

Geophysical Research Letters®



RESEARCH LETTER

10.1029/2025GL115747

Key Points:

- Replicated Wyoming stalagmite proxy records are consistent with other records of Rocky Mountain winter precipitation
- Increased El Niño frequency coincides with aridity in the northern Rocky Mountains during the Holocene
- Multi-decadal north-south precipitation anomaly dipole patterns have occurred in the Rocky Mountains for at least the past 2800 years

Supporting Information:

Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article.

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Citation:

Belanger, B. K., Sharp, W. D., Kinsley, C. W., Cai, Y., de Wet, C. B., McKenzie, B. L., & Oster, J. L. (2025). Coeval Holocene stalagmites record multi-centennial climate variability and drought in the northern Rocky Mountains, USA. *Geophysical Research Letters*, 52, e2025GL115747. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2025GL115747>

Received 12 MAR 2025

Accepted 26 AUG 2025

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Coeval Holocene Stalagmites Record Multi-Centennial Climate Variability and Drought in the Northern Rocky Mountains, USA

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Abstract The El Niño Southern Oscillation and Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) are key drivers of cool-season precipitation variability in the western United States (US), including the Rocky Mountains. Together, they help modulate the north-south “precipitation dipole,” a regional climate pattern operating on multi-decadal timescales leading to dry conditions north of 40°N latitude when the south is wet, and vice versa. We investigate the natural evolution of this climate pattern using two precisely-dated (5900 years ago to present), multi-proxy, coeval stalagmite records of hydroclimate from Titan Cave, Wyoming, located just north of the modern-day dipole transition zone. Consistent trace element and stable isotope records from the two stalagmites reflect the amount and seasonality of regional precipitation, documenting decreased winter snowfall and dry conditions over multi-decadal intervals characterized by the warm phase of the PDO and more frequent and stronger El Niño events.

Plain Language Summary Pacific Ocean climate patterns such as the El Niño-Southern Oscillation have been shown to influence modern precipitation and drought in the western United States. Using analyses of carbonates formed in Titan Cave in northern Wyoming, we develop a record of how rain and snowfall in the northern Rockies have varied over the past 5900 years. We show that oscillating, centuries-long wet and dry periods extend thousands of years into the past and observe a persistent relationship between decreased snowfall in the northern Rockies and increased frequency of El Niño events.

1. Introduction

Defining patterns of precipitation change in the western United States (US) during the late Holocene and identifying key atmospheric teleconnections that drove them are fundamental to understanding regional climate and mitigating future climate risk (Cook et al., 2016). In the western US, modern winter precipitation anomalies often display a north-south/wet-dry “precipitation dipole” pattern, modulated by many factors including the El Niño Southern Oscillation (ENSO) and the Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) (Wise, 2010). During concurrent warm phases of both patterns (PDO+ and El Niño) the northwestern US tends to experience a drier than average winter, and the southwestern US tends to experience a wetter than average winter. This pattern is inverted during concurrent cold phases (PDO- and La Niña) (Cole & Cook, 1998; Sung et al., 2014). The dipole pattern manifests due to shifts in the position of the North Pacific wintertime stormtrack as the result of PDO and ENSO teleconnections with the Aleutian Low (AL) (Alexander et al., 2002). These teleconnections are associated with N–S anomalies in snowpack (Pederson et al., 2011) and extreme precipitation events (Dettinger et al., 1998) in the western US during the last millennium.

Models suggest that fossil fuel-intensive future scenarios could lead to a stronger AL and more frequent south-shifted stormtracks across the western US on multi-decadal timescales (Giamalaki et al., 2021). Low-pressure extremes in the AL can produce strong high-pressure ridges over the Pacific Northwest (PNW), deflecting the stormtrack south following a more meridional flow (Wise, 2016). This south-shifted stormtrack would yield the dry-north/wet-south dipole pattern, a manifestation of the PDO+/El Niño scenario associated with sustained droughts in the northwestern US. Past multi-decadal droughts following this dipole pattern (Pederson et al., 2011) have had devastating effects on agriculture and human populations (Cook et al., 2007). Furthermore, models show

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future greenhouse warming may promote more frequent extreme El Niño events with $>2^{\circ}\text{C}$ equatorial Pacific SST anomalies (Thirumalai et al., 2024), which would also yield anomalously dry conditions in the northwestern US (Stone et al., 2023).

Our ability to ground-truth these hypothesized future scenarios using paleoclimate data has been limited by the extent of the tree ring record, which offers high temporal resolution but becomes increasingly sparse prior to 1000 CE (Pederson et al., 2011). Lake sediment records are longer-lived and provide foundational evidence for the timing of precipitation dipole initiation and persistence in the western US. Anti-phased variations in lake sediment $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between sites in northern Canada and Colorado emerge at ~ 4000 years BP (Anderson et al., 2016), coincident with stronger ENSO variability noted in lake sediment records from the Galápagos (Conroy et al., 2008) and Ecuador (Mark et al., 2022), a decreased Pacific Ocean zonal SST gradient (Koutavas et al., 2006), and warmer North Pacific SSTs (Praetorius et al., 2015). However, these lake records are geographically dispersed and are not proximal to the current dipole transition zone at $\sim 40^{\circ}\text{N}$ latitude, limiting precise determination of spatial and temporal variations in past drought patterns.

We present multi-proxy stalagmite records of winter precipitation from Titan Cave (TC), located north of the present dipole boundary in northern Wyoming (WY). These include $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, and trace element ratios (Mg/Ca, Sr/Ca, Ba/Ca, P/Ca) from stalagmites TC-2 and TC-7 that grew coevally over the past 2900 years with TC-2 extending to 5900 years BP. The new records allow us to assess the evolution of Holocene drought patterns in the western US and their relationship to ENSO and the PDO. We find strong correlations between TC stalagmite proxies and regional snowpack reconstructions, Pacific SSTs, and ENSO reconstructions and investigate the shifting nature of drought patterns via comparisons with sediment $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from lakes across the Rocky Mountains.

2. Methods

2.1. Site and Sample Description

TC is a wild cave developed in the Madison Limestone near the WY/Montana border in the Bighorn Basin (44.9°N , 108.2°W , 1427 m.a.s.l.) (Figure S1, Text S1 in Supporting Information S1). TC receives both cold-season precipitation (predominantly snow) and shoulder season/summer precipitation from convective storms (Bryson & Hare, 1974; Sjöström et al., 2006). In spring and summer, the Atlantic Ocean and Gulf of Mexico can influence precipitation via the Great Plains Low Level Jet which delivers moisture from the south (Malloy & Kirtman, 2020). Snowfall is critical for water recharge at TC and likely dominates the annual precipitation budget as precipitation minus evaporation is highest in winter (Figure S2, Text S1 in Supporting Information S1). Given the importance of snowfall to recharge, our discussion focuses on winter precipitation variability, which is influenced by dynamics in the Pacific and the strength and position of the AL (Hunter et al., 2006; Stone et al., 2023). Winter bias in TC proxies is supported by measured TC drip water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of -19.9 to -20.3‰ (VSMOW) (Belanger et al., 2024), which closely resemble estimated November–March precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at TC (-20.6‰ VSMOW) (Bowen, 2025). While precipitation response to ENSO varies across the Rockies (Shinker & Bartlein, 2009; Wise, 2010), statistical analyses show winter precipitation in the Bighorn Basin is strongly correlated with ENSO variability. Preece et al. (2020) show significant drying during El Niño winters (DJF) at all elevations in the Bighorn Basin using both Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Ranked-Sum tests. Wetter conditions during La Niña winters are significant ($p < 0.05$) in Rank-Sum tests at the elevation of TC. Approximately 390 m above TC this La Niña winter precipitation increase is significant ($p < 0.01$) in both tests.

Stalagmites TC-7 (5 cm) and TC-2 (30 cm) were collected from the Pisa Room in 2019 and 2021, respectively (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1). Each stalagmite was sliced in half vertically and subsamples for $^{230}\text{Th}/\text{U}$ dating were extracted from the growth axes in locations that were dense and free of silicate detritus using a hand-held dental drill. Thirteen subsamples from TC-2 were analyzed for $^{230}\text{Th}/\text{U}$ dating at the Berkeley Geochronology Center (BGC). From TC-7, 10 subsamples were analyzed at BGC and three were analyzed at the Institute of Global and Environmental Change, Xi'an Jiaotong University. Full descriptions of the cave, regional climate, and $^{230}\text{Th}/\text{U}$ dating procedures are provided in Supporting Information S1 (Text S2).

2.2. Trace Element and Stable Isotope Analysis

All trace element and stable isotope analyses were conducted at Vanderbilt University (Text S3 in Supporting Information S1). Trace element concentrations were measured along the growth axes of both stalagmites via laser ablation ICP-MS at $\sim 20\ \mu\text{m}$ spatial resolution. Samples for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis were milled along the growth axes of TC-2 and TC-7 at ~ 200 and $\sim 100\ \mu\text{m}$ spatial resolution, respectively. The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data are presented in per-mil (‰) relative to the international standard Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB). Spearman's rank and Pearson's correlation coefficients between TC proxies were calculated using `cor.test()` function in R (Table S1 in Supporting Information S1). Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) analysis were conducted using the `PCA()` and `prcomp()` functions in R to compare TC proxies and investigate relationships with other Rocky Mountain records. The `corrit` package in R is used to determine Pearson's correlation coefficients between TC and other records at specific timescales and compare these values with correlations produced using surrogate timeseries (Reschke et al., 2019) (Text S4 in Supporting Information S1).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Stalagmite Growth Histories

Dating results and calculated ages for TC-2 and TC-7 are listed in Tables S2 and S3 in Supporting Information S1. Median 2σ uncertainty of the calculated $^{230}\text{Th}/\text{U}$ ages is ± 11.3 years for TC-2 and ± 15.9 years for TC-7. TC-2 grew from 5732 ± 71 years BP to -14.4 ± 1.3 years BP (1964 CE) with a hiatus between 4024 ± 26 years BP and 2840 ± 24 years BP. The growth rate of TC-2 was ~ 0.005 mm/yr from the inception of growth to ~ 4000 years BP and increased to ~ 0.080 mm/yr after the hiatus until growth stopped around 1964 CE. TC-7 precipitated during the late Holocene, between 2851 ± 52 years BP and 54 ± 22 years BP (1896 CE) with a hiatus between 567 ± 32 years BP and 199.8 ± 5.8 years BP. TC-7 grew at ~ 0.004 mm/yr beginning approximately 2851 years BP until the hiatus, then at ~ 0.124 mm/yr after the hiatus until ~ 54 years BP.

Age-depth models were produced using the COPRA algorithm in Matlab (Breitenbach et al., 2012) (Figure S1 in Supporting Information S1). Based on similarities in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records of the younger intervals of TC-7 and TC-2, we used tie-points with TC-2 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to refine the COPRA age-depth model for the older part of TC-7 (Figure S3, Text S2 in Supporting Information S1). We make these adjustments to account for offsets in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between stalagmites which likely manifest due to the extremely slow growth rate of TC-7 and comparatively large sample size required for $^{230}\text{Th}/\text{U}$ dating, making the age-depth model sensitive to uncertainty in sample depth.

3.2. Stalagmite Proxy Record Interpretations

The results of multi-year (2019–2024 CE) cave monitoring (Belanger et al., 2024) demonstrate that seasonal fluctuations in cave air temperature, relative humidity, and pCO_2 are minimal at TC. Mean cave temperature is $9.59^\circ\text{C} \pm 0.05^\circ\text{C}$, RH remains near 100%, and pCO_2 ranges from 469 to 654 ppm and is higher in fall and lower in spring. Drip rate and drip water isotopic composition show minimal responses to multi-annual regional precipitation trends: drip water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ varied by less than 0.5‰ over a 2-year monitoring period (Belanger et al., 2024). Measured $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of modern plate calcite are consistently lower in the center of the Pisa Room (location of TC-2) compared to the side (location of TC-7) by an average of 1.1‰ in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and 2.3‰ in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Notably, TC-2 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is 1–1.5‰ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is 2.5–5‰ more negative than the respective isotope ratios in TC-7 (Figure 1), consistent with observations from modern plate calcite. The offsets in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ suggest these proxies are differentially influenced by prior calcite precipitation (PCP), degassing, or isotopic exchange between cave air CO_2 and drip water bicarbonate before stalagmite precipitation. As the direction of these offsets are consistent through time and noted in both stalagmites and modern calcite, Rayleigh processes and carbon isotope exchange (CIE) are the most likely drivers (Parvez et al., 2024). Slower dripping at TC-7 allows increased time for CIE, driving $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ to more positive values reflective of the cave air (Skiba & Fohlmeister, 2023). Degassing of CO_2 can increase $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at slower drip rates (Mickler et al., 2006). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of TC-7 is more positive than TC-2 throughout the record, excluding the period of rapid TC-7 growth after ~ 1695 CE when drip rate likely increased significantly at TC-7. A positive $\delta^{18}\text{O}/\delta^{13}\text{C}$ slope of 0.2756 across all Pisa Room drip sites is consistent with disequilibrium slopes reported in other caves likely influenced by CO_2 degassing/exchange processes (Belanger et al., 2024).

(Figures S4 and S5, Table S1 in Supporting Information S1). Aridity can lead to decreased soil respiration and enhanced degassing of CO_2 from the drip water which favors the preferential removal of ^{12}C (Ersek et al., 2012; Oster et al., 2012, 2020). Above-cave vegetation (Burns et al., 2016), temperature (Fohlmeister et al., 2020), and atmospheric CO_2 concentrations (Breecker, 2017) may influence $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, but these are unlikely influences at TC over the Holocene.

Overall, TC $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and trace elements indicate aridity during intervals when $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ suggests a rain-dominated precipitation balance. Likewise, when stalagmite $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ indicates more snow, PCP proxies indicate wetter conditions. Thus, TC stalagmites record changes in precipitation amount and the relative contribution of snow versus rain to annual precipitation in the Bighorn region.

3.3. Holocene Rocky Mountain Climate

The youngest, rapidly growing section of TC-7 formed from 1695 to 1920 CE and is sampled at monthly resolution for trace elements and near-annual resolution for stable isotopes, providing an excellent opportunity to examine multi-annual to centennial-scale climate variability. By comparison, the TC-2 record is longer but lower resolution (seasonal trace element resolution, ~ 5 -year stable isotope resolution). Thus, in the following sections, we use the TC-7 record to examine recent climate change at TC. We then use the TC-2 record (5897 to -47 years BP) to evaluate longer-term climate variations in the northern Rocky Mountains and compare with records from the western US and tropical Pacific.

3.3.1. Regional Climate Comparisons Over the Past ~ 300 Years

From 1695 to 1920 CE, TC-7 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ exhibits moderate to strong correlations with Gulf of Alaska (GoA) SSTs (Wilson et al., 2007), the PDO Index (PDOI; D'Arrigo et al., 2001) reconstructed via a tree-ring network circling the GoA, and April 1 snow water equivalent (SWE) reconstructed via tree rings in the Bighorn region (Pederson et al., 2011) (Figure 2, Table S1 in Supporting Information S1). Strong correlations with Bighorn SWE suggest that TC proxies closely follow multi-annual variations in regional snowpack. As inferred from the northern Rocky Mountain tree ring record (Pederson et al., 2011), positive correlations between TC-7 proxies, GoA SSTs, and PDOI suggest a linkage between precipitation amount at TC and North Pacific climate, with winter precipitation in the northern Rockies increasing with negative PDOI and decreasing GoA SSTs. The similarities between TC-2 and TC-7 proxies alongside the robust relationships between TC-7 proxies and recent tree ring records suggests that TC-2 proxies reflect similar regional and global teleconnections during the mid-to late-Holocene.

3.3.2. Mid-to Early Late Holocene (5,900–2,900 Years BP)

Relatively low Sr/Ca, Ba/Ca, and Mg/Ca in TC-2 suggest limited PCP and wet conditions from ~ 5900 to 3900 years BP. This is supported by elevated P/Ca and lower $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Regionally, lake levels rise after ~ 6000 years BP across northern WY (Alt et al., 2024; Pribyl & Shuman, 2014; Shuman & Serravezza, 2017) and the PNW (Lehmann et al., 2021; Mark et al., 2024), suggesting TC stalagmite growth occurred during a wetter, snowier interval. While TC-2 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is low, sediment $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from Bison Lake (BL), central Colorado is near maximum values (Figure 1). Like TC, BL $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is interpreted to reflect both winter temperature and precipitation seasonality, with more negative values indicating increased winter precipitation (Anderson et al., 2016). This north-south $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ contrast suggests wetter conditions at TC and drier conditions at BL and may indicate overall La Niña-like conditions and a generally north-shifted stormtrack from ~ 5900 to 4000 years BP. The precipitation dipole may have been established during the mid-Holocene but with greatly reduced multidecadal variability compared to the late Holocene (Mark et al., 2024). Barron and Anderson (2011) note suppressed ENSO variability yet an overall La Niña-like state at this time, which would produce wetter winters in the northern Rockies.

TC-2 exhibits a hiatus bounded by ^{230}Th -U ages at 4024 ± 26 years BP and 2840 ± 24 years BP. While stalagmite hiatuses often reflect droughts or flow path changes, previous investigations of Rocky Mountain stalagmites suggest colder and/or wet conditions can freeze soil, inhibiting infiltration (Ersek et al., 2012; Lundeen et al., 2013). Current monitoring shows that soil temperatures above TC at 40 cm depth reach -4°C . Therefore, modest temperature depressions during the Holocene, combined with increased snowpack, may have been sufficient to temporarily halt stalagmite formation. Other northern WY proxies indicate cold, snowy conditions at this time. At ~ 3900 years BP Teton Glacier began a major advance (Larsen et al., 2020), while Beartooth Ice Patch records more negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values and doubled accretion rates (Chellman et al., 2021). The Beartooth

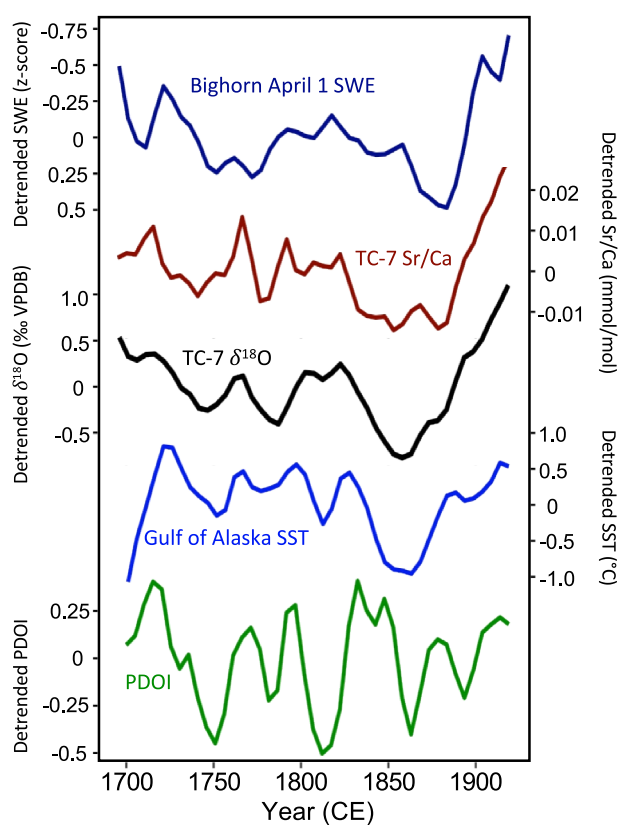


Figure 2. TC-7 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Sr/Ca and relevant coeval climate records detrended and re-sampled to 5-year resolution (1695–1920 CE).

Meltwater Pond records a hiatus between 4200 and 3000 years BP, attributed to ice covering the pond for extended periods (Alt et al., 2024). Alternatively, this hiatus may suggest aridity at TC, consistent with lake records to the south which record drier conditions (Liefert & Shuman, 2022; Shuman et al., 2015). Water levels at Lake of the Woods (northern WY) are low from 4000 to 3000 years BP, rising concurrently with the re-initiation of speleothem growth at TC approximately 3000 years BP (Pribyl & Shuman, 2014). Based on the available information we are unable to determine which scenario led to this hiatus, however both highlight the intricacies of Rocky Mountain hydroclimate and support the idea that simple dipole drought patterns do not always dominate regional precipitation response.

3.3.3. Coeval Stalagmite Growth (2900–50 Years BP)

TC-2 and TC-7 proxies suggest wet, snow-dominated conditions as stalagmite growth is re-initiated after $\sim 2,900$ years BP (Figure 1). By ~ 2550 years BP, increases in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and PCP-sensitive proxies suggest drier conditions and decreased snowfall. Teton Glacier retreats ~ 2400 years BP (Figure 1) (Larsen et al., 2020), and Beartooth Ice Patch accretion rates drop (Chellman et al., 2021) consistent with decreased snowfall across the northern Rockies. Concurrently, BL $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ decreases, and EOF analysis shows anti-phased anomalies in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records across the $\sim 40^\circ\text{N}$ dipole boundary (Figure 1, Figure S6 in Supporting Information S1). We interpret intervals of opposing trends in TC and BL $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ to reflect migration of the stormtrack between more northern (lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at TC, higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at BL) or southern (higher $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at TC, lower $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at BL) positions in response to shifts in ENSO and the PDO which influence the strength and position of the AL (Giamalaki et al., 2021). A PDO + pattern and El Niño-like SSTs in the tropical Pacific strengthen the AL, driving a more southerly stormtrack that delivers increased winter moisture to the Rocky Mountains south of $\sim 40^\circ\text{N}$. Conversely, a negative

PDO, La Niña-like conditions, and a weakened AL shift the stormtrack north, increasing moisture north of $\sim 40^\circ\text{N}$ (Figure S7 in Supporting Information S1) (Pederson et al., 2011; Sung et al., 2014). When one ENSO/PDO pattern dominates on multi-decadal to multi-centennial timescales, the precipitation anomaly dipole observed in Figure 3 is produced.

These opposing precipitation patterns between TC and BL are first evident beginning ~ 2800 – 2550 years BP when decreased $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at TC and increased $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ at BL suggest a north-shifted stormtrack (Figure 1). These observations are consistent with the N–S dipole pattern and suggest a weakened AL, negative PDO phase, and more zonal westerly flow, possibly marking the onset of modern tropical teleconnections with western US climate (Anderson et al., 2016; Carré et al., 2014). Strong negative correlations in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ between TC in the north and both BL and Emerald Lake (Anderson et al., 2023) in the south are robust on multiple timescales of variation beginning 2200 years BP, indicating the dipole pattern is well-developed by this time (Figure S8 in Supporting Information S1).

After $\sim 2,100$ years BP the frequency of El Niño events increases (Fisler & Hendy, 2008; Mark et al., 2022) reaching maximum frequency and intensity between 2000 and 1500 years BP (Conroy et al., 2008). During this time proxies suggest sustained aridity at TC and wetter, snowier winters at BL (Anderson et al., 2016). This pattern is indicative of a south-shifted stormtrack, similar to current observations as El Niño winters are correlated with wetter winters in the southern US and increased aridity in the northern US (Sung et al., 2014; Wise, 2016).

After ~ 1500 years BP TC proxies record a trend toward wetter and snowier conditions and EOF analysis shows anti-phasing across the 40°N dipole boundary (Figure 3). The wettest interval of the TC record at $\sim 1,100$ years BP, synchronous with the end of Teton glacial retreat (Larsen et al., 2020), is consistent with La Niña-like conditions and a north-shifted stormtrack. This La Niña-like pattern continues through the beginning of the Medieval Climate Anomaly (MCA; 1150–650 years BP) as BL $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is elevated and anti-phased with TC and Crevice Lake $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Figures 1 and 3). La Niña-like conditions are recorded by lake and pollen records in the

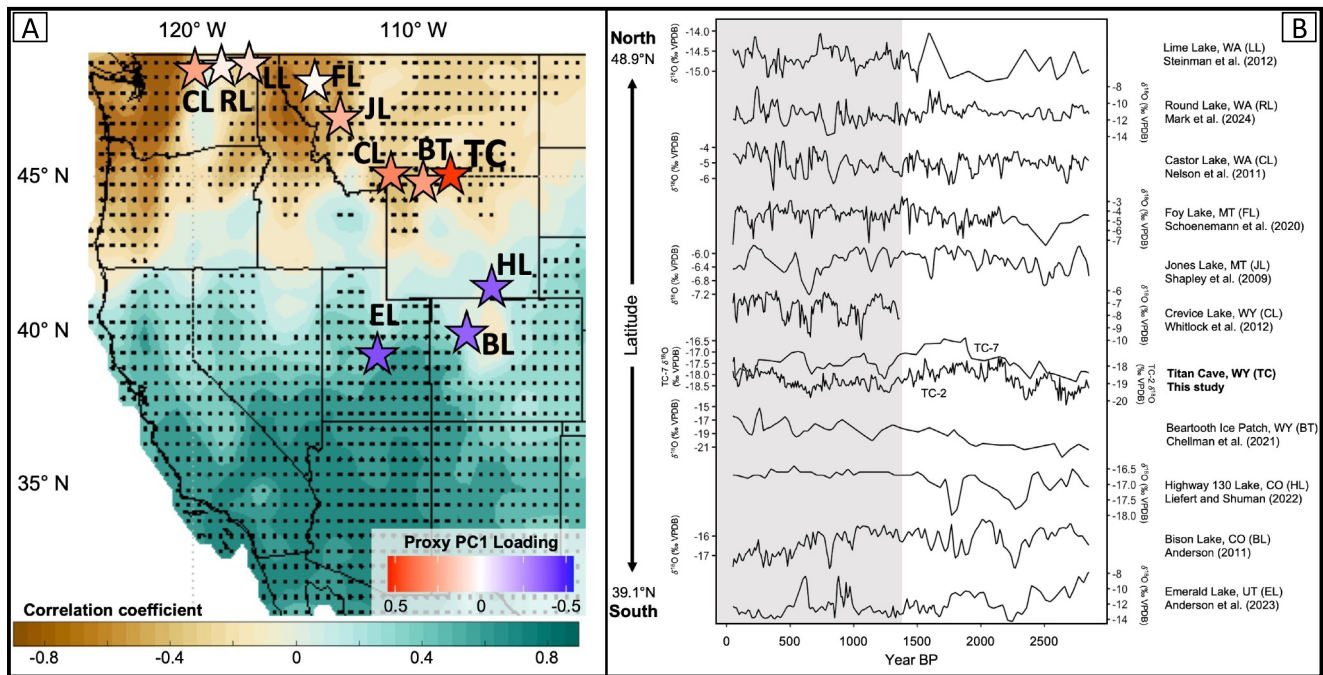


Figure 3. (a) Map of western United States adapted from Stone et al. (2023) showing the first mode of coupled variability between Pacific Ocean SSTs (10°S – 70°N) and winter (DJFM) precipitation. Stippling indicates correlations significant at the 95% confidence level. Shading of star symbols shows PC1 loading of regional $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records covering 1370–50 years BP (gray shading in B). See Figure S6 in Supporting Information S1 for PC1 loading for full record (2900–50 years BP). (b) Regional $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records re-sampled to 10-year resolution over interval of overlap using prcomp() function in R.

western US (Jimenez-Moreno et al., 2021; Ladd et al., 2018; Shuman et al., 2018; Steinman et al., 2012, 2014) and records from both sides of the tropical Pacific suggest more frequent La Niña events during the MCA (Mark et al., 2022; Rodysill et al., 2019). However, a notable negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ excursion is recorded at BL at ~800 years BP. This climate shift supports the hypothesis that a single mode of Pacific Ocean-atmosphere forcing did not dominate during the entirety of the MCA (Anderson et al., 2016). However, we find that climate dynamics associated with an overall La Niña-like state likely promoted wetter winters in the northern Rockies during the MCA (Steinman et al. (2012, 2014).

The end of the MCA, after ~700 years BP, is also marked by opposing $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ trends at BL and TC suggesting a strengthened AL and south-shifted stormtrack, coincident with Alaskan lake and ice core records documenting AL intensification from 700 to 400 years BP (Figure 1) (Nagashima et al., 2021). We note drier winters during the first half of the Little Ice Age (LIA; 400–100 years BP) at TC in agreement with PNW records of aridity and El Niño-like conditions (Steinman et al., 2012, 2014). However, by ~1850 CE cold and snowy winters dominated at TC and the northern Rockies (Pederson et al., 2011). PCP-sensitive proxies decrease in both TC stalagmites, suggesting wetter conditions. Tree rings suggest high snowpack in the northern Rocky Mountains from 300 to 350 years BP (1650–1900 CE) (Pederson et al., 2011) including a “decadal-scale high snowpack anomaly” from ~1845 to 1895 CE, coinciding with the most negative $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of the TC-7 record (Figure 2) (~1860 CE). While the precipitation dipole may persist at this time, proxies across the Rockies record colder temperatures during the LIA (Anderson et al., 2016; Pederson et al., 2011). Beginning in 1890 CE, TC $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ increase to near-maximum values before growth stops in the 1900s CE, suggesting winter precipitation amounts in the mid to late 20th century were the lowest in this region since the mid-Holocene.

4. Conclusions

New TC stalagmite records are highly correlated with tree-ring based hydroclimate reconstructions during the last millennium and extend high-resolution records of past climate change in the northern Rocky Mountains to the mid-Holocene. Anti-correlation between $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records from TC (44.9°N latitude) and BL (39.8°N latitude) along with other southern Rocky Mountain records suggests that the boundary of the western US dipole has remained

near 40°N since at least ~2800 years BP. Correlations between TC stalagmite proxies and records of ENSO activity from the tropical Pacific indicate that El Niño events are linked to wintertime aridity in the northern Rocky Mountains during the late Holocene. Combined PDO+/El Niño can intensify the AL (Sung et al., 2014), driving more frequent south-shifted stormtracks that result in the dry-north/wet-south dipole pattern. If future El Niño and AL extremes increase as predicted (Giamalaki et al., 2021; Thirumalai et al., 2024), this may lead to more frequent, intense, and lengthened cold-season droughts in the northern Rocky Mountains.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest relevant to this study.

Data Availability Statement

All TC-2 and TC-7 stalagmite chronology, trace element, and stable isotope data are available in the NOAA Paleoclimatology Data repository (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/access/paleo-search/study/41479>). Titan Cave monitoring data are available in Belanger et al. (2024).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by NSF Grants AGS2102884 to JLO and AGS2102885 to WDS and a Vanderbilt Alberstadt-Reesman-Stearns award to JLO. BKB acknowledges support from GSA Graduate Student Research Grant 13028-21 and the Cave Research Foundation Graduate Research Grant. WDS and CWK thank Brian Jones for help with U-Th measurements. We thank Lisa Marks (Bureau of Land Management) and Aida Zyba (Vanderbilt University) for field assistance. We thank Richard Bradshaw for assistance with laboratory analyses.

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