

# Critical analysis of the Holocene palaeointensity database in Central America: Impact on geomagnetic modelling

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## 15 Abstract

16 Thanks to its rich archaeological heritage, Central America is a key region to recover the past 17 secular variation of the geomagnetic field. This article presents 13 new palaeointensity data on Epiclassic (650 - 900 CE) pottery sherds from Central Mexico. Archaeointensities were 18 19 determined using the Thellier-Thellier protocol with anisotropy and cooling rate corrections. 20 Average results between 25 and 42  $\mu$ T reveals a fast secular variation in the second half of the 21 first millennium CE but are not in agreement with global geomagnetic models that predict a 22 higher geomagnetic field strength. To check the reasons of this discrepancy, we compiled all 23 intensity data over the last millennia published in Central America. The Bayesian curve 24 calculated from 194 data covering the last 4 millennia highlights a rapid succession of 25 oscillations of the geomagnetic field strength between 20 and 80 µT. But a critical analysis of 26 the dataset shows a large influence of data quality, 74% of them having a poor cooling unit 27 consistency and experimental quality. The small number of specimens per cooling unit and 28 the anisotropy correction absent or incorrectly made increase the scatter between data, 29 whereas the absence of cooling rate correction biases the dataset towards higher 30 palaeointensity. Discarding these data results in a lower secular variation by removing most 31 extreme values and several intensity oscillations. The weaknesses of the dataset are likely the 32 main reason of the limitations of global models in Central America. Pending the acquisition 33 of new high-quality data, archaeomagnetic dating seems premature in Central America.

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- 35

#### 36 Keywords

37 Geomagnetic secular variation; Palaeointensity; Central America; Ceramics

#### 39 **1. Introduction**

40 Ground-based and satellite measurements of the geomagnetic field, together with numerical 41 models of the geodynamo, provide a priceless insight of the flux dynamic in the Earth's core. 42 However, this knowledge is limited in time because direct absolute measurements cover a 43 short era, at the most the last four centuries. Beyond, secular variation is recovered from 44 archaeological baked clays, volcanic lava flows and marine or lacustrine sediments. The first 45 two materials acquire a thermoremanent magnetization (TRM) during their last high-46 temperature heating and give an absolute but discrete estimation of the direction and intensity 47 of the past geomagnetic field. Sediments have the advantage to provide a continuous record of the secular variation but palaeointensity and declination are only relative and require a 48 49 calibration with absolute data (Panovska et al., 2015).

Several global models of the Holocene secular variation have been developed by inversion of 50 51 data using spherical harmonic analysis in space (e.g. Constable et al., 2016; Hellio & Gillet, 52 2018; Licht et al., 2013; Nilsson et al., 2014; Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014a). These models are 53 powerful tools to investigate the evolution of the geomagnetic patterns at the core-mantle 54 boundary (e.g. Constable et al., 2016) and to scale cosmogenic nuclides production (Lifton, 55 2016). The local predictions of the global models are also more and more used for 56 archaeomagnetic dating purposes (e.g. Goguitchaichvili et al., 2016). However, these global 57 models tend to smooth the amplitude of the secular variation observed in regional master 58 curves (e.g. Tema et al., 2017 in Hawaii; Cai et al., 2016 in China; Hervé et al., 2017 in 59 Western Europe), especially for the intensity variations and even more when models include 60 relative sedimentary data. Models built only with absolute data would better fit the data but 61 their spatial and temporal distribution is very uneven, with  $\sim 70\%$  of them coming from West Eurasia and North Africa and ~70% dated in the last two millennia. Data are especially 62 63 lacking in the south hemisphere.

64 Another limitation is the unequal quality of the data. The impact of this factor on geomagnetic 65 modelling is often underestimated, although it has been demonstrated with the European model SCHA.DIF.3k (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014b). The archaeomagnetic databases, the 66 67 most complete one being Geomagia50 (Brown et al., 2015), compile all results without a 68 priori assessment on the quality of the data point. However, the quality is clearly 69 heterogeneous, as depicted by the number of samples, the experimental and temporal 70 uncertainties and the laboratory protocols. Here, we first present thirteen new intensity data 71 acquired on potteries from Chalcatzingo in Mexico, before to show the influence of a critical 72 analysis on the knowledge of secular variation of the geomagnetic field with the example of 73 the intensity in Central America.

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#### 75 2. New archaeointensity data

#### 76 2.1 Archaeological context and sampling

77 Chalcatzingo (Lat: 18.6766°N, Long: 98.7705°W) is located in the Amatzinac valley 78 (Morelos state) at circa 120 km South-East of Mexico City (Figure 1). The archaeological site 79 has been excavated since the 30s and presently Mario Córdova Tello and Carolina Meza 80 Rodriguez from the Instituto Nacional de Antropologia e Historia (INAH) direct the research program. The site was mainly occupied between 800 and 500 BCE during the Preclassic 81 82 period. The archaeological remains, the most famous being the Olmec style petroglyphs, 83 attest of the importance of the site in the region (e.g. Grove, 1987). The occupation continued 84 later in the Classic (200-650 CE), Epiclassic (650-900 CE) and Postclassic (900-1500 CE) 85 periods of the Central Mexico chronology.

This study focused on the Epiclassic layers from the Terrace 6 "*El Cazador*", close to the main square and the pyramid. We sampled 16 sherds of six pottery-types, characteristic of this period in the Amatzinac valley (Martin Arana, 1987): negro pulido (2 sherds),
anaranjado rojo estriado (3), anaranjado pulido (2), anaranjado burdo (3), estriado sin
engobe (3) and Coyotlatelco (3).

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Figure 1: Spatial distribution of Central America data over the last 4 kyrs. Archaeomagnetic
(volcanic) data are plotted in red (blue). The pink star indicates the location of Chalcatzingo.
TMVB is the abbreviation of Trans Mexican Volcanic Belt

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#### 97 2.2 Rock magnetism

Thermomagnetic curves were measured on powders from six sherds using Agico MFK1 apparatus. The variation of the susceptibility was measured during heating to 450 °C or 620 °C and subsequent cooling. All thermomagnetic curves were reversible, highlighting the suitability of Chalcatzingo sherds for archaeointensity experiments. We observed two groups of specimens. The types *anaranjado rojo estriado, anaranjado pulido* and *negro pulido* showed a single ferromagnetic carrier, identified as a Ti-poor titanomagnetite by the Curie temperature around 550 °C (Figure 2a). The *Coyotlatelco, estriado sin engobe* and

- 105 anaranjado burdo types presented a second phase with a Curie temperature close to 150 °C
- 106 (Figure 2b), which can be a Ti-rich titanomagnetite or an epsilon iron oxide (ε-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) (Lopez-
- 107 Sanchez et al., 2017).



109 Figure 2: Representative thermomagnetic curves of Epiclassic sherds from Chalcatzingo.

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111 2.3 Archaeointensity study

112 Archaeointensity experiments were conducted on 0.6 to 3.0 g specimens embedded in 2 cm 113 cubes of amagnetic plaster. We used the classical Thellier-Thellier method (Thellier & 114 Thellier, 1959) that consists to heat and cool twice the specimens at each temperature step 115 with a laboratory field applied in both directions of a specimen axis (+z, -z). We performed 116 partial thermoremanent magnetization (pTRM) checks every two steps to monitor the absence 117 of alteration of the ferromagnetic mineralogy. Heating was performed in an ASC TD-48SC 118 furnace with a 30 or 40  $\mu$ T laboratory field using 9-12 temperature steps up to 620 °C. In total we studied 3 to 5 specimens per sherd for a total of 54 specimens. Measurements were
realized on a SQUID cryogenic magnetometer (2G Enterprises, model 755R) at CEREGE.

121 The archaeointensities were corrected for the effects of TRM anisotropy and cooling rate. The TRM anisotropy tensor was determined at 550 °C using 6 positions (+x, -x, +y, -y, + z and -z122 123 axes) followed by a stability check (Chauvin et al., 2000). The cooling rate procedure of 124 Gómez-Paccard et al. (2006) was carried out at the same temperature with a slow cooling over 125 5 h. This duration, explained by experimental constraints, may underestimate the 126 archaeological cooling but an incorrect estimation of the duration seems to have a low impact 127 on the accuracy of the archaeointensity (Hervé et al., accepted). The anisotropy and cooling 128 rate corrections were applied at the specimen level.

129 Almost all specimens presented a secondary component of magnetization. The characteristic remanent magnetization (ChRM) was isolated above 150-500 °C. The secondary component 130 131 could be acquired during the cooking use of the pot or since the excavations in the 132 archaeological repository. Except for one sherd, the fraction of the NRM in the ChRM (f 133 factor) was higher than our acceptance value equal to 0.35. Forty-five specimens presented a linear NRM-TRM diagram with positive pTRM-checks on the temperature interval of the 134 135 ChRM (Figure 3a-c). The nine other specimens were rejected because of mineralogical 136 changes, as indicated by non-linear NRM-TRM diagram and negative pTRM-checks (Figure 137 3d). No results could be obtained for the two sherds of the type *negro pulido* and for one of 138 the type estriado sin engobe. Accepted specimens fulfil up-to-date quality criteria with a 139 quality factor (q) between 5 and 80 (Table 1S, Supplementary Material). Almost all 140 specimens had a ratio of the standard error of the slope to the absolute value of the slope  $(\beta)$ 141 lower than 0.05, a deviation angle (DANG) lower than 5° and a maximum angular deviation (MAD) lower than  $5^{\circ}$ . 142



Figure 3: Representative accepted (a-c) and rejected (d) archaeointensity results with NRMTRM diagrams, orthogonal plots and demagnetization curves.

146

147 Table 1 listed the 13 new average archaeointensities. All were calculated with three or four 148 specimens and have an experimental uncertainty between 1.5 and 9.5%. The range of the 149 average values between 25 and 42 µT tend to indicate a fast secular variation during the 150 second half of the first millennium CE. No clear relationship is observed between the 151 archaeointensity and the pottery-type. On Figure 4a, data are relocated to Mexico City using 152 the Virtual Axial Dipole Moment (VADM) correction and compared to the regional curve of 153 Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a). The curve was computed using a bootstrap approach from 67 154 data from Mesoamerica and 17 from southwest United States. Our data matches the curve, 155 except CHAL23 and CHAL41 that are below the curve.

Turne of a sthema	Chand	NI /NI	F <sub>ATRM+CR</sub>	F <sub>Mexico City</sub>	VADM (10 <sup>22</sup>	
Type of pottery	Snera	Nacc/ Nmeas	± SD (μT)	(μΤ)	A.m <sup>2</sup> )	
Anaranjado rojo estriado	CHAL01	4/5	35.1 ± 3.0	35.4	7.9 ± 0.7	
	CHAL02	3/5	34.5 ± 2.6	34.8	7.8 ± 0.6	
	CHAL03	4/5	34.9 ± 1.0	35.2	7.9 ± 0.2	
Coyotlatelco	CHAL04	3/4	31.5 ± 3.0	31.8	7.1 ± 0.7	
	CHAL05	4/4	39.5 ± 2.0	39.9	8.9 ± 0.5	
	CHAL06	3/4	42.3 ± 0.7	42.7	9.6 ± 0.2	
Estriado sin engobe	CHAL22	4/4	36.4 ± 2.9	36.7	8.2 ± 0.7	
	CHAL23	3/3	28.3 ± 0.9	28.6	$6.4 \pm 0.2$	
Anaranjado burdo	CHAL29	4/4	37.8 ± 0.7	38.1	8.5 ± 0.2	
	CHAL30	3/3	39.7 ± 2.4	40.1	9.0 ± 0.5	
	CHAL31	4/4	36.9 ± 1.8	37.2	8.3 ± 0.4	
Anaranjado pulido	CHAL40	3/3	41.1 ± 2.0	41.5	9.3 ± 0.5	
	CHAL41	3/3	24.7 ± 1.4	24.9	5.6 ± 0.3	

Table 1: Average archaeointensities of Epiclassic sherds from Chalcatzingo. Columns from left to right: type of potteries, name of the sherd, number of accepted over measured specimens, average archaeointensity corrected for the effects of TRM anisotropy and cooling rate with its standard deviation, average archaeointensity relocated to Mexico City, Virtual Axial Dipole Moment.

163 Global models CALS10k.2 (Constable et al., 2016), SHA.DIF.14k (Pavón-Carrasco et al., 2014a) and COV-ARCH/COV-LAKE (Hellio & Gillet, 2018) give consistent predictions at 164 165 Mexico City. SHA.DIF.14k and COV-ARCH were calculated using archaeomagnetic and 166 volcanic data, whereas CALS10k.2 and COV-LAKE also include lacustrine and marine 167 sedimentary data. Models also differ by the inverse method. CALS10k.2 and SHA.DIF.14k 168 imposed regularizations in space and time. The stochastic approach of COV-ARCH and 169 COV-LAKE used the temporal statistics from satellites, ground-based and palaeomagnetic 170 data as prior information through cross-covariance functions. The four models fit only the 171 highest Chalcatzingo values. Their predictions are usually above the regional master curve of 172 Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a) and predict a slower secular variation.



Figure 4: Comparison of Chalcatzingo data relocated to Mexico City (in pink) with the
bootstrap regional curve of Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a) (in grey) and with the predictions
of global models CALS10k.2 (Constable et al. 2016, blue curve), SHA.DIF.14k (PavonCarrasco et al, 2014a, orange curve), COV-ARCH and COV-LAKE (Hellio & Gillet, 2018,
green and purple dotted curves).

#### 181 **3.** Compilation of Central America intensity data

In order to check the reason of these discrepancies, we compiled all intensity data from
Central America from the original articles (Figure 5a). We carried out the critical analysis
only on the last four millennia because data are much too scarce before (5 data between 5000
and 2000 BCE).

186 A data point is defined as a cooling unit that acquired TRM at the same time, such as a 187 volcanic lava flow, an archaeological kiln or fireplace and a single pottery. For ceramics, a 188 data point is sometimes defined in the literature as the average of independent pots (e.g. 189 Genevey et al., 2016; Gómez-Paccard et al., 2016; Hervé et al., 2017), because they were 190 discovered in a single homogeneous short-lived archaeological feature. This is not the case in 191 Chalcatzingo and in most studies. Even if ceramics were dated in the same period, the 192 probability of no contemporaneous cooling is high, because sherds came from different 193 archaeological layers or from a single layer associated to a long-lived settlement.

194 The total number of intensity data in Central America over the last four millennia is 194 195 (including the 13 new data from Chalcatzingo) out of 40 different papers (Tab. 2S in 196 Supplementary Material). 86% of these studies have been published after the 2000s. Data 197 from 16 studies are not yet included in the Geomagia database (this study; Böhnel et al., 198 2016; Cifuentes-Nava et al., 2017; Goguitchaichvili et al., 2017, 2018b, 2018c; Herrero-199 Bervera, 2015; Lopez-Tellez et al., 2008; Mahgoub et al., 2017a, 2017b; Michalk et al., 2010; 200 Morales et al., 2012, 2013, 2015; Rodriguez-Ceja et al., 2012; Terán et al., 2016). With this 201 update, our dataset is almost twice larger than the one used in a recently published 202 compilation of Mesoamerica (Goguitchaichvili et al., 2018a) that contains 106 data with only 203 one study (Böhnel et al., 2016) published in the last five years.

Data are concentrated in Central Mexico around the 20°N parallel and in the Mayan area
(Chiapas-Guatemala) (Figure 1). Archaeological baked artefacts (here bricks, burnt walls,

burnt soils and ceramics) constitute 87% of the dataset (168 data), the rest coming from
volcanic lava flows of the Trans Mexican Volcanic Belt (TMVB). Only 17 data (9%), all
volcanic, are full vector data.

209 Fifty-four cooling units were dated by radiocarbon. When the uncalibrated age was provided, 210 we updated the date of the archaeomagnetic site using the most recent calibration curve 211 IntCal13 (Reimer et al., 2013). In the case of Xitle lava flow, we used the newest age, 212 1670±35 uncal. BP, of Siebe (2000). Twelve data come from historical eruptions since the 213 Spaniards conquest, the youngest being the Paricutin in 1943-1952. For the 115 others data 214 (i.e. 58%), the dating was defined by stratigraphy or typology of archaeological artefacts. The 215 temporal density of data is higher in the periods of Late Preclassic (circa 400 BCE – 200 CE), 216 Classic (circa 200 – 650 CE) and the youngest half of Postclassic (circa 1200 – 1500 CE) 217 (Figure 5a). Two important gaps are observed, the first between 800 and 400 BCE and the 218 youngest around 1000 CE.

The intensity values over the last 4 kyrs range between ~15  $\mu$ T and ~90  $\mu$ T (Figure 5b). The dataset looks cloudy, especially in the third and four centuries CE with values from 15  $\mu$ T up to 75  $\mu$ T. The spread is visually increased by the fact that many data are dated in the same age interval corresponding to an archaeological period, generally wide of several centuries. This tends to divide the dataset in successive time slices, modelled on the archaeological chronologies. The variability of intensities may reflect the secular variation within each archaeological period.

An intensity secular variation curve was computed using a Bayesian framework (Hervé et Lanos, 2018; Lanos, 2004; Schnepp et al., 2015). The curve is given as a smooth continuous curve obtained by averaging cubic splines and took into account experimental and age uncertainties as prior information. The misfit of each data to the curve is minimised by exploring the multidimensional space of probability densities using Monte Carlo Markov 231 Chains. The curve presents a rapid succession of oscillations of the geomagnetic field 232 strength, especially from 400 BCE to 1500 CE, at the time of the highest data density. The 233 oscillations represent the best fit to the intensity variability within the time slices related to 234 age uncertainties. They can imply a fast secular variation of many dozens of  $\mu T$  over a few 235 centuries, similar to the rates observed in the Levantine area at the beginning of the first 236 millennium BCE (Shaar et al., 2011). But it can also reflect experimental problems and a 237 critical analysis of the database has to be performed, before to evoke a geomagnetic 238 phenomenon.

239

## 240 4. Critical analysis

#### 241 4.1 Challenges in palaeointensity determination

242 The linearity between the intensity of the thermoremanent magnetization and the past 243 geomagnetic field strength is the physical basis of the palaeointensity determination. 244 Acquiring reliable data remains a challenging task because several effects can lead to a 245 departure away from the linearity (see Dunlop 2011 for a review). The required reciprocity of 246 blocking and unblocking temperatures is only verified for single-domain grains without 247 interactions. Alteration of the magnetic grains when heated at the laboratory is another cause 248 of failed experiments. Moreover, palaeointensities should be determined only on the 249 Characteristic Remanent Magnetization (ChRM) acquired during the last heating above the 250 Curie point. A calculation including a secondary component of magnetization can differ by a 251 few dozens of µT from the intensity calculated on the sole ChRM (Hervé et al., 2013).

The Thellier-Thellier protocol (Thellier & Thellier, 1959) and its derived versions are admitted as the most reliable to control the respect of these conditions thanks to the

progressive heating steps and the use of pTRM-checks. But the multiple heatings increase therisk of alteration and alternative protocols were developed.

The microwave (MW) technique (Walton, 1991; Walton & Böhnel, 2008) is based on microwave absorption by magnetic grains using progressive frequency steps, which reduces the heating temperature of the sample. This method does not exactly replicate the acquisition process of the initial TRM, as ferromagnetic grains are excited by magnons instead of phonons in the usual thermal techniques.

261 The multispecimen (MSP) method is performed on a set of specimens from the same sample. 262 All specimens are heated once at the same temperature (usually in the 300-400 °C 263 temperature range) in different laboratory field values applied parallel to the NRM (Dekkers 264 & Böhnel, 2006). The comparison of the demagnetized NRM intensity with the one of the 265 acquired partial-TRM provides the palaeointensity. The Central American MSP data were 266 obtained with the original protocol of Dekkers & Böhnel (2006), which do not correct for the 267 NRM fraction and domain state as advised by Fabian & Leonhardt (2010). They are therefore 268 likely overestimated (Schnepp et al., 2016).

Finally, the Shaw method (Shaw, 1974) compares the alternating field (AF) demagnetization of the NRM with the one of a full laboratory TRM. The scaling factor between the two demagnetizing curves is an estimate of the ratio between ancient and laboratory fields. But the linearity between the magnetization and geomagnetic field cannot be checked and the palaeomagnetic community generally considers this method of lower quality.

It is well known that the cooling rate has an important effect on the palaeointensity of archaeological baked clays. The TRM intensity of single-domain grains increases with the cooling rate duration (e.g. Dodson and McClelland-Brown, 1980). As the laboratory cooling is faster than the archaeological cooling, uncorrected palaeointensities are generally overestimated. In the case of the volcanic lava flows, the correction is usually not considered

necessary, because the coarser mineralogy makes them less sensitive to the cooling rate
effect. For the thick Xitle lava flow, the correction improves the precision of the
palaeointensity but does not change significantly the palaeointensity average (Morales et al.,
2006) (Table 4S).

283 The anisotropy correction is also crucial depending on the type of material. The preferential 284 alignment of the iron oxides during the manufacturing process of baked clays results in 285 distortion of the NRM with respect to the surrounding geomagnetic field (Veitch et al., 1984). 286 Potteries are generally anisotropic and palaeointensity can sometimes be biased up to a factor 287 of two (e.g. Hervé et al., 2017; Osete et al., 2016). The effects can also be high in burnt walls 288 and soils (Palencia-Ortas et al., 2017; Molina-Cardin et al., 2018). Conversely, the influence 289 of the TRM anisotropy is assumed negligible in lava flows. But the robustness of this 290 presupposition can be questioned, as the anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS) is often 291 significant and used as a proxy for flow direction (e.g. Fanjat et al., 2012).

292 Two different anisotropy corrections were used in the Central American dataset, first the 293 determination of the TRM tensor at the specimen level (Chauvin et al., 2000, see section 2.3) 294 and secondly a method, peculiar to Mexico, that we called in the following Mean(XYZ) 295 method. Each baked clay fragment is cut in 6 mini-specimens keeping the same orientation. 296 The laboratory field during the Thellier experiments is applied along +x axis for one 297 specimen, -x for another one and +y, -y, +z or -z axis for the four others. Averaging of the six 298 individual intensity estimations is considered to properly correct the TRM anisotropy effect. 299 Poletti et al. (2016) questioned the reliability of this approach. They calculated the TRM 300 tensor at two different temperatures and then roughly determined the intensities from the 301 slope between the two +x TRMs (and -x...) on the NRM-TRM diagram. Their results show 302 that the Mean(XYZ) method results in imprecision and sometimes in inaccuracies up to 10 303 μT.

304

#### 305 4.2 Validity of the Mean(XYZ) anisotropy correction

306 To further test the reliability of this correction, we performed the Mean(XYZ) and the TRM 307 tensor methods on five samples. The first two, 11369B-1 and 11369B-11, are small bricks 308 baked in an experimental kiln in Sallèles-d'Aude (southern France). The last three, SAQ48, 309 SAQ51 and SAQ54 are pottery sherds discovered in a sedimentary core from Saqqara (Egypt) 310 and supposed to be from the Pharaonic era. Samples were cut in six identical cubic 311 specimens, each positioned in a different position (+x, -x, +y, -y, +z or -z) in the laboratory 312 furnace during the classical Thellier-Thellier protocol and the cooling rate correction. The 313 tensor of TRM anisotropy was then determined with the same protocol as for Chalcatzingo 314 samples. All specimens provided technically reliable intensity results (Figure 1S and Table 3S 315 in Supplementary Material). The degrees of TRM anisotropy have close values between 1.19 316 and 1.26 (Table 2).

317 Table 2 compares the averages intensities of the Mean(XYZ) and TRM anisotropy tensor 318 methods, both being corrected for cooling rate effect. Without the TRM tensor correction, the 319 palaeointensity values at the sample level are distributed over a large range up to 26  $\mu$ T with 320 systematic differences between axes. The highest palaeointensities values, i.e. the lowest 321 acquired TRMs, are observed for specimens with the laboratory field applied along x axis, 322 perpendicularly to the flattening plane of the brick or the pottery (Veitch et al., 1984). The 323 correction by the TRM tensor groups the palaeointensities, which results in a standard 324 deviation up to five times lower. The Mean(XYZ) average palaeointensity differ of the TRM 325 tensor value by only -5.6 to 3.8% (IE parameter in Table 2). No relationship seems exist 326 between IE and the anisotropy degree or the standard deviation.

327 The anisotropy correction depends on the NRM direction within the TRM tensor. In our 328 examples, the Mean(XYZ) palaeointensity is close to the TRM tensor value, because the 329 NRM direction is intermediate between x, y and z axes and because averages are computed 330 from six specimens with an equal contribution of the three axes. Data with two, and of course 331 one, specimens cannot be considered as corrected by the anisotropy.

332

	Mean(XYZ)					TRM tensor						
Sample	$\mathbf{F}_{min}$	$F_{max}$	$F_{\text{mean}}$	SD	SD	$\mathbf{F}_{min}$	F <sub>max</sub>	F <sub>mean</sub>	SD	SD	IE	1z /1z .
Sample	(µT)	(µT)	(µT)	(µT)	(%)	(µT)	(µT)	(µT)	(µT)	(%)	(%)	<b>K</b> max/ <b>K</b> min
11369B1	45.0	52.3	50.0	2.6	5.2	51.1	54.4	50.9	1.2	2.3	-1.7	1.19
11369B11	45.0	56.6	47.6	4.4	9.2	49.9	53.4	50.5	1.2	2.3	-5.6	1.25
SAQ48	65.8	79.4	71.5	4.7	6.6	76.0	82.7	74.3	2.5	3.4	-3.7	1.20
SAQ51	74.8	100.7	85.5	11.5	13.5	83.2	87.5	82.3	2.5	3.0	3.8	1.25
SAQ54	74.9	99.3	83.8	9.6	11.5	81.1	89.6	83.1	3.4	4.1	0.8	1.26

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Table 2: Comparison of intensities determined with the two corrections of anisotropy. For both methods are indicated the minimal and maximal specimen intensity, the mean intensity and its standard deviation in microTeslas and in percentage. All intensities are corrected for the cooling rate effect. IE is the difference in percentage of the Mean(XYZ) intensity with the TRM tensor intensity.  $k_{max}/k_{min}$  is the average degree of TRM anisotropy.

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A balance between the three axes does not mean that one can be fully confident in the average palaeointensity value. If the NRM is parallel to one of the three axes, the two specimens with the laboratory field on this axis will give the true palaeointensity and the inaccuracy can be larger. In the case of SAQ51, if the NRM were close to x-axis, the true palaeointensity would have been around 102-103  $\mu$ T, whereas the average of the six specimens is 85.5±11.5  $\mu$ T (Tab. 3S, Supplementary Material).

For all these reasons, the Mean(X-Y-Z) method enhances noise in a dataset with larger standard deviations and possible high inaccuracies. All Mean(XYZ) palaeointensities can be biased even if the risk is reduced for those calculated with a balanced participation of the three x, y and z axes. Data corrected with the TRM tensor are clearly much more reliable from an experimental point of view.

351

#### 352 4.3 Data selection

353 Estimate a posteriori the quality of a palaeointensity is not straightforward without the raw 354 measurements. Four intensities from Rodriguez-Ceja et al. (2009, 2012) have been defined on 355 a secondary component and clearly have to be removed. Another obvious criterion is the 356 expected internal consistency within a given cooling unit. We classified data in three 357 categories according to the number of specimens and the standard deviation (Figure 5c). 358 Highest quality data (category C1) have at least 3 specimens per cooling unit and a standard 359 deviation (SD) lower than 10%. Those in the second category (C2) have a SD lower than 360 15%. Other data (C3) represent 38% of the full dataset (i.e. 72 data) in similar proportions for 361 volcanic and archaeomagnetic data (Figure 5c). One can note that most extreme values are 362 included in this category.





365 Figure 5: Critical analysis of the Central American palaeointensity dataset. (a) Temporal 366 distribution of data over the last 7 kyrs. (b) Compilation of all archaeomagnetic (in red) and 367 volcanic (in blue) data. The grey curve with its  $1\sigma$  confidence envelope is computed using a 368 Bayesian method. (c) Ranking of the dataset according to the cooling unit consistency. (d) 369 Ranking according to the quality of the intensity protocol. (e) Ranking according to the 370 consideration of the anisotropy effect. For each criterion, data are ranked in three levels C1, 371 C2 and C3 from the highest to the lowest quality. Plots (c-d-e) excluded four data defined on 372 a secondary component from Rodriguez-Ceja et al. (2009, 2012). TH: Thellier-Thellier 373 protocols; Multispecimen-DB: original multispecimen protocol of Dekkers and Böhnel (2006); N: number of data; For data using Mean(XYZ) anisotropy correction, n: number of 374 375 specimens used in the average intensity.

377 The criterion of the consistency is useful but cannot screen all problems in the palaeointensity 378 protocol (Figure 5d). For the reasons mentioned above, the most reliable protocol is the 379 Thellier-Thellier protocol with pTRM-checks. This category (C1) is dominant in the dataset 380 (120/190 data). Our mid-quality category (C2) groups microwave data and Thellier-Thellier 381 data without pTRM-checks. We did not assign the latter to the lowest quality category 382 because often it corresponds to the oldest data, as it is the case here (51 data almost all from 383 Bucha et al., 1970 and Lee, 1975), when pTRM-checks were not commonly used. 384 Furthermore, the interpretation of pTRM-checks is not straightforward and experience shows 385 that reliable palaeointensity can be obtained with moderate deviation if the linearity is well 386 maintained over a large NRM proportion. However, the absence of alteration monitoring casts 387 a doubt on the reliability of these data. Finally, the low-quality category (C3) includes the 388 nine multispecimen data without the correction of the NRM fraction (MSP-DB), because they 389 likely overestimate the palaeointensity. The five data acquired with the Shaw protocol also 390 belong to this category.

391

392 As archaeological baked clays constitute 86% of the dataset (164/190 data) whose 85% are 393 ceramics (139 data), cooling rate and anisotropy corrections are crucial. For archaeological 394 baked clays, we demonstrated that the anisotropy correction with the TRM tensor is the most 395 reliable (category C1). Two microwave data on potteries associated to the Xitle lava flow are 396 also included in C1 (Böhnel et al., 2003), because the laboratory field was applied parallel to 397 the NRM. Only 27 data are part of this high-quality category (Figure 5e). Both corrections are 398 assumed not mandatory for igneous material. But this is not fully attested and we preferred to 399 assign these data to the mid-quality C2 category. Regarding the Mean(XYZ) correction, the 400 balanced contribution between x, y, and z axes can be attested only for the 25 average 401 intensities calculated with six specimens. We classified them in the C2 category, bearing in

402 mind that some can be inaccurate especially if the NRM was parallel to a specimen axis.
403 Another number of specimens gives preponderance to one or two axes, which can result in
404 larger inaccuracies and justifies their attachment to the C3 category. Data calculated with
405 three and four specimens are actually more scattered (Figure 2S, Supplementary Material).
406 The C3 category finally includes the 61 archaeological data without any anisotropy
407 correction, 11 of them being corrected for the cooling rate effect.

The synthesis of this critical analysis ranks the dataset in three groups, C1, C2 and C3. Data of the high quality group (C1) belong to the three C1 categories of the cooling unit consistency, protocol and anisotropy and cooling rate corrections at the same time. They are only 23, i.e. 12% of the initial dataset, (Chalcatzingo data, this study; Fanjat et al., 2013; Rodriguez-Ceja et al., 2009, 2012 – only intensities determined on the characteristic magnetization), all dated between 400 BCE and 900 CE (Figure 6a).

The group C2 gathers data classified at least in the C2 category for the three criteria. The El Jorullo and Xitle lava flows were duplicated in respectively two and four studies and we computed new averages from the same accepted specimens as the authors (Table 4S, Supplementary Material). In the case of the Xitle, the average (59.8  $\pm$  5.0  $\mu$ T) takes into account only the palaeointensities corrected for the cooling rate effect on the TRM intensity (Figure 6a).

All other data, those belonging to at least one C3 category, constitute 72% of the dataset (140 data) with almost all the oldest acquired data (Bucha et al., 1970; Lee, 1975). These 50 data on potteries with no anisotropy and cooling rate corrections provide higher palaeointensities than other data (blue circles, Figure 5e). If the weak cooling consistency influences their scatter, the overestimation very likely results from absence of the cooling rate correction.



426 Figure 6: (a) Secular variation inferred from high-quality data. (b) Comparison of the two 427 Bayesian curves calculated from the total and selected dataset (blue and red curves) with the 428 master curve of Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a) (grey curve) and with COV-ARCH global 429 model (green dotted curve).

430

## 431 **6. Discussion**

432 6.1 Impact of the critical analysis on the knowledge of the secular variation

433 The large number of palaeointensities available for the last kyrs in Central America may give

the impression that the secular variation curve is well-known, with large and fast variations

435 between 20 and 80  $\mu$ T. However, the critical analysis shows that many of these oscillations

are induced by experimental errors. The main sources of scatter are the absence of cooling
unit consistency, the lack or inaccuracy of anisotropy correction and the absence of cooling
rate correction on archaeological artefacts. Only 12% of data (23 data) can be considered as
high quality (C1 category) that is not enough to compute an intensity secular variation curve.
Therefore we also included the 14% of the data (27 data) corresponding to the middle quality
(C2 category) (Figure 6a). All data used in the Bayesian curve are plotted per study in Figure
3S (Supplementary Material).

443 It is worth pointing out that the selection does not take into account the age uncertainties and 444 inaccuracies in age, perhaps affecting some of the selected data. That could be the case for the 445 Xitle lava flow, whose intensity seems more consistent with an age at the turning point of the Christian era than in the IV<sup>th</sup> and V<sup>th</sup> centuries CE (Figure 6a). We decided to use the most 446 recently acquired age 1670±35 uncal. BP (Siebe, 2000) on a charcoal included in the lava 447 448 flow sampled for the palaeomagnetic studies. But other published radiocarbon ages, 1945±55 449 uncal BP and 2025±55 uncal BP (Delgado et al., 1998; see also Böhnel et al, 1997), dates the 450 eruption of this monogenetic volcano in a more consistent way with other available quality 451 data.

Selecting data has a strong influence on the secular variation reconstruction, as shown by the comparison of the averages Bayesian curves calculated from the entire and selected datasets (blue and red curves, Figure 6b). After discarding extreme values, the secular variation has smaller amplitude between 20 and 60  $\mu$ T. The better consistency of the dataset also removes most short-term oscillations of the curve calculated with all data.

457 The secular variation from ~400 BCE to ~500 CE is rather well constrained by high/middle 458 quality C1 and C2 data. They highlight a fast variation with a ~45  $\mu$ T maximum in ~400 459 BCE, a ~25  $\mu$ T minimum in ~200 BCE, a further ~50  $\mu$ T maximum circa 0 CE and a ~20  $\mu$ T 460 minimum in ~200 CE. Next, the field varied more slightly between 30 and 40  $\mu$ T from ~400 461 to ~800 CE that is the period presenting the highest density of quality data.

462 On the other side, the lack of data and the large age uncertainties make unclear the secular 463 variation between 2000 and 400 BCE. Address this gap is crucial to better understand the 464 highest secular variation and the largest departure from an axial dipolar field observed at this 465 period in Eurasia (Hervé et al., 2017; Shaar et al., 2016).

Considering only high or middle quality data drastically reduces the available data set and one may wonder if we do not miss some geomagnetic variations. For example, there are only five high-quality data in the second millennium CE and it is not surprising to see that the curves differ during this period. If the high geomagnetic field strength around 50  $\mu$ T is well constrained, the number of maxima, one or two, is unclear. Unselected data indicates a possible minimum ~1300 CE. The timing of the intensity increase is also not clear, either from 1000 CE with C1 and C2 categories or from 800 CE with unselected data.

Finally, the critical analysis of the Central America dataset drastically highlights the need of new high quality data with precise dating for almost all periods. It is clearly a prerequisite to ascertain the secular variation features and to compare the Central American curve to other regional records.

477

478 6.2 Comparison with others curves and global models

Our selected curve presents several differences with the bootstrap curve of Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a), especially between 500 BCE and 500 CE (Figure 6b). The major discrepancy occurs around 200 CE when they have a maximum and us a minimum. Different reasons could be the source of this inconsistency: i) their critical analysis (at least 4 specimens, standard deviation lower than 10  $\mu$ T, corrections of anisotropy and cooling rate) is pretty

similar to ours except for the inclusion of all Mean(XYZ) data; ii) the dataset of 484 485 Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a) duplicated data from the same lava flow (e.g. Xitle, El Jorullo, 486 Ceboruco, Paricutin) and iii) included 17 data from southwest USA but not 28 data from 487 Mexico out of the 50 that we classified in the C1 and C2 categories. Some differences 488 between the curves are also related to the computation technique. The variability of intensity 489 data circa 200 BCE is smoothed by the bootstrap method, whereas the Bayesian of Lanos 490 (2004) interprets it by an intensity minimum. Both updated dataset and Bayesian approach 491 likely provides a finer knowledge of the secular variation curve, even though as mentioned 492 before it has to be confirmed by new reliable data.

493 The global models such as COV-ARCH are built using the Geomagia database without data 494 selection. They are inconsistent with our curve as well as with Goguitchaichvili et al. (2018a) 495 curve (Figure 6b). First, they predict a smoother secular variation after 500 BCE with 496 intensity varying between 40 and 50  $\mu$ T, this range corresponding to the average intensity of 497 the total dataset. The model did not succeed to interpret the high data variability and remains 498 blocked in this intensity range. Another inconsistency is the shift to higher intensity values in 499 comparison to our curve. The data of Bucha (1970) and Lee (1975), not corrected for the 500 cooling rate, constitute around 40% of the Central American data in Geomagia. The 501 overestimation emphasizes the need for a selection with the cooling rate correction.

502

#### 503 **7. Conclusions**

The acquisition of 13 new palaeointensities on Epiclassic (650 – 900 CE) sherds from Chalcatzingo completes the Central American database. The up-to-date compilation of 194 available data shows a high variability in palaeointensity during the last 4 millennia. A critical analysis of the database highlights that this variability cannot be only explained by a geomagnetic origin. Selecting data according to the cooling unit consistency and the intensity 509 protocol discards extreme values and predicts less oscillations of the geomagnetic field 510 strength. The results emphasize the importance of the cooling rate correction. Its absence 511 yields to a shift of the geomagnetic reconstructions towards higher intensity values. Another 512 problem, peculiar to the Central American dataset, is the use of an inaccurate anisotropy 513 correction, here called Mean(XYZ). According to experimental test, this method leads to 514 systematic larger imprecisions and to possible inaccuracies up to 15  $\mu$ T.

The example of Central America highlights the need of data selection global geomagnetic model. The absence of data selection clearly plays a role in the smoothing and overestimation of the curves inferred from global models compared to our master curve. Considering these problems, the use of current global models for dating purposes in Central America seems inappropriate.

520 Defining acceptance criteria is not straightforward in global modelling. Our criterion of the 521 cooling unit consistency discards more than 50% of the global dataset and those based on the 522 protocol ~90% (counting on Geomagia50.v3 in October 2018). This low proportion is hardly 523 compatible with the homogeneous data coverage in space and in time that requires the 524 spherical harmonic analysis. Our acceptance limits have to be lowered to better fit with the 525 constraints of global modelling. Priority criteria could focus on parameters biasing the 526 palaeointensity average, such consistency criteria, cooling rate correction for archaeological 527 baked clays and anisotropy correction for potteries.

528

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Figure 1S: Representative archaeointensity results of specimens used to test the two anisotropy protocols. The laboratory field was fixed to  $60 \mu$ T. The specimen on the left is a brick from Sallèlesd'Aude and the one on the right a pottery sherd from Saqqara.



Figure 2S: Influence of the number of specimens on the Mean(X-Y-Z) palaeointensities. Data with highest quality protocol are plotted in red. The Bayesian curve, the same as in Figure 6a, is calculated from C1 and C2 data.



Figure 3S: Highest quality data (C1 and C2 categories) per study. Data from Chalcatzingo (this study) are not plotted here.