1	Sea ice extent and seasonality for the Early Pliocene northern Weddell Sea
2	Mark Williams <sup>a,b,*</sup> , Anna E. Nelson <sup>c</sup> , John L. Smellie <sup>a,c</sup> , Melanie J. Leng <sup>d</sup> , Andrew L.A. Johnson <sup>e</sup> ,
3	Daniel R. Jarram <sup>a</sup> , Alan M. Haywood <sup>f</sup> , Victoria L. Peck <sup>c</sup> , Jan Zalasiewicz <sup>a</sup> , Carys Bennett <sup>a</sup> , Bernd
4	R. Schöne <sup>g</sup>
5	<sup>a</sup> Department of Geology, University of Leicester, Leicester, LE1 7RH, UK
6	<sup>b</sup> British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham, NG12 5GG, UK
7	<sup>c</sup> British Antarctic Survey, Geological Sciences Division, High Cross, Madingley Road, Cambridge, CB3
8	OET, UK
9	<sup>d</sup> NERC Isotope Geosciences Laboratory, British Geological Survey, Keyworth, Nottingham, NG12 5GG, UK
10	<sup>e</sup> Geographical, Earth and Environmental Sciences, School of Science, University of Derby, Kedleston Road,
11	Derby, DE22 1GB, UK
12	<sup>f</sup> School of Earth and Environment, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT, UK
13	<sup>8</sup> Department of Applied and Analytical Palaeontology, Earth System Science Research Centre, Institute of
14	Geosciences, University of Mainz, Johann-Joachim-Becherweg 21, 55127 Mainz, Germany
15	*Corresponding author. <i>E-mail address</i> : mri@le.ac.uk (M. Williams)
16	
17	Abstract
18	Growth increment analysis coupled with stable isotopic data ( $\delta^{18}O/\delta^{13}C$ ) from Early Pliocene (ca 4.7 Ma)
19	Austrochlamys anderssoni from shallow marine sediments of the Cockburn Island Formation, northern
20	Antarctic Peninsula, suggest these bivalves grew through much of the year, even during the coldest parts of
21	winter recorded in the shells. The high frequency fluctuation in growth increment width of A. anderssoni
22	appears to reflect periodic, but year-round, agitation of the water column enhancing benthic food supply
23	from organic detritus. This suggests that Austrochlamys favoured waters that were largely sea ice free. Our
24	data support interpretation of the Cockburn Island Formation as an interglacial marine deposit and the
25	previous hypothesis that Austrochlamys retreated from the Antarctic as sea ice extent expanded, this
26	transition occurring during climate cooling in the Late Pliocene. Our data question climate models that show
27	extensive sea ice in the Weddell Sea during the Early Pliocene.
28	Keywords: Pliocene, Antarctic, bivalves, seasonality, sea ice, climate

## 30 1. Introduction

31 The Pliocene Epoch (5.3 to 2.6 Ma) spans a time when the Earth experienced a transition from 32 relatively warm conditions to a cooling climate that heralded the high magnitude glacial-interglacial 33 oscillations of the Pleistocene Epoch (Haywood et al., 2009). The warm interglacial climates of the 34 Pliocene may be plausible comparative scenarios for interpreting the path of future climate warming during the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Jansen et al., 2007; Haywood et al., 2009). Whilst overall global climate 35 36 may have been 2-3°C warmer during the 'mid Piacenzian warm interval' (= 'mid Pliocene warm 37 period' of earlier papers), climate at high latitudes is modelled to have been much warmer than 38 today (Haywood et al., 2007 and references therein). Given the significance of a warming 21<sup>st</sup> 39 century global climate and its influence on high latitude sea surface temperatures and sea ice extent, 40 it is important to develop proxies that can ground-truth models of high latitude regions during the 41 Pliocene (e.g. Dowsett, 2007, fig. 6).

42 Bivalves preserve a signal of marine seasonality (e.g. water temperature, upwelling, food 43 supply) in their carbonate geochemistry and skeletal morphology (e.g. Jones and Quitmyer, 1996; 44 A. Johnson et al., 2000, 2009; Schöne et al., 2003, 2005). These signals have been used to provide climate information across a range of palaeolatitudes (e.g. Williams et al., 2009a). Antarctic 45 46 Peninsula Neogene fossil bivalves have received detailed taxonomic and environmental appraisal 47 (e.g. Jonkers et al., 2002; Jonkers, 2003) but they have not been used to assemble a record of 48 seasonality. Nevertheless, Berkman et al. (2004) have presented a cogent argument, based on 49 morphological and sedimentological analyses, which suggests that the retreat of Chlamys-like 50 bivalves from the Antarctic resulted from increasing sea ice cover during the climate cooling of the 51 Late Pliocene.

52 The pectinid bivalve *Austrochlamys anderssoni* occurs commonly in rocks of Late Miocene 53 through Pliocene age on the northern Antarctic Peninsula. *Austrochlamys anderssoni* is ideal for 54 investigation of palaeoseasonality as specimens are large, often reaching greater than 10 cm from 55 umbo to margin in adults, and record a number of seasons of growth. In addition, the width of 56 individual growth increments in A. anderssoni is easy to measure (mm-scale), and they are 57 correspondingly easy to sample for geochemical analysis. Here we analyze ontogenetic patterns in 58 A. anderssoni to test for the extent of sea ice in the northern Weddell Sea during a warm interval of 59 the Early Pliocene. We test two possible marine scenarios: 1), that there was extensive winter sea 60 ice with no planktonic food-supply, no re-suspension of detrital food and therefore limited or no 61 bivalve growth, an environment suggested by some climate models (see Fig. 1); and 2), no winter 62 sea ice with bivalve growth continuing via a supply of periodically re-suspended organic detritus via water column agitation. We use stable oxygen and carbon isotopes to define seasonal intervals 63 64 during the growth of A. anderssoni and to estimate seasonal temperature variation: we then use growth increment data as a proxy to interpret benthic food supply and sea ice extent. 65

66

### 67 2. Geological setting

68 The James Ross Island Volcanic Group (JRIVG) dominates the outcrop geology of James Ross 69 Island, Vega Island and several small islands including Cockburn Island, in the northern Weddell 70 Sea, east of the Antarctic Peninsula (Fig. 2). The volcanic rocks unconformably overlie relatively 71 unconsolidated Cretaceous marine deposits. About 10 million years of late Neogene and Quaternary 72 history is recorded in the JRIVG (Smellie et al., 2006a, b, 2007, 2008, 2009; Hambrey et al., 2008). 73 Sedimentary rocks in the JRIVG are dominated by diamictite conglomerate and minor sandstone 74 (Smellie et al., 2006a; Hambrey et al., 2008; Nelson et al., 2009). Two sedimentary formations have 75 been defined, the interglacial marine Cockburn Island Formation (Jonkers, 1998a, b) and the glacial Hobbs Glacier Formation (Pirrie et al., 1997). Fossils have been recovered from both of these 76 77 formations, and in addition rare asterozoan trace fossils are preserved in marine-deposited volcanic 78 tuffs (Williams et al., 2006; Nelson et al., 2008). The JRIVG represents an important and largely 79 unexploited archive of late Neogene fossil and geochemical data for reconstructing past climate and 80 seasonal regimes at high southern latitude.

81 The richest Neogene fossil assemblages in the JRIVG are those of the interglacial marine Cockburn Island Formation, which contains abundant large molluscs, especially Austrochlamys 82 83 ('Zygochlamys' of Jonkers et al., 2002; see Jonkers, 2003 for a detailed taxonomic appraisal). The 84 glacimarine deposits of the Hobbs Glacier Formation contain similar macrofossil assemblages, are 85 dominated by molluscs (including Austrochlamys), but also contain older material reworked from 86 the Cretaceous (Smellie et al., 2006a). Collectively these fossils occur in strata of Late Miocene (ca 87 6 Ma) through to Pleistocene age (ca 2 Ma). Detailed analysis of the JRIVG has identified three 88 intervals of relative warmth in the northern Peninsula region, when volcanic rocks were erupted into a marine environment (Smellie et al., 2006a, fig. 6). Radiometric (<sup>40</sup>Ar/<sup>39</sup>Ar) dates from the 89 volcanic rocks, together with <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr chronology from the molluscs in the intervening glacimarine 90 91 and interglacial marine rocks have produced a well-resolved stratigraphy which constrains the 92 warm intervals to 6.5 to 5.9, 5.03 to 4.22, and ca 0.88 Ma. The Austrochlamys material we study 93 here, from the second of these warm intervals, is dated at 4.66 + 0.17/-0.24 Ma by McArthur et al. 94 (2006).

95

## 96 **3. Provenance of bivalve material on Cockburn Island**

97 The Austrochlamys bivalve material is sourced from three localities on the east side of Cockburn 98 Island referred to in BAS archives as DJ.851, DJ.852 and DJ.853 (Fig. 2). This material was 99 collected by H.A. Jonkers in 1996 though the island had been visited on several occasions dating 100 back to 1906 (Jonkers, 1998a). The Cockburn Island Formation forms small outcrops at a number 101 of localities on the island and Jonkers recognised a western 'proximal' or 'littoral' facies and an 102 eastern 'distal' facies. Based on the gradient atop the island he estimated the latter, bivalve-bearing 103 facies to represent original water depths no greater than 100 m. Fossils associated with the bivalves 104 include echinoids, gastropods, brachiopods, serpulids and rare possible penguin bones. The precise 105 stratigraphical relationships of the bivalve material from the three localities documented here is 106 difficult to discern, but they are clearly from the same substratum.

108 4. Austrochlamys as a palaeoenvironmental index of Antarctic shelf waters in the late Neogene 109 Austrochlamys is an epibenthic pectinid bivalve genus comprising six species whose distribution is 110 restricted to the Antarctic and sub-Antarctic region, with one extant species known from South 111 America (Jonkers, 2003; Quilty et al., 2004). The earliest Austrochlamys occur in Oligocene 112 deposits of King George Island (for a summary of fossil occurrences see Berkman et al., 2004). 113 Sub-fossil material is also known from as far north as southern New Zealand (Auckland Islands, 114 Dijkstra and Marshall, 2008). Fossils of Austrochlamys are prolific and widespread in strata of Late 115 Miocene through Pliocene age of the Hobbs Glacier and Cockburn Island formations and often are very well preserved (Fig. 3), with specimens articulated even when they occur in glacimarine 116 117 deposits (Nelson et al., 2009). Jonkers et al. (2002) believed this was a function of minimal 118 transport with the bivalves preserved virtually in situ. Austrochlamys of the Hobbs Glacier and 119 Cockburn Island formations belong to the species A. anderssoni (see Jonkers, 2003), thought to be a 120 byssally attached epibenthic form (Berkman et al., 2004, p. 1845). Although these bivalves are 121 believed to have occupied water depths not greater than 100 m (Jonkers, 1998a; Jonkers et al., 122 2002), sometimes they occur as transported fragmentary specimens in strata that may have been 123 deposited at greater water depths (Jonkers et al., 2002, p. 586).

124 Austrochlamys is a significant indicator of palaeoenvironment for the Antarctic (Berkman et 125 al., 2004). Modern Austrochlamys natans occur in the high energy sub-littoral and littoral zones of 126 southern Chile and Argentina, as far south as Bahia Orange (Dijkstra and Köhler, 2008). Modern 127 sea surface temperatures in southernmost South America range between about 5 to 10°C (NOAA 128 monthly global SST plot archive at: http://www.emc.ncep.noaa.gov/research/cmb/sst\_analysis/). As 129 well as living at shallow depths Austrochlamys is recovered from greater depths, and for example 130 the holotype of A. natans was recovered from 125 m in the Magellan Strait (see Dijkstra and 131 Marshall, 2008). Seawater temperatures in southernmost South America (between 52 to 56°S) at 132 depth 125 m range between about 4 to 8°C annually, and at 500 m are between 4 to 6°C (NODC

133 World Ocean Atlas, Monthly Mean one degree temperatures at: sea 134 http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu/las/servlets/dataset). Berkman et al. (2004) have argued that the 135 presence of Austrochlamys in Antarctic fossil assemblages suggests similar conditions to modern 136 southernmost South America, and in particular, much reduced sea ice extent. Jonkers (1998a) also 137 suggested a sea ice free environment for the Cockburn Island Formation, based on the presence of 138 barnacles in his littoral facies and the absence of ice-rafted debris. Opal depositional rates, which 139 are linked to biological productivity, are conspicuously enhanced in the Early Pliocene, between 5.2 140 and 3.1 Ma, signifying much-reduced sea ice cover (Hillenbrand and Fütterer, 2002; Pudsey, 2002). 141 Although microfossil assemblages found in the ODP Leg 178 drift sediments show no evidence of 142 significantly warmer surface water temperatures than today (Hillenbrand and Fütterer, 2002), Hepp 143 et al. (2006) have suggested open ocean conditions in the warm Early Pliocene, even during glacials. In addition, diatom evidence from ODP site 1165 (in the Southern Ocean at 64.384°S) 144 reported by Whitehead and Bohaty (2003) gives mean annual temperatures at 4°C, and the absence 145 146 of ice-rafted debris in the Cockburn Island Formation (Jonkers, 1998a) also suggests warmer 147 conditions than present.

148 Modern coastal environments of James Ross Island and other Antarctic regions, where 149 seasonal sea ice is prevalent, are characterised by the slow-growing, thin-shelled scallop 150 Adamussium colbecki (Berkman et al., 2004). This bivalve is thought to have originated in deeper 151 water and to have migrated on to the shelf as conditions cooled during the Late Pliocene. 152 Adamussium colbecki lives below sea ice, in conditions that mimic the deep ocean. It effectively replaced Austrochlamys as the dominant scallop, which retreated across the Southern Ocean to 153 154 South America (Berkman et al., 2004). Thus, Austrochlamys may provide a proxy of reduced sea 155 ice conditions and more agitated coastal waters around James Ross and Cockburn islands during the 156 Pliocene, a hypothesis that we will test in this paper by examining the growth-increment pattern and 157 geochemical signature of fossil shells.

### 159 **5. Methodology: analysis of bivalve material**

Our methodology to understand the growth and habitat of fossil *Austrochlamys* in the Cockburn Island Formation uses three lines of evidence: oxygen isotopes to determine seasonality and the approximate temperature of the water in which the bivalves were living; carbon isotopes to determine metabolic rates and food supply during growth; and growth increments to assess the pattern of growth. Relating these different data sources is a means of providing a detailed picture of the environmental setting of *Austrochlamys* in the late Neogene coastal waters of the Antarctic.

166

### 167 5.1 Geochemical analyses

168 Only well-preserved fossil material has been analysed. Neogene shells of Austrochlamys from the 169 Antarctic Peninsula that we interpret as being pristine show no variation in composition that is 170 detectable under Scanning Electron Microscopy (with EDX analysis). With the exception of a few 171 specimens, the shell lamellae have no visible cement overgrowths or recrystallisation. The calcitic 172 shell lamellae (confirmed by XRD analysis of 3 shell fragments) are non-luminescent to weakly luminescent under cathodoluminescence, indicating no diagenetic cements are present. One 173 174 specimen has a diagenetic cement overgrowth on the external surface of the valve as bladed calcite 175 crystals, which are strongly luminescent (Fig. 4), and this specimen has been excluded from the 176 isotopic analysis. Many shells have a fine layer of carbonate-cemented clay material adhering to the 177 outer surface of the shell. Before drilling for geochemical analysis, this extraneous material was 178 removed by gentle scrubbing and immersion of the shell in a bath of 5% HCl followed by washing 179 with de-ionised water. After this treatment the shells looked pristine with the majority of the 180 sediment removed and the growth increments clearly showing. The growth increments of 181 Austrochlamys are large and easy to drill and it is possible to obtain sufficient material from each, 182 whilst avoiding remaining adherent sediment. Shells representing several years of growth (e.g. 183 DJ.851.159, DJ.851.160 and DJ.853.1) were selected for analysis. Some 250 growth increments 184 from three shells have been sampled for calcite and analysed for stable carbon and oxygen isotopes

Seasonality in Pliocene Antarctic bivalves

185 (Figs 3, 6). Approximately 30-100 micrograms of carbonate have been used for each isotope analysis using a GV IsoPrime mass spectrometer plus Multiprep device. Isotope values ( $\delta^{13}C$ ,  $\delta^{18}O$ ) 186 are reported as per mil (‰) deviations of the isotopic ratios (<sup>13</sup>C/<sup>12</sup>C, <sup>18</sup>O/<sup>16</sup>O) calculated to the 187 188 VPDB scale using a within-run laboratory standard calibrated against NBS standards. Analytical reproducibility of the standard calcite (KCM) run with these samples was 0.02% for  $\delta^{13}$ C and 189 0.04‰ for  $\delta^{18}$ O. Values for oxygen isotopes have been converted to sea palaeotemperatures using 190 the equation of O'Neil et al. (1969),  $T = 16.9 - 4.38(\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw}) + 0.10(\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw})^2$ . A. 191 192 Johnson et al. (2000) have demonstrated good calibration between actual sea temperatures and 193 reconstructed sea temperatures using this equation applied to North Sea modern and sub-fossil Aequipecten. For comparison we have also calculated palaeotemperatures using a modified form of 194 the Craig (1965) equation given in Leng and Marshall (2004), T = 16-4.14( $\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ ) + 195  $0.13(\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw})^2$ : typically this makes palaeotemperature estimates warmer by about 0.5 to 196 197  $0.8^{\circ}$ C (see Table 1).

198

## 199 5.2 Assessing seawater isotopic composition

Implicit in calculations of palaeotemperature from the  $\delta^{18}$ O of Austrochlamys calcite is an 200 assessment of the isotopic composition of the seawater ( $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ ) in which the bivalves were living. 201 Surface seawater  $\delta^{18}$ O in the Weddell Sea today is between 0 and -0.5% (Schmidt et al., 1999). 202 203 Mackensen (2002) gives a mean value of -0.37‰ for Antarctic Surface Water in the southern Weddell Sea. Oceanographic conditions in the Weddell Sea have been summarized by Whitehouse 204 et al. (1996), who showed summer to winter temperature variation between +1.99 and -0.10°C, 205 206 with salinity greater in winter time (33.87 to 34.05 psu) than in summer (33.81 to 33.86 psu). The 207 flux of isotopically light glacial meltwater into the northern Weddell Sea around James Ross Island during the summer months affects the  $\delta^{18}$ O of surface water. Although there are no detailed studies 208 209 of meltwater flux around James Ross Island, these effects are well constrained for surface water on 210 the western Antarctic Peninsula region in Marguerite Bay at 68°S (Meredith et al., 2008). The

setting of Marguerite Bay is different from that of the Weddell Sea in that  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  values in the 211 western peninsula region are lower for surface waters (between -0.5 to -1%; see Schmidt et al., 212 213 1999). However, the north end of Marguerite Bay is covered by winter sea ice for several months, 214 so that it provides a useful comparison for seasonal fluxes of sea ice and glacial meltwater into the 215 modern James Ross Island area, where sea ice also forms during the winter months. In Marguerite Bay as much as 5% of the near-surface ocean is glacial meltwater: sea ice-melt accounts for a much 216 smaller percentage (ca 1%). The effects of seasonal sea ice-melt on the  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  are minimal 217 218 (Meredith et al., 2008, p. 314) but those of glacial ice-melt are much more significant as high latitude ice has very low  $\delta^{18}$ O (Mackensen, 2002; Meredith et al., 2008). In Marguerite Bay surface 219 220 waters are isotopically lightest during the summer months, with values as low as -0.9% (compared with higher values of -0.1% for deeper water below 300 m). During winter months the  $\delta^{18}$ O of 221 222 surface waters is about -0.5%, still much lower than deeper waters and indicating that significant 223 quantities of meteoric water remain in the upper water column throughout the year.

Our estimates of palaeotemperature from Austrochlamys have assumed an initial surface 224  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  value of -0.2%. This is a mean value sourced from a climate model study of the Early 225 Pliocene (Lunt et al., 2008) and is similar to modern surface conditions in the Weddell Sea 226 (Schmidt et al., 1999; Mackensen, 2002). For calculations of  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  from the model see Appendix 227 228 1. There is considerable evidence for the persistence of an Antarctic Peninsula Ice Sheet even 229 during warm phases of the late Neogene (Smellie et al., 2009; J. Johnson et al., 2009; Nelson et al., 2009), though sea ice cover in this region may have been much more limited (Berkman et al., 230 231 2004). Thus, fluxes of meltwater such as those into Marguerite Bay may have characterized the northern Weddell Sea region during warm interval summers, and may have kept surface waters 232 isotopically light throughout the year, with  $\delta^{18}$ O values lowest during the summer. For this reason, 233 we have also calculated palaeotemperatures using higher and lower values of  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  (0 to -0.4‰) to 234 235 reflect seasonal (winter-summer) variation (see Table 1).

10

238 Austrochlamys grows by a series of increments that are visible on the shell surface (Fig. 3). These 239 increments result from the advance of the mantle over the ventral margin to effect extension of 240 extrapallial fluid and precipitation of calcite to the shell edge. In scallops, as in other bivalves, 241 large-scale mantle advance and shell-size increase is dependent on the environmental conditions 242 which facilitate cell division and growth. However, under such conditions, shell extension is fairly 243 regularly interrupted for short periods through retraction of the mantle edge, resulting in an 244 incremental pattern of shell growth which is clearly marked by commarginal ridges on the external 245 surface (Clark, 1974, 2005). The individual (microgrowth) increments may be over 1 mm in width 246 in Austrochlamys (Fig. 5), which is exceptionally large amongst scallops (cf. Clark, 2005; Owen et 247 al., 2002b; A. Johnson et al., 2009). Overall periods of growth may be succeeded by sudden and 248 sharp reductions in calcite precipitation, and the shell is therefore marked by a distinct band known 249 as a 'growth line'. These lines may represent suspension of growth associated with seasonal temperature extremes, wave action, reproduction (Dame, 1996, p. 58) or disturbance (e.g. Adam, 250 251 1990). In Austrochlamys from the Cockburn Island Formation growth lines are developed on many 252 shells with varying degrees of prominence (Fig. 3).

To measure growth increments precisely, scaled photographic images of *Austrochlamys* were imported into the software Panopea (© Peinl and Schöne, 2004). This enables point-to-point measurements of growth increment widths and reference features, and outputs a precise width of these structures. The factors behind the rate of growth of *Austrochlamys* cannot be differentiated by growth increments alone (see Jones and Quitmyer, 1996), but coupled to  $\delta^{13}$ C and  $\delta^{18}$ O profiles (see A. Johnson et al., 2000, 2009) it is possible to make inferences about control mechanisms such as food supply and water temperature.

260

#### 261 **6. Results and interpretation**

262 6.1 Oxygen isotopes and palaeotemperature

263 The three shells we have analysed for stable isotopes collectively record about seven summerwinter cycles of growth (Fig. 6), with an overall reconstructed temperature range from -1 to +3.5°C 264 265 (using the O'Neil et al., 1969 equation), or slightly higher minimum and lower maximum temperatures if higher winter and lower summer  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  values are used (Table 1). We do not 266 267 suggest that this represents the entire range of climate for the Cockburn Island Formation, but it 268 does provide the first quantifiable evidence of sea temperature seasonality for about seven years in 269 this region from the late Neogene. The two shells from locality DJ.851 show similar temperature 270 profiles, while that from locality DJ.853 shows the warmest summer values (Fig. 6, Table 1). These 271 two bivalve-bearing localities are separated by about 300 m along a north-south transect on the east 272 side of the island (Fig. 2) and while the bivalves are from the same substratum, they may represent 273 molluscs living 100s of years apart.

274 Isotope analysis of shell DJ.851.159 shows a signal of seasonality in water temperature over three cycles of summer-winter growth (Fig. 6). During this interval (using an annual mean  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  of 275 -0.2‰ and the O'Neil et al., 1969 equation), sea temperatures between -1.1 and +2.5°C are 276 277 suggested. This range of temperature variation ( $ca 3.6^{\circ}$ C) is similar to the present mean intra-annual 278 range in surface waters of the Weddell Sea (see Whitehouse et al., 1996). It is also similar to the 279 seasonal temperature variation at the sea surface predicted by an Early Pliocene climate model, 280 giving values of -1.69°C for winter (July) and +3.08°C for summer (February) at depth 0-5 m (Lunt et al., 2008). At depth (95-113 m) seasonality from the model is just -0.69 to -0.52°C. This 281 282 supports the notion that the Austrochlamys of the Cockburn Island Formation were living at shallow 283 depth, recording much of (or the entire) surface seasonality, and were well above the maximum 284 depth of 100 m speculated on by Jonkers et al. (1998a, 2002).

285 The use of a single mean annual value for  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  in our calculations shown in Figure 6 may 286 be unjustified (and lead to over- or underestimates of palaeotemperature) in that it assumes no large 287 change in glacial meltwater flux to this region of the northern Weddell Sea between summer and 288 winter. Calculating sea temperatures for shell DJ.851.159 using a winter value of 0% for  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  gives a minimum water temperature of  $-0.4^{\circ}$ C, close to that recorded today. Using a summer value of  $-0.4^{\circ}$  for  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>sw</sub> gives a maximum temperature of about 2°C (Table 1). This seasonal range in  $\delta^{18}$ O<sub>sw</sub> is justified by modern data from Marguerite Bay (see Meredith et al., 2008 and above).

Forty analyses from shell DJ.851.160 produce estimated sea temperatures similar to those of shell DJ.851.159, with a minimum just below 0°C and a maximum of 1.8°C (for  $\delta^{18}O_{sw} = -0.2\%$ , see Fig. 6, see also Table 1). In contrast, shell DJ.853.1, which also records about three cycles of summer-winter growth (*ca* 100 increments drilled), provides sea temperatures between 0.5 and 3.5°C (for  $\delta^{18}O_{sw} = -0.2\%$ , Fig. 6). Given that these shells are from two different localities, the latter hints that a very detailed record of changing regional climate may be stored in these fossils.

298 Modern temperature beneath the sea ice during winter months in the Weddell Sea is close to 299  $0^{\circ}$ C (Whitehouse et al., 1996; cf. with similar sea temperatures in Marguerite Bay reported by 300 Meredith et al., 2008, p. 312), suggesting that our estimates of winter temperature in shells from 301 locality DJ.851 may be too cool for the Early Pliocene. Although the overall degree of seasonal sea 302 temperature change appears similar to present (Table 1), we cannot be sure that our reconstructed 303 temperatures reflect absolute values. However, given a winter temperature of -1.1°C from bivalve 304 DJ.851.159, they must represent near minimum values. Recalculating palaeotemperatures using the 305 modified form of the 'Craig (1965)' equation (see Table 1) gives a slightly elevated minimum 306 temperature of -0.3°C for shell DJ.851.159, close to the modern minimum values recorded by 307 Whitehouse et al. (1996).

As well as the problem of assessing initial  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  some bivalves are known to exhibit vital effects. Thus, experimental work on *Pecten maximus* shows deviations of shell  $\delta^{18}O$  from equilibrium of +0.6‰, equivalent to a temperature interpretation 2-3°C colder than actual (Owen et al., 2002a). With our available data we cannot assess whether vital effects have influenced the  $\delta^{18}O$ of *Austrochlamys* calcite, but it is feasible that our minimum and maximum estimates of sea temperature are colder than actual, and that sea temperatures were above zero throughout the year at the time the Cockburn Island Formation was being deposited. This is suggested by sea temperature values from the shell at locality DJ.853 that show a minimum above 0°C (Fig. 6, Table 1), and by
our growth increment data (see below).

317

## 318 6.2 Carbon isotopes and planktonic productivity

319 The  $\delta^{13}$ C signature of bivalves is influenced by the isotopic composition of the dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) in seawater, its major controls being local phytoplankton productivity (removing <sup>12</sup>C), 320 local respiration (returning <sup>12</sup>C) and influxes of isotopically more negative deep ocean water or 321 322 freshwater (Krantz et al., 1987). Thus, bivalves living close to upwelling zones can exhibit marked changes in  $\delta^{13}$ C (Jones and Allmon, 1996) whereas those living away from such zones may exhibit 323 324 a much smaller degree of variation, less than 1‰ (A. Johnson et al., 2000, 2009). The  $\delta^{13}$ C may also reflect a kinetic effect. This results in a depletion of both <sup>18</sup>O and <sup>13</sup>C in carbonates 325 326 (McConnaughey et al., 1997; Owen et al., 2002a). In contrast, metabolic (respiration) effects will be reflected in depletions in shell  $\delta^{13}$ C (McConnaughey and Gillikin, 2008) which are not 327 accompanied by simultaneous changes in shell  $\delta^{18}$ O. Thus, the two mechanisms can be 328 329 differentiated in isotopic profiles of bivalves.

330 The carbon isotope signature of A. anderssoni suggests both metabolic and oceanographic 331 controls, but not kinetic effects. Carbon isotope values are lowest through the first annual cycle of 332 temperature variation recorded in shell DJ.851.159 (ca 1.4%), perhaps related to high metabolic rate in a young specimen. The carbon signature is a little higher through the second cycle of 333 temperature variation recorded in shell DJ.851.159 (ca 1.7%), and then is variable into the third 334 335 cycle (from *ca* 1.2 to nearly 2‰). However, the two peaks of highest carbon values (at about 2‰) correlate with summer temperature maxima determined from analysis of  $\delta^{18}$ O (Fig. 6), and suggest 336 a phytoplankton control, influenced by a summer bloom. There are no areas of the shell DJ.851.159 337 338 profile where oxygen and carbon show depletion in tandem, and we interpret this as being evidence of minimal or no kinetic effects. A very similar pattern of highest  $\delta^{13}$ C (about 2‰) associated with 339 summer temperature is also preserved in shell DJ.851.160 (Fig. 6). Peak highest values of  $\delta^{13}$ C also 340

coincide with warmest estimated sea temperatures in bivalve DJ.853.1. Here though, peak highest  $\delta^{13}$ C values (of 2.4‰) are greater than in the two bivalves from locality DJ.851, suggesting that increased water column productivity might have been influenced by the warmer overall temperatures apparently experienced by bivalve DJ.853.1.

345 Conceivably, more upwelling of deep ocean water in winter-time could produce the 346 characteristic low  $\delta^{13}$ C patterns that correlate with the highest  $\delta^{18}$ O in the three shells analysed (Fig. 347 6). Differences in wind strength between summer (weaker) and winter (stronger) could account for 348 this, but these differences could not have had an effect if the sea was ice-covered in winter.

349

## 350 6.3 Growth increments and the availability of benthic food

351 All of the bivalves measured show patterns in growth involving clusters of broader and narrower increments (Fig. 5). The initial (umbonal) region of each shell bears increments which are too 352 353 narrow or ill-defined to be measured (Fig. 3). This is typically over the first 2-3 cm of wellpreserved shells. Thus, we have been unable to assess growth patterns for the earliest stages of 354 355 development in Austrochlamys and it should be noted that the graphs do not represent the same growth increment interval between bivalves (see Fig. 3 for position of growth measured on each 356 357 shell). For those increments that can be measured, there is a wide range of variation in width both 358 within and between shells, varying from 0.09 mm (DJ.852.1) to ca 1.7 mm (DJ.851.3). Some 359 specimens clearly have broader growth increments overall: thus, 5 cm of shell growth can be achieved over 60 (e.g. DJ.851.3), 76 (DJ.851.80) or 93 increments (DJ.851.159). The number of 360 increments between a peak and a trough in the growth of Austrochlamys varies from about 3 to 14, 361 with no discernible increase in frequency from younger to older specimens (Fig. 5). 362 363 Notwithstanding the growth lines that represent probable growth breaks, analysis of growth cumulatively suggests that while Austrochlamys is growing, growth rate remains similar, with no 364 365 significant reduction during colder periods (see Fig. 6).

366 The annual cycles in environmental variables (e.g. sea temperature and phytoplankton 367 productivity) determined from stable oxygen and carbon isotope analyses correspond to growth 368 intervals involving from 24 to 38 increments on shell DJ.851.159, with winter troughs at increments 369 19, 57 and beyond 81 (and summer highs at increments 1, 39 and 75 respectively). The winter-370 summer signal from the isotopes is clearly independent of the growth variation exhibited by the 371 increments, which have a much higher frequency of change (Fig. 6) and were likely controlled by 372 other factors. In addition, the seasonal temperature signal does not appear to bear any close 373 relationship to the distinctive growth lines of shell DJ.851.159, at least one of which appears to be 374 associated with marginal shell damage (see Figs 3, 6) and therefore perhaps disturbance. Shell 375 DJ.851.160, from the same locality as DJ.851.159, confirms this pattern, with growth increment 376 variation of similar degree in both summer and winter, and a growth line in the part of the shell 377 drilled for stable isotopes which is synchronous with rising temperatures, probably towards the end 378 of a winter cycle (Fig. 6).

379 In contrast shell DJ.853.1, from the northern-most pectinid-bearing locality on Cockburn 380 Island (Fig. 2) shows a different pattern of growth to those shells from locality DJ.851. In this shell 381 two growth lines do equate to intervals of temperature lows (Fig. 6), though not to the final low 382 temperature interval (beyond increment 90). From increment 1 to 59 there is no apparent summer-383 winter variation in overall growth rate when the bivalves are growing, with peaks and troughs in 384 increment width occurring with a higher frequency than the peaks and troughs in temperature 385 variation (fig. 6). The first weak growth line appears to come towards the end of a winter cycle, and 386 is associated with a temperature low. But this growth break appears to have been of short duration as there is a substantial interval of winter prior to this (Fig. 6). It occurs in that part of the shell 387 where the  $\delta^{13}$ C signal indicates a rapid increase in water column productivity, and therefore the 388 389 growth line probably formed at, or just prior to the beginning of spring-summer. The second growth 390 line, beginning at about increment 58, is stronger and corresponds to a temperature low. Here there 391 is clear evidence for a slowing of growth (from increment size measurements, Fig. 6), and this part

of the shell is also associated with a rapid change to lower  $\delta^{13}$ C that may record the onset of winter. 392 393 The isotope record is missing through about 5 to 6 increments as these were too narrow to drill, and 394 so the winter temperature minimum has not been determined. The increments immediately 395 following the growth line show rapid temperature rise into summer (Fig. 6). Nevertheless, the 396 temperature low associated with this growth line (and apparent growth cessation) was well above 397 zero at the time growth slowed (Fig. 6), and is in line with winter temperature values elsewhere in 398 this shell where growth continued. We therefore suggest that this growth break might be associated 399 with shell disturbance, rather than with growth cessation from low temperature. Shell DJ.853.1 400 records a second season of summer growth with a maximum estimated temperature of 3.5°C at 401 increment 72, and a final period of presumed winter growth with temperatures about 1.5°C beyond 402 increment 88 (Fig. 6). There is no distinctive growth line associated with the beginning of this last 403 interval of 'cooler' temperatures, and increment analysis indicates that growth continued at a 404 similar pace irrespective of whether temperatures were 'warm' or 'cool' (Fig. 6).

405 Conventional wisdom interprets the growth patterns of bivalves in terms of summer to 406 winter variation, but Jones and Quitmyer (1996) have demonstrated convincingly that there may be 407 a decoupling between growth rate and temperature in bivalves. The growth-increment patterns in 408 the shells analysed for stable isotopes from the Cockburn Island Formation (Figs 3, 6) are closely 409 comparable to those of Holocene Aequipecten from the North Sea (A. Johnson et al., 2009) – that is, 410 there is no seasonal pattern that can be tied with the palaeotemperature profile reconstructed from 411 stable oxygen isotope evidence. Neither is there any correspondence to the pattern of planktonic 412 productivity inferred from carbon isotope evidence. In natural populations of the scallop 413 Aequipecten growth is probably tied with benthic food supply, particularly with the availability of 414 detrital organic material. This increases during periods of water column agitation. Growth in the 415 infaunal bivalve Arctica appears to be under a similar control (Schöne et al., 2003, 2005; Witbaard, 416 1996) and the correlation between increment size in Pliocene Flabellipecten steamsi from the Gulf 417 of California and tidal patterns in this area (Clark, 2005) is also accountable to re-suspension and

418 advection of detrital food by tidal currents. In the Weddell Sea, present winter sea ice-cover 419 suppresses movement in the water column during the winter months. Therefore, if sea ice was 420 extensive during the winter months of the Early Pliocene, this would have resulted in reduced 421 agitation of the water column, reduced food supply, and a clear seasonality in growth for A. 422 anderssoni. Moreover, there should be less short-term variation in winter than in summer (when the 423 water column would be more agitated), but this is not the case. The growth increment data from A. 424 anderssoni is consistent with the proposal of Berkman et al. (2004) that there was reduced (or no) 425 sea ice in Early Pliocene coastal marine settings occupied by Austrochlamys. The data also imply 426 that Austrochlamys has retreated from the Antarctic as the extent of sea ice grew, probably during 427 cooling in the Late Pliocene to Pleistocene. These Antarctic coastal zones today are colonised by 428 the slow-growing Adamussium colbecki, a bivalve that originated in deeper waters that are 429 mimicked by living below sea ice (see Berkman et al., 2004).

430

# 431 **7. Marine seasonality and environment on the Antarctic Peninsula during the Early Pliocene**

432 Our data provide a signal of seasonality during warm interglacial phases of Antarctic climate in the 433 late Neogene and allow testing of models of sea ice extent during the Early Pliocene. Growth 434 increment analysis coupled with stable isotope data indicates that sea temperature was not the major 435 influence on growth for A. anderssoni. Instead, growth appears to have continued throughout much 436 of the year (even during the coldest parts of winter as recorded in our shells) with a high frequency 437 fluctuation that probably reflects periodic agitation of the water column and enhanced benthic food 438 supply from organic detritus. Such an interpretation differs from the suggestion of Jonkers et al. 439 (2002, p. 587) that the occurrence of A. anderssoni in both the Hobbs Glacier (glacial) and 440 Cockburn Island (glacimarine/interglacial) formations indicates its wide environmental tolerance, and that it should therefore not be used solely as an indicator of interglacial (= present-like 441 442 conditions). Our evidence also suggests that Austrochlamys favoured waters that were sea ice-free, 443 and its presence in the Hobbs Glacier Formation may reflect its incorporation into ice toward the 444 end of an interglacial. Ice-proximal glaciomarine debris flows on James Ross Island incorporated 445 well-preserved bivalves and bryozoans, suggesting that ice expansion occurred under warm 446 conditions during the Pliocene, probably towards glacial inception (Nelson et al., 2009). The 447 presence of bivalves in close proximity to the palaeo-coastline supports the hypothesis of a lack of 448 sea ice, despite the presence of advancing terrestrial-based ice on James Ross Island and the 449 Antarctic Peninsula.

450 The range of temperatures recorded by the bivalves is similar to the mean annual sea surface 451 temperature range in this region at present (see Table 1). Using the O'Neil et al. (1969) equation, and assuming no vital effects and that our estimates of  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  approximate reality, the shells that we 452 453 have analysed show minimum and maximum temperatures to have been between about -1.1 and 454  $+2.5^{\circ}$ C for the bivalves of locality DJ.851, and temperatures between 0.5 and 3.5°C for locality DJ.853: the temperature range is slightly warmer if we use the modified form of the Craig (1965) 455 equation (see Table 1) with values of -0.3 to 2.8°C for DJ.851 and 1.1 to 3.7°C for DJ.853. Our 456 457 growth increment data, coupled with supporting palaeotemperature information, support: the 458 interpretation of the Cockburn Island Formation as an interglacial marine deposit; the notion of 459 reduced sea ice in the Antarctic during the Pliocene (e.g. Whitehead et al., 2005); and the 460 hypothesis of Berkman et al. (2004) that Austrochlamys retreated from the Antarctic as sea ice 461 expanded, this transition occurring during climate cooling in the Late Pliocene. Our bivalve data question climate model predictions of extensive sea ice in the Weddell Sea during the Early 462 463 Pliocene.

464

## 465 **8. Further work**

466 Our work has demonstrated the potential value of *Austrochlamys* for testing hypotheses of 467 seasonality and sea ice extent for pre-Quaternary time slices in the Antarctic. As both the Hobbs 468 Glacier and Cockburn Island formations bear rich bivalve material over a wider stratigraphical 469 range than we have analysed here, there is great scope for developing a highly resolved proxy for 470 marine palaeoseasonality at these latitudes. Together with the largely unstudied cheilostome
471 bryozoan faunas in the JRIVG – themselves a group of fossils which are excellent proxies for mean
472 annual range of temperature (see Knowles et al., 2009) - a highly resolved record of palaeoclimate

- 473 through the Late Miocene and Pliocene of the Antarctic Peninsula region may be obtainable.
- 474

## 475 Acknowledgments

476 The growth increment analysis of Austrochlamys was undertaken by Daniel Jarram as part of his final year Masters 477 project at the University of Leicester. This work contributes to the British Antarctic Survey's GEACEP Programme 478 (ISODYN Project - Ice House Earth: Stability or Dynamism), to the British Geological Survey's deep time 479 palaeoclimate project, and to the SCAR ACE Programme (Antarctic Climate Evolution). We acknowledge support from 480 the NERC Isotope Geosciences Facilities Steering Committee (grant IP/936/1106). We thank Captain Bob Tarrant and 481 the officers and crew of HMS Endurance for their assistance during the 2006-2007 field season, Mark Laidlaw for field 482 assistance and Paul Brickle (Falkland Island Fisheries) for supplying sub-fossil material of Austrochlamys from the 483 Falkland Islands. Alistair Crame (BAS) is thanked for permission to analyse the bivalve material geochemically. Colin 484 Cunningham and Rob Wilson (Leicester) made thin sections and helped with SEM photomicrography, respectively. The 485 late Tim Brewer ran analyses of shell geochemistry for us and advised on shell preservation. Cheryl Haidon undertook 486 the XRD analysis of shells. We are especially grateful to Hilary Sloane (NIGL) for assistance with the isotope analysis, 487 to Arne Ghys (Belgium) for supplying comparative modern Austrochlamys material from Tierra del Fuego, and to 488 Harry Dowsett (USGS) and Daniel Lunt (Bristol) for their constructive reviews. BRS acknowledges financial support 489 by a DFG (SCHO793/4). This is Geocycles publication number X.

490

## 491 **References**

- 492 Adam, M.E. 1990. Shell growth in some Nile bivalves. Journal of Molluscan Studies, 56, 301-308.
- Berkman, P.A., Cattaneo-Vietti, R., Chiantore, M., Howard-Williams, C. 2004. Polar emergence
  and the influence of increased sea-ice extent on the Cenozoic biogeography of pectinid molluscs
  in Antarctic coastal areas. Deep Sea Research Part 2, 51, 1839-1855.
- 496 Bigg, G. R., Rohling, E.J. 2000. An oxygen isotope data set for marine waters, Journal of
- 497 Geophysical Research, 105, 8527–8535
- 498 Clark II, G.R. 1974. Calcification on an unstable substrate: marginal growth in the mollusk Pecen

- diegensis. Science, 183, 968-970.
- 500 Clark II, G.R. 2005. Daily growth lines in some living Pectens (Mollusca: Bivalvia) and some
  501 applications in a fossil relative: Time and tide will tell. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology,
  502 Palaeoecology, 228, 26-42.
- 503 Craig, H. 1965. The measurement of oxygen isotope palaeotemperatures. In: Tongiorgi, E. (Ed.),
- 504 Stable Isotopes in Oceanographic Studies and Palaeotemperatures. Pisa, Consiglio Nazionale
- 505 delle Ricerche Laboratorio di Geologia Nucleare, pp. 161–182.
- 506 Dame, R.F. 1996. Ecology of marine bivalves: an ecosystem approach. CRC Press: Boca Raton,
  507 Florida. 254 pp.
- 508 Dijkstra, H.H., Köhler, F. 2008. An annotated catalogue of Recent Pectinoidea (Mollusca,
  509 Pectinidae and Propeamussiidae) type material in the Museum of Natural History, Humboldt
  510 University, Berlin. Zoosystematics and Evolution, 84, 31-44.
- 511 Dijkstra, H.H., Marshall, B.A. 2008. The Recent Pectinoidea of the New Zealand region (Mollusca:
  512 Bivalvia: Propeamussiidae, Pectinidae and Spondylidae). Molluscan Research, 28, 1-88.
- 513 Dowsett, H.M. 2007. The PRISM palaeoclimate reconstruction and Pliocene sea-surface
- 514 temperature. In: Williams, M., Haywood, A.M., Gregory, F.J., Schmidt, D.N. (eds.) Deep-
- 515 Time Perspectives on Climate Change: Marrying the Signal from Computer Models and
- 516 Biological Proxies. The Micropalaeontological Society, Special Publications, The Geological
  517 Society, London, pp. 459-480.
- 518 Epstein, S., Buchsbaum, R., Lowenstam, H.A., Urey, H.C. 1953. Revised carbonate water isotopic
  519 temperature scale. Geological Society of America Bulletin, 64, 1315–1326.
- Hambrey, M.J., Smellie, J.L., Nelson, A.E., Johnson, J.S. 2008. Late Cenozoic glacier-volcano
  interaction on James Ross Island and adjacent areas, Antarctic Peninsula region. Geological
  Society of America Bulletin, doi: 10.1130/B26242.1.
- Haywood, A.M., Valdes, P.J., Peck, V.L. 2007. A permanent El Nino-like state during the
  Pliocene? Paleoceanography, 22 (1), doi:10.1029/2006PA001323

Haywood, A.M., Valdes, P.J., Hill, D.J., Williams, M. 2007. The mid-Pliocene warm period: A
test-bed for integrating data and models. In: Williams, M., Haywood, A.M., Gregory, F.J.,
Schmidt, D.N (eds) Deep time perspectives on climate change: marrying the signal from
computer models and biological proxies. The Micropalaeontological Society, Special
Publications. The Geological Society, London, 443-457.

- Haywood, A.M., Dowsett, H.J., Valdes, P.J., Lunt, D.J., Francis, J.E., Sellwood, B. 2009. Pliocene
  climate, processes and problems. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, Series A, 367,
  3-17.
- Hepp, D.A., Mörz, T., Grűtzner, J. 2006. Pliocene glacial cyclicity in a deep-sea sediment drift
  (Antarctic Peninsula Pacific Margin). Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 231,
  181-198.
- Hillenbrand, C-D., Fütterer, D.K. 2002. Neogene to Quaternary deposition of opal on the
  continental rise west of the Antarctic Peninsula, ODP Leg 178, Sites 1095, 1096, and 1101. In:
  Barker, P.F., Camerlenghi, A., Acton, G.D., Ramsay, A.T.S. (eds) Proceedings of the Ocean
  Drilling Programme, Scientific Results, 178. Texas A and M University, College Station, Texas,
- 540 1-40 (CD-ROM).
- Jansen, E., Overpeck, J., Briffa, K.R., Duplessy, J.-C., Joos, F., Masson-Delmotte, V., Olago, D.,
  Otto-Bliesner, B., Peltier, W.R., Rahmstorf, S., Ramesh, R., Raynaud, D., Rind, D., Solomina,
  O., Villalba, R., Zhang, D. 2007. Palaeoclimate. In: Climate Change 2007: The Physical
  Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fourth Assessment Report of the
  Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United
  Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- Johnson, A.L.A., Hickson, J.A., Swan, J., Brown, M.R., Heaton, T.H.E., Chenery, S., Balson, P.S.
  2000. The Queen Scallop Aequipecten opercularis: a new source of information on late
- 549 Cenozoic marine environments in Europe. In: Harper, E.M., Taylor, J.D., Crame, J.A. (eds) The

- Evolutionary Biology of the Bivalvia. pp. 425-439. Geological Society of London, Special
  Publications 177.
- 552 Johnson, A.L.A., Hickson, J.A., Bird, A., Schoene, B.R., Balson, P.S., Heaton, T.H.E., Williams,

553 M. 2009. Bivalve sclerochronology and the mid-Pliocene (c. 3.5 Ma) climate of the Southern

- North Sea Basin. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, doi:
  10.1016/j.palaeo.2009.09.022
- Johnson, J.S., Smellie, J.L., Nelson, A.E., Stuart, F.M. 2009. Did the Antarctic Peninsula Ice Sheet
   persist during interglacials? evidence from cosmogenic dating of Pliocene lavas on James
   Ross Island. Global and Planetary Change, doi:10.1016/j.gloplacha.2009.09.001
- Jones, D.S., Allmon, W.D. 1995. Records of upwelling, seasonality and growth in stable-isotope
   profiles of Pliocene mollusk shells from Florida. Lethaia, 28, 61-74.
- Jones, D.S., Quitmyer, I.R. 1996. Marking time with bivalve shells: oxygen isotopes and season of
  annual increment formation. Palaios, 11, 340-346.
- Jonkers, H.A. 1998a. Stratigraphy of Antarctic late Cenozoic pectinid-bearing deposits. Antarctic
  Science, 10, 161-170.
- Jonkers, H.A. 1998b. The Cockburn Island Formation; Late Pliocene interglacial sedimentation in
  the James Ross Basin, northern Antarctic Peninsula. Newsletters on Stratigraphy, 36, 63-76.
- Jonkers, H.A. 2003. Late Cenozoic–Recent Pectinidae (Mollusca: Bivalvia) of the Southern Ocean
  and neighbouring regions. Monographs of Marine Mollusca, 5, 125 pp.
- Jonkers, H.A., Lirio, J.M., Dell Valle, R.A., Kelley, S.P. 2002. Age and environment of MiocenePliocene glaciomarine deposits, James Ross Island, Antarctica. Geological Magazine, 139, 577594.
- Knowles, T., Taylor, P.D., Williams, M., Haywood, A.M., Okamura, B. 2009. Pliocene seasonality
  across the North Atlantic inferred from cheilostome bryozoans. Palaeogeography,
  Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 277, 226-235

- 575 Krantz, D. E., Williams, D. F., Jones, D. S. 1987. Ecological and paleoenvironmental information
  576 using stable isotope profiles from living and fossil molluscs. Palaeogeography,
  577 Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 58, 249-266.
- 578 Leng, M.J., Marshall, J.D. 2004. Palaeoclimate interpretation of stable isotope data from lake
  579 sediment archives. Quaternary Science Reviews, 23, 811-831.
- Levitus, S., Boyer, T.P. 1994. World Ocean Atlas 1994, vol. 4, Temperature, NOAA Atlas
  NESDIS, vol. 4, 129 pp., NOAA, Silver Spring, Md.
- 582 Lunt, D.J., Valdes, P.J., Haywood, A.M., Rutt, I. 2008. Closure of the Panama Seaway during the
- 583 Pliocene Implications for Climate and Northern Hemisphere Glaciation. Climate Dynamics,
- 584 30, 1-18. (doi:10.1007/s00382-007-0265-6).
- 585 McArthur, J.M., Rio, D., Massari, F., Castradori, D., Bailey, T.R., Thirlwall, M., Houghton, S.
- 586 2006. A revised Pliocene record for marine-<sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr used to date an interglacial event recorded
- 587 in the Cockburn Island Formation, Antarctic Peninsula. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology,
- 588 Palaeoecology, 242, 126-136.
- McConnaughey, T.A., Gillikin, D.P. 2008. Carbon isotopes in mollusk shell carbonates. GeoMarine Letters, doi:10.1007/s00367-008-0116-4.
- 591 McConnaughey, T.A., Burdett, J., Whelan, J.F., Paull, C.K. 1997. Carbon isotopes in biological 592 carbonates: Respiration and photosynthesis. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 61, 611-622.
- 593 Meredith, M.P., Brandon, M.A., Wallace, M.I., Clarke, A., Leng, M.J., Renfrew, I.A., van Lipzig,
- 594 N.P.M., King, J.C. 2008. Variability in freshwater balance of northern Marguerite Bay, 595 Antarctic Peninsula: results from  $\delta^{18}$ O. Deep Sea Research Part 2, 55, 309-322.
- Nelson, A., Smellie, J., Williams, M., Zalasiewicz, J.A. 2008. Late Miocene marine trace fossils
  from James Ross Island. Antarctic Science, 20, 591-592.
- 598 Nelson, A.E., Smellie, J., Hambrey, M., Williams, M., Vautravers, M., McArthur, J., Regelous, M.
- 599 2009. Neogene glacigenic debris flows on James Ross Island, northern Antarctic Peninsula, and

- their implications for regional climate history. Quaternary Science Reviews,
  doi:10.1016/j.quascirev.2009.08.016
- O'Neil, J.R., Clayton, R.N., Mayeda, T.K. 1969. Oxygen isotope fractionation in divalent metal
  carbonates. Journal of Chemical Physics, 51, 5547-58
- Owen, R., Kennedy, H., Richardson, C. 2002a. Experimental investigation into partitioning of
   stable isotopes between scallop (Pecten maximus) shell calcite and sea water. Palaeogeography,
   Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 185, 163-174.
- 607 Owen, R., Richardson, C., Kennedy, H. 2002b. The influence of shell growth rate on striae
  608 deposition in the scallop Pecten maximus. Journal of the Marine Biological Association of the
  609 United Kingdom, 82, 621-623.
- Pirrie, D., Crame, J.A., Riding, J.B., Butcher, A.R., Taylor, P.D. 1997. Miocene glaciomarine
  sedimentation in the northern Antarctic Peninsula region: the stratigraphy and sedimentology of
  the Hobbs Glacier Formation, James Ross Island. Geological Magazine, 134, 745-762. doi:
  10.1017/S0016756897007796.
- 614 Pudsey, C.J. 2002. Neogene record of Antarctic Peninsula glaciation in continental rise sediments:
- ODP Leg 178, Site 1095. In: Barker, P.F., Camerlenghi, A., Acton, G.D., Ramsay, A.T.S. (eds)
  Proceedings of the Ocean Drilling Programme, Scientific Results, 178. Texas A and M
  University, College Station, Texas, 1-40 (CD-ROM).
- Quilty, P.G., Murray-Wallace, C.V., Whitehead, J.M. 2004. Austrochlamys heardensis (Fleming,
  1957) (Bivalvia: Pectinidae) from Central Kerguelen Plateau, Indian Ocean: palaeontology and
  possible tectonic significance. Antarctic Science, 16, 329-338.
- Rohling, E. J. 2000. Paleosalinity: Confidence limits and future applications, Marine Geology, 163,
  1–11.
- 623 Rohling, E. J., Bigg, G.R. 1998. Paleo-salinity and  $\delta^{18}$ O: a critical assessment, Journal of
- 624 Geophysical Research, 103, 1307–1318

- 625 Schöne, B.R., Oschmann, W., Rössler, J., Freyre Castro, A.D., Houk, S.D., Kröncke, I, Dreyer, W.,
- Janssen, R., Rumohr, H., Dunca, E. 2003. North Atlantic Oscillation dynamics recorded in
  shells of a long-lived bivalve mollusk. Geology, 31, 1037-40.
- 628 Schöne, B.R., Fiebig, J., Pfeiffer, M., Gless, R., Hickson, J., Johnson, A.L.A., Dreyer, W.,
- 629 Oschmann, W. 2005. Climate records from a bivalved Methuselah (Arctica islandica, Mollusca;
- 630 Iceland). Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 228, 130-148.
- 631 Schmidt, G. A. 1998. Oxygen-18 variations in a global ocean model, Geophysical Research Letters,
  632 25, 1201–1204.
- 633 Schmidt, G.A. 1999. Forward modelling of carbonate proxy data from planktonic foraminifera
  634 using oxygen isotope tracers in a global ocean model, Paleoceanography, 14, 482–497.
- 635 Schmidt, G.A., Bigg, G.R., Rohling, E.J. 1999. "Global Seawater Oxygen-18 Database".
  636 http://data.giss.nasa.gov/o18data/
- 637 Smellie, J.L., McArthur, J.M., McIntosh, W.C., Esser, R. 2006a. Late Neogene interglacial events
- 638 in the James Ross Island region, northern Antarctic Peninsula, dated by Ar/Ar and Sr-isotope
  639 stratigraphy. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 242, 169-187.
- Smellie, J.L., Nelson, A.E., Williams, M. 2006b. Fire and ice: unravelling the climatic and volcanic
  history of James Ross Island, Antarctic Peninsula. Geology Today, 22, 220-226.
- 642 Smellie, J.L., Johnson, J.S., McIntosh, W.C., Esser, R., Gudmundsson, M.G., Hambrey, M.J., de
- Vries, B. Van Wyk. 2008. Six million years of glacial history recorded in the James Ross Island
  Volcanic Group, Antarctic Peninsula. Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology, 260,
  122-148.
- Smellie, J.L., Haywood, A.M., Hillenbrand, C-D., Lunt, D.L., Valdes, P.J. 2009. Nature of the
  Antarctic Peninsula Ice Sheet during the Pliocene: geological evidence and modelling results
  compared. Earth-Science Reviews, 94, 79-94.
- 649 Whitehouse, M.J., Priddle, J., Symon, C. 1996. Seasonal and annual change in seawater temperature,
- salinity, nutrient and chlorophyll a distributions around South Georgia, South Atlantic. Deep Sea

- 651 Research Part 1, 43, 425-443.
- Whitehead, J.M., Bohaty, S.M. 2003. Pliocene summer sea surface temperature reconstruction using
  silicoflagellates from Southern Ocean ODP Site 1165. Paleoceanography, 18, 1075,
  doi:1029/2002PA000829.
- Whitehead, J.M., Wotherspoon, S., Bohaty, S.M. 2005. Minimal Antarctic sea ice during the Pliocene.
  Geology, 33, 137-140.
- Witbaard, R. 1996. Growth variations in Arctica islandica L. (Mollusca): a reflection of hydrographyrelated food supply. ICES Journal of Marine Science, 53, 981-987
- Williams, M., Smellie, J., Johnson, J., Blake, D. 2006. Late Miocene Asterozoans (Echinodermata)
  from the James Ross Island Volcanic Group. Antarctic Science, 18, 117–122.
- Williams, M., Haywood, A.M., Harper, E.M., Johnson, A., Knowles, T., Leng, M.J., Lunt, D.,
  Okamura, B., Taylor, P., Zalasiewicz, J.A. 2009a. Pliocene climate and seasonality in North
  Atlantic shelf seas. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society, London, Series A, 367, 85-
- 664 108 (doi:10.1098/rsta.2008.0224)
- 665 Williams, M., Nelson, A.E., Smellie, J.L., Leng, M.J., Jarram, D.R., Johnson, A.L.A., Haywood,
- A.M., Peck, V.L., Zalasiewicz, J.A., Bennett, C.E., Schöne, B.R. 2009b. A high fidelity
  molluscan climate record for the Weddell Sea for a warm interval of the Early Pliocene.
  Workshop on Pliocene climate, Bordeaux, France, October 22<sup>nd</sup> to 25<sup>th</sup> 2009. Abstract at:
- 669 http://www.plioclimworkshop.com/
- 670

# 671 Explanation of figures and table





674 Fig. 1. Predictions of absolute sea-ice coverage (%) for maximum (top left) and minimum sea-ice months (top right) in the Southern Hemisphere for the Early Pliocene (data from Lunt et al., 675 676 2008). The model predicts sea ice coverage in the northern Weddell Sea at 57°W and 64°S as 677 0.012% cover for late summer rising to 0.908% for late winter. Also shown are the differences 678 between Early Pliocene and pre-industrial sea-ice cover as an average for the Southern Hemisphere 679 summer (December, January and February [DJF; bottom left]) and winter seasons (June, July and 680 August [JJA; bottom right]). Predictions from the Hadley Centre for Climate Research fully 681 coupled ocean-atmosphere General Circulation Model version 3 (HadCM3).



Fig. 2. Geographical location of James Ross Island on the northern Antarctic Peninsula (top right) and Cockburn Island (see main map to the left). Mollusc material for geochemical and morphological analysis mentioned here is sourced from three localities on the east side of Cockburn Island (map bottom right, localities DJ.851, DJ.852 and DJ.853 of H.A. Jonkers 1996, for which see BAS archives). *Austrochlamys* material is also widespread in the glacigenic sediments of James Ross Island, for example at northwest Forster cliffs.

691

Seasonality in Pliocene Antarctic bivalves





695 points in the direction where increments were measured. Also arrowed are major growth lines on two of the shells for comparison with the growth/isotope profiles shown in Figure 6. a, right valve, 696 697 British Antarctic Survey (BAS) DJ.851.8. b, e, right valve, DJ.851.1. c, unnumbered specimen in BAS collection. d, right valve, DJ.853.1. f, left valve, DJ.852.22. g-i, right valve, DJ.851.3. j, right 698 699 valve, DJ.851.159: bottom right part of image shows damage to the shell possibly as a response to 700 disturbance by a predator. k, right valve, DJ.852.1. All specimens were collected from Cockburn 701 Island by H.A. Jonkers and S.L. White in 1996 (see Fig. 2 for localities) except c, which was 702 collected from surface scree by M. Williams and M. Laidlaw in 2006. Scale bars are 2 cm.







**Fig. 4**. SEM images of polished thin sections of two specimens of Pliocene *Austrochlamys* from the Antarctic Peninsula (a, b). Both images show the well preserved foliated structure of the bivalve shell, but with a thin layer of sediment adhering to the outer surface that was removed prior to geochemical analysis. A specimen with an external diagenetic overgrowth cement of calcite crystals, from the same locality is shown in (c) SEM image, and (d) cathodoluminescence image.



Increment number

Oldest to youngest

g2

DJ.853.1

The diagenetic cement is brightly luminescent, while the shell foliae are weakly luminescent. Scale



g1

Oldest to youngest

e

Oldest to youngest

DJ.851.80

Increment width (µm)

show growth increments plotted for areas of bivalve shells shown in Figure 3 ('A' denotes points on 715 the shell for cross-reference). Graphs g1 and g2 show repeat measurements for one shell (Fig. 3c) 716 717 demonstrating the accuracy of measurements that can be achieved with Panopea. Vertical scale is 718 µm, horizontal scale is growth increment measured from oldest (1) to youngest. In addition to the 719 shells plotted here, over 200 increments measured for shell DJ.851.1 show a similar pattern of high-720 frequency growth variation.

721



Fig. 6. Seasonality recorded in the bivalves DJ.851.159, DJ.851.160 and DJ.853.1 from the Cockburn Island Formation. The figure plots  $\delta^{13}$ C (yellow) and  $\delta^{18}$ O (blue) as per mil variation (left 724 hand vertical scale). Also shown is temperature (red, left hand scale in °C) reconstructed using a 725  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  value of -0.2‰ and the O'Neil et al. (1969) equation [T = 16.9 - 4.38( $\delta^{18}O_{c} - \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ ) + 726  $0.10(\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw})^2$ ; thick red line is the 3-point running average of the temperature 727 728 reconstruction. The horizontal scale records growth increment number (oldest to left). For all bivalves incremental growth (3-point running average, green, see left hand scale mm variation) is 729 also plotted as is cumulative growth (black line, scale not shown) in bivalve DJ.851.159. 'A' and 730 731 'B' denote a point on the shell for cross-reference with Figure 3. Also marked are growth lines, with 732 annotation where these may relate to damage (disturbance) on shell DJ.851.159. Precise matching of growth increment measurements with increments drilled for isotopes is not possible, but in most 733

Modern northern Weddell Sea seasonality	Pliocene Modelled seasonality (depth 0- 5m)	Pliocene Modelled seasonality (depth 95- 113m)	Bivalve DJ.851.159 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰)	Bivalve DJ.851.159 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰) Craig equation	Bivalve DJ.851.159 (δ18Osw variable from 0 to –0.4‰)	Bivalve DJ.851.160 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰)	Bivalve DJ.851.160 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰) Craig equation	Bivalve DJ.851.160 (δ18Osw variable from 0 to –0.4‰)	Bivalve DJ.853.1 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰)	Bivalve DJ.853.1 (δ18Osw of –0.2‰) Craig equation	Bivalve DJ.853.1 (δ18Osw variable from 0 to –0.4‰)
-0.1 to 1.99	-1.7 to 3.08	-0.69 to -0.52	-1.1 to 2.5	-0.3 to 2.8	-0.4 to 2	-0.1 to 1.8	0.6 to 2.3	0.6 to 1.1	0.5 to 3.5	1.1 to 3.7	1.2 to 2.8
2.09	4.78	0.17	3.6	3.1	2.4	1.9	1.7	0.5	3	2.6	1.6

738

739**Table 1.** Reconstructed sea temperatures from the Cockburn Island Formation bivalves compared740with modern and modelled Early Pliocene sea temperature seasonality in the northern Weddell Sea.741Modern temperature variation is from Whitehouse et al. (1996), modelled Early Pliocene data is742from Lunt et al. (2008). Both temperature maxima and minima and total temperature range are743shown. Temperature calculations for 'Craig (1965)' use the form of this equation given in Leng and744Marshall (2004) [T=16-4.14( $\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ ) + 0.13( $\delta^{18}O_c - \delta^{18}O_{sw}$ )<sup>2</sup>] and a  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  value of -0.2‰.745

Appendix 1. Model calculated values for the  $\delta^{18}$ O of seawater are an attempt to capture longitudinal and latitudinal change as a function of climate, and are based on precipitation minus evaporation (P – E) estimates derived from the GCM. Present-day observed  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  [Bigg and Rohling, 2000; Schmidt, 1998, 1999; G. A. Schmidt et al., 1999, Global seawater oxygen-18 database, available at <u>http://data.giss.nasa.gov/o18data/</u>] is calibrated against observed P – E (ECMWF reanalysis data) for the Atlantic Ocean. The resulting formulae (see below) are used to predict  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$ .

- 754 Atlantic Calibration:
- 755
- 756  $\delta^{18}O_{sw} = 0.24 0.008 (P E) r^2 = 0.7$
- 757

758 P - E is given in units of cm yr-1.

759

Although this is a useful approach, care must be taken when examining the results since they are based solely on the model's predictions of P – E, where in reality the  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  is also dependent upon mixing because of ocean currents, runoff, etc. The resulting correlation for the Atlantic Ocean  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  to P – E is reasonable. In addition to P – E we calibrated  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  against salinity [Levitus and Boyer, 1994]. This increased the r2 value to 0.9 for the Atlantic but Haywood et al. (2007) demonstrated that this did not significantly change the diagnostic predictions of  $\delta^{18}O_{sw}$  generated using P – E for the Pliocene.

Nevertheless, it is important to recognise that the use of a salinity:  $\delta^{18}$ O or P – E:  $\delta^{18}$ O covariation from present-day observations as a diagnostic for the  $\delta^{18}$ O composition of seawater is complicated by the fact that temperature gradients are steeper today than they were during the Miocene and Pliocene (a reflection of cooler temperatures in polar regions today) which will result in different patterns of Rayleigh distillation and hence different  $\delta^{18}$ O values in the hydrological cycle [Rohling and Bigg, 1998; Rohling, 2000].

773