515 stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel C, this study) over the 8.2 ka cooling event.

516

517 Figure 6. Blow up comparing a North Atlantic sea surface temperature reconstruction (panel A)  
518 (Marcott et al., 2013), the Cariaco Basin Ti% record (panel B) (Haug et al., 2001) and the WE  
519 stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel C, this study) spanning the transition from the Early to the Mid-  
520 Holocene. Darker continuous lines represent 7-point moving averages.

521

522 Figure 7. Blow up comparing a Northern Hemisphere surface temperature record (panel  
523 A)(Mann et al., 2009), the Cariaco Basin Ti% record (panel B) (Haug et al., 2001) and the WE  
524 stalagmite  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  record (panel C, this study) spanning the late Holocene. The mean resolution of  
525 the stalagmite record over this time interval is 44 yrs.

526

527

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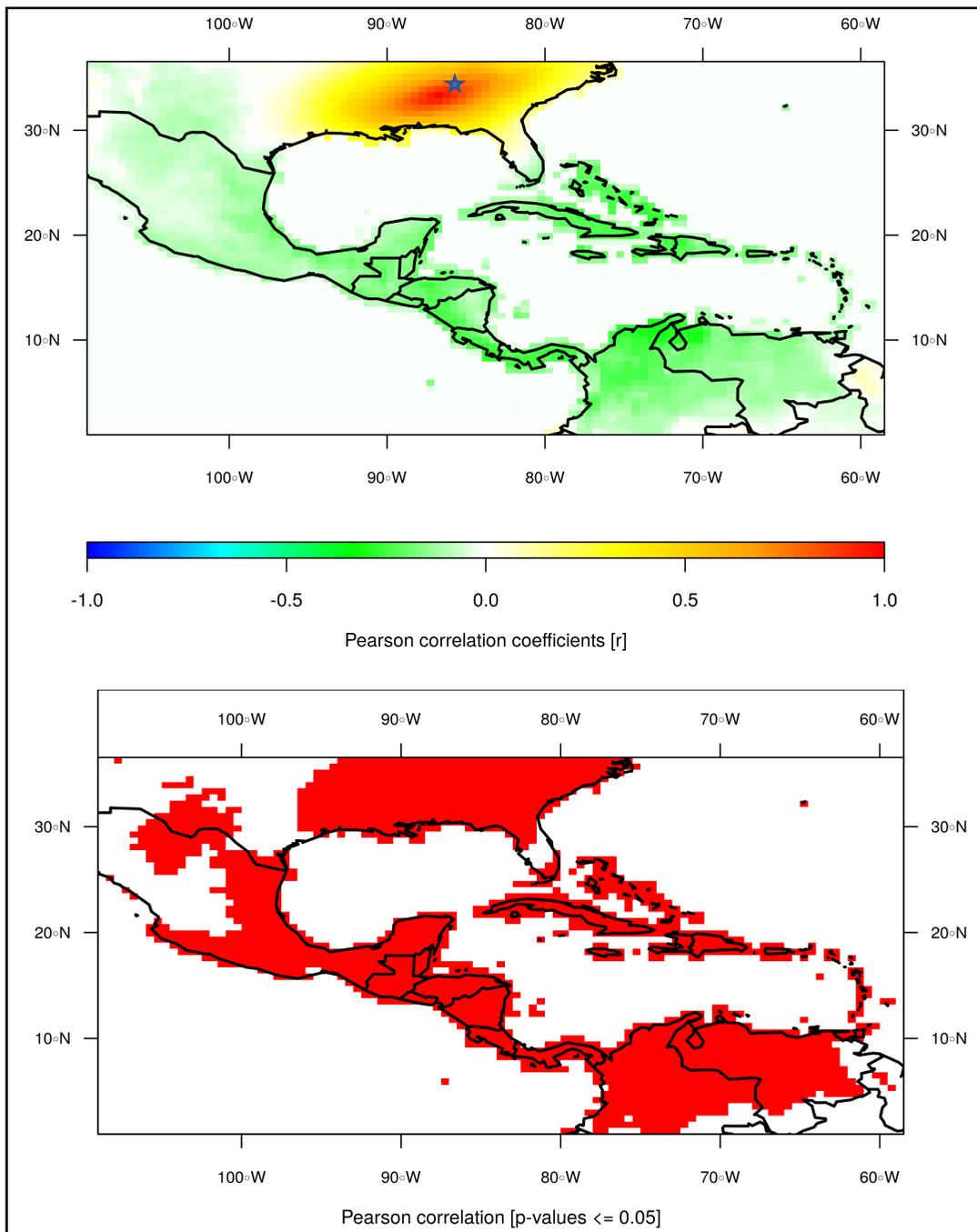


Figure 1.

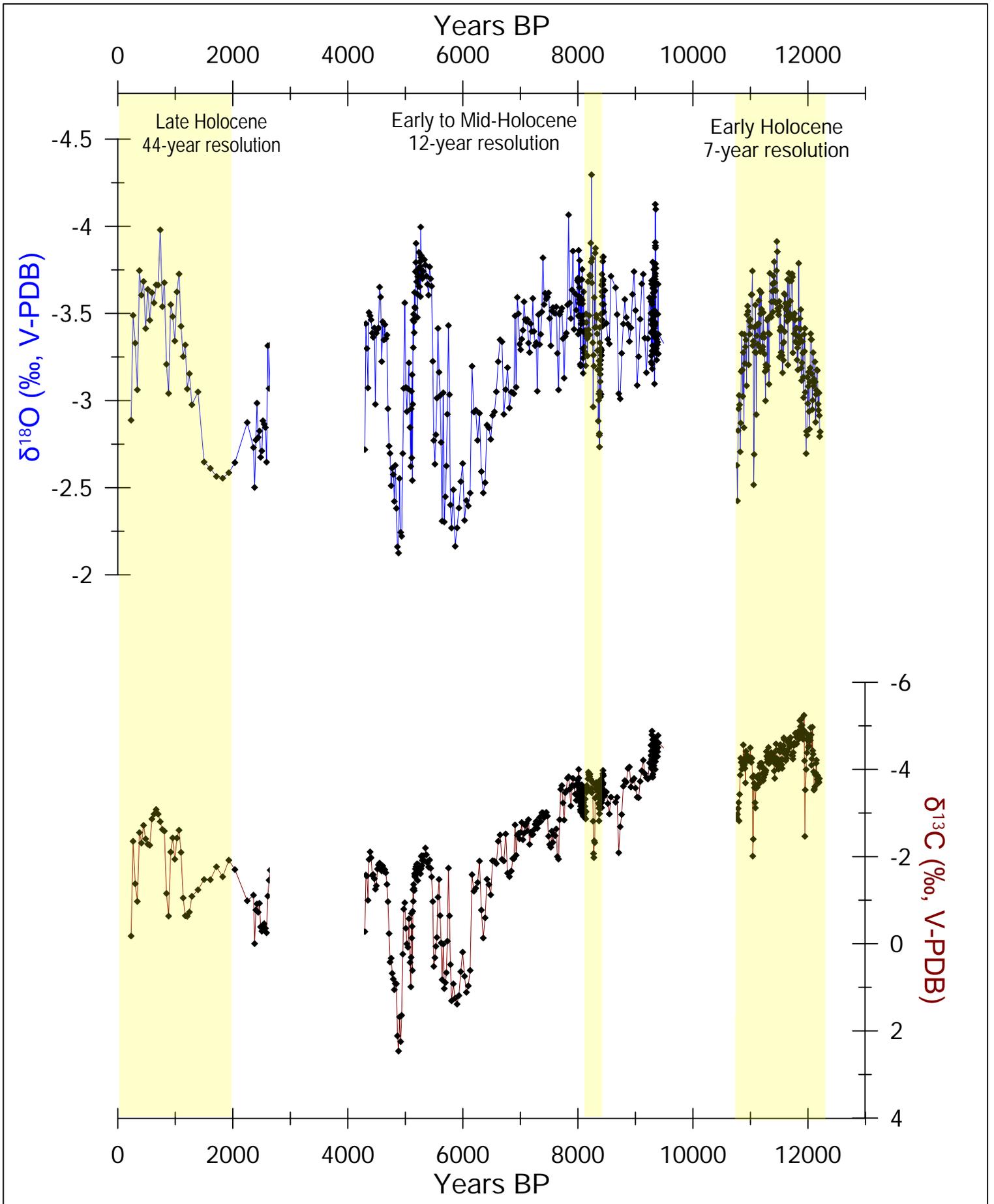


Figure 2

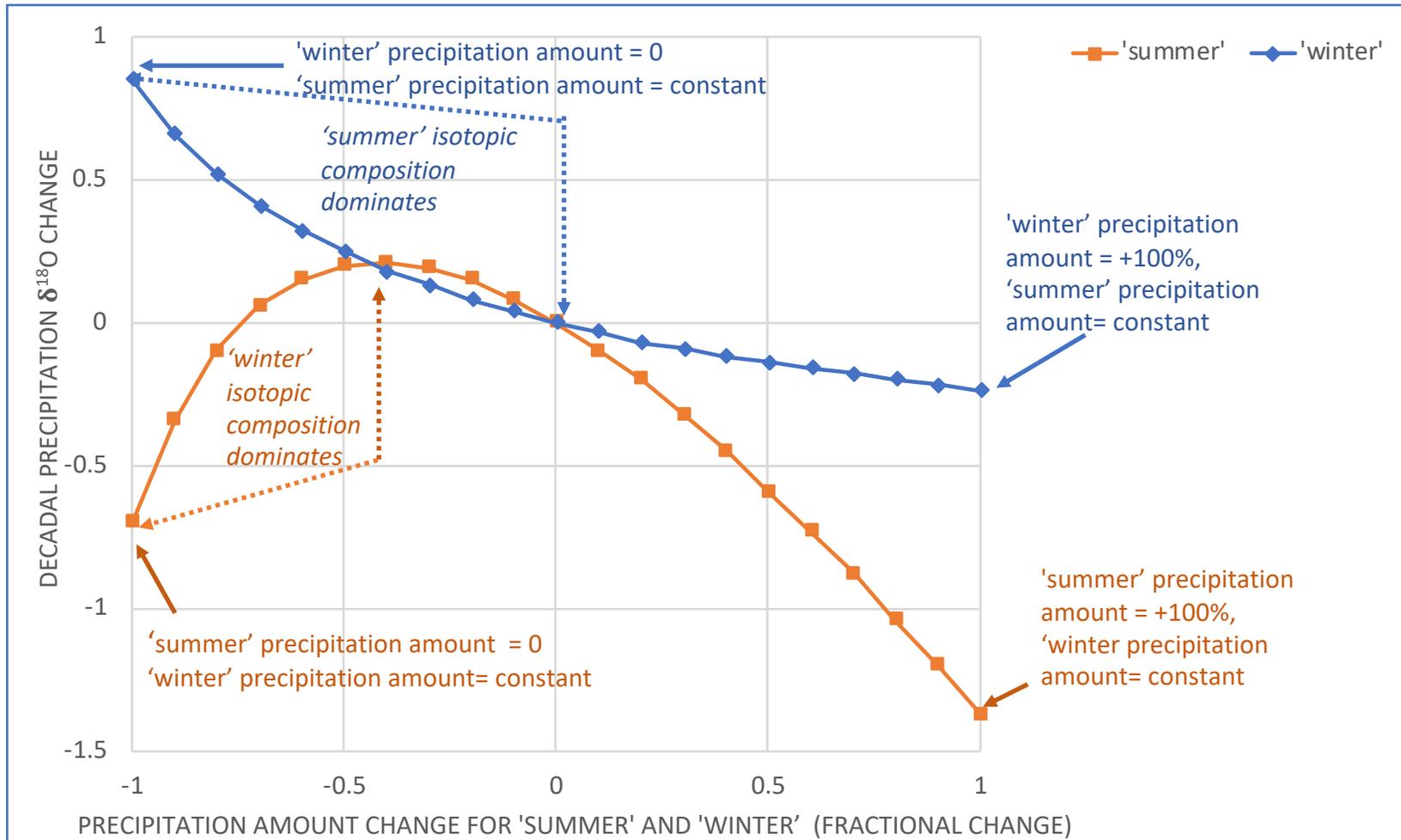


Figure 3

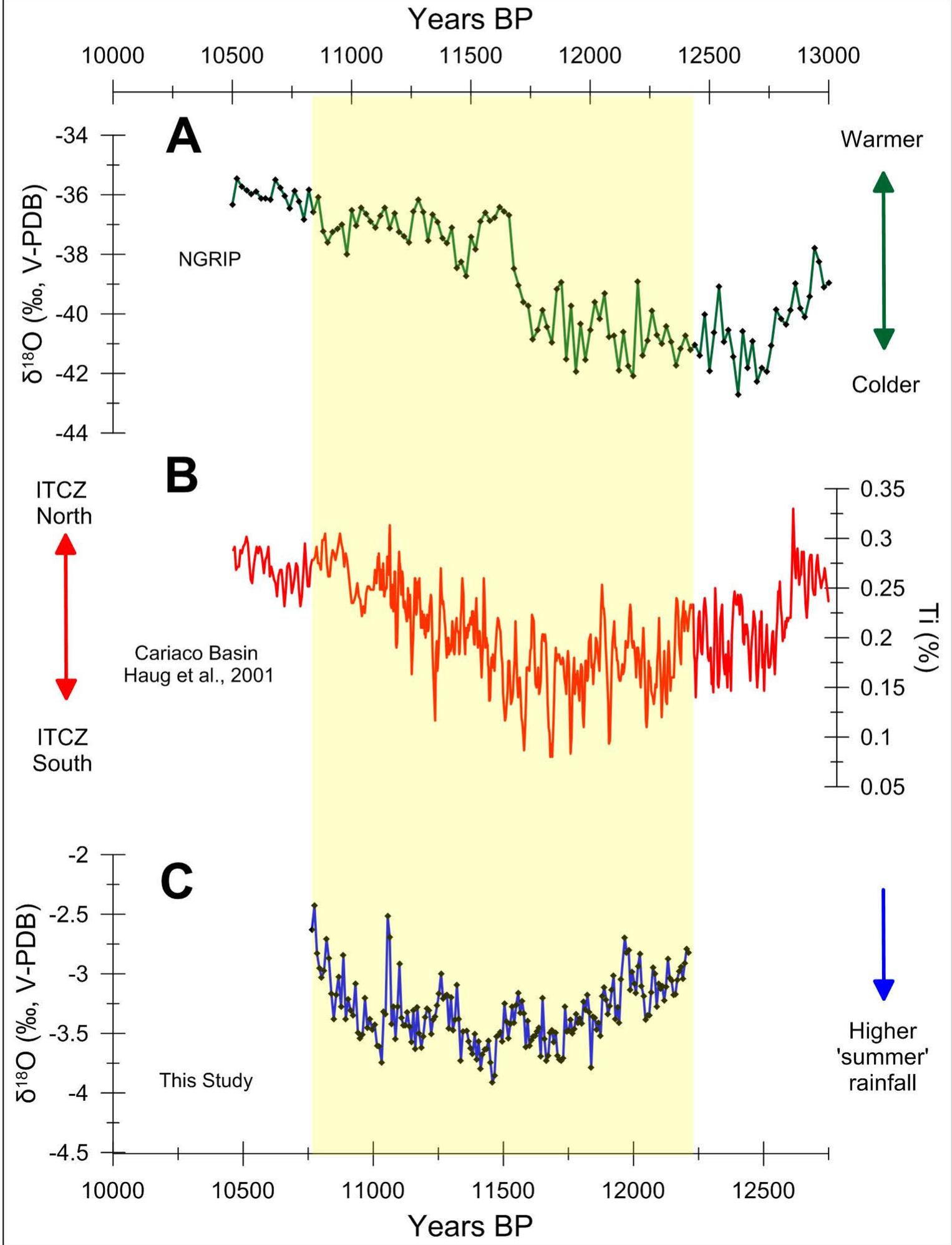


Figure 4

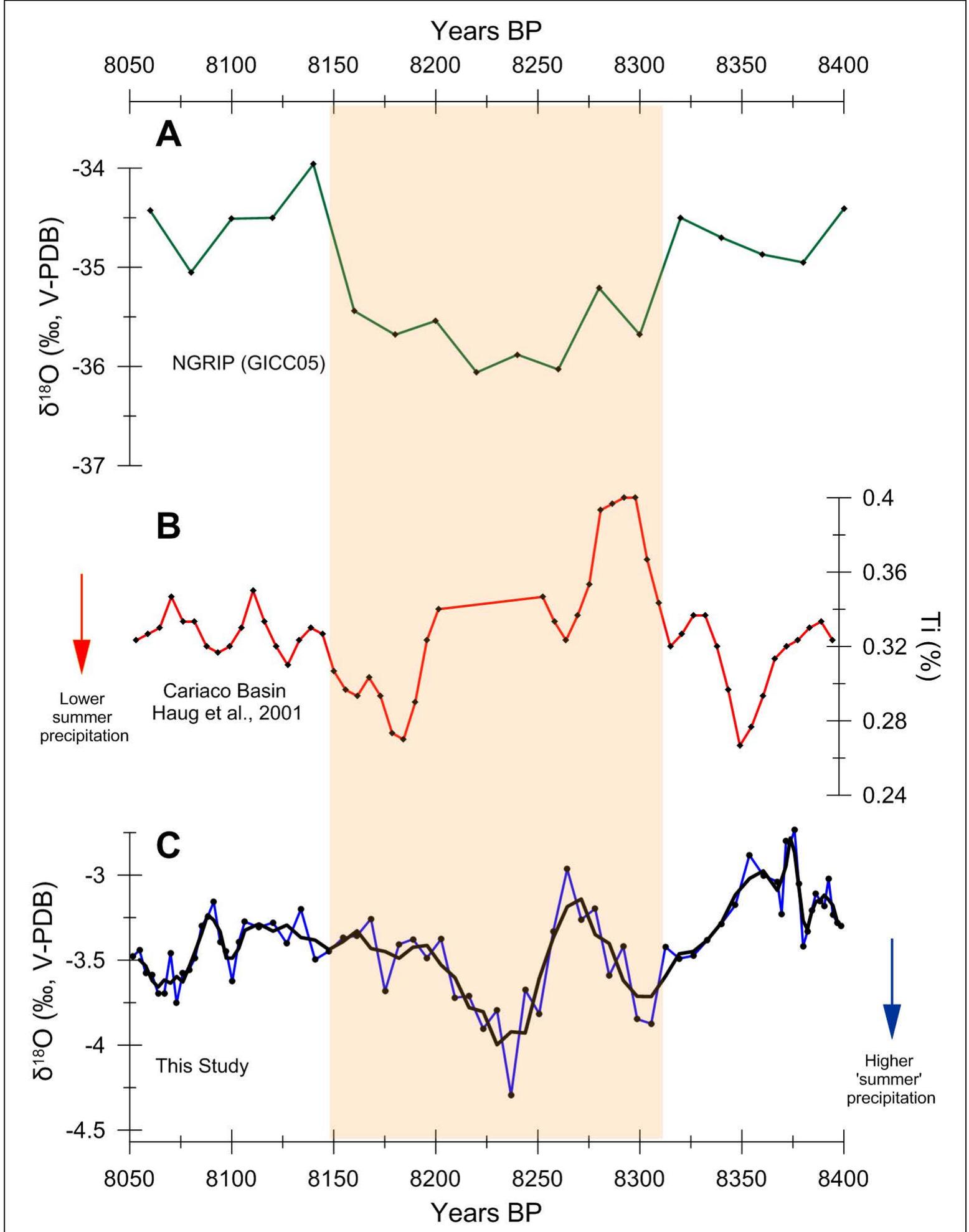


Figure 5

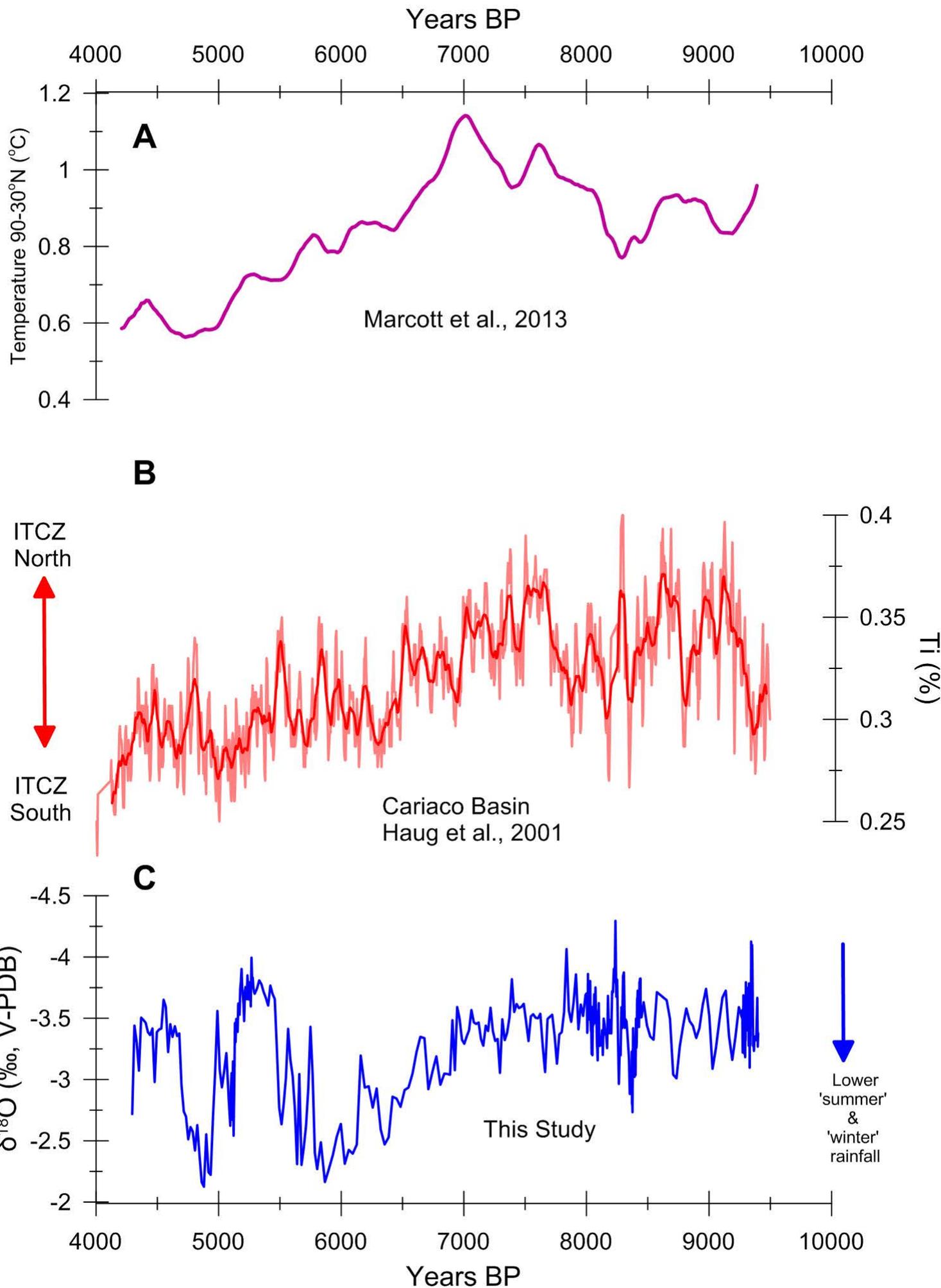


Figure 6

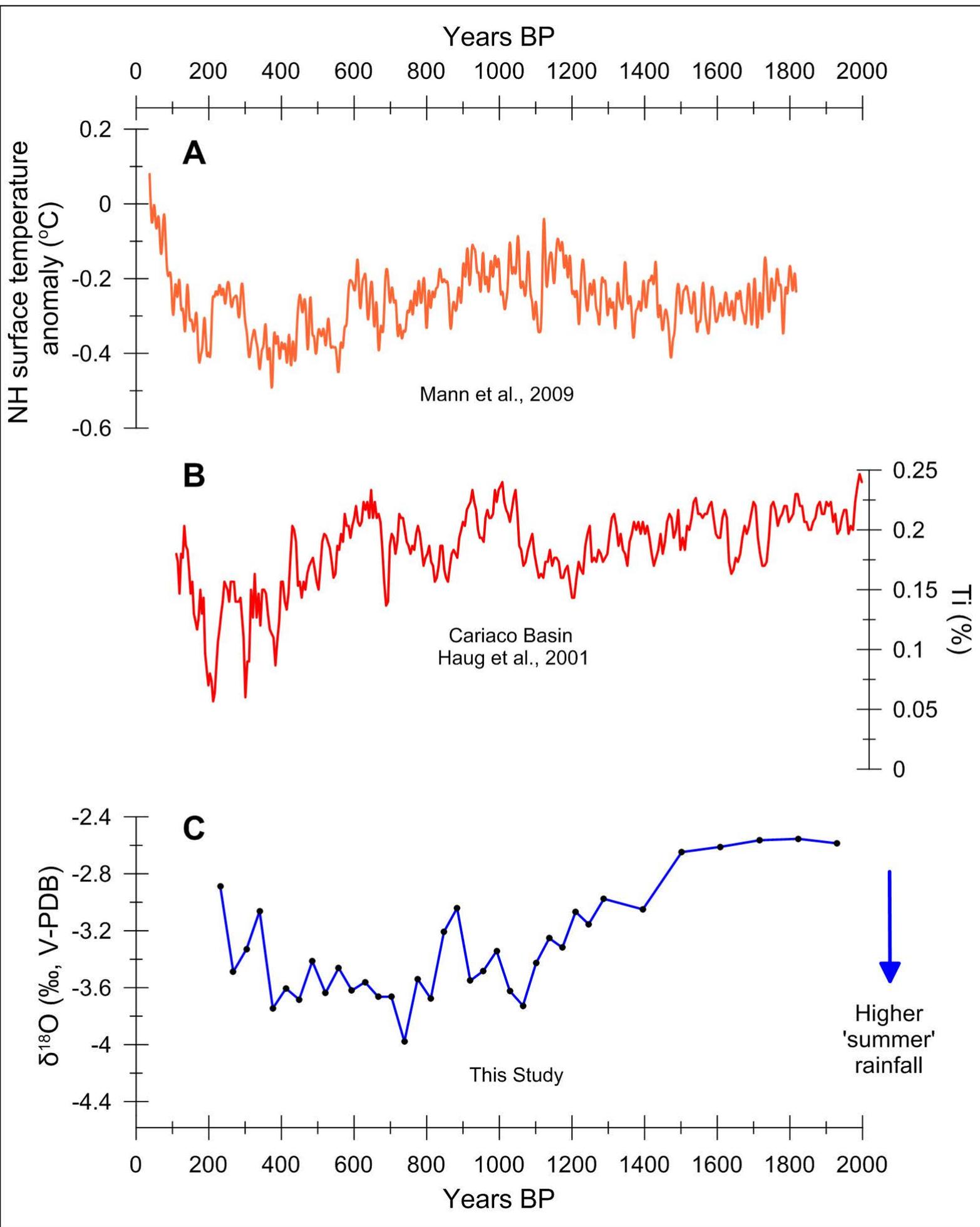


Figure 7