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2	Volcanic impacts on peatland microbial communities: a tephropalaeoecological
3	hypothesis-test.
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5	Richard J. Payne
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7	Geography, School of Environment and Development, University of Manchester,
8	Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PL, United Kingdom.
9	
10	Department of Environmental and Geographical Science, Manchester Metropolitan
11	University, Chester Street, Manchester M1 5DG, United Kingdom.
12	E-mail: <u>r.payne@mmu.ac.uk</u>
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14	ABSTRACT
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16	Volcanic eruptions affect peatlands around the world, depositing volcanic ash (tephra)
17	and a variety of chemicals including compounds of sulphur. These volcanic impacts
18	may be important for many reasons, in particular sulphur deposition has been shown
19	to suppress peatland methane flux, potentially reinforcing climatic cooling.
20	Experiments have shown that sulphur deposition also forces changes in testate
21	amoeba communities, potentially relating to the reduced methane flux. Large volcanic
22	eruptions in regions with extensive peatlands are relatively rare so it is difficult to
23	assess the extent to which volcanic eruptions affect peatland microbial communities;
24	palaeoecological analyses across tephra layers provide a means to resolve this
25	uncertainty. In this study testate amoebae were analysed across multiple monoliths
26	from a peatland in southern Alaska containing two tephras, probably representing the
27	1883 eruption of Augustine Volcano and a 20 th Century eruption of Redoubt Volcano.
28	Results showed relatively distinct and often statistically significant changes in testate
29	amoeba community coincident with tephra layers which largely matched the response
30	found in experimental studies of sulphur deposition. The results suggest volcanic
31	impacts on peatland microbial communities which might relate to changes in methane
32	flux.
33	

1 KEYWORDS: Mires, Wetlands, Tephra, Volcanoes, Protozoa, Carbon balance,

- 2 Methane
- 3

4 INTRODUCTION

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6 Many peatland areas lie within reach of the products of volcanic eruptions. 7 Visible or microscopic layers of volcanic ash (tephra) have been found in peatlands 8 around the world (Dugmore 1989, Pilcher et al. 2005, Hang et al. 2006, Lowe 2008) 9 and volcanic gases may be even more widely dispersed (Camuffo & Enzi 1995, 10 Grattan et al. 1998). The possible impact of these volcanic products has been 11 addressed by only a few studies but there is reason to think that ecological affects 12 might be relatively severe (Payne and Blackford 2005; Hotes et al. 2004, 2010). 13 Particularly important may be impacts on peatland gas flux. Studies of sulphate 14 pollution have shown a suppression of methane flux, believed to relate to a shift in 15 competitive dominance from methanogenic archaea to sulphate reducing bacteria 16 (Gauci and Chapman 2006). As volcanic eruptions produce vast quantities of sulphate 17 it has been modelled that this effect might contribute to a halving of wetland methane 18 flux following a large eruption (Stevenson et al. 2003; Gauci et al. 2005; 2008) and 19 some support for this hypothesis is provided by ice core evidence (Gauci et al. 2008). 20 On a molecule for molecule basis methane is 21 times more powerful than CO₂ as a 21 greenhouse gas so changes in methane production have the potential to affect global 22 climate, reinforcing aerosol-forced cooling. So far there is no direct evidence for the 23 inferred microbial competitive shift which is believed to be the cause of the methane 24 suppression. It can be hypothesised that a major change in prokaryote community 25 structure might produce consequent changes in higher microbial groups. The 26 dominant eukaryotic microbial group in peatlands is the testate amoebae, a group of 27 heterotrophic and mixotrophic protists characterised by a solid shell. To see whether 28 sulphate deposition might produce changes in testate amoebae which might be 29 mediated by the shift to sulphate reducing bacteria Payne et al. (2010) investigated the 30 communities of sodium sulphate treated plots for which long-lasting methane 31 suppression had been previously demonstrated (Gauci et al. 2005). Results showed 32 statistically significant changes in community composition with a reduced abundance 33 of small bacterivorous taxa. This result has subsequently been replicated in plots 34 treated with a one-off application of sulphuric acid (Payne 2010). These studies

demonstrate changes in microbial community structure in sulphur-treated peatlands.
 The fact that the largest and most consistent changes are apparent in bacterivorous
 taxa appears to support the hypothesis of a sulphate-induced change in prokaryote
 communities, although other explanations for the changes cannot be excluded on this
 evidence.

6 Experimental studies of this nature are inevitably limited by the uncertainty 7 and limitations of the investigated scenarios. An alternative approach is to use the 8 palaeoecological record to investigate the response to a real volcanic event. Tephra 9 layers preserved in peat allow a volcanic event to be precisely positioned in the 10 stratigraphic sequence. Palaeoecological studies across tephra layers allow the 11 potential to investigate volcanic impacts, an approach termed tephropalynology for studies based on pollen and spores (Lowe and Hunt 2001, Edwards et al. 2004) or 12 13 tephropalaeoecology for studies based on other micro- or macrofossils (Payne and 14 Blackford 2008a). As testate amoebae are widely preserved in peatlands 15 tephropalaeoecological analyses of testate amoebae provides the potential to 16 demonstrate the impact of a real volcanogenic sulphate deposition event on peatland 17 microbial communities. Due to the sample preparation approach a previous study of 18 this nature had limited ability to identify the compositional changes which have been 19 experimentally identified (Payne and Blackford 2008a; Payne 2009). 20 Here we apply a palaeoecological approach to test the hypothesis that a 21 volcanic event may cause a change in microbial communities which is detectable in 22 the testate amoeba stratigraphic record. A general problem with 23 tephropalaeoecological studies is the difficulty of separating volcanic impact from

24 non-volcanic variability. If changes coincident with tephra-deposition are apparent it 25 is difficult to exclude the possibility of impacts due to broadly-synchronous non-26 volcanic processes (whether autogenic or allogenic). However, the case for a volcanic 27 impact is much enhanced if consistent palaeoecological changes coincident with 28 tephra deposition can be shown in multiple profiles from the same site and for several 29 tephras (cf. Caseldine et al. 1998). This study investigates the tephropalaeoecological 30 record of multiple profiles from a peatland in southern Alaska with the specific aims 31 to:

Determine if any impacts on the taxa identified as sensitive to sulphur deposition
 can be identified.

1	2. Determine if different volcanic events produce similar testate amoeba responses
2	in the same site.
3	3. Determine if the same tephra layer is associated with similar impacts in profiles
4	from different positions within the same site.
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6	SITE and METHODS
7	
8	The site (informally termed 'Sterling Moss') is a kettle-hole peatland located
9	in the Kenai Lowlands to the west of the Kenai Peninsula in south-central Alaska, east
10	of the town of Sterling (60°31'N, 150°31'W: Fig. 1). The vegetation of the site is
11	Sphagnum-dominated and also includes Empetrum nigrum, Eriophorum spp. and
12	Rubus chamaemorus. On the basis of topography and vegetation the peatland appears
13	oligotrophic but not ombrotrophic, as for other Kenai peatlands. Results from an
14	initial monolith (extracted in summer 2003) have been reported by Payne and
15	Blackford (2008a, 2008b). A further six monoliths were extracted along a transect of
16	the centre of the site in July 2007 (Fig. 1). All sampling locations have similar
17	vegetation. Monolith blocks, approximately 300 mm deep and 100 mm broad, were
18	removed by cutting down from the peat surface. Stratigraphy was recorded in the field
19	and blocks wrapped in plastic for transport back to the laboratory.
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21	Tephra analysis
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23	Tephra layers were macroscopically visible in three monoliths (ST4, ST5,
24	ST6) as a (sometimes discontinuous) thin layer of grey, silt-sized shards, but no
25	tephras were visible in the other two monoliths. To precisely locate tephra layers and
26	produce concentration profiles, samples were prepared by ashing and tephra shards
27	counted under the microscope (Pilcher and Hall, 1992). Samples of either 5mm or
28	10mm vertical thickness were extracted through the length of the monolith, dried at
29	110°C and incinerated at 550°C; weights pre- and post-incineration were used to
30	calculate loss on ignition (LOI). The residue was washed in 10% HCl, centrifuged,
31	and prepared samples stored in water. A Lycopodium spore innoculum was added to
32	allow semi-quantitative estimates of tephra shard concentration (Stockmarr 1971;
33	Caseldine et al., 1998). The prepared sample was mixed with a drop of glycerol on a
34	microscope slide and examined at 400X magnification. The number of tephra shards

1 coinciding with at least 50 Lycopodium spores was counted. Geochemical analyses 2 were used to determine the provenance of the visible tephra layers in three monoliths: 3 the tephras at 11cm in profile ST4, 16cm in ST5 and 14cm in ST6. Samples were 4 prepared by acid digestion following the methods of Persson (1971) and Dugmore 5 (1989) and thin-sections prepared (Dugmore et al. 1995; Swindles et al. 2010). Samples were analysed by wavelength dispersive electron probe microanalysis 6 7 (EPMA) using the Cameca SX100 microprobe at the School of Geosciences, 8 University of Edinburgh. Analytical conditions were a 20 kV accelerating voltage and 9 4 nA beam current, the beam was rastered over a 10x10 µm grid to minimise sodium 10 mobilisation. Analyses with totals <95% (Hunt and Hill 1993) and minor geochemical 11 populations were removed prior to data analysis. Similarity to geochemical data from 12 a large number of previous Alaskan tephra studies (see Payne & Blackford 2008b for 13 full list) was tested using standard similarity coefficients and SIMAN coefficients 14 (Borchardt et al. 1972). The SIMAN coefficient is calculated as:

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$$SIMAN_{(A,B)} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i g_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} g_i}$$

$$g_i = 1 - \sqrt{\frac{(\sigma_{iA} / X_{iA})^2 + (\sigma_{iB} / X_{iB})^2}{E}}$$

n

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- 19
- 20

where X_{iA} = concentration of element *i* in sample *A*, $R_i = X_{iA}/X_{iB}$, if $X_{iA} < X_{iB}$ and $R_i = X_{iB}/X_{iA}$, if $X_{iB} < X_{iA}$ (i.e. the standard similarity coefficient), $\sigma_{iA} = 1$ standard deviation for X_{iA} , and E = the relative error due to the detection limit, set here at 0.7 to exclude only MnO from analysis. A SIMAN coefficient of 1 would indicate identical composition, however given sample heterogeneity this is extremely unlikely, a SIMAN coefficient of 0.95 is taken to indicate correlation (Payne and Blackford 2008b).

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29 Testate amoeba analysis

30

Samples for testate amoeba analysis were removed at resolutions varying
 between 2.5 and 10mm vertical-thickness with higher resolution sampling used for the
 region directly enclosing the tephra; cores were frozen to allow fine peat-cutting. To

1 assess very fine-scale horizontal variability in amoeba response, samples from two 2 sequences on opposite sides of the ST4 monolith were removed (approximately 80mm 3 apart, designated ST4A and ST4B). Samples were prepared using a method based on 4 wet-sieving, similar to that of Hendon & Charman (1997). Peat sub-samples were 5 removed from the core and boiled in 50 ml deionised water. Samples were sieved at 6 250µm but fine sieving was not used as this is liable to lead to loss of the smallest 7 tests and many of the smaller taxa are particularly relevant to this study (Payne 2009; 8 Payne et al. 2009; Payne 2010). Samples were stored in water, slides prepared by 9 mixing with glycerol and examined at 400X magnification. 150 tests per sample were 10 counted, taxonomy used a range of guides with groupings similar to those of Charman 11 et al. (2000); full details are given by Payne et al. (2006). The test count required to 12 identify each additional taxon was recorded to give information on how successful the 13 count total is at identifying taxa (Warner 1990; Woodland et al. 1998; Payne and 14 Mitchell 2009).

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16 Data analysis
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18 The transfer function of Payne et al. (2006) was used to derive estimates of depth to water table (termed testate amoeba-inferred depth to water table: TI-DWT) 19 and pH (testate amoeba-inferred pH: TI-pH) in C² vers 1.5 (Juggins 2003). This 20 transfer function is preferred over an alternative transfer function (Markel et al. 2010) 21 22 due to assured taxonomic consistency (cf. Payne et al. 2010), less severe 23 autocorrelation problems (Payne, Telford et al. unpublished data) and the inclusion of 24 surface samples from the same site. As the samples used to derive the transfer 25 function were prepared using fine-filtering the data may not be entirely comparable to 26 that presented here (Payne 2009). To account for this methodological difference 27 transfer function inferences were calculated with the smallest taxa (including 28 Euglypha rotunda type, Corythion dubium and Trinema type) excluded from both the 29 training set and palaeoecological data, this somewhat reduces the effective count but 30 is unlikely to significantly affect model performance (Payne & Mitchell 2009). 31 Volcanic impacts on the testate amoeba data were tested using a constrained-32 ordination approach. Loss on ignition (LOI) was used as an explanatory variable to 33 represent volcanic impact based on the observations that tephra constitutes the

34 overwhelming majority of inorganic material (Fig. 2) and non-tephra material shows

1 limited variability through the profiles. Alternative approaches would be to use the 2 tephra concentration data (e.g. Barker 2000, Eastwood et al. 2002) or a conceptual 3 volcanic-impact model based on exponential decay (Lotter & Birks 1993; Birks & 4 Lotter 1994; Payne & Blackford 2008a). LOI was preferred to tephra concentration 5 data due to the higher resolution while the stratigraphic positioning of a volcanic-6 impact model is somewhat complicated given the very high resolution. In addition to 7 LOI before/after nominal variables were included for both tephra layers to determine 8 whether lasting impacts are apparent. Species data was reduced in resolution by 9 combining adjacent samples to match that of the LOI data where required and was 10 square root-transformed. Compositional gradient lengths determined using detrended 11 canonical correspondence analysis (DCCA) were short (<1.4 standard deviations) so 12 redundancy analysis (RDA) was selected as the most appropriate direct gradient 13 analysis technique. Depth was partialled out as a surrogate for time to separate the 14 effect of longer-term processes such as climatic change, the catotelm-acrotelm 15 transition and peatland development. Four sets of analyses were conducted using 16 combinations of LOI with one or both before/after variables. Stratigraphically-17 constrained Monte Carlo permutation tests (999 permutations: Birks 1998) were used 18 to test the null hypothesis of no relationship between explanatory variables and 19 species data. All ordination analyses were conducted using CANOCO vers 4.53 (Ter 20 Braak & Smilauer 1997-2004).

21

22 RESULTS

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24 Tephrostratigraphy

25 There is a good deal of geochemical similarity between tephras ST4-11 and 26 ST6-14, but tephra ST5-16 is distinctly different (Table 1; Appendix 1). Similarity 27 and SIMAN coefficients for ST5-16 show the greatest geochemical similarity with 28 analyses of Augustine 1883 tephra; coefficients generally exceed the 0.95 criterion 29 although there are some differences for several oxides (Table 1). Tephra from this 30 eruption has been found at a similar depth in a nearby Kenai peatland suggesting 31 general equivalency in age (Payne and Blackford 2008b). The ST4-11 and ST6-14 32 tephras show greatest similarity to analyses of Redoubt tephra. Averages of both 33 datasets plot very close to analyses of Redoubt tephra by Begét et al. (1994) and 34 Riehle (1985)(Fig. 3). Similarity coefficients and SIMAN coefficients show greatest

1 similarity to Redoubt tephras dated c.350 BP and over 500 BP (Table 1). However, 2 these values are generally less than the commonly applied 0.95 criterion and there are 3 notable differences in K_2O (Table 1, Appendix 1). Given the stratigraphic position 4 and probable identification of Augustine 1883 tephra at 16cm depth in ST5 the 1902 5 or 1966 Redoubt eruptions are probable sources, with tephra from the 1902 eruption 6 previously found in nearby Skilak Lake (Begét et al. 1994). Neither of these three 7 tephras are the same as the ST12 tephra studied by Payne and Blackford (2008a & b). 8 Although no more than one tephra was macroscopically visible in any monolith two 9 separate tephras are detectable in monoliths ST2, ST3 and ST4b and in ST5 a third 10 minor tephra also appears to be present. A lower tephra is likely to lie below the 11 analysed section in monoliths ST4a and ST6. The hypothesised relation of these 12 tephras is shown in Fig. 4 although there is uncertainty in some of these links.

13

14 *Testate amoeba counts*

15 Figure 5 shows the impact of increasing count on number of testate amoeba 16 taxa identified for 92 samples. Although the rate of increase slows with increasing 17 count, a plateau is not reached. New taxa are identified with counts over 130 in 41 of 18 the samples. It is clear that in these samples a count of 150 is insufficient to identify 19 all taxa and consequently little weight should be attached to the presence or absence 20 of minor taxa. This result emphasises the point made by Payne & Mitchell (2009) that 21 while counts of less than 150 may be adequate to characterise the amoeba 22 composition of a sample, a count of considerably more than 150 would be required to 23 be sure of identifying all taxa (cf. Wall et al. 2009).

24

25 Testate amoeba community and transfer function inferences

26

5 The testate amoeba community of the analysed sections shows some

27 variability between monoliths, mirroring that found in surface samples from this site

- 28 (Payne et al. 2006). Common taxa include Hyalosphenia papilio, Archerella flavum,
- 29 Nebela militaris, Trinema lineare and Heleopera sphagni, all comparatively common
- 30 in oligotrophic peatlands. Transfer function inferences show only very limited
- 31 changes in TI-DWT or TI-pH through the profiles with few exceeding the boot-
- 32 strapped error estimates, untangling pH and DWT reconstructions is difficult as the
- 33 two are correlated in the training set. Among the more distinct changes are indications

1 of a shift to more acidic conditions above the upper tephra in ST2, ST5 and -less

distinctly- ST4b and some indication of a general drying trend in ST5, ST3 and ST4b.

2 3

4 Multivariate analysis

5 The ordination analyses show that LOI explains a significant proportion of 6 species variance in many of the profiles (Table 2). In two of the profiles a large and 7 significant proportion of the variance is explained when using the simplest test with 8 LOI as sole explanatory variable (ST4b and ST5). With the addition of before/after 9 variables for all tephras there is also a significant relationship in profile ST3 and up to 10 a third of variance is explained. Where more than one tephra is present similar 11 variance is explained by LOI and the before/after variable for each tephra suggesting 12 similar impacts. Using the approach of Lotter & Birks (1993) significant variance can 13 be explained by both tephras in one further profile (ST2). It is important to note that in 14 harmonising the species and LOI data some temporal resolution has been lost and this 15 may well be an important cause of the lack of a significant relationship in some of the 16 analyses. Taken overall the results suggest an association between loss on ignition and 17 testate amoeba compositional change, which as LOI is dominated by tephra provides 18 evidence for a volcanic impact on the testate amoebae of these sites. There is evidence 19 for both an immediate short-term impact (shown by the LOI trough) and a lasting 20 longer-term impact (the before/after variables).

21

22 Species changes

23

24 Changes in testate amoeba community coincident with the tephra layers are 25 apparent in many of the stratigraphic diagrams (Fig. 6), summarised in Table 3. Many 26 changes appear consistent between tephras. The relative abundance of *Trinema* 27 lineare is reduced coincident with tephras ST2-15.5, ST2-21.5, ST3-16.5, ST4a-11.5, 28 ST5-17.5 and ST6-14. Heleopera sphagni increases coincident with ST2-15.5, ST2-29 21.5, ST4a-11.5 and ST4b-11 (this species appears to decrease coincident with tephra 30 ST4b-14.5 but these analyses are lower resolution). *Difflugia pulex* type, *Difflugia* 31 pristis type, Cryptodifflugia oviformis and Phryganella acropodia type all increase 32 across two tephras. The only taxon to clearly show opposing changes in different 33 profiles is Archerella flavum which increases across three tephras but shows a distinct 34 decline across tephra ST4b-11. There is no obvious difference between species

1 responding to tephras suggested to represent Augustine 1883 or Redoubt tephra.

2 Profiles ST4a and ST4b are from opposite sides of the same monolith however there

3 are some differences in both amoeba community and apparent tephra response

4 between the two profiles.

5 A methodological complication is that as the high resolution samples were 6 extracted and analysed subsequent to the initial samples they are slightly horizontally 7 displaced. Although the high resolution samples were rarely more than c.20mm from 8 the initial coarser resolution samples this offset (or even subsequent decomposition of 9 tests) might explain some instances where there appear to be very abrupt changes 10 between the low- and high-resolution sections of the records, visible for instance in 11 Trinema lineare in ST6 and Heleopera sphagni in ST2. In the case of ST5 there is 12 also an offset between the position of the tephra peak (determined on the low-13 resolution samples) and the loss on ignition trough (determined on the high-resolution 14 samples).

The species showing the most distinct change is *Trinema lineare* which has a small translucent test. A more prosaic alternative to a volcanic impact might be that it is simply difficult to locate the tests amid the numerous tephra shards and individuals are overlooked. To account for this possibility some of these samples were re-counted with very close attention to locating these tests; little difference in abundance was found.

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22 Sulphur indicator species

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24 Previous studies have investigated the response of testate amoebae to sulphur 25 in experimental studies of peatlands. Payne et al. (2010) studied the affect of sodium 26 sulphate application in a peatland in eastern Scotland and Payne (2010) studied the 27 response to sulphuric acid application in a peatland in western Scotland. Both studies 28 identified sulphur application as capable of leading to compositional change in testate 29 amoeba communities. To aid application of the experimental results to the 30 palaeoecological record these data were reanalysed to identify indicator species using 31 the IndVal technique (Dufrêne and Legendre 1997) with 999 permutations (Table 4). 32 Three species were consistently identified as indicators of non-sulphur treated plots: 33 Corythion dubium, Euglypha rotunda type and Trinema lineare. There is no 34 consistency in species indicative of sulphur-treated plots, the best indicators are from

the sulphuric acid experiment (including *Hyalosphenia subflava* and *Difflugia pristis* type) but these should be treated with greater caution due to the more limited scale of
 this study.

4 Comparing these experimental results to the palaeoecological results in this 5 study there is a good deal of similarity. The species most consistently reduced in 6 abundance coincident with tephra layers (T. lineare) is also deleteriously impacted by 7 sulphur-treatment. D. pristis type and H. petricola are both increased by sulphur-8 treatment and increase coincident with tephra layers. There are some differences in 9 species response but these are generally minor, for instance *E. rotunda* type slightly 10 increases coincident with tephra ST4b-11 but is consistently reduced in relative 11 abundance by experimental sulphur deposition. Several species apparently responding 12 to volcanic impacts are not identified in the experimental studies but most are rare or 13 absent in the experimental sites (e.g. *H. papilio*).

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15 DISCUSSION

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17 Evidence for volcanic impacts

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19 The results in this study show good evidence for volcanic impacts on testate 20 amoeba communities- there are relatively distinct changes apparent in the 21 stratigraphic diagrams and the ordination results show many to be statistically 22 significant. The changes are characterised by a relatively distinct species response 23 with increased Heleopera sphagni and Difflugia spp. and particularly, reduced 24 Trinema lineare. As discussed above these changes are consistent with experimentally 25 demonstrated testate amoeba response to sulphur and, importantly, no major 26 palaeoecological changes oppose the experimental results. The testate amoebae 27 changes last around 10-20mm. Assessing the duration of impacts on testate amoebae 28 from a short-lived environmental change is difficult because amoebae will be living at 29 a range of depths in the peat on deposition, however given peat accumulation rates it 30 is probable that impacts shown here lasted over a decade. This is consistent with 31 experimental evidence for long-lasting testate amoeba response, probably due to tight 32 cycling of sulphur in acrotelm peats.

The testate amoeba response to thin, often cryptic, tephra layers in this study
 contrasts with that to much thicker layers in other studies. On Deception Island in the

1 Antarctic Smith (1974, 1985) found Assulina muscorum, E. rotunda, E. strigosa and 2 particularly Corythion dubium colonising recent tephra layers, this list includes taxa 3 morphologically and functionally similar to taxa declining coincident with tephra in 4 this study. In a palaeoecological record from sub-Antarctic Marion Island Yeloff et al. 5 (2007) found a peak in *Corythion-Trinema* type coincident with a 17cm-thick tephra; 6 the ability of C. dubium to colonise the harsh physical environment of new tephra 7 deposits is a likely hypothesis for these observations. 8 9 Alternative explanations 10

Despite the similarity in palaeoecological response to experimental studies of sulphur addition there are many other possible ways by which volcanic activity could affect peatland testate amoebae. These possibilities can also be evaluated against the observed changes. Payne and Blackford (2008) suggest a further four general modes of distal volcanic impact on peatlands:

- An indirect impact through volcanic impacts on climate and weather leading to
 cooler conditions, potentially a shorter-term increase in precipitation and
 perhaps lightning. This possibility can probably be excluded as an explanation
 for the changes observed here given the lack of consistent changes in known
 hydrophilic or xerophilic taxa and the lack of a distinct TI-DWT response.
- Physical impacts of tephra including crushing, abrasion, inhibition of gas
 exchange and photosynthesis in plants with consequent impacts below ground,
 perhaps through reduced root exudation. This possibility cannot be excluded
 but given the thin tephra layers experimental studies suggest that major
 changes are unlikely (Payne & Blackford 2005; Hotes et al. 2004).
- Impacts on peatland hydrology, such as surface ponding of water due to a
 formation of a semi-impermeable surface layer of tephra. Given the thinness
 of the tephra layer this possibility is highly unlikely and the lack of a TI-DWT
 change suggests this explanation can probably be excluded.
- 4. Chemical impacts of tephra and tephra leachates. A wide range of chemicals
 may be adsorbed to the surface of tephra shards or leached in the acidic
 peatland environment (Pollard et al. 2003; DeVleeschouwer et al. 2008).
 Chemicals released may include heavy metals like lead and cadmium which
 have been shown to affect testate amoebae (Nguyen-Viet et al. 2007, 2008).

DeVleeschouwer et al. (2008) have suggested that tephra layers may provide 2 an enclosed space for bacterial growth fed by tephra-derived nutrients, which 3 would in turn provide food for bacterivorous testate amoebae. As there is uncertainty in how these impacts might be manifested in community changes it is difficult to exclude the possibility that such processes might have had a 6 role in producing the observed changes.

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8 Beyond these possible explanations for volcanic impacts leading to testate amoeba 9 community changes another possibility is that the observed changes are due to 10 taphonomy. Tests of many species are rapidly decomposed in soils and form an 11 important component of nutrient cycling (Meisterfeld & Heisterbaum 1986). Idiosome 12 tests are particularly prone to decomposition and (with the exception of Assulina spp.) 13 are rarely found below the uppermost peats in palaeoecological records (Swindles and 14 Roe 2007; Mitchell et al. 2008). It is possible that the input of tephra or adsorbed 15 chemicals might modify environmental conditions to become more favourable for the 16 decomposition of sensitive tests. One possible agent is an increase in acidity due to 17 deposition of volcanic acids, although it is uncertain whether any drop in pH would be 18 of sufficient duration and magnitude to produce a detectable change in amoeba 19 relative abundances.

20 Other changes might occur due to supply of Si. Oligotrophic peatlands are Si-21 limited and it might be expected that the supply of Si in tephra, although less 22 bioavailable that biogenic Si, would reduce or remove this limitation. Enhanced silica 23 supply and reduced dissolution have been suggested as causes of enhanced diatom 24 concentration coincident with the Laacher See tephra in NE German lakes (De Klerk 25 et al. 2008) and might also explain the presence of idiosome tests in tephra layers on 26 Marion Island (Yeloff et al. 2007). However in our results the most notable change is 27 a reduced abundance of an idiosome species (T. lineare) and there is certainly no very 28 consistent increase in idiosome tests. The tests which do increase are most commonly 29 of xenosome construction; while it may be that tephra provides material for test 30 construction in these taxa no embedded tephra shards were noted.

31 To conclude, while it is difficult to exclude other explanations the results here 32 are consistent with what would be expected as a sulphur-impact and this provides a 33 viable hypothesis for the changes detected in this study.

1 Implications of the results

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3 An increasing number of studies are taking a tephropalaeoecological approach 4 both to investigate volcanic impacts and to precisely link multiple palaeoecological 5 records. The presence of tephra layers presents a rare opportunity to use the 6 palaeoecological record to address the environmental impact of a short-lived pollution 7 event and it seems increasingly probable that volcanic impacts on peatlands are 8 represented in the palaeoecological record. Our results emphasise the lesson of 9 Caseldine et al. (1998) that replicated results are required for a more complete 10 understanding of volcanic impacts in the palaeoecological record and their spatial 11 variability.

12 The presence of volcanic impacts suggests that a non-climatic process may be 13 capable of producing changes in a key climatic proxy which could conceivably be 14 mis-interpreted as a climate change. It appears however that any volcanic signal is 15 likely to be short-lived so volcanic forcing of the palaeoecological record is only 16 likely to be a concern for very high-resolution palaeoclimate studies. These results do 17 not show consistent changes in TI-DWT; however this does not necessarily mean that 18 a volcanic impact could not lead to changes in TI-DWT. Many taxa showing apparent 19 changes do have marked hydrological preferences and it is possible that if the 20 community composition was different a TI-DWT change could be produced. Any 21 volcanic impact is likely to be difficult to detect below the acrotelm due to the decay 22 of idiosome tests. Due to these factors it is probable that volcanic impacts are unlikely 23 to be a major issue for routine palaeoclimatology, however studies attempting to use 24 tephra layers to link records between sites (cf. Langdon & Barber 2004) should be 25 wary of the possibility.

26 The results presented here provide evidence for volcanic impacts on peatland 27 testate amoebae. Testate amoebae constitute a large proportion of microbial biomass 28 in peatlands (Gilbert et al. 1998a&b) and lie towards the top of the microbial 29 foodweb. These results therefore suggest that there may have been widespread 30 volcanic-induced changes in the microbial community of this peatland. Studies of 31 peatlands exposed to sulphate have shown a reduction in methane flux. Payne (2010) 32 speculated that observed testate amoebae changes might be related to the inferred shift 33 from methanogenic archaea to sulphate reducing bacteria with testate amoeba 34 predation of methanotrophs (recently demonstrated in other protozoa: Murase &

1 Frenzel 2008) seeming a plausible mechanism. While the link between testate amoeba 2 changes and methane is speculative it is possible that the observed changes here may 3 relate to a reduction in methanogenesis. These results therefore provide circumstantial 4 support for the idea that volcanogenic sulphate deposition might lead to methane flux 5 suppression. Methane flux is affected by a wide-range of processes (climatic, physical, chemical and biotic: Dise et al. 1993; Shannon and White 1994; Segers 6 7 1998) and shows considerable temporal variability, however volcanic flux-8 suppression may be highly significant, enhancing the climatic impact of large 9 eruptions in regions with widespread peatlands (Gauci et al. 2008). Future work will 10 need to investigate the precise mechanism of sulphate action on testate amoebae to 11 test whether palaeoecological studies of testate amoebae might allow methane flux 12 suppression episodes to be identified. The tight integration of experimental and 13 palaeoecological results is a powerful but little used approach to investigate longer-14 term environmental change.

- 1
- 2

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4

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1 FIGURES and TABLES



4 volcanoes.





8 which both data are available.



- 1 Figure 3. Plots of selected major oxides for tephra layers in this study and comparison
- 2 data from previous research.





4 Figure 4. Testate amoeba inferred depth to water table (TI-DWT) and pH (TI-pH) for

5 six profiles showing boot-strapped standard errors (1000 iterations) and hypothesised

6 correlations between profiles based on tephrostratigraphy.



8 Figure 5. Impact of increasing test count on number of taxa recorded shown as mean





2 Figure 6. Testate amoebae diagrams from six profiles of five monoliths, also showing

- 3 plots of tephra concentration and loss on ignition (LOI). Diagrams show major taxa
- 4 (>1% total), shaded areas show areas of high resolution sampling and horizontal lines
- 5 show tephra peak.











Table 1. EPMA results for three visible tephra layers in this study and most similar comparison data from previous studies. Normalised data is based on 8 major oxides (excluding Manganese and Chlorine, where presented) showing total number of analyses (N). Full (non-normalised) data is presented in Appendix 1. Analyses with totals <95% were excluded following Hunt and Hill (1993). Full details of analytical

methodology are given in the methods section of the text.

8 9

Table 2. Results of redundancy analysis (RDA) of log-transformed testate amoeba
palaeoecological data across tephra layers in 6 profiles. Showing proportion of

1	variance explained by loss on ignition (LOI) and before/after nominal variables for
2	upper (B/A-A) and lower (B/A-B) tephras with depth as a co-variable and P-values
3	determined by Monte Carlo permutation tests (999 stratigraphically restricted
4	permutations).
5	
6	Table 3. Changes in testate amoeba community across tephra layers noted in
7	stratigraphic diagrams (Fig. 6).
8	
9	Table 4. Taxa responding positively and negatively to treatment with a) sodium
10	sulphate (Payne et al. 2010) and b) sulphuric acid (Payne 2010) in previous
11	experimental studies. Taxa identified using the IndVal technique (Dufrêne and
12	Legendre 1997) with 999 permutations, showing taxa with IV>40 for treated or
13	control plots, significant at P=0.01.
14	
15	Appendix 1. Electron microprobe data from three tephras. Results as raw percentages,
16	also showing averages of raw and normalized data.

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