

Improved age estimates for key Late Quaternary European tephra horizons in the RESET lattice

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Abstract

The research project ‘Response of Humans to Abrupt Environmental Transitions’ (RESET) used tephra layers to tie together and synchronise the chronologies of stratigraphic records at archaeological and environmental sites. With the increasing importance of tephra as chronological markers in sedimentary sequences, both in this project and more generally, comes a requirement to have good estimates for the absolute age of these volcanic horizons. This paper summarises the chronology of the key tephra in the RESET tephra lattice in the time range 10–60 ka BP, from the existing literature, from papers produced as part of the RESET project, and reanalysis conducted for this paper. The paper outlines the chronological approach taken to the dating of tephra within the RESET project, and the basis for further work, as part of the INTIMATE (INTegrating Ice core MARine and TERrestrial records) initiative. For each of the tephra layers in the lattice, the existing literature is discussed and, where relevant date estimates updated using the latest radiocarbon calibration curves (IntCal13 and Marine13) and methods. Maps show the approximate extent of tephra finds, giving a visual indication of the coverage of the lattice in different time-periods.

Keywords

- *Dating;*
- *Tephrochronology;*

- *Radiocarbon;*
 - *Age–Depth modelling;*
 - *Archaeology;*
 - *Quaternary environments*
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1. Introduction

The main strength of tephra layers for studying rapid environmental change is their ability to act as stratigraphic markers across many different records, providing information about the phasing of regional changes around the period of the transition. More generally they allow us to constrain the relative chronologies of different environmental records. However, they also provide a way to assign age to those same marker horizons if direct information on the age of the tephra layers themselves is available. In some cases such ages can be inferred from dates on the eruption event itself, normally through A40r/A39r dating of proximal deposits. More often tephra layers are dated by other indirect dating methods at distal sites.

The past decade has seen considerable progress in the development of chronology quantification, through improved radiocarbon calibration curves (Reimer et al., 2004, Hughen et al., 2004, Reimer et al., 2009 and Reimer et al., 2013), a fully counted Greenland ice-core chronology for this period (Andersen et al., 2006, Rasmussen et al., 2006 and Rasmussen et al., 2014), and refined procedures for age model construction (see for example Blaauw and Christen, 2005, Bronk Ramsey, 2008 and Scholz and Hoffmann, 2011). These advances have implications for assessing the reliability of age estimates assigned to tephra layers and this paper is intended to summarise the chronology of the key late Quaternary European tephra horizons relevant to the objectives of the research project on the Response of Humans to Abrupt Environmental Transitions (RESET) that are in the time range 10–60 ka BP (see Table 1). In cases where radiocarbon is used, as a minimum the radiocarbon dates have been re-calibrated against the latest calibration curve, and where possible the results remodelled using the latest approaches.

Using tephra layers as a chronological tool has three basic pre-requisites: the ability to locate the tephra in the region of interest, the ability to identify the tephra to a specific eruption by chemical analysis (e.g. Shane, 2000), and the availability of a quantified age estimate for that tephra. The RESET database (Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014b) provides this information for a wide range of tephra layers relevant to Europe and North Africa and this paper is intended to provide a convenient summary. For each of the key tephra layers, a brief description is provided together with a map showing the extent of finds documented within the database and the best estimate of the age of the tephra.

2. Methodological background

Most of the information in this paper, is based on the methodologies of referenced papers. The focus here is on the methodology that has been used to update and summarise the age estimates of the tephra layers. For such estimates to be useful, they must be both robust and presented in a way which facilitates further analysis. These two aims do provide some tension. The choices made are largely determined by the wish to feed into the INTIMATE initiative, which has a broader remit for the synchronisation of records from different environments (see in particular: Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014a). Some of the detail given here is not relevant to the specific tephra layers listed, but the methodology has been applied to all tephra layers listed in the ‘eruptions’ table of the RESET database (Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014b), and so is given for reference.

2.1. Time scales

When applying any dating technique, it is important to consider the underlying time scale. Ideally this would be the astronomical passage of the seasons which defines the annual cycle. In the case of dendrochronology this ideal is approached, and counted ice-core years or lake-varves attempt to achieve the same. In reality, even with these precise methods, there is the chance of errors (due, for example, to gaps and miscounting), and over long timescales these add significant uncertainty. The other timescales that are of primary importance are based on direct physical methods, either radiometric methods with known half-lives, or dosimetric methods which rely on direct scientific measurements. In the end these are tied to SI units of time, and in this sense are absolute. However, there are limitations in all dating techniques, some of which might be systematic and not well understood, and this needs to be kept in mind.

For all these reasons, ages are always defined against some reference time scale and this needs to be specified alongside an age. The relationship between timescales is something that then becomes critically important when integrating information from different records (Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014a). The most important timescales for the late Quaternary (in no particular order) are: dendrochronology, the absolute timescales afforded by the radiometric methods U234/T230h dating, and the counted ice-core chronology of the Greenland ice-cores (currently GICC05 Andersen et al., 2006, Rasmussen et al., 2006, Rasmussen et al., 2008, Svensson et al., 2006 and Svensson et al., 2008). Built on these are the composite IntCal timescales (for radiocarbon calibration) which use dendrochronology where possible and U234/T230h dating beyond that (IntCal04, Marine04, IntCal09, IntCal13, Marine13: Reimer et al., 2004, Hughen et al., 2004, Reimer et al., 2009 and Reimer et al., 2013). The aim of this paper is to give the chronology of the tephra layers in relation to one of these main timescales, and for reference to choose the timescale in which the tephra is known to greatest precision.

In addition to these long-term timescales there are specific records which are of particular relevance to the high-resolution chronology of tephra horizons within Europe. There are the varve-based chronologies of Holzmaar (Germany; Zolitschka, 1991), Meerfelder Maar (Germany; Brauer et al., 1999; labelled here as ‘MFM Varves’) and Lago Grande di Monticchio (Italy; Wulf et al., 2004; labelled here as ‘LGdM Varves’). In some instances the chronologies are known best relative to these site-specific chronologies.

2.2. Deposition models

Although there are several methods to date tephra deposits directly (such as A40r/A39r, A40r/K39, fission track, U238/P206b or U235/P207b), there are many cases where it is difficult to apply them in practice to distal deposits, particularly in the Quaternary. In some instances radiocarbon dating of short-lived organic matter immediately underlying a tephra will give what amounts to a direct date on the eruption. However, such instances are rare, especially for older material, for example dating beyond the practical limits of radiocarbon dating. For these reasons it is frequently necessary to infer ages of tephra layers from measurements made in sedimentary sequences that contain tephra. In order to do this, whatever the dating method (usually radiocarbon, but it could also be Optically Stimulated Luminescence or OSL) it is necessary to use age–depth models. There are a number of methodologies available (see for example Blaauw and Christen, 2005, Bronk Ramsey, 2008,

Bronk Ramsey, 2009b and Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) but the critical point is that the uncertainties in the interpolation should be included in the final ages of the tephra. This is something that has not always been done in the past (see for example Section 4.17 below).

As part of the RESET project new methods were developed that allow for the production of age–depth models without making assumptions about the constancy of the sedimentation rate (Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) and examples of this approach are given below and in Lee et al. (2013). This new averaging approach allows significant changes in rate of sedimentation to be taken into account, and provides a quantified uncertainty in the interpolation between dated points.

Another approach which has been taken in RESET projects is to link the dates from the same tephra in two related age models. This enables the use of information from more than one age–depth model to determine the date of eruptions, thereby reducing the uncertainties involved (see Section 4.17).

All age–depth models developed for this paper are listed in the supplementary online material.

2.3. Age uncertainties

There are various ways in which age uncertainties can be expressed, depending on the field of application and the type of record involved. For many geological dating techniques it is quite common to define 2σ error terms that give the equivalent of a 95.4% probability range. When Bayesian techniques are used it is usual to give the 95.4% error range, and sometimes in addition the 68.2% range to indicate the period that is most likely. In ice core and varve chronologies a ‘maximum counting error’ (MCE) is common, which is intended to give the maximum reasonable variation away from the quoted value. For luminescence techniques the standard uncertainty (1σ) is normally quoted, as is the case for uncalibrated radiocarbon dates.

These differences reflect different traditions and the different uses the dates are being put to. Where the date is the final output and all that is required is a conservative range within which the true date might lie, a 95.4% range can be useful. However if the result is to be used as input into another calculation, this plurality of conventions is a hindrance. As the aim here is

to provide useful numbers for further modelling and chronological integration exercises (Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014a), here the mean (μ) and standard uncertainty (σ) are used, with a reference timescale. This does require conversion of published data: where 2σ errors are given, these are halved; where 95.4% ranges only are given, a quarter of the range is taken; where the 68.2% ranges are given, half the range is taken; where a maximum counting error is defined, this is treated like a 95.4% range. If there is central value given this is treated as the mean and if the errors are asymmetric, these are averaged.

Another area for complication, is where the timescale itself has a quantified uncertainty (GICC05, Holzmaar Varves, MFM Varves, LGdM Varves). In such cases there are really two different uncertainties in the definition of a tephra age: the first is how well known the date is relative to the reference chronology (this can be as precise as a specific year, or a couple of neighbouring years), and the second how well the chronological scale is defined relative to other more absolute scales. Here GICC05 is treated differently because this is a chronology that covers the entire age range of interest and, partly because it is already synchronised with all of the other ice core data from Greenland and Antarctica, and is therefore de facto a global chronological reference. Where tephra layers have been dated to the GICC05 timescale, only the error relative to that timescale is given. Against other primary counted timescales (Holzmaar Varves, MFM Varves and LGdM Varves) the uncertainty in the timescale itself is also included.

In quite a few instances tephra can be dated by a number of different methods. In these cases, in the summary table only the most precise dates (based on the conventions outlined in the previous paragraph), are given but other estimates are reported in the text.

3. The tephra lattice

Table 1 summaries the key tephra layers which comprise the tephra lattice developed as a central part of the RESET project. For each tephra the best estimate of the age of the tephra is given against the timescale which has the highest precision. The age estimates here are taken from published sources, the only modifications being to scale the uncertainties (see Section 2.3 above). In many instances there are several different age estimates for the tephra, sometimes against different timescales.

In many instances the only way tephra layers can be dated is one by one with specific dated constraints or single age–depth models. However, where several tephra layers can be detected in multiple sites, composite age models can be developed that, if coherent, reduce the age uncertainties. The best example of this is for the period 9–15 ka cal BP where 8 records in 7 locations, together with the regional stratigraphy from the Campanian volcanic field (CVF), can be linked together using 19 different tephra layers with 297 radiocarbon dates, and a Bayesian model run using OxCal v4.2.4 (Bronk Ramsey, 2009a, Bronk Ramsey, 2009b and Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013). This yields composite age estimates with reduced error ranges and higher confidence than is the case when only a few isolated radiocarbon dates are available. The model is shown schematically in Fig. 1.

The main records in this model (see Fig. 2) are Kråkenes (Lohne et al., 2013, Core 46), Hässeldala port (Wohlfarth et al., 2006, Core 2), Abernethy Forest (Matthews et al., 2011, using the same selected dates), Holzmaar (Zolitschka et al., 1995), Rotsee (Lotter and Zbinden, 1989), Soppensee (Hajdas et al., 1993 and Lane et al., 2011b), Lake Bled (Lane et al., 2011a), and the proximal sequences of the Campanian volcanic field (CVF) (Smith et al., 2011). In addition the tree ring data of Friedrich et al. (1999) for the LST have been incorporated. Each of the records contains at least two tephra horizons.

In general the main elements of previously-published age models have been re-used, but in all cases variable rigidity (Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) and outlier analysis (Bronk Ramsey, 2009b) were applied to the converged data-set. The whole model was run twice: for Model 1 the suggested litho-stratigraphic boundaries defined by those working on the sediments (in the cases of Kråkenes, Abernethy Forest, and Soppensee) were employed; Model 2 allowed the variation in rigidity to determine significant changes in deposition rate. The latter has the advantage that it is not so subjective, and should allow more easily for changes in deposition rate at points not prescribed. For this reason preference is given to the results of Model 2 but the results of Model 1 are also reported in Table 2 as an indication of the sensitivity of age estimation to specific model choice. Overall the precision of the two models is on average the same, though the errors are slightly different for each tephra. There are no significant differences between the models. The full Model 2 OxCal code is given in Appendix A.1.

The model output provides us with age estimates for individual tephra layers (Table 2). Because all of the age estimates can be constrained by common stratigraphical controls, the

age uncertainties are not totally independent. This can be quantified by looking at the correlation coefficients between tephra age estimates. Table 3 shows the matrix of Pearson product–moment correlation coefficients for the date estimates. As can be seen, very few of the dates are highly correlated, the pairs with the highest coefficients being: Borrobol-Penifiler (0.33), PP-Vedde (0.86), Fondi di Baia – Sartania 1 (0.44) and Pigna San Nicola – St Martino (0.46). Of these only the first two are really important for the RESET tephra lattice.

The model can also be used to check the likely order of the tephra layers in the lattice as shown in Table 4. From this it can be seen that the order of La Pigna 1 and the LST is uncertain as is the relative order of the Pigna San Nicola and the VKT. This information is useful when comparing the ages of tephra layers that are not found within the same sequences, therefore precluding a direct assessment of the relative stratigraphic order.

4. Tephra summaries

This section of the paper focusses on each of the main lattice tephra layers in turn, provides a brief description of the significance of the tephra, and gives more detail on the existing age estimates including revised assessments based on re-analysis of the existing data.

Many of the Italian tephra layers included in the lattice are correlated to layers found within the Lago Grande di Monticchio (LGdM) stratotype, in Southern Italy, and we include their equivalent “TM” codes from Wulf et al., 2004, Wulf et al., 2007 and Wulf et al., 2012 in Tables 1 and 7. The varved sediment sequence from LGdM is presently the most complete stratified archive of Italian tephra deposits, recording over 350 tephra layers within sediments spanning the Last Glacial cycle (Wulf et al., 2004, Wulf et al., 2007 and Wulf et al., 2012). Further compositional analysis of some of the LGdM tephra layers within the RESET project has updated earlier correlations (for example TM-11, Albert et al., 2013) – these are highlighted in the following descriptions where appropriate.

Fig. 3, Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 provide maps of Europe that reveal the overall distribution of finds of the tephra layers documented in the RESET database. In part these reflect past research intensity and the availability of sampling localities. However, while they cannot be taken as plots of the original distribution of tephra from the associated eruptions, they do give some

indication of the likely utility of these tephra for linking records in environmental or archaeological contexts.

4.1. Saksunarvatn

This tephra is from an ultra-Plinian eruption of the Grimsvotn volcano in Iceland (Thordarson and Larsen, 2007). A tephra with similar properties is found in Greenland (Rasmussen et al., 2006) and across North-Eastern Europe, thus providing a useful early Holocene marker horizon (Wastegård et al., 2001, Dugmore and Newton, 1997, Andrews et al., 2002, Pyne-O'Donnell, 2007, Birks et al., 1996, Davies et al., 2012, Lind and Wastegård, 2011 and Bramham-Law et al., 2013; Fig. 3).

In Greenland it has been given an age of $10,347 \pm 89$ b2k (GICC05 Rasmussen et al., 2006; maximum counting error quoted). A precise radiocarbon date for the tephra has been provided by the Bayesian model of Lohne et al. (2013) on the site of Kråkenes where they give an age estimate of $10,210 \pm 35$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal09). A slightly different version of this model (the main difference being the use of model averaging) has been incorporated into the overall Bayesian model for the period described above in Section 3, which uses the new IntCal13 calibration curve. This provides an updated estimate of 10,257–10,056 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $10,176 \pm 49$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13).

It should be noted that some have questioned the correlation between the Saksunarvatn in Europe and in Greenland (Davies et al., 2012 and Bramham-Law et al., 2013).

4.2. Askja-S tephra

This tephra is from an ultra-Plinian eruption of the Askja volcanic centre in Iceland. It has very widespread distribution (Davies et al., 2003, Pilcher et al., 2005, Turney et al., 2006, Lind and Wastegård, 2011, Lane et al., 2011b and Lane et al., 2012b) and provides a useful marker early in the Holocene and so this is potentially an important marker layer for understanding the preboreal oscillation (Wohlfarth et al., 2006).

The tephra has been dated using Bayesian modelling by Wohlfarth et al. (2006) using a number of different methods. Their most robust model (B) gives a 95% range of 11,050–10,570 cal BP using IntCal04. This has been updated using IntCal13, and using the methods described in Section 2.2. The model employed uses the same data, assuming, as the original

paper did, that the Askja is between 2 and 3 cm above the highest radiocarbon date in the sequence from Hässeldala port. The model uses rigidity averaging and outlier analysis. To check if the new methodology was comparable we ran the model first using IntCal04 which gave an error range of 11,175–10,608 at 95.4% or $10,923 \pm 157$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal04) which is similar to (but slightly wider than) the modelled result given by Wohlfarth et al. (2006). This was then incorporated into the main model described above in Section 3 which also uses constraints on the Askja-S from Soppensee (Lane et al., 2011b). As reported in Table 2 this gives an error range of 10,956–10,716 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $10,830 \pm 57$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13). This is currently the best estimate for the date of this tephra.

Major element data is available for this tephra (Davies et al., 2003, Pilcher et al., 2005, Turney et al., 2006, Lind and Wastegård, 2011, Lane et al., 2011b and Lane et al., 2012b).

4.3. Ulmener Maar tephra

This tephra, from a phreatomagmatic eruption in the Eifel volcanic field, Germany, has been found in sites in western Germany, and comes at an interesting point in the climatic succession where radiocarbon dating does not have high resolution.

The UMT has been varve dated to 11,000 varve yrs BP from Holzmaar (Zolitschka et al., 1995). AMS radiocarbon dates of the UMT in Holzmaar range between $9,515 \pm 75$ and $9,650 \pm 85$ C14 years BP (Hajdas et al., 1995), which agrees with an age of $9,610 \pm 40$ C14 years BP from MFM sediments (Endres, 1997). The Holzmaar sequence has been incorporated into the overall Bayesian model for the period which gives an age estimate of 11,400–10,907 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $11,096 \pm 117$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13).

4.4. AF555

This is a rhyolitic ash layer only found distally within a single site (Abernethy Forest, Scotland), though from its chemical data it is most likely from Katla (Matthews et al., 2011). Given that its source must be in Iceland, its extent must be considerable and the AF 555 has the potential to constrain the onset of Holocene warming across Europe as, in Abernethy Forest, it is deposited after the warming has begun and around the point that mean July temperatures at this site reach 12°.

The best age estimate for this is that provided by Matthews et al. (2011) with a Bayesian age model giving a range between 11,790–11,200 cal ka BP (IntCal09). Here, this model is updated within the overall model for the period, using IntCal13 to come up with a revised, and slightly tighter age estimate of 11,721–11,231 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $11,462 \pm 122$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the age of this tephra.

4.5. Pomici Principali (TM-7b)

This is a Plinian eruption of the Campanian volcanic field, with tephra found in marine and terrestrial locations to the East of this (see Fig. 3).

Smith et al. (2011) obtained an age for the large PP eruption of 12,158–11,915 cal BP (IntCal09) using the single published radiocarbon measurement (12,930–11,978 cal BP; calibrated date) from Di Vito et al. (2008) and data from Lake Bled (Lane et al., 2011a) which was imported as a prior into an OxCal model. The new combined model for the period incorporates all of the relevant dates using IntCal13 to give an age estimate of 12,091–11,850 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $11,999 \pm 52$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the age of this tephra.

4.6. Vedde Ash

This is a bi-modal rhyolitic and basaltic ash layer from an ultra-Plinian eruption that is most likely from Katla, Iceland. It is particularly important within the tephra lattice because of its very wide distribution across Europe (Norrdahl and Haflidason, 1992, Thordarson and Larsen, 2007, Larsen, 2010, Lane et al., 2012a, Tomlinson et al., 2012c, Birks et al., 1996, Björck and Wastegård, 1999, Blockley et al., 2007, Davies et al., 2001, Davies et al., 2005, Lane et al., 2011a, Lane et al., 2011b, Lane et al., 2012b, Lowe and Turney, 1997, Matthews et al., 2011, Pilcher et al., 2005, Ranner et al., 2005, Schoning et al., 2001, Turney et al., 1997, Turney et al., 2001, Turney et al., 2006, Wastegård et al., 1998 and Wastegård et al., 2000) as can be seen in Fig. 3. The tephra has recently been shown to be able to differentiate between the timings of abrupt climate change within the Younger Dryas chronozone (Lane et al., 2013).

The tephra has been detected in Greenland ice cores and dated in ice-core years to $12,171 \pm 114$ yr b2k (GICC05 Rasmussen et al., 2006.; maximum counting error quoted). It has also

been dated to NGRIP SS09 11,985–11,988 ice core yr BP. Norrdahl and Haflidason (1992) have suggested that the Skogar tephra (northern Iceland) is a more local correlative of the Vedde Ash, which shares the chemical compositional range (Lane et al., 2012b). The combined age model which draws on data from Kråkenes, Abernethy, Soppensee, Rotsee and Bled, provides a new estimate of 12,102–11,914 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $12,023 \pm 43$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is in reasonable agreement with the GICC05 date.

4.7. Soccavo 1

This sub-Plinian eruption from the Campanian volcanic field (CVF), gave tephra which can be found in Italy and surrounding marine deposits (Di Vito et al., 1999, Smith et al., 2011 and Albert et al., 2012).

Charcoal in a palaeosol underlying Soccavo 1 tephra gives a C14 age of $10,330 \pm 50$ yr BP (CAMS-38438 Di Vito et al., 1999) which calibrates to 12,390–11,990 cal BP (95.4%; IntCal09) or 12,395–11,975 cal BP (95.4%; IntCal13). This date has been incorporated, along with the CVF proximal sequence (Smith et al., 2011) into the overall Bayesian model for the period, giving a date of 12,391–12,017 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $12,198 \pm 112$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the date of this tephra.

4.8. Laacher See Tephra (LST)

The LST is a very important tephra for northern Europe with wide coverage (see Fig. 4). The tephra comes from a phreato-Plinian eruption that occurred in the eastern Eifel volcanic field, Germany. The dispersal direction changed throughout the eruption dispersing tephra all around the volcano and the distribution of this tephra has been studied in great detail both in its own right and as an important constraint for the end of the Lateglacial Interstadial (van den Bogaard and Schmincke, 1985, Riede and Wheeler, 2009, Riede et al., 2011, Lane et al., 2011b, Turney et al., 2006, Finsinger et al., 2008, Lane et al., 2012b and Housley et al., 2013).

The eruption has been dated to the late Allerød at $12,880 \pm 40$ varve years BP (Brauer et al., 1999), or $12,900 \pm 560$ years BP by A40r/A39r dating (van den Bogaard, 1995). It has also been dated by radiocarbon dating to $11,063 \pm 12$ BP which calibrates to 13,010–13,200 cal BP (95.4%; IntCal98; Friedrich et al., 1999). The overall Bayesian model for the period

which included the tree ring data of Friedrich et al. (1999), and has constraints from Holzmaar, Soppensee and Rotsee gives a calibrated radiocarbon age estimate of 12,979–12,889 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $12,937 \pm 23$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13), in good agreement with the other estimates.

4.9. Penifiler tephra

This is a tephra which is only known distally, but from its chemical composition (Davies et al., 2003, Pyne-O'Donnell, 2007, Pyne-O'Donnell et al., 2008 and Matthews et al., 2011) and geographical distribution, is most likely from Iceland. In Scotland the tephra occurs closely associated with a climatic oscillation which, chronologically speaking, is broadly consistent with the Older Dryas or GI-1d cold oscillation. Matthews et al. (2011) suggest this tephra occurs on the transition from cold to warm mean July temperatures.

This has been dated using a Bayesian age model by Matthews et al. (2011) to 14.08–13.68 cal ka BP (95.4% range; IntCal09). Here the age estimate is updated using the new data from IntCal13 and constrained within the overall tephra lattice. The eruption at Hässeldala port with a Borrobol-like chemistry (Wohlfarth et al., 2006) is assumed to be the Penifiler; this cannot be proven, because there seem to be a number of similar eruptions around the same time, but makes sense both climatically and chronologically (Matthews et al., 2011 and Davies et al., 2012). This gives us an age estimate of 14,063–13,808 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $13,939 \pm 66$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the age of this tephra.

4.10. Borrobol

This is a tephra which is only known distally, but as with the Penifiler tephra, with which it can be confused, its chemical composition (Turney et al., 1997, Turney et al., 2001, Pyne-O'Donnell, 2007, Ranner et al., 2005 and Matthews et al., 2011) and distribution pattern imply that it is from Iceland. The layer in Scotland occurs toward the end of the early interstadial after peak mean July temperatures have already been achieved (Matthews et al., 2011). As with the Penifiler tephra, there is some uncertainty over whether the tephra layers identified as the 'Borrobol' at different locations are all from the same event (Davies et al., 2012 and Pyne-O'Donnell et al., 2008).

This has been dated using a Bayesian age model for the Abernethy record by Matthews et al. (2011) to 14.14–13.95 cal ka BP (95.4% range; IntCal09) with a previous estimate by Turney et al. (1997) of c.14.4 cal ka BP. The suggestion of Davies et al. (2004) that there are two eruptions has been revised by Matthews et al. (2011). The age estimate is updated using the new integrated model. This gives an age estimate of 14,190–14,003 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $14,098 \pm 47$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the age of this tephra.

4.11. Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT; TM-8)

The NYT derives from an ultra-Plinian eruption from the Campanian volcanic field. It is subdivided into upper and lower members (see context field of the RESET database; Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014b). The lower member is more likely to be significant distally and is recorded at Lago Grande di Monticchio, however the upper member may also be represented at some localities. The tephra is found extensively in central southern Europe with one occurrence North of the Alps (Bourne et al., 2010, Lane et al., 2011a, Magny et al., 2006, Pappalardo et al., 1999, Schmidt et al., 2002, Tomlinson et al., 2012a, Di Vito et al., 2008, Wulf et al., 2004, Wulf et al., 2007, Wulf et al., 2008, Zanchetta et al., 2008 and Lane et al., forthcoming, See Fig. 4).

The best current age estimate is c. $12,100 \pm 170$ C14 yr BP which is 14,870–13,510 cal BP (95%; IntCal04) (Siani et al., 2004). The varve age for TM-8 in LGdM is $14,120 \pm 710$ yr BP (Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2008). However there are also radiocarbon dates from under the tephra layer which suggest younger dates (see for example Alessio et al., 1971 and Scandone et al., 1991), while K–Ar dates (Cassignol and Gillot, 1982) and A40r/A39r dates, the most precise date estimate being $14,900 \pm 400$ BP at 2σ (Deino et al., 2004), suggest slightly older dates. Working on the principle that if anything radiocarbon dates are likely to be underestimates (due to more recent contamination), and Ar dates over-estimates, the date proposed by Siani et al. (2004) seems most likely to be secure, however, there is clearly a need for more new radiocarbon data.

There is not much that can be done to improve on the absolute age of this eruption, on the basis of the available evidence. With the new calibration curve the terrestrial C14 age of $12,100 \pm 170$, now dates to a range of 14,717–13,563 cal BP (95.4%; IntCal13) or $14,066 \pm 293$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13). The marine measurement from MD90917, which is $12,660 \pm 110$ (Siani et al., 2000, date is given as $12,260 \pm 110$ but ‘corrected’ by 400 years), along with the

ΔR for the Adriatic Sea of 54 ± 30 (Siani et al., 2000) now calibrates to a range of 14,681–13,816 cal BP (95.4%; Marine13) or 14181 ± 222 ($\mu \pm \sigma$; Marine13). Using a combination of these two calibrated dates, which are in agreement, gives a combined estimate range of 14,433–13,795 cal BP (95%) or $14,085 \pm 154$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$). This is the prior used for the NYT in the integrated Bayesian model (see Section 3). The posterior estimate from the model is a range of 14,588–13,884 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $14,194 \pm 172$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is the best estimate, including other constraints. Note the new calibration curve has made quite a large difference here, and the radiocarbon dates are further from the A40r/A39r date of Deino et al. (2004), but closer to the LGdM date of Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2008.

4.12. Biancavilla Ignimbrite (Y-1)

This tephra derives from a Plinian eruption of Etna, southern Italy, and is widely found in marine cores from the Mediterranean (see Fig. 4). TM-11 has been confused with the Biancavilla-Montalto Ignimbrite and thus sometimes labelled as the Y-1. However, the tephra layers are shown to be geochemically distinct (Albert et al., 2013).

Albert et al. (2013) discuss the chronology of this sequence of eruptions in detail and estimate the date of the Biancavilla-Montalto Ignimbrite to be 17,670–16,965 cal BP (95% IntCal09) on the basis of Siani et al. (2001). This has been updated on the basis of IntCal13 to be 17,605–17,065 (95%; IntCal13) or $17,335 \pm 139$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) on the same basis. See Appendix A.3 for calibration code for this tephra layer, the TM-11 and Verdoline. The new chronology for the sequence at Etna is given in Table 5.

4.13. TM-11

This tephra derives from a Plinian eruption of Etna and is found in marine and lacustrine deposits. It has been confused with the Biancavilla-Montalto Ignimbrite and thus sometimes labelled as the Y-1 (Albert et al., 2013).

TM-11 has a varve age of $16,440 \pm 820$ yr BP in Lago Grande di Monticchio (Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2008). The relationship of this tephra to the Verdoline has been used by Albert et al. (2013) to derive an age of 17,640–18,324 cal BP (95% IntCal09). Details are

given in Appendix A.3. This has updated on the basis of IntCal13 to be 18,349–17,870 (95%; IntCal13) or $18,106 \pm 120$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13).

4.14. Verdoline (TM-12)

This tephra comes from a sub-Plinian eruption of Somma Vesuvius and has a fairly limited extent in the Italian peninsula and Adriatic (Andronico et al., 1995, Siani et al., 2004, Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2007).

An approximate age of $19,145 \pm 260$ cal BP (Marine04) is given by Siani et al. (2004, identified as L8 in MD90-917) from a radiocarbon date on mono-specific planktonic foraminifera of $15,920 \pm 130$ C14 yr BP supplemented by charcoal dates of $16,130 \pm 110$ C14 yr BP (Andronico et al., 1995 and Siani et al., 2001) and $15,870 \pm 90$ reported in Siani et al. (2001, supplemental information. The varve age for TM-12 from Lago Grande di Monticchio is $17,560 \pm 880$ yr BP (Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2008).

Here the same data available to Siani et al. (2004) is reanalysed in the light of the new IntCal13 calibration dataset. The marine radiocarbon date from MD90-917 is $16,320 \pm 130$ C14 yr BP in uncorrected form, which can be used with the ΔR for the Adriatic Sea of 54 ± 30 (Siani et al., 2000). This is combined with the terrestrial dates from Siani et al. (2001) to get a calibration of 19,435–19,025 cal BP (95.4%; IntCal13/Marine13) or $19,226 \pm 104$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13/Marine13). The details of the combination are given in Appendix A.3. This is the best current estimate for the absolute date of this eruption.

4.15. Cape Riva (Y-2)

This is an explosive Plinian eruption from the Santorini volcanic centre (Druitt et al., 1989 and Vespa et al., 2006), with widespread deposits in the Eastern Mediterranean (see Fig. 5). This tephra has been correlated to the widespread Y-2 marine tephra horizon.

Lee et al. (2013) have used a Bayesian model to date the eruption giving a 68% range of 22,157–21,567 cal BP. This is based on data from the Megali Limi basin (Levos, Greece; Margari et al., 2009), Tenaghi Philippon (Muller et al., 2011), Lake Iznik (Turkey; Roeser et al., 2012) and the Philippi peat basin (Greece; Seymour et al., 2004). The eruption was previously dated, by an AMS radiocarbon date on single charcoal from a layer covered by ignimbrite, at c. $21,705 \pm 311$ cal BP (1σ ; IntCal04 Eriksen et al., 1990 and Vespa et al.,

2006) which is in good agreement. Here the model of Lee et al. (2013) is updated to include outlier analysis, take account of the new data in IntCal13, and the new link between Tenaghi Philippon and the Y-3 (See Section 4.17 and Albert et al., 2014). The details of this combined model are given in Appendix A.4. The model gives a best estimate date for the Cape Riva (Y-2) tephra of 22,373–21,888 cal BP (68% range), 22,523–21,308 cal BP (95% range) or $22,024 \pm 321$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13).

4.16. Pomici di Base (TM-13)

This is a Plinian eruption from the Somma-Vesuvius volcanic centre (Andronico et al., 1995 and Siani et al., 2004) with tephra dispersal similar to that of the Verdoline eruption (see Fig. 5).

Pomici di Base is dated to c. $18,220 \pm 140$ C14 yr BP (22,220–21,405 cal BP, IntCal09; Siani et al., 2004) by a single radiocarbon date (GifA 98095). Alternatively, the varve age for TM-13 from Lago Grande di Monticchio is $19,280 \pm 960$ yr BP (Wulf et al., 2004 and Wulf et al., 2008). Recalibrating the terrestrial radiocarbon date gives us a range of 22,417–21,754 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $22,0181 \pm 173$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is now the best estimate for the age of this tephra.

4.17. Y-3 Tephra (TM-15)

This tephra is from a major Plinian eruption from the Campanian volcanic field with widespread tephra dispersal (Fig. 5; Buccheri et al., 2002b, Buccheri et al., 2002a, Pappalardo et al., 1999, Di Vito et al., 2008, Wulf et al., 2004, Wulf et al., 2008, Zanchetta et al., 2008 and Albert et al., 2014). Di Vito et al. (2008) argue this is the distal correlate of the VRa products in the Campanian volcanic field, though this is shown not be the case by Albert et al. (2014).

The tephra is dated in the Tyrrhenian Sea to c. $25,570 \pm 110$ C14 yr BP in marine core C45 [$30,530 \pm 160$ yr cal BP; Marine09] and c. $26,030 \pm 150$ C14 yr BP [$30,820 \pm 170$ yr cal BP; Marine09] in core C106 (Buccheri et al., 2002a and Buccheri et al., 2002b), on foraminifera sampled 3 and 4 cm below the layer.

This age estimate of the eruption is reconsidered here. For the Tyrrhenian Sea, Siani et al. (2000) report four estimates for ΔR which average to give 70 ± 48 . These are used together

with the Marine13 calibration and a Bayesian model to remodel the data from both the C106 and C45 cores together. For the age depth model event-free (EF) depth scales are used which takes into account the depositions of the main tephra layers (see Table 6). The online supplement Appendix A.5 gives the full code for this model which allows us to make full use of the uncertainty in deposition rate and when interpolating from the radiocarbon dates. This gives us a range of 29,541–28,618 cal BP (95%; Marine13) or $29,096 \pm 246$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$; Marine13).

However, in addition to these data Albert et al. (2014) show that the Y-3 is identified at a depth of 9.7 m in the sequence at Tenaghi Philippon. This information can be used to link the marine model given in Appendix A.5 with the model for the Y-2 from Lee et al. (2013), giving a combined model that provides dates for both the Y-2 and the Y-3 (see Appendix A.4). This combined model gives a best estimate date for the Y-3 tephra of 29,248–28,895 cal BP (68% range), 29,410–28,710 cal BP (95% range) or $29,059 \pm 178$ ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13/Marine13). This is the best current estimate of the age of this tephra.

4.18. Codola (TM-16b)

The Codola tephra is from a Plinian eruption of the Somma-Vesuvius volcanic centre (Andronico et al., 1995, Siani et al., 2004 and Tomlinson et al., in this volume).

The best age estimate is given by Di Vito et al. (2008) which is $30,680 \pm 780$ (1σ equivalent, or ± 1560 2σ equivalent). This is based on extrapolation between the varve ages for TM-16a and TM-16b (top and base) of $30,240 \pm 1510$ and $31,120 \pm 1560$ yr BP in Lago Grande di Monticchio (Wulf et al., 2007). It has also been dated to c. $25,100 \pm 400$ C14 yr BP (Alessio et al., 1974), which calibrates to 30,320–28,370 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $29,250 \pm 480$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13).

4.19. Campanian Ignimbrite (Y-5; TM-18)

The Campanian Ignimbrite (CI) is from an ultra-Plinian eruption from the Campanian volcanic field, and is the largest eruption in Europe of the period of study (see Fig. 5; Pappalardo et al., 1999, Di Vito et al., 2008, Zanchetta et al., 2008 and Pyle et al., 2006). The CI eruption dispersed 250–300 km³ of tephra or 104–125 km³ of magma (dense rock

equivalent) over 3.7 million km² (Costa et al., 2012) forming one of the most widespread tephra units in Europe.

The eruption is well dated by single crystal A40r/A39r dates from proximal deposits to $39,280 \pm 110$ yr BP (2σ ; Vivo et al., 2001). The CI is subdivided into fall, main flow and upper flow (see context field in the RESET database). Investigation of distal CI deposits within the RESET project have shown that the upper flow is more widely distributed than previously thought. The fall and main flow components are both represented at Lago Grande di Monticchio (Tomlinson et al., 2012a). Y-5 is the marine equivalent marker layer. This tephra is near the limit of radiocarbon dating but has also been dated using rigorous ABOX radiocarbon methods on charcoal which is found beneath the tephra (Wood et al., 2012). These data have been modelled using IntCal13 (see Appendix A.6) to estimate the date of the overlying tephra and obtain a date of 39,490–38,430 cal BP (95%; IntCal13) or $38,950 \pm 270$ cal BP ($\mu \pm \sigma$; IntCal13) which is in agreement with the A40r/A39r date.

4.20. Green Tuff (Y-6)

This tephra is from an ultra-Plinian eruption of Pantelleria in the Sicily Channel (Cornette et al., 1983, Mahood and Hildreth, 1986 and Civetta et al., 1988).

The tephra was originally K/Ar dated between c.47–51 ka by Cornette et al. (1983), c.45–50 ka by Mahood and Hildreth (1986) and c.47–50 ka by Civetta et al. (1988). More recently the Green Tuff (Y-6) has been reanalysed via the A40r/A39r technique to 45.7 ± 1 ka (2σ ; Scaillet et al., 2013) which is taken to be the best estimate here.

4.21. Nisyros Upper Pumice

The Nisyros Upper Pumice (NUP) is a sub-Plinian eruption from Nisyros in the Hellenic Arc volcanic region. None-the-less the tephra is found widely in the Aegean region (see Fig. 5; Limburg and Varekamp, 1991, Hardiman, 1999 and Pyle and Margari, 2009).

Tomlinson et al. (2012b) suggest an age of c.47 ka based on their review of the dating, following Limburg and Varekamp (1991). Alternatively, Pyle and Margari (2009) give c. 46 ± 5.7 ka. However, Karkanis et al. (2014), present stratigraphic evidence from Theopetra Cave in Greece, which shows that the NUP pre-dates the Green Tuff (Y-6) and deduce an age

which is greater than 50.4 ka cal BP. The existing ages, based mainly on radiocarbon dating close to the limits of the method, are therefore under-estimates of the tephra age.

4.22. Mount Epomeo Green Tuff (MEGT; TM-19)

The MEGT was produced by an ultra-Plinian caldera forming eruption of the volcanic island of Ischia. Ischia is located in the bay of Naples, Italy and is the most westerly volcano of the Phlegraean Volcanic District (Vezzoli, 1988 and Brown et al., 2008).

The proximal age of the MEGT was determined using the K/Ar method at about 52–58 ka (Gillot et al., 1982). MEGT was correlated to the distal TM-19 tephra at Monticchio (Wulf et al., 2004) and this layer is directly dated using A40r/A39r to 55 ± 2 ka (1σ) (Watts et al., 1996). The A40r/A39r age of TM-19 indicates that its $60,060 \pm 3000$ yrs BP varve age (Wulf et al., 2012) may present a slight overestimate. Tomlinson et al. (2014) demonstrate that the prominent distal Y-7 marker tephra correlates to the MEGT eruption and a A40r/A39r age of 56 ± 4 ka (1σ) for this tephra recorded on Stromboli Island, southern Tyrrhenian Sea (Kraml, 1997), supports the TM-19 A40r/A39r age. The diagnostic major and trace element glass chemistry of the MEGT eruption and distal equivalents are presented in Tomlinson et al. (2014) and it is recommended that the A40r/A39r age of TM-19 (Watts et al., 1996) provides the best age estimate for the MEGT eruption.

5. Conclusion

Table 7 provides an update on the estimated ages of key late Quaternary tephra layers based on the research carried out in the RESET project and through other initiatives such as the development of the IntCat13 and Marine13 calibration curves (Reimer et al., 2013). This provides the best assessment of individual tephra ages that can be made on the basis of current information and procedures, and hence provides a working lattice-age-model until matters can be further improved. However, this chronology is not an end in itself; it is only important because these tephra horizons are an important tool in the integration of chronological information from a whole range of records (for example, forming a key element in the INTIMATE database and chronology integration tool: Bronk Ramsey et al., 2014a).

There is clearly more that needs to be done on a number of fronts. The research reported here shows the value of correlating tephra layers, especially when they can be related to key

sequences such as that at Lago Grande di Monticchio, and the Greenland Ice cores. There remain many tephra layers, including those not on the list above which have potential utility as chronological markers but whose identification in distal deposits is problematic often due to indistinct chemical compositions. Despite the chronological advances made over the last few years there are also some important tephra layers which have poor chronological constraint: just from those listed in Table 7, these include the Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT), Codola (C-10) and the Nisyros Upper Pumice (NUP).

The RESET project has demonstrated a number of different ways that the tephra lattice can be directly used to improve our understanding of past processes. One type of application is where tighter age control can be gained by cross correlation between environmental records and the layer-counted ice cores (see, for example, Matthews et al., 2011), or annually varved lake sediments (Lane et al., 2013). Another is the use of tephra layers as widespread markers which can help to understand processes of change, such as the spread of anatomically modern humans into Europe and the regional extinction of Neanderthals (Lowe et al., 2012). Tephra horizons can also be used as an independent test of dating techniques and their associated age models (see, for example, Karkanis et al., 2014).

The updated age estimates for key tephra layers reported here will have two main applications. In the first instance, those sites where these tephra layers are found can now be dated to higher precision against the reference timescales of IntCal13 and GICC05. Perhaps equally importantly, other sites which are dated by radiocarbon alone can now be more accurately aligned to those records where tephra are present. In addition, this paper presents a methodology for the integration of information from multiple records, where tephra layers provide an inter-correlated lattice that can be used by others to further refine and extend the chronology of the late Quaternary.

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Table 1

Main tephra layers which constitute the tephra lattice with the best estimates of eruption ages from the literature. For consistency all age uncertainties are quoted at 1σ or equivalent.

Stratotype (LGdM, Italy)	Tephra name (code)	Marine marker	Volcanic source	Eruption type	Date ($\mu \pm \sigma$ cal BP)	Timescale	Reference
	Saksunarvatn		Grimsvotn	Ultra-Plinian	10,297 \pm 1 [45] ^a	GICC05	Rasmussen et al. (2006)
	Askja-S		Askja	Ultra-Plinian	10,210 \pm 35	IntCal09	Lohne et al. (2013)
	Ulmener Maar tephra (UMT)		Ulmener Maar	Phreatomagmatic	10,810 \pm 120	IntCal04	Wohlfarth et al. (2006)
	AF555		Katla ^b	Plinian	11,000 \pm 200	Varve (Holzmaar)	Zolitschka et al. (1995)
TM-7b	Pomici Principali (PP)	C-1	CVF ^c	Plinian	11,495 \pm 295	IntCal09	Matthews et al. (2011)
	Vedde Ash		Katla ^b	Plinian	12,037 \pm 122	IntCal09	Smith et al. (2011)
			CVF ^c	Ultra-Plinian	12,121 \pm 1 [57] ^a	GICC05	Rasmussen et al. (2006)
			CVF ^c	Sub-Plinian	12,066 \pm 42	IntCal09	Lohne et al. (2013)
	Soccavo 1		Laacher See	Phreato-Plinian	12,212 \pm 164	IntCal09	Di Vito et al. (1999)
	Laacher See Tephra (LST)		Laacher See	Phreato-Plinian	12,880 \pm 40	Varve (MFM)	Brauer et al. (1999)
	Penifiler Tephra		Icelandic ^b	Plinian	13,880 \pm 100	IntCal09	Matthews et al. (2011)
TM-8	Borrobol		Icelandic ^b	Plinian	14,045 \pm 95	IntCal09	Matthews et al. (2011)
	Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT)	C-2	CVF ^c	Ultra-Plinian	14,190 \pm 680	IntCal04	Siani et al. (2004)
					14,940 \pm 100	Ar/Ar	Deino et al. (2004)
TM-11	Biancavilla Ign.	Y-1	Etna	Plinian	17,318 \pm 176	IntCal09	Albert et al. (2013)
TM-12	TM-11 Tephra	[Y-1] ^d	Etna	Plinian	17,982 \pm 171	IntCal09	Albert et al. (2013)
	Verdoline		Vesuvius	Sub-Plinian	19,145 \pm 260	Marine04	Siani et al. (2004)
	Cape Riva	Y-2	Santorini	Plinian	21,862 \pm 295	IntCal09	Lee et al. (2013)
TM-13	Pomici di Base		Vesuvius	Plinian	21,815 \pm 405	IntCal04	Siani et al. (2004)
TM-15	Y-3 Tephra	Y-3	CVF ^c	Plinian	30,530 \pm 160	Marine09	Buccheri et al. (2002b)
TM-16b	Codola	C-10	Vesuvius	Plinian	30,680 \pm 780	Varve (LGdM)	Di Vito et al. (2008)
TM-18	Campanian Ignimbrite (CI)	Y-5, C-13	CVF ^c	Ultra-Plinian	39,280 \pm 55	Ar/Ar	Vivo et al. (2001)
	Green Tuff	Y-6	Pantelleria	Ultra-Plinian	45,700 \pm 500	Ar/Ar	Scaillet et al. (2013)
	Nisyros Upper Pumice		Nisyros	Sub-Plinian	47,000 \pm 5000		Limburg and Varekamp (1991)
TM-19	Mount Epomeo Green Tuff (MEGT)	Y-7	Ischia	Ultra-Plinian	55,000 \pm 2000	Ar/Ar	Watts et al. (1996)

^a Uncertainties in GICC05 are only against that timescale and do not include counting uncertainties: 1σ equivalent error in timescale is given in square brackets.

^b Source inferred from chemical composition; tephra only known distally.

^c Campanian Volcanic Field, Italy.

^d The TM-11 tephra has been given the name Y-1 in the Central Adriatic.

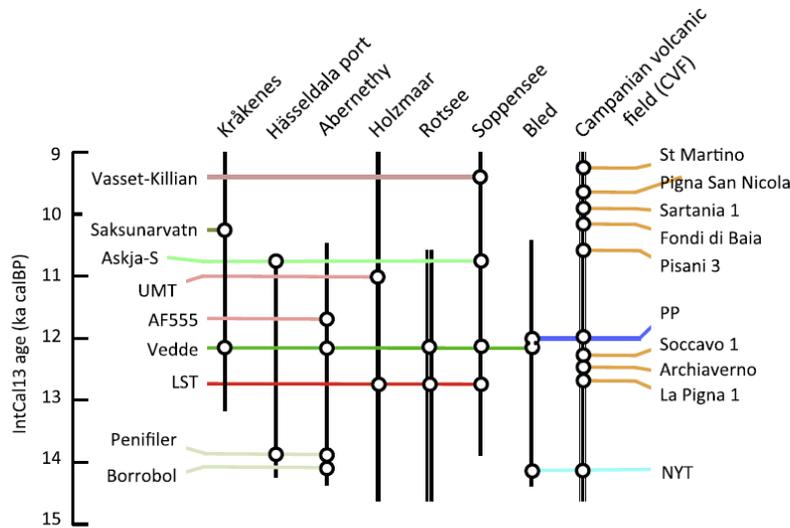


Fig. 1. Schematic for Bayesian model covering tephra layers in the range 9–15 ka cal BP (references given in the text). Note that, unlike the other specific records the CVF is a regional stratigraphic sequence compiled from many sites (Smith et al., 2011). Vertical lines represent records, horizontal lines correlated tephra layers and circles deposits of tephra within specific records.

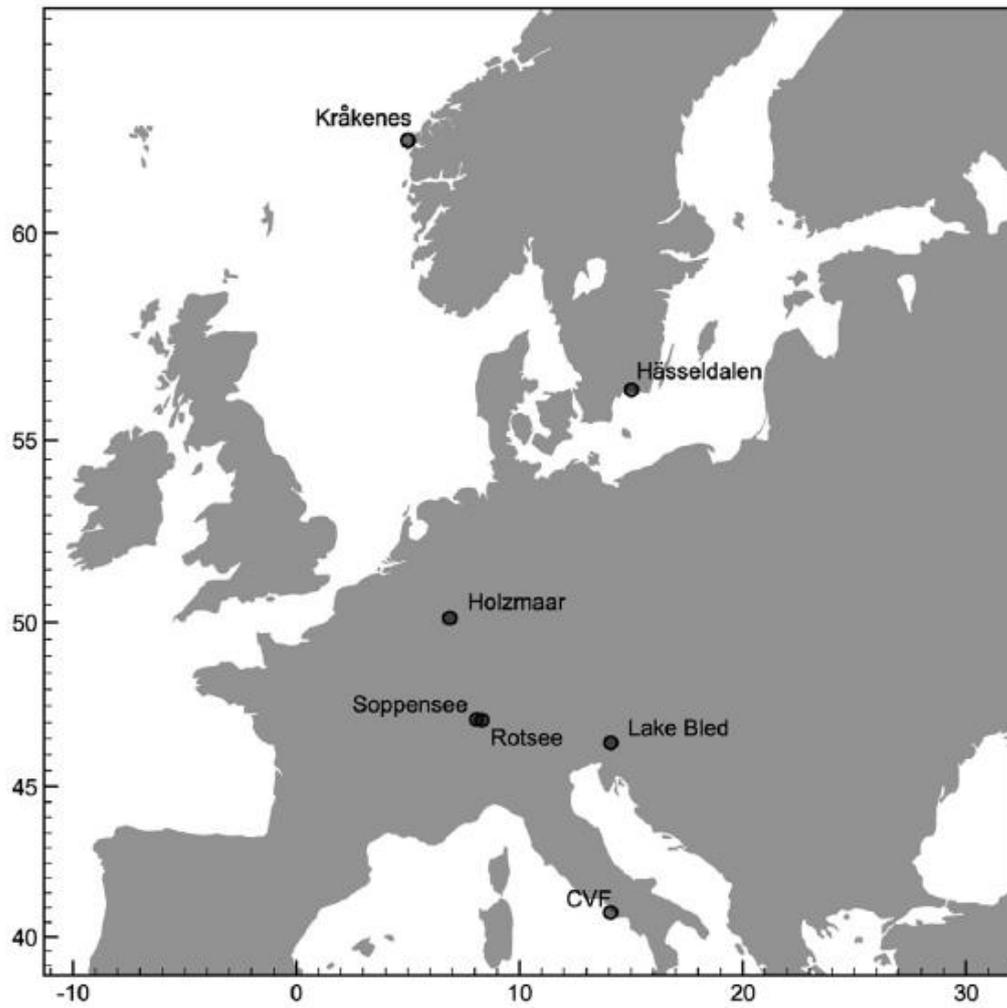


Fig. 2. Map showing the sites used in the Bayesian model covering tephra layers in the range 9–15 ka cal BP.

Table 2

Results from the main 15–9 ka modelling exercise. Model 1 uses litho-stratigraphic boundaries and is slower to converge. Model 2 is simpler in that it allows the variability in the rigidity of each model to cater for changes in deposition rate. Both model outputs are shown here to see how robust the model output is to changes in model assumption. The results of Model 2 are to be preferred because they are less dependent on subjective choices.

Tephra	Model 1		Model 2	
	95% range (cal BP)	$\mu \pm \sigma$ (cal BP)	95% range (cal BP)	$\mu \pm \sigma$ (cal BP)
St Martino ¹	9400–9033	9215 \pm 90	9400–9033	9216 \pm 87
Pigna San Nicola ¹	9529–9163	9352 \pm 97	9529–9164	9352 \pm 97
VKT ²	9456–9229	9339 \pm 56	9486–9255	9375 \pm 57
Sartania 1 ¹	9655–9495	9564 \pm 40	9655–9495	9564 \pm 40
Fondi di Baia ¹	9740–9507	9624 \pm 102	9739–9507	9622 \pm 87
Saksunurvavn ³	10,254–10,095	10,182 \pm 39	10,257–10,056	10,176 \pm 49
Pisani 3 ¹	11,068–10,553	10,708 \pm 121	11,068–10,550	10,709 \pm 123
Askja-S ³	11,005–10,745	10,879 \pm 65	10,956–10,716	10,830 \pm 57
UMT ³	11,397–10,914	11,098 \pm 117	11,400–10,907	11,096 \pm 117
AF555 ³	11,705–11,181	11,438 \pm 126	11,721–11,231	11,462 \pm 122
PP ³	12,105–11,929	12,017 \pm 45	12,091–11,850	11,999 \pm 52
Vedde ³	12,110–11,966	12,040 \pm 35	12,102–11,914	12,023 \pm 43
Soccavo 1 ³	12,390–12,025	12,203 \pm 110	12,391–12,017	12,198 \pm 112
Archiaverno ¹	12,730–12,579	12,665 \pm 42	12,730–12,578	12,666 \pm 41
La Pigna 1 ¹	13,055–12,749	12,903 \pm 82	13,055–12,749	12,902 \pm 81
LST ³	12,980–12,890	12,938 \pm 23	12,979–12,889	12,937 \pm 23
Penifiler ³	14,045–13,795	13,920 \pm 65	14,063–13,808	13,939 \pm 66
Borrobol ³	14,171–13,991	14,080 \pm 45	14,190–14,003	14,098 \pm 47
NYT ³	14,555–13,882	14,186 \pm 169	14,588–13,884	14,194 \pm 172

Notes: ¹ Eruptions from the Campanian volcanic field (see [Di Vito et al., 1999](#); [Smith et al., 2011](#), for details); ² Vasset or Kilian volcano (VKT), Chaîne des Puys, France (see [Hajdas et al., 1993](#); [Lane et al., 2011b](#), for details); ³ See [Table 1](#), for details of the eruptions and the text in [Section 4](#) for references to the information included in the model for each tephra.

Table 4

Tephira order. Numbers close to 1 indicate that the tephira at the left of the row is definitely earlier than the tephira at the top of the column. Numbers close to zero indicate the reverse order. Where numbers are intermediate, there is uncertainty in the order.

	St Martino	Pigna San Nicola	VKT	Sartania 1	Fondi di Baia	Saksunurvatn	Pisani 3	Aslja-S	UMT	AF555	PP	Vedde	Socavo 1	Archiaverno	La Pigna 1	LST	Penifler	Borrobol	NYT		
St Martino	1.00																				
Pigna San Nicola		1.00																			
VKT			1.00																		
Sartania 1				1.00																	
Fondi di Baia					1.00																
Saksunurvatn						1.00															
Pisani 3							1.00														
Aslja-S								1.00													
UMT									1.00												
AF555										1.00											
PP											1.00										
Vedde												1.00									
Socavo 1													1.00								
Archiaverno														1.00							
La Pigna 1															1.00						
LST																1.00					
Penifler																	1.00				
Borrobol																		1.00			
NYT																			1.00		
																				0.68	
																					0.06
																					0.32

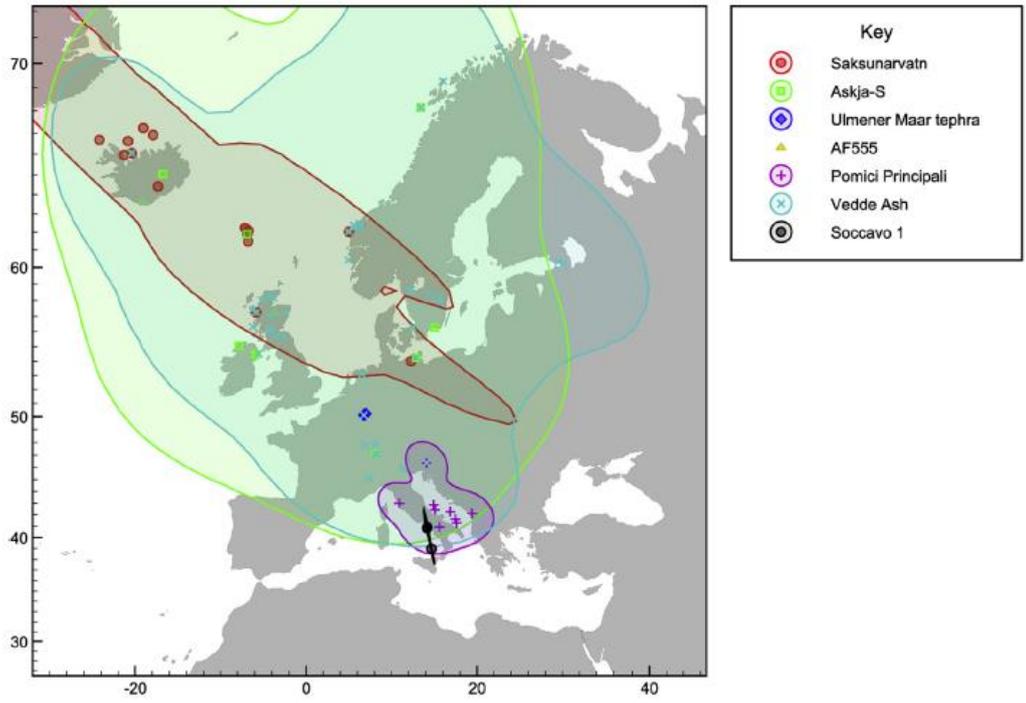


Fig. 3. Tephra dispersal recorded in the RESET database for eruptions in the range 10–12.5 ka cal BP.

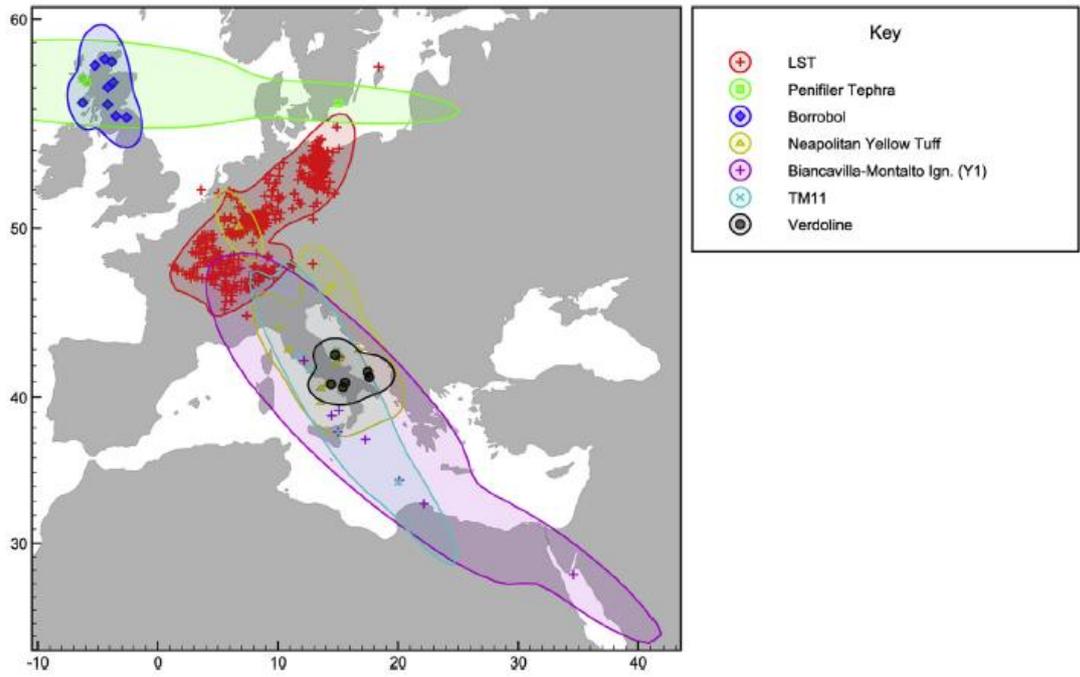


Fig. 4. Tephra dispersal recorded in the RESET database for eruptions in the range 12.5–20 ka cal BP.

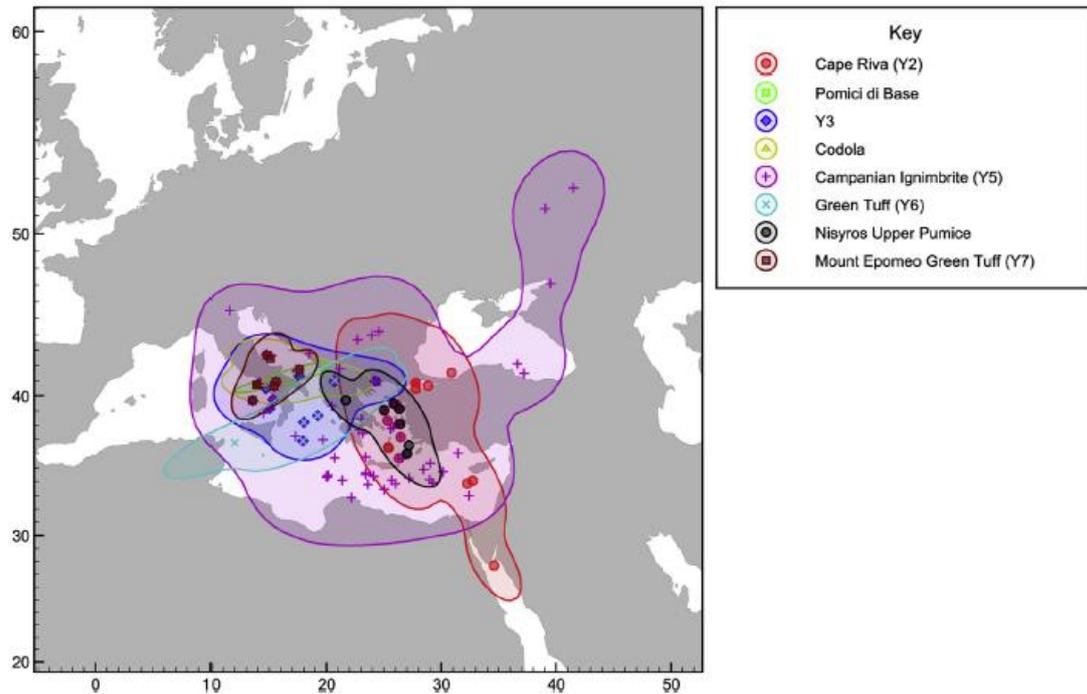


Fig. 5. Tephra dispersal recorded in the RESET database for eruptions in the range 20–60 ka cal BP.

Table 5

Revised dates for the main units surrounding the Y-1 from mount Etna updated for IntCal13 (after Albert et al., 2013).

Unit name	95% range (cal BP)	$\mu \pm \sigma$ (cal BP)
Biancavilla Ignimbrite	17,605–17,065	17,335 \pm 139
TM-11	18,349–17,870	18,106 \pm 120
D2a Giarre	18,501–18,051	18,282 \pm 112
D1a Giarre	18,818–18,550	18,688 \pm 68
TM-12-1	19,839–19,421	19,626 \pm 106

Table 6

Radiocarbon data from cores C106 (Buccheri et al., 2002b) and C45 (Buccheri et al., 2002a) in the Tyrrhenian Sea, which contain tephra layers from the Neapolitan volcanoes.

Layer/Labcode	¹⁴ C date (BP)	Depth (cm)	EF depth (cm)
Core C106			
Core top		0.0	0.0
Vesuvius AD79 top		55.5	55.5
Vesuvius AD79 bottom		110.0	55.5
GX-26471	3470 ± 40	140.0	85.5
GX-26472	5660 ± 40	200.0	145.5
GX-25380	8160 ± 70	250.0	195.5
GX-25381	9870 ± 100	310.0	255.5
GX-25382	12,870 ± 100	370.0	315.5
GX-26473	17,110 ± 60	470.0	415.5
Y-3 top		565	510.5
Y-3 bottom		579	510.5
GX-26474	26,030 ± 150	583.0	514.5
Core C45			
Core top		0.0	0.0
Vesuvius AD79 top		18.0	18.0
Vesuvius AD79 bottom		25.0	18.0
	8500 ± 50	97.0	90.0
Pomici Principale top		151.0	144.0
Pomici Principale bottom		152.0	144.0
	19,490 ± 100	309.0	301.0
Y-3 top		379.5	371.5
Y-3 bottom		383.0	371.5
	25,570 ± 110	386.0	374.5
CI top		456.5	445.0
CI bottom		460.0	445.0

Table 7Main tephra layers that make up the tephra lattice with their estimates updated (in bold) in this paper; all uncertainties are quoted at 1σ for consistency.

Stratotype (LGDM, Italy)	Tephra name (code)	Marine marker	Volcanic source	Eruption type	Date ($\mu \pm \sigma$ cal BP)	Timescale	Reference
	Saksunarvatn		Grimsvotn	Ultra-Plinian	10,297 \pm 1 [45] ^a	GICC05	Rasmussen et al. (2006)
	Askja-S		Askja	Ultra-Plinian	10,176 \pm 49	IntCa113	Lohne et al. (2013), this paper
	Ulmener Maar tephra AF555		Ulmener Maar	Phreatomagmatic	11,096 \pm 117	IntCa113	Wohlfarth et al. (2006); Lane et al. (2011b), this paper
TM-7b	Pomici Principali (PP)	C-1	<i>Katla</i> ^b	Plinian	11,462 \pm 122	IntCa113	Zolitschka et al. (1995), this paper
	Vedde Ash		<i>Katla</i> ^b	Ultra-Plinian	12,121 \pm 1 [57] ^a	GICC05	Matthews et al. (2011), this paper
					11,999 \pm 52	IntCa113	Smith et al. (2011); Lane et al. (2011a), this paper
	Soccavo 1 Laacher See Tephra (LST)		CVF ^c Laacher See	Sub-Plinian	12,198 \pm 112	IntCa113	Rasmussen et al. (2006)
				Phreato-Plinian	12,880 \pm 40	Varve (MFM)	Lohne et al. (2013); Lotter and Zbinden (1989); Hajdas et al. (1993); Lane et al. (2011b,a), this paper
					12,937 \pm 23	IntCa113	Di Vito et al. (1999), this paper
	Penifiler Tephra		<i>Icelandic</i> ^b	Plinian	13,939 \pm 66	IntCa113	Brauer et al. (1999)
TM-8	Borrobol Neapolitan Yellow Tuff (NYT)	C-2	<i>Icelandic</i> ^b CVF ^c	Plinian	14,098 \pm 47	IntCa113	Zolitschka et al. (1995); Hajdas et al. (1993); Lane et al. (2011b,a), this paper
				Ultra-Plinian	14,194 \pm 172	IntCa113	Matthews et al. (2011); Wohlfarth et al. (2006), this paper
	Biancavilla-Montalto Ign.	[Y-1]	Etna	Plinian	14,940 \pm 100	Ar/Ar	Matthews et al. (2011), this paper
TM-11	TM-11	[Y-1] ^d	Etna	Plinian	17,335 \pm 139	IntCa113	Siani et al. (2004), this paper
TM-12	Verdolone		Vesuvius	Sub-Plinian	18,106 \pm 120	IntCa113	Albert et al. (2013), this paper
	Cape Riva	Y-2	Santorini	Plinian	19,226 \pm 104	IntCa113/Marine13	Siani et al. (2004), this paper
TM-13	Pomici di Base		Vesuvius	Plinian	22,024 \pm 321	IntCa113	Lee et al. (2013); Margari et al. (2009), this paper
TM-15	Y-3 Tephra	Y-3	CVF ^c	Plinian	22,081 \pm 173	IntCa113	Muller et al. (2011); Roeser et al. (2012); Seymour et al. (2004), this paper
TM-16b	Codola	C-10	Vesuvius	Plinian	29,059 \pm 178	IntCa113/Marine13	Buccheri et al. (2002b,a); Albert et al. (2014); Muller et al. (2011), this paper
TM-18	Campanian Ignimbrite (CI)	Y-5, C-13	CVF ^c	Ultra-Plinian	30,680 \pm 780	Varve (LGDM)	Di Vito et al. (2008)
					29,250 \pm 480	IntCa113	Alessio et al. (1974), this paper
					39,280 \pm 55	Ar/Ar	Vivo et al. (2001)
TM-19	Green Tuff	Y-6	Pantelleria	Ultra-Plinian	38,950 \pm 270	IntCa113	Wood et al. (2012), this paper
	Nisyros Upper Pumice	Y-6	Nisyros	Sub-Plinian	45,700 \pm 500	Ar/Ar	Scaillet et al. (2013)
	Mount Epomeo Green Tuff (MEGT)	Y-7	Ischia	Ultra-Plinian	>50,400	Ar/Ar	Karkanias et al. (2014)
					55,000 \pm 2000	Ar/Ar	Watts et al. (1996)

^a Errors against the GICC05 dates do not include counting uncertainties in that timescale: 1σ equivalent error in timescale is given in square brackets.^b Source inferred from chemical composition; tephra only known distally.^c Campanian Volcanic Field, Italy.^d The TM-11 tephra has been given the name Y-1 in the Central Adriatic.