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in the permafrost Evaluating tephrochronology 1 peatlands of Northern Sweden 2 3 Claire L. Cooper^{*1,2}, Graeme T. Swindles^{1,3}, Elizabeth J. 4 Watson¹, Ivan P. Savov², Mariusz Galka⁴, Angela Gallego-Sala⁵, 5 Werner Borken⁶ 6 7 ¹School of Geography, University of Leeds, UK, LS2 9JT 8 ² School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, UK, LS2 9JT 9 ³ Ottawa-Carleton Geoscience Centre and Department of Earth Sciences, Carleton 10 University, Canada 11 ⁴ Dept. of Biogeography and Palaeoecology, Adam Mickiewicz University, Poland 12 ⁵ School of Geography, University of Exeter, UK, EX4 4RJ 13 ⁶Dept. of Soil Ecology, University of Bayreuth, Germany 14 * Corresponding author: gyclc@leeds.ac.uk 15 16 17 18 19 20 For submission to: Quaternary Geochronology 21 Keywords: tephra; peatlands; permafrost; glass preservation; tephrochronology 22

23 Highlights

Six tephra layers are identified in sub-Arctic peatlands at Abisko, Sweden
 Geochemical analyses of glass shards are presented, identifying material
 belonging to the Hekla 4, Hekla-Selsund, Hekla 1104, and Hekla 1158
 eruptions
 Variation in the deposition and preservation of tephra layers across adjacent
 profiles is identified and discussed

30

31 Abstract

32 Tephrochronology is an increasingly important tool for the dating of sediment and 33 peat profiles for palaeoecological, palaeoclimatic and archaeological research. However, although much work has been done on tephra in temperate peatlands, 34 there have been very few in-depth investigations of permafrost peatlands. Here we 35 present the analysis of nine peatland cores from Abisko, northern Sweden, and show 36 that the presence of tephra layers may be highly variable even over a scale of <10 37 38 km. Using electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) combined with age-depth profiles compiled from radiocarbon (14C) and ²¹⁰Pb dating of peat records, we identify the 39 Hekla 1104, Hekla 1158, Hekla-Selsund and the Hekla 4 tephra layers. We also infer 40 41 the presence of the Askja 1875 tephra, in addition to an unassigned tephra dating 42 from between 1971-1987 AD in two separate cores. Five of the nine analysed cores do not contain distinct tephra layers. Volcanic ash deposits in northern Scandinavia 43 44 are subject to both regional-scale variations in climate and atmospheric circulation, and local-scale variations on the order of tens of kilometres in topography, 45 vegetation, snow cover, and ground permeability. The extreme inconsistency of 46

47 tephra preservation within a small study area (~3000 km²) brings into question the 48 reliability of tephrochronology within permafrost peatlands, and highlights the 49 necessity of alternative methods for dating peat profiles in this region.

50

51 **1 Introduction**

The study of volcanic ash preserved in peatlands and lake sediments is a well-52 53 established science, particularly across western Europe and North America (Lowe, 54 2011; Stivrins et al., 2016; Watson et al., 2016a; Plunkett et al., 2018; Swindles et al., 2018). Light ash particles from volcanic eruptions are carried across continents by 55 56 atmospheric currents, sometimes being transported thousands of kilometres from their source (Cadle et al., 1976; Palais et al., 1992; Bourne et al., 2016). The fallout 57 from these eruptions may then be preserved in layers in soft sediments such as in 58 59 peatlands and lakes, providing useful markers and isochrons across multiple sites. 60 Tephra layers linked to particular eruptions allow sediment profiles to be correlated to specific points in time. Assuming that ash deposition occurs approximately 61 62 simultaneously across multiple sites, applying tephrochronology to a given record allows for precise, high-resolution chronological reconstruction of sediment 63 columns, with a range of environmental and archaeological applications (Lowe et al., 64 65 2011; Lane et al., 2014). However, relatively few tephrochronological studies have 66 been performed on permafrost peatlands in Europe compared to temperate peatlands (Watson et al., 2016). 67

68

Abisko Scientific Research Station is located in the Scandinavian Arctic,
 approximately 30 kilometres north of the polar circle at 68°21' N, 18°49'E. The

71 station has a long history of wide-ranging environmental and ecological research, with many recent studies focusing on the observations and effects of climate change 72 73 in a boreal environment (Alatalo et al., 2016; Lundin et al., 2016; Lett, 2017). Rapid 74 alterations in the local climate over the past 50 years and an increase in the frequency of winter warming events in northern Scandinavia (Vikhamar-Schuler et 75 al., 2016) have caused significant ecological concern. The warmer conditions have 76 been linked to vast reductions in the extent of permafrost in the area (Osterkamp & 77 78 Romanovsky, 1999; Camill, 2003; Schuur & Abbott, 2011), affecting the surface water pH, water table depth and vegetation in permafrost peatlands (Camill, 1999). 79

80

Wetlands have long been acknowledged as playing a significant role in global carbon emissions and sequestration (Lai, 2009). It is therefore increasingly important for the scientific community to develop an understanding of how permafrost peatlands in this area have changed over time in terms of their ecology, hydrology and carbon accumulation (Swindles et al., 2015b). Accurate and precise chronological control is a crucial component of such investigations into peat archives.

87

Projections of jet stream currents in the northern hemisphere suggest that, under typical atmospheric circulation conditions, ash particles injected into the stratosphere by Icelandic eruptions should be carried and deposited across much of north-western Europe, including Scandinavia (Woollings et al., 2010; Davies et al., 2010). Past studies have borne this assumption out, and Icelandic tephra has been found across the UK, Ireland, France, Germany, Poland, Belgium, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and the Faroe Islands (Swindles et al., 2011; Lowe et al.,

95 2011; Watson et al., 2017). However, some disparity between the sediment records of adjacent sites has been noted at several locations (Watson et al., 2016b). 96 Vegetation, local weather at the time of deposition, pH conditions in the sediment, 97 and storm events can all affect the capture and preservation of glass shards (Watson 98 et al., 2016a), resulting in variation across cores, even over distances of a few 99 kilometres. Northern Scandinavia is on the extreme distal edge of most numerical 100 simulations reconstructing Icelandic ash clouds (Davies et al., 2010), making 101 102 consistent ash fall across wide areas possible, but unlikely. In this paper, we investigate the cryptotephra content (distal tephra <150 μ m along the longest axis) 103 104 of nine cores collected in the vicinity of the Abisko field station. We also discuss the factors affecting shard preservation variability in the area, and consider the 105 implications for future tephrochronological research in this region. 106

107

108 **2 Materials and Methods**

109 2.1 Study Area

[Figure 1: Map of study area, showing local topography and the location of coringsites]

Nine samples were collected from peatland sites near Abisko, northern Sweden, seen in Figure 1, using a Russian peat corer. Each sample is between 20-45 cm in depth, and is comprised largely of peat, in addition to occasional lenses of organic mud.

116

Abisko is located within the rain shadow of the Norwegian mountains, and as such receives a relatively small amount of precipitation (332 mm per year; Callaghan et 119 al., 2010), with the highest rainfall occurring during the summer months. Each of the peatlands sampled were part of peat complexes in various stages of permafrost 120 121 decomposition, from early dome collapse to full inundation after permafrost thaw. 122 The peatlands of the region are primarily composed of ombotrophic bogs, peat plateaus, arctic fens, and palsa mires, many of which are in states of permafrost 123 collapse as a result of rapid warming. Recent studies have shown an increased rate 124 125 of permafrost decay in some of the Abisko sites, such as Stordalen (Swindles et al., 2015b) 126

127

128 **2.2** Methods

Coring locations were selected on the basis of physical features, hydrology, and 129 vegetation composition (Swindles et al., 2015a). Sites were deemed suitable if they 130 131 were situated on relatively flat ground, and could be characterised as fens, bogs, or 132 palsas. Full site details may be found in appendix C. The cores were stored in plastic wrap and aluminium foil, and kept at a temperature of 4°C prior to analysis. 133 134 Extraction of the tephra in these sediment samples was performed following the method detailed by De Vleeschouwer et al., 2010. Each peat core was divided into 135 continuous sections of 1cm depth, and a sample of 4 cm³ was removed from each. 136 These samples were weighed and dried in ceramic crucibles at 105°C for a minimum 137 138 of 12 hours. The dry samples were then reduced to ashes in a muffle furnace at 600°C for six hours. After each stage of burning and drying, the samples were 139 weighed to estimate gravimetric water content and mass loss on ignition. These 140 141 ashes were suspended in 10% hydrochloric acid for 24 hours to remove carbonate 142 material, and then washed with deionised water. The tephra was concentrated at

the bottom of the test tubes by placing the aqueous samples in a centrifuge at 3000 143 r.p.m. for approximately five minutes. This aqueous material was then sieved 144 145 through a $10\mu m$ mesh. Petrographic slides were prepared by adding the aqueous 146 solution to a glass slide on a hotplate until the liquid component evaporated. The slides were mounted using Histomount and a glass coverslip, and examined through 147 optical microscopy using 200-400x magnification to assess tephra content. 148 References to several visual and descriptive sources were used to ensure positive 149 150 tephra identification (Lowe, 2011; Watson et al., 2016a).

151

Sub-samples which were found to contain more than 10 shards per cm³ were re-152 sampled and processed using the acid digestion method outlined in Dugmore &153 Newton (1992), and, later, to density separation, to fully remove problematic organic 154 155 material and biogenic silica (Blockley et al., 2005). In some cases, tephra was found 156 to exist in irregular, non-continuous, discrete clumps of material rather than in welldefined layers, making repeated extractions from a particular depth within the peat 157 profile problematic. In these instances, optical slides containing tephra were 158 submerged in a xylene solution for 48 hours to dissolve the mounting agent 159 (Ravikumar et al., 2014). This method was found to be highly effective in retaining 160 the tephra and organic material while completely removing the Histomount. Samples 161 for geochemical analysis were then dried, remounted in blocks of resin and 162 subjected to electron probe microanalysis EPMA at the Tephra Analytical Unit, 163 University of Edinburgh. All analysis was performed using a 5µm diameter beam of 164 15kV with a current of either 2nA (Na, Mg, Al, Si, K, Ca, and Fe) or 80nA (P, Ti, Mn), 165 166 following the method of Hayward (2012). Lipari and BCR-2G basalt glass standards

were used for external calibration (Watson et al., 2015). The standard data
generated during geochemical analysis may be found in table B.2 in the appendices.
The overall data for the standards returns <1% variability for most major elements.

170

Radiocarbon signatures of organic material were determined by accelerator mass 171 spectrometry (AMS). Subsamples of 0.8 mg C were combusted in 6 mm sealed quartz 172 tubes with 60 mg CuO oxidizer and 1 cm silver wire for 2 hours at 900°C. The 173 resulting CO₂ was purified from water and non-condensable compounds. Afterwards, 174 CO₂ was reduced to graphite using the zinc reduction method where TiH₂ and Zn 175 with Fe act as catalysts at 550°C for 7.5 hours (Xu et al., 2007). All preparations took 176 place at the Department of Soil Ecology at the University of Bayreuth. The graphite 177 targets were analysed by the Keck-CCAMS facility of the University of California, 178 179 Irvine, with a precision of 2-3% (% deviation is from the ${}^{14}C/{}^{12}C$ ratio of oxalic acid 180 standard in 1950). The samples were corrected to a δ^{13} C value of -25‰ to account for any mass dependent fractionation effects (Stuiver & Polach, 1977). Radiocarbon 181 signatures were converted to ¹⁴C age before present (BP) using the IntCal13 182 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013). Full radiocarbon dating results may be found 183 in table A.1 in the appendices. 184

185

Further chronological data for the Marooned and Stordalen cores was established through 210 Pb dating. Peat samples were digested using a combination of concentrated HCl, HNO₃, and H₂O₂. A small amount of 209 Po was then added as a tracer. Following the method detailed in Whittle & Gallego-Sala (2016), the material was plated onto silver disks, and alpha spectrometry was performed using an Ortec Octête Plus Integrated Alpha-Spectrometry System at the University of Exeter (UK) Radiometry Lab. ²¹⁰Pb values were derived from the ²¹⁰Po/²⁰⁹Po ratios, and dates were then extrapolated from the ²¹⁰Pb inventory using the constant rate of supply model (Appleby, 2001).

195

196 **3 Results**

197 **3.1** Tephrostratigraphies

[Figure 2: Tephrostratigraphic profiles of Abisko peat cores. Radiocarbon dates (cal
BP) are shown in red along the vertical axes. a) Crater Pool 1; b) Crater Pool 2; c)
Eagle Bog; d) Electric Bog; e) Instrument Core; f) Nikka Bog; g) Marooned Bog; h)
Railway Bog; i) Stordalen Core]

Figure 2 shows the tephra counts per 4 cm³ of the eight peat profiles collected in 202 203 Abisko, along with the percentage loss on ignition, and age-depth models based on 204 radiocarbon dating of organic material. While four profiles - Stordalen (ST), Marooned (MN), Eagle (EA), and Nikka (NI) – have clear tephra peaks at varying 205 206 depths, the other profiles have only minimal volcanic ash content, averaging only 1-3 glass shards per section. There is little to no consistency in the presence of tephra 207 with depth across the profiles. The loss-on-ignition for each profile is high, typically 208 209 between 80 – 90 %, but there is no apparent correlation with the presence of glass. 210 The glass shards themselves were typically between 10-150 μ m, though a wide range of morphologies were present, from thin, concave, wisp-like structures to larger 211 aggregate shards. As the shards in EA12 and NI8 were found to be too small and 212 213 sparse to perform EPMA, ²¹⁰Pb dating of the profiles containing these layers was 214 used to determine their ages. The major element geochemistry of the glass found in

the Marooned and Stordalen cores can be found in figure 4. Full geochemistries and
profile dates may be found in the appendices.

217

[Figure 3: Age-depth models of Eagle, Nikka, and Stordalen peatland profiles. Tephra
 profiles identified in this paper are marked in red. Full radiocarbon and ²¹⁰Pb data
 can be found in appendix A.]

221

222 **3.1.1** MN85/Hekla 4

Figure 4 shows the geochemistry of tephra shards found at in the Marooned and 223 224 Stordalen cores. Shards matching the geochemistry of the Hekla 4 eruption were found at a depth of 85 cm in the Marooned bog core. The Hekla 4 eruption 225 represents the most widespread tephra deposit in northern Europe, and relates to a 226 227 plinian eruption of Hekla occurring between 2395-2297 BC (Pilcher & Hall, 1996; 228 Watson et al., 2017). Tephra attributed to this deposit occurs across a range of compositions from dacitic to rhyolitic; in the case of the tephra found in Marooned 229 230 bog, the silica content ranges between 63 – 77 %.

231

232 3.1.2 MN70/Hekla-Selsund

The Hekla-Selsund tephra, also known as the Kebister tephra, is dated as occurring between 1800-1750 BC, and can be found in multiple sites across north-western Europe, including Germany, Great Britain, the Faroe Islands and Scandinavia (Watson et al., 2017). In Abisko, it occurs in the Marooned bog core at a depth of 70 cm. This tephra is rhyolitic to dacitic in composition.

239 3.1.3 ST30/Hekla 1104 (Hekla 1)

These glass shards closely match the geochemistry of the Hekla 1104 eruption (also known as the Hekla 1 eruption), with an average SiO_2 content of 63-67%. This tephra has previously been found in multiple sites in northern Scandinavia, including the Sammakovuoma peatland in northern Sweden (Watson et al., 2016a) and the Lofoten Islands in arctic Norway (Pilcher et al., 2005); see figure 5.

245

246 3.1.4 ST25/Hekla 1158

Several shards with geochemistries similar to Hekla 1158 were found in the Stordalen core at a depth of 23 cm. Tephra from the Hekla 1158 eruption is dacitic in composition, with a silica content of 67-68%. Evidence of this eruption has only recently been found in Europe, in Scandinavian sites in almost all instances (Pilcher et al., 2005; Swindles et al., 2015a).

252

253 **3.1.5 EA12/Askja 1875**

Using the combined age-depth profile (figure 3), it can be seen that the layer in EA 254 falls approximately between 1831 and 1920. A likely candidate for this tephra is 255 therefore the Askja 1875 eruption. Ash from this eruption has previously been found 256 in several sites in Scandinavia (Pilcher et al., 2005; Wastegård, 2008; Watson et al., 257 2016b), suggesting that the tephra cloud was at least partially carried in a north-258 easterly heading from the source (the Dyngjufjöll volcanic system). Approximately 259 0.5 km³ of rhyolitic tephra was produced during this eruption (Sigurdsson & Sparks, 260 1981). 261

263 **3.1.6** NI5 (Unknown tephra)

Using our precise ²¹⁰Pb chronology, the layer in NI appears to fall between 1971 and 264 265 1987, and is therefore of a more uncertain origin as no tephra layers from this period 266 have yet been defined in Scandinavia at the time of writing. As stated above, it was not possible to perform geochemical analysis on these shards; however, several 267 potential source eruptions occurred in Iceland during this period. The Hekla and 268 269 Krafla volcanic systems both exhibited significant activity, although no tephra from 270 the eruptions occurring at Hekla in 1980 and 1981 has yet been reported outside Iceland. The activity from Krafla was almost exclusively effusive with intermittent 271 phreatic explosions (Global Volcanism Program, 2013), making this an unlikely 272 candidate for distal tephra deposition. A minor subglacial eruption of Grímsvötn 273 occurred in 1983, though again this is unlikely to have produced a sufficient tephra 274 275 cloud to account for the reported layer (Gronvold & Johannesson, 1984). It is 276 therefore possible that this tephra originated from a non-Icelandic source. Tephra attributed to Alaskan volcanoes has previously been found in northern Scandinavia 277 278 (Watson et al., 2017), and it has recently been suggested that a previously unidentified tephra found in Svartkälsjärn, Sweden (Watson et al., 2016a) may have 279 originated from the Cascades arc in North America (Plunkett & Pilcher, 2018). These 280 281 findings indicate that, while Iceland is statistically the most likely source of volcanic 282 ash in Scandinavian peatlands, it may be necessary to look further afield to identify more obscure deposits. 283

284

[Figure 4: Geochemical bi-plots of glass shards found in the Marooned and Stordalen
 cores, showing the geochemical type-data envelopes of the eruptions to which they

correlate. Also shown are geochemical envelopes for alternative eruptions occurring
within a similar timeframe for comparison. a) ST25, b) ST30, c) MN70, d) MN85.

289 EPMA was performed at the Tephra Analysis Unit, University of Edinburgh.]

290

291 4 Discussion

4.1 Tephra transport and preservation

[Figure 5: Spatial distributions within Europe of four tephra layers found in the Abisko peatlands. All four originated at Hekla in southern Iceland, and each has previously been found within Scandinavia. (Swindles et al., 2017)]

296

While several distinct deposits of tephra were found within the Abisko region, there is poor correlation of tephra preservation across sites, even between cores separated by <10 km. A distinct tephra layer can clearly be found in the Eagle bog site, but is not present at the Craterpool bog, despite the two locations being within 12 km of each other. The same is true of the Marooned and Railway bog sites, which are 9 km apart.

There are a number of components influencing the spatial distribution of tephra over 303 a given deposition area. 'Ash winnowing', referring to the resorting and redeposition 304 305 of ash sediments, is a phenomenon which has been previously noted in many 306 volcanological studies, and is typically attributed to erosion by wind- or water-based processes. Analysis of distal ash deposits from the 2008 eruption of Chaitén, Chile, 307 for example, showed that unsheltered locations occasionally displayed greater 308 degrees of reworking and variability in deposit thickness, and that these anomalies 309 310 became more frequent with distance from the eruption source (Watt et al., 2009).

311 The disparities across the stratigraphic columns shown in our results emphasise how a combination of components can cause extreme variability in glass preservation, 312 even over a relatively small area. Many factors are related to local conditions at the 313 time of deposition, while others relate to broader factors such as regional 314 topography and basin drainage systems. Additionally, eruption conditions at the 315 origin volcano can affect glass composition and ash shard morphology, with 316 implications for tephra preservation and transport respectively (Lowe, 2011). Figure 317 6 provides a summary of the dominant factors, some of which are explained in 318 greater detail below. 319

320

321 4.2 Site analysis

322 [Figure 6: Conceptual diagram of factors influencing tephra preservation in Abisko323 peatlands.]

324

325 4.2.1 Local climate and wind currents

The location of Abisko on the leeward side of the Norwegian mountains results in a 326 significant decline in annual rainfall relative to nearby locations on the windward 327 side (Swindles et al., 2015b). While this may decrease the surface runoff in the 328 region, thus decreasing the likelihood of surface redistribution of fallen tephra, it is 329 also thought that precipitation itself may play a crucial role in the deposition of 330 tephra (Davies et al., 2010). Some studies attribute the patchiness of the Hekla 1947 331 tephra in many areas of Europe to irregular rain- or snowfall (Salmi, 1948; 332 333 Thorarinsson, 1967).

Another factor to consider when assessing the impact of precipitation on ash preservation is snow cover. Snow provides a 'shielding' layer above the underlying peatland, enabling redistribution of deposited tephra through surface wind currents (Bergman et al., 2004). Tephra preserved within snow is also subject to transportation should that snow cover melt during seasonal temperature changes.

340

341 The variability of air currents over northern Scandinavia is also likely to be a major controlling factor on tephra deposition in the region. Models suggest that seasonal 342 variability in the dominant air currents has a strong influence on tephra 343 344 transportation, with strong westerlies at high elevations (>15 km) during autumn and winter, and weak easterlies becoming dominant during spring and summer (Lacasse, 345 2001). Icelandic eruptions occurring during the latter half of a given year 346 (September-February) are therefore more likely to deposit tephra across 347 348 Scandinavia. In recent years, however, evidence has emerged that the Earth's warming climate may have a weakening effect on the polar vortex (Kim et al., 2014). 349 350 If this is proved to be the case, future patterns of tephra distribution in the northern hemisphere may be altered by continuing climate change. 351

352

Additionally, it has been suggested that, under the correct conditions, the combination of a variable wind field and changes to the eruption parameters due to fluctuations in the volcanic system may allow for the creation of discrete deposition patterns for different phases of an eruption (Watt et al., 2009; Stevenson et al., 2012). This may provide an explanation for the unusually uniform major element geochemistries seen in some of the deposits found in Abisko, most notably the ST25 and ST30 deposits, attributed to Hekla 1158 and Hekla 1104 respectively. These shard clusters may represent ashfall from a particular phase of those eruptions, though whether the compositional bias in these deposits occurred during transport or through winnowing and preservation processes is unclear.

363

Studies of ashfall conducted following the 2008 eruption of Chaitén, Chile indicate a 364 365 complex pattern of ash deposition which was largely attributed to variable wind fields during the course of the week-long eruption, at least on a proximal scale (Watt 366 et al., 2009; Alfano et al., 2010; Durant et al., 2012). However, variations in wind 367 368 patterns are typically referenced as a cause of regional-scale depositional variations on the order of hundreds of kilometres, as opposed to the local-scale variations 369 observed in Abisko, which occur across areas of <20 km. While a variable wind field 370 371 therefore offers a potential explanation for the apparent underrepresentation of 372 many historical Icelandic tephra deposits in Scandinavia relative to the rest of western mainland Europe, shifting regional air currents are unlikely to have caused 373 374 the erratic preservation pattern observed at Abisko.

375

376 **4.2.2 Vegetation**

Similarly to snow cover, vegetation can provide a shielding effect to underlying sediment. However, a more significant implication for tephra preservation is the effect of root trapping, wherein plant roots capture small packets of sediment, preserving them at a given depth. This has multiple negative consequences for the field of tephrochronology; firstly, the unequal distribution of ash within a given horizon complicates the process of tephra extraction, as it makes the presence of a

particular layer at a given depth more uncertain. Additionally, the vertical 383 redistribution of tephra can negatively impact the creation of age-depth profiles for 384 385 peatlands and lake sediment, as the correlation between tephra layers and dated organic material from the same layer becomes less reliable (Cutler et al., 2016). 386 Dugmore et al., 2018, suggest that uniformly vegetated slopes can produce 387 consistent tephra layers in the stratigraphic record, but areas of sparse or patchy 388 389 vegetation will result in variability. Many of the Abisko sites were characterised by a uniform top layer of sphagnum moss of between 1-4cm thickness, with intermittent 390 tussocks of thicker vegetation and herbaceous plants such cotton sedge (Eriophorum 391 392 angustifolium). Studies of vegetation succession in the Marooned and Stordalen sites also indicate the variable presence of shrub communities over the past millennium 393 (Gałka et al., 2017), making it likely that root trapping could have interfered with 394 tephra preservation in this region. 395

Ashfall may also be intercepted by vegetation at a sub-aerial level, such as on leaves and branches. However, the sparseness of larger forms of plant life in most sub-Arctic peatland reduces the influence of this factor in this region.

399

400 4.2.3 Topography

A recent study (Dugmore et al., 2018) based on data from Iceland and Washington State, USA, has shown that tephra layers of 1-10 cm thickness can remain stable on slopes <35°, given sufficiently uniform vegetation cover. Slopes of a greater angle are unlikely to produce consistent stratigraphic records, as tephra particles become concentrated in topographic hollows, resulting in down-slope thickening which can cause differences in thickness as great as an order of magnitude between the peak and the base of a slope (Mairs et al., 2006). Down-slope runoff processes can be
mitigated by vegetation and ground cover, resulting in small-scale variation within a
given layer.

410

411 4.2.4 Eruption conditions

Eruption conditions represent a strong control on cryptotephra layers. Very fine ash 412 413 of the size and density suitable for airborne transport over several thousand 414 kilometres is generated in far greater quantities during explosive silicic eruptions than effusive basaltic eruptions (Rose & Durant, 2009). The effects of ash 415 416 morphology on airborne tephra transport have been the subject of a great deal of study, as the topic has significant implications for ash cloud modelling techniques. 417 The surface roughness, sphericity and convexity of ash particles all affect the 418 419 aerodynamic properties of those particles (Riley et al., 2003), which in turn affect the 420 settling velocity, atmospheric residence time, and transport distance. For example, irregular particles with low vesicularities and high surface-to-volume ratios are likely 421 422 to aggregate due to the high wettability and surface roughness, while flat particles with high long axis to short axis ratios are likely to be transported further from their 423 source (Riley et al., 2003; Cioni et al., 2014). The primary determining factors in ash 424 425 morphology are magma fragmentation - itself a product of gas content, 426 pressurisation and conduit width, among others – and interaction of the magma and subsequent volcanic plume with water. A greater degree of interaction results in 427 greater fragmentation, giving the tephra a thinner, more concave morphology, with 428 complex implications for transport distance (Freundt & Rosi, 1998). 429

While a small number of larger (>150 μ m) shards were found some samples in the Stordalen and Marooned cores, the vast majority of tephra found in the Abisko region has a thin, wispy morphology with an average length of 50-100 μ m and pale colouration, corresponding with the explosive eruptions to which all of the identified ash layers have been assigned.

435

436 4.2.5 Other factors

An absence of water outflow is crucial to the successful preservation of a tephra 437 layer. Lakes or fens which have substantial throughflow are typically not suitable for 438 439 tephrochronological study, as hydrological redistribution of lighter particles is substantially more likely. Dry or impermeable surfaces may also facilitate windblown 440 redistribution of tephra to topographic lows. Particles are therefore preferentially 441 442 preserved in low areas of damp, permeable terrain. A recent study conducted on 443 thin tephra layers in temperate regions (Blong et al., 2017) suggested that the erosional reworking of tephra layers <300 mm in thickness, as is the case for many 444 445 European cryptotephra layers, is highly variable even across relatively homogenous sites. These results may indicate the necessity of large sample sizes and the 446 collection of multiple cores within small areas, although in practice this method is 447 likely to become impractical. 448

449

450 **5 Conclusions**

[1] Six distinct tephra layers, the majority of which are likely to be of Icelandic origin,
were recorded in the surveyed Abisko peatland cores.

[2] Using geochemical analysis, we identify shards belonging to the Hekla 4, Hekla
1104, Hekla 1158 and Hekla-Selsund eruptions in Abisko.

[3] From age-depth profiles of two cores, we suggest that the Askja 1875 tephra, and
an unidentified, possibly non-Icelandic tephra are present in the Abisko region.

[4] We find very little correlation between tephrostratigraphies of adjacent peat
cores, suggesting that local-scale variations in topography, vegetation, snow cover,
ground permeability, and other factors significantly influence the preservation of
windblown tephra in sub Arctic Sweden.

461 [5] The variability of tephra preservation across multiple sites within the study area 462 suggests that northern Scandinavian peatlands may be an unreliable source of 463 volcanic ash deposits due to the increased risks of redeposition and secondary 464 transport, further complicating studies into the tephrochronology of the region.

465

466 **6 Acknowledgements**

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486 Appendix A

487 Table A.1. Radiocarbon dates of Abisko peat profiles

Site	Lab Code	Depth (cm)	¹⁴ C Age	1σ Error	Material dated	Cal range 2σ (BP)	Cal Median Age (BP)
Electric	UB2359	17	165	20	Dicranum bergerii + Dicranum elongatum stems with leaves	166-225	187
	UB2360	22	390	20	<i>Sphagnum</i> stems + leaves	434-505	476
Crater Pool I	UB2358	15	860	20	Sphagnum russowii stems with leaves	726-796	763
	Poz-80223	22	1110	30	Sphagnum riparium stems with leaves	937-1071	1014
Crater Pool II	UB2356	19	160	20	Betula nana leaf remains + fruits scale, Empetrum nigrum seed remains, Andromeda polifolia leaves and seeds, Sphagnum fuscum stems with leaves	167-224	187
	UB2357	29	345	20	Sphagnum fuscum stems with leaves, Oxycoccus palustris leaves, Betula nana leaf remains	316-407	386
Railway	UB2366	28	200	20	Oxycoccus palustris leaves, Betula nana leaf remains, Sphagnum	146-189	172

	UB2398 2	40	1240	20	<i>russowii</i> ste with leaves Bulk	ems	1196-1263	1211
Eagle	UB2365	19	130	20	Dicranum elongatum ste with leav Pleurozium schreberii ste with leaves	ems /es, ems	59-149	119
	UB2397_2	30	1725	25	Bulk		1565-1700	1635
Nikka	UB2363	24	180	20	Sphagnum fuscum ste with leaves	ems	142-219	183
	UB2364	30	595	20	Sphagnum fuscum ste with leaves	ems	584-647	606
Instrument	UB2361	25	165	20	Dicranum elongatum ste with leaves	ems	166-224	187
	UB2362	30	320	20	Dicranum elongatum ste with leaves	ems	348-458	387
Stordalen	D-AMS 006366	14	340	24	Sphagnum		477-314	388
	D-AMS 006367	17	553	31	Sphagnum		640-518	559
Marooned	D-AMS 006368	28	2317	26	Sphagnum, he epidermis	erb	2360-2211	2342

489 Table A.2 ²¹⁰Pb dating of Abisko peat profiles

Site	Cumul. ²¹⁰ Pb_ex inventory (Bq/m2)	±	Residual ²¹⁰ Pb_ex (Bq/m2)	±	Age (year)	YEAR (AD)	±
	19.02	1.68	3632.39	26.67	0.17	2011.83	1.00
	116.57	6.13	3534.84	26.62	1.04	2010.96	1.02
	273.73	8.11	3377.68	25.96	2.50	2009.50	1.06
	504.43	11.26	3146.97	25.41	4.77	2007.23	1.08
	833.18	14.73	2818.22	24.17	8.32	2003.68	1.12
	1263.37	18.20	2388.03	22.23	13.64	1998.36	1.17
	1942.68	21.82	1708.73	19.49	24.39	1987.61	1.25
	2485.15	23.74	1166.26	15.33	36.65	1975.35	1.35
	3073.40	25.72	578.01	12.15	59.19	1952.81	1.61
	3359.58	26.35	291.83	7.05	81.14	1930.86	1.75
	3582.02	26.53	69.39	4.14	127.27	1884.73	2.89
	3651.40	26.67	0.00	2.76			
	3651.40	26.85					
Marooned	3611.87	26.91					

	3618.02	31.04					
	3556.55	33.89					
	47.57	4.29	3602.81	45.06	0.42	2011.58	1.01
	166.11	7.75	3484.27	44.85	1.50	2010.50	1.04
	553.84	18.48	3096.54	44.38	5.28	2006.72	1.10
	1239.81	25.69	2410.57	41.09	13.33	1998.67	1.25
	1923.16	30.09	1727.22	37.01	24.03	1987.97	1.43
	2521.79	40.57	1128.59	33.53	37.70	1974.30	1.71
	3064.50	43.78	585.89	19.60	58.75	1953.25	1.97
	3441.33	44.64	209.05	10.63	91.84	1920.16	2.59
	3650.38	45.06	0.00	6.09			
	3650.38	45.48					
	3606.77	45.52					
	3580.58	45.59					
	3511.91	45.65					
	3254.74	45.99					
	2968.36	47.14					
	2868.03	48.93					
Eagle	2579.98	51.08					
-	129.65	12.70	2517.20	28.58	1.61	2010.39	1.02
	328.28	16.64	2318.57	25.61	4.25	2007.75	1.16
	600.43	18.59	2046.42	23.24	8.26	2003.74	1.22
	1018.88	20.87	1627.98	21.71	15.61	1996.39	1.28
	1599.29	23.67	1047.56	19.53	29.77	1982.23	1.44
	1971.58	27.37	675.27	16.03	43.87	1968.13	1.64
	2248.59	28.20	398.26	8.23	60.82	1951.18	1.65
	2455.75	28.40	191.10	4.65	84.40	1927.60	1.80
	2584.36	28.51	62.50	3.23	120.30	1891.70	2.66
	2646.85	28.58	0.00	2.05			
	2646.85	28.75					
	2618.05	29.25					
	2607.31	29.73					
	2594.90	31.04					
Nikka	2556.27	31.43					
	129.65	12.70	2517.20	28.58	1.61	2010.39	1.02
	328.28	16.64	2318.57	25.61	4.25	2007.75	1.16
	600.43	18.59	2046.42	23.24	8.26	2003.74	1.22
	1018.88	20.87	1627.98	21.71	15.61	1996.39	1.28
	1599.29	23.67	1047.56	19.53	29.77	1982.23	1.44
	1971.58	27.37	675.27	16.03	43.87	1968.13	1.64
	2248.59	28.20	398.26	8.23	60.82	1951.18	1.65
	2455.75	28.40	191.10	4.65	84.40	1927.60	1.80
	2584.36	28.51	62.50	3.23	120.30	1891.70	2.66
	2646.85	28.58	0.00	2.05			
	2646.85	28.75					
	2618.05	29.25					
	2607.31	29.73					
	2594.90	31.04					
Stordalen	2556.27	31.43					
490							

492 Appendix B

	Depth											
Core	(cm)	SiO ₂	TiO ₂	AI_2O_3	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na ₂ O	K ₂ O	P_2O_5	Total
Marooned	85	70.54	0.45	13.10	4.65	0.19	0.18	1.53	4.89	3.52	0.05	99.09
		76.16	0.24	11.91	2.06	0.08	0.07	0.90	4.19	3.03	0.03	98.69
		73 40	0.28	14 28	3 4 3	0.12	0.32	2 4 1	4 91	1.95	0.05	101 19
		71 03	0.24	13 25	2.08	0.12	_0.20	1 05	5 25	2 40	0.00	97.96
		62 12	0.24	14.62	7 40	0.12	0.20	1.00	1 17	1 97	0.00	07.09
		64 72	0.05	14.00	7.43	0.23	0.09	4.4J 4.55	4.17	1.07	0.20	37.30 100.75
		04.73	CO.U	15.19	7.59	0.24	0.90	4.00	4.70	1.07	0.29	100.75
		73.99	0.14	12.80	2.01	0.08	0.05	1.35	5.02	2.90	0.01	98.38
		66.65	0.52	15.15	4.41	0.20	0.34	1.87	5.54	3.88	0.07	98.65
		72.96	0.13	12.14	1.94	0.09	0.03	1.18	4.67	2.82	0.00	95.98
		66.40	0.57	15.02	5.22	0.17	0.45	3.66	5.69	1.59	0.16	98.92
		66.23	0.59	15.03	4.04	0.11	0.31	3.87	5.64	1.35	0.19	97.34
		71.16	0.24	13.29	3.09	0.11	0.13	2.06	5.06	2.48	0.02	97.67
		71.96	0.23	12.95	2.84	0.11	0.10	1.87	4.71	2.58	0.02	97.41
		63.02	1.18	15.07	7.17	0.20	1.38	4.75	4.41	1.57	0.40	99.09
		64.28	1.18	14.04	7.17	0.21	1.35	4.58	4.48	1.52	0.39	99.11
		75 55	0.20	12 23	1 73	0.07	0.06	1 34	4 34	2 75	0.03	98.36
		10.00	0.20	12.20		0.01	0.00			2.7 0	0.00	00.00
Stordalen	25	69.57	0.46	13.51	5.23	0.14	0.34	2.34	4.97	2.88	0.10	99.54
		69.36	0.42	15.53	4.17	0.11	0.19	3.01	5.34	2.44	0.10	100.68
		69.26	0.50	14.28	4.83	0.19	0.24	2.81	5.49	2.54	0.10	100.25
		68.79	0.47	15.19	5.09	0.15	0.40	3.29	5.47	2.05	0.09	100.99
		68.72	0.46	15.23	5.52	0.17	0.43	3.13	5.27	2.30	0.11	101.34
		68.68	0.47	15.41	5.46	0.17	0.47	3.15	5.12	2.32	0.10	101.35
		68.40	0.48	14.09	5.48	0.19	0.42	3.03	5.06	2.42	0.10	99.68
		68.23	0.48	14.53	5.48	0.17	0.48	3.33	5.16	2.31	0.09	100.26
		68 11	0.47	15 35	5 70	0.18	0.46	2.96	5.30	2.38	0.10	101 01
		67.90	0.47	14 36	5 31	0.10	0.10	3 14	5 54	2 30	0.10	99 75
		67.84	0.47	14.00	5 75	0.10	0.44	3.22	5 12	2.00	0.11	100.70
		67.04	0.47	14.50	5.23	0.17	0.46	2.22	1 01	2.01	0.11	00.77
		67.04	0.47	14.52	5.05	0.15	0.40	3.20	4.01	2.31	0.12	99.77
		07.00	0.40	15.01	5.75	0.19	0.50	3.02	4.70	2.20	0.00	99.97
		07.00	0.46	15.00	5.70	0.18	0.46	2.94	5.7 I	2.24	0.09	100.51
		67.62	0.45	14.22	5.39	0.14	0.50	3.02	5.44	2.41	0.11	99.30
		67.60	0.46	14.83	5.76	0.16	0.44	3.14	5.43	2.35	0.10	100.29
		67.60	0.48	15.22	5.65	0.19	0.44	3.14	5.09	2.39	0.10	100.31
		67.39	0.46	15.04	6.06	0.17	0.46	3.02	5.55	2.30	0.11	100.56
		67.22	0.45	14.85	5.61	0.17	0.48	3.11	5.39	2.32	0.11	99.71
		67.11	0.41	16.93	4.25	0.15	0.34	3.88	5.87	1.97	0.09	101.00
		65.41	0.07	13.85	5.66	0.11	0.41	3.16	4.04	2.19	0.07	95.20
		64.71	0.27	20.15	3.10	0.07	0.31	5.19	6.36	1.32	0.06	101.54
Otenslelen	00	07.00	0.00	10.11	4.04	0.40	0.00	4 70	E 70	4.40	0.05	400.00
Stordalen	30	67.63	0.38	16.11	4.01	0.16	0.26	1.78	5.73	4.18	0.05	100.29
		67.49	0.40	15.75	4.05	0.19	0.27	1.82	6.16	4.22	0.06	100.40
		67.48	0.39	16.25	4.23	0.18	0.24	1.85	6.22	4.21	0.06	101.12
		67.41	0.39	15.78	4.42	0.16	0.33	1.76	5.92	4.16	0.05	100.38
		67.28	0.47	15.85	4.69	0.19	0.46	2.05	5.97	3.94	0.09	101.01
		67.20	0.43	15.84	4.75	0.20	0.36	2.09	5.73	4.11	0.64	100.76
		66.98	0.34	15.68	3.76	0.15	0.23	1.71	6.01	4.21	0.06	99.12
		66.96	0.46	16.59	4.48	0.19	0.40	2.24	5.99	4.13	0.08	101.52
		66.76	0.43	15.94	4.34	0.16	0.37	1.98	6.14	4.07	0.06	100.25
		66.66	0.43	16.64	4.14	0.17	0.32	1.96	5.87	4.02	0.07	100.28
		66.50	0.36	16.14	4.28	0.15	0.28	1.58	6.14	4.28	0.06	99.73

493 Table B.1. Non-normalised major element glass geochemistry of Abisko peat profiles

		66.44	0.33	14.26	3.60	0.15	0.19	1.63	5.64	4.29	0.0	4 96.	56	
		66.27	0.41	15.63	4.34	0.18	0.35	1.99	6.25	4.06	6 0.0	7 99.	53	
		65.85	0.47	14.11	5.66	0.28	0.66	2.73	5.49	4.12	2 0.0	8 99.	46	
		65.83	0.57	16.08	5.60	0.23	0.57	2.43	5.74	3.78	3 0.1	2 100).94	
		65.73	0.38	15.60	4.07	0.16	0.31	1.80	5.92	4.27	0.0	7 98.	31	
		65.41	0.46	15.62	4.53	0.18	0.31	1.96	6.07	3.98	8 0.0	7 98.	60	
		65.13	0.46	15.79	4.61	0.17	0.34	2.12	6.13	3.92	2 0.0	8 98.	74	
		64.89	0.40	15.78	4.17	0.18	0.31	1.89	5.89	4.18	8 0.0	7 97.	76	
		63.34	0.43	15.82	4.25	0.16	0.31	1.87	5.71	3.95	5 0.0	6 95.	91	
Marooned	70	72.02	0.62	14.51	2.45	0.16	0.53	1.71	6.08	2.84	· 0.1	0 100).96	
		64.63	0.77	15.68	5.58	0.24	0.54	2.65	6.43	3.65	5 0.1	6 100).27	
		72.73	0.64	13.28	3.17	0.15	0.69	2.61	4.65	1.71	0.1	3 99.	73	
		71.16	0.25	13.54	3.02	0.12	0.12	1.98	4.66	2.36	6 0.0	3 97.	28	
		70.33	0.31	13.18	3.82	0.17	0.11	1.29	4.87	5.10	0.0	4 99.	24	
		65.73	0.67	14.49	6.32	0.21	0.58	3.43	4.99	1.95	5 0.2	0 98.	55	
		71.67	0.25	13.34	3.00	0.12	0.13	1.85	5.08	2.42	2 0.0	2 97.	90	
		71.40	0.23	13.42	2.98	0.14	0.02	1.79	5.64	2.78	8 0.0	1 98.	42	
		64.60	0.77	14.05	7.17	0.23	0.78	3.93	4.40	1.67	0.2	4 97.	82	
		72.28	0.24	13.55	3.13	0.12	0.11	1.92	5.84	2.42	2 0.0	3 99.	63	
494														
495	Table B.2	2 EMPA	of Lip	oari and	BCR-20	G glass	stand	ards p	rior to	Abisko	glass	shard		
496	analysis													
														Mea
	DataSet	SiO2	TiO2	AI2O3	FeO	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na2O	K2O	P2O5	Total	Comment	Z
	1/1.	55.20	2.30	13.56	12.15	0.20	3.60	6.93	3.21	1.79	0.36	99.29	BCR2g	12.7
	2/1.	54.41	2.26	13.38	12.48	0.17	3.72	7.13	3.28	1.74	0.38	98.96	BCR2g	12.7
	3/1.	54.54	2.26	13.16	12.58	0.21	3.75	6.91	3.32	1.88	0.39	99.00	BCR2g	12.7
	4/1.	53.96	2.26	13.23	12.38	0.20	3.77	7.03	3.52	1.79	0.38	98.51	BCR2g	12.6
	5/1.	74.43	0.07	12.70	1.76	0.07	0.04	0.81	4.18	5.23	0.00	99.30	Lipari	11.2
	6/1.	74.04	0.08	12.68	1.63	0.07	0.04	0.71	4.16	4.96	0.01	98.36	Lipari	11.1
	7/1.	74.78	0.07	12.99	1.59	0.07	0.06	0.72	4.27	5.21	0.00	99.76	Lipari	11.2
	8/1.	74.50	0.07	12.80	1.65	0.07	0.02	0.79	4.01	5.24	0.00	99.15	Lipari	11.2
	9/1.	54.11	2.26	13.23	12.50	0.18	3.69	6.99	3.21	1.86	0.36	98.40	BCR2g	12.6
	10 / 1 .	54.70	2.27	13.33	12.72	0.20	3.76	7.09	3.42	1.76	0.36	99.60	BCR2g	12.8
	11/1.	54.92	2.26	13.41	12.62	0.19	3.66	7.11	3.42	1.81	0.38	99.77	BCR2g	12.8
	12/1.	54.22	2.28	13.08	11.70	0.20	3.80	7.00	3.25	1.86	0.35	97.74	BCR2g	12.4

498 Appendix C

499 Table C.1 Site information

Site name	Codes	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Peatland type	Number of samples	Water table depth range (cm)	pH range
Craterpool	P1-7	68°19'10.1"	19°51′27.2″	Palsa	7	– 5 to 45	3.76– 4.77
Eagle	E1-6	68°21′56.5″	19°35′02.9″	Fen and bog	6	0 to 29	4.52– 6.74
Electric	L1-6	67°51′56.1″	19°22′06.4″	Palsa	6	0 to 45	3.66– 6.95

Site name	Codes	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Peatland type	Number of samples	Water table depth range (cm)	pH range
Instrument	11-6	68°11′52.4″	19°45′56.2″	Palsa	6	0 to 36	3.43– 5.32
Marooned	M1-7	67°57′24.0″	19°59'11.4″	Fen and bog	7	– 1 to 29	3.24– 4.21
Nikka	N1-6	67°52′02.2″	19°10′42.5″	Fen and bog	6	– 1 to 40	4.02– 5.27
Railway	R1-7	68°05′12.6″	19°49′52.9″	Palsa	7	0 to 40	3.25– 6.35
Stordalen	S1-40	68°21′24.3″	19°02′53.5″	Palsa and fen	40	– 7 to 50	2.99– 3.80

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