

1 Glaciovolcanic evidence for a polythermal Neogene East 2 Antarctic Ice Sheet

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13 ABSTRACT

14 A paradigm has existed for more than 30 years that the basal thermal regime of the
15 East Antarctic Ice Sheet in Victoria Land made a fundamental transition from wet-based to
16 cold-based either at ~14 Ma or after ~2.5 Ma. Basal thermal regime is important because it
17 determines the potential for unstable behavior in an ice sheet, with profound implications for
18 global sea levels. We have studied the environmental characteristics of volcanic centers
19 scattered along 800 km of the Ross Sea flank of the Transantarctic Mountains. The volcanoes
20 were largely erupted subglacially. They preserve evidence for the coeval paleo-ice
21 thicknesses and contain features diagnostic of both wet-based and cold-based ice conditions.
22 By dating the sequences we are able to demonstrate that the basal thermal regime varied with
23 time between ~12 Ma and present. Its spatial organization was also considerably more
24 complicated than previously inferred. It was polythermal overall and probably comprised a
25 geographically and temporally varying coarse temperature patchwork of frozen-bed and
26 thawed-bed ice, similar to the East Antarctic Ice Sheet today. Thus, an important shift is
27 required in the prevailing paradigm describing its temporal evolution.

28 INTRODUCTION

29 The Neogene glacial history of Antarctica is incompletely known and inferring
30 volume changes associated with expansions and contractions of the world's largest ice sheet
31 relies heavily on proxy records from numerical models and drillcores ([McKay et al., 2009](#);
32 [Pollard and DeConto, 2009](#); [Passchier et al., 2011](#)). Numerical models are important tools for
33 understanding and predicting ice sheet evolution but they are unconstrained until supported
34 by observations. Moreover, despite the abundance of information now available from
35 drillcores, the nature and development of the basal thermal regime of the East Antarctic Ice
36 Sheet (EAIS) is contended vigorously ([Wilson, 1995](#); [Sugden, 1996](#); [Miller and Mabin, 1998](#);
37 [Armienti and Baroni, 1999](#); [Stroeven and Kleman, 1999](#); [van der Wateren et al., 1999](#); [Lewis
38 et al., 2007](#); [Oberholzer et al., 2008](#)). Resolving that debate is fundamental for understanding
39 long-term ice sheet stability and EAIS contributions to sea level change ([Barrett, 2013](#)). The
40 Neogene period includes the Mid-Miocene Climatic Optimum (~17.0-14.5 Ma), a complex
41 stage of fluctuating $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records suggesting a varied Antarctic ice volume, and the Mid-
42 Miocene Climatic Transition (~14.5-13.0 Ma), commonly regarded as marking the onset of
43 climatic cooling and ice sheet expansion when the EAIS may have acquired the cold polar
44 (frozen-bed) glacial regime that it displays today ([Lewis et al., 2007](#)). However, it has also

45 been suggested that warmer conditions persisted after the Mid Miocene Climatic Transition
46 associated with extensive deglaciation. In that view, hyper-arid polar-desert conditions only
47 became permanently established from Late Pliocene time (Wilson, 1995). The prevailing
48 paradigm is that the change in basal thermal regime was an essentially unidirectional step-
49 change with arguments focusing on the timing of that change. The aim of this study is to
50 determine the basal thermal regime of Neogene ice in Victoria Land and its evolution using
51 information associated with glaciovolcanic sequences, in order to produce a conceptual
52 model of its thermal organization.

53 ICE SHEET BASAL THERMAL REGIME

54 Ice sheets exist in different glacial states and are classified empirically by their basal
55 thermal regime. The basal regime is a complicated function of several variables, including
56 precipitation, ice thickness, ambient temperature and geothermal heat flux, which vary
57 spatially and temporally. Cold ice (also called polar, dry-based or frozen-bed) is below the
58 melting point, frozen to its bed and moves by internal deformation; notwithstanding minor
59 erosional modification, cold ice largely protects the underlying landscape. Warm ice (also
60 known as temperate, wet-based or thawed-bed) is at the melting point everywhere except in a
61 thin surface layer and moves primarily by basal sliding; it is an efficient agent of erosion and
62 it is associated with a wide range of glacial landforms and abundant meltwater that variably
63 reworks any tills present. Polythermal ice (also called sub-polar) is below the melting point
64 except in a thin wet basal layer; polythermal ice thus also has a thawed bed and moves by
65 sliding; debris entrainment and deposition can be substantial but meltwater and fluvial
66 activity are much less well developed than for warm ice (Hambrey and Glasser, 2012).
67 Polythermal is also used as a descriptor for an ice sheet with a basal thermal regime that is a
68 patchwork of frozen-bed and thawed-bed ice (Kleman and Glasser, 2007). Warm and
69 polythermal ice masses can be hard to distinguish in the geological record and are also
70 collectively called wet-based, a convention we follow here.

71 Sedimentological studies can often distinguish between different thermal regimes of
72 paleo-ice sheets (McKay et al., 2009; Passchier et al., 2011). Sedimentary outcrop is absent in
73 Victoria Land, and other sources of information such as drillcores are few. It may also be
74 impossible to know if sediments related to grounding events represent ice streams or outlet
75 glaciers (generally wet-based) or inland ice, and distinguishing how geographically
76 representative a basal thermal regime is can be difficult and uncertain (Hambrey and Glasser,
77 2012). Moreover, unless fresh tephras are present, dating is by generally imprecise
78 biostratigraphy. Dating by magnetostratigraphy relies on matching magnetic polarity patterns,
79 does not yield absolute ages and is difficult to interpret unambiguously for shallow marine
80 sequences with multiple hiatuses. Terrestrial glacial sediments are also typically hard or
81 impossible to date.

82 Conversely, glaciovolcanic sequences are formed at geographically fixed locations
83 during eruptions beneath slow-moving inland ice (i.e. non ice-stream; Smellie et al., 2011b).
84 Eruptions also occur in a geological instant and, uniquely, because erupted lavas resurface the
85 slopes of the volcano, the coeval ice then interacts with each new lava surface according to its
86 basal thermal regime. Succeeding eruptions bury earlier surfaces and protect them from
87 further modification. The temporal evolution of the basal thermal regime can then be
88 documented by isotopically dating the eruptive events. However, eruptions are typically
89 infrequent and the record is low resolution by comparison with marine sediments. Although
90 volcano-related geothermal heat might alter the climate-related basal thermal regime, the heat
91 fluxes are largely restricted to the summit regions of volcanoes and basal ice situated on the
92 volcano flanks will retain its climate signature (Gulick, 1998). This is confirmed by the
93 preservation of multiple volcanic sequences in several large volcanoes in Antarctica formed
94 under the influence of cold-based ice (Wilch and McIntosh, 2002; Smellie et al., 2011a,b).

95 **VOLCANISM AND ERUPTIVE SETTING IN VICTORIA LAND**

96 Volcanic rocks are widespread in Victoria Land and form numerous large shield volcanoes 1-
97 2 km high scattered along 800 km of the Ross Sea margin of the EAIS between Cape Adare
98 and Mt Discovery (Fig. 1). Three major volcanic areas were investigated: the Hallett
99 Volcanic Province (10-3.8 Ma: [Armienti and Baroni, 1999](#); [Smellie et al., 2011b](#)); the
100 Melbourne Volcanic Province (principally Cape Washington in the Mt Melbourne Volcanic
101 Field; 2.88-1.73 Ma: [Wörner and Viereck, 1989](#); [Gemelli, 2009](#)); and the Erebus Volcanic
102 Province at Minna Hook (11.8-8.0 Ma: [Fargo, 2009](#)). Although a non-glacial subaerial
103 environment may have prevailed at times, it was atypical for the period and an
104 overwhelmingly glacial setting during eruptions has been suggested for all three areas based
105 on the presence of glacial sediments, striated surfaces and, most of all, environmentally
106 diagnostic volcanic features ([Wörner and Viereck, 1989](#); [Fargo, 2009](#); [Gemelli, 2009](#); [Smellie
107 et al., 2011a,b](#)). Inferred paleo-ice thicknesses were typically < 300 m in all areas. In each
108 center, features in the volcanic sequences known as passage zones (an indication of paleo-ice
109 surface or ponded water level; see below) dip away radially from their known or inferred
110 source vents and the sedimentary interbeds generally lack nonvolcanic basement-derived
111 erratics ([Smellie et al., 2011b](#)). Thus, the associated coeval ice formed a series of prominent
112 ice domes on the east (Ross Sea) flank of the Transantarctic Mountains and it simply draped
113 rather than drowned the volcanoes ([Smellie et al., 2011a,b](#)). We regard the measured
114 thicknesses as representative of the glacial cover along the eastern margin of the EAIS. Since
115 the local climate will have been dominated by the presence of the high Transantarctic
116 Mountains chain, the environmental information contained in the glaciovolcanic sequences
117 will reflect that influence. The ice domes are unlikely to have been part of an expanded thick
118 West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) since eruptions through an ice sheet thick enough to
119 override the topography would have created volcanic sequences with sub-horizontal passage
120 zone surfaces rather than the dipping passage zones observed. Moreover, although an
121 expanded WAIS would have compressed paleo-ice flow lines of EAIS outlet glaciers closer
122 to the Transantarctic Mountains front, the volcanoes would have deflected the north-flowing
123 ice around their eastern margins and thus prevent any significant direct contact with the
124 WAIS ([Talarico and Sandroni, 2010](#)). Sequences at Minna Hook, Coulman Island and Cape
125 Adare also contain rare prominent laterally extensive erosional unconformities associated
126 with glacial sediments containing a variable proportion of nonvolcanic basement clasts. This
127 suggests that the volcanoes were occasionally overridden by much thicker regional ice. An
128 alternative origin for the volcanic sequences, as products of eruptions into the sea, is
129 excluded. There are no interbedded marine sediments, and passage zones in the volcanic
130 strata dipping radially away from their source vents is a feature diagnostic of glaciovolcanic
131 eruptions; effusion into the sea would create horizontal passage zones ([Smellie et al., 2011b,
132 fig. 4](#)).

133 The volcanic outcrops are dominated by 'a'ā lava-fed deltas (the commonest sequence
134 type), and sheet-like sequences ([Smellie et al., 2011a, 2013](#)). 'A'ā lava-fed deltas are wedge-
135 like prisms of volcanic rocks that form when subaerial 'a'ā lava advances into pooled water
136 ([Smellie et al., 2013](#)). They are divided structurally into subaerial 'a'ā lava topsets overlying
137 chaotic or crudely stratified water-lain hyaloclastite breccia foresets; the lavas and
138 hyaloclastite are separated by a broadly planar surface called a passage zone that is a proxy
139 for the water level or ice surface coeval with eruption and whose characteristics are
140 diagnostic of eruptive setting ([Smellie, 2006](#)). Sheet-like sequences comprise relatively thick
141 (tens of meters) mafic or felsic lava and hyaloclastite overlying thinner sedimentary beds,
142 typically diamictite, conglomerate and/or sandstone ([Smellie, 2008](#)). The modes of formation
143 of these and other glaciovolcanic sequences and how they can be used to deduce parameters
144 of associated ice, such as basal thermal regime and ice thickness, are well known and
145 numerous examples have been published ([Smellie and Skilling, 1994](#); [Smellie, 2006, 2008](#);

146 Wilch and McIntosh, 2007; Smellie et al., 2009, 2011a,b, 2013; Edwards et al., 2011). For
147 example, syn-eruptive variations in passage zone elevation together with evidence from the
148 morphology of underlying bedrock surfaces and presence or absence of glacial and fluvial
149 sediments can be used to deduce the thermal regime, whereas the thickness of subaqueous
150 volcanic lithofacies produced during a single eruption is a good proxy for ice thickness.

151 GLACIOVOLCANIC SEQUENCES AND EVIDENCE FOR BASAL THERMAL 152 REGIME

153 Glacial features observed in Victoria Land volcanic sequences include sharp eroded surfaces
154 that are polished, striated or molded (fig. 2 in Data repository). The surfaces are overlain
155 locally by massive diamictite with clasts that may be abraded, faceted and/or striated. Some
156 deposits show trails of angular clasts and pervasive low-angle jointing indicative of shearing
157 characteristic of basal tills. Stratified volcanoclastic beds up to a few meters thick commonly
158 overlie the diamictites and are formed of juvenile vitroclastic detritus deposited from flowing
159 water (i.e. they are fluvial). The associated ice was thus not frozen to its bed when the
160 sediments were emplaced. These features are ubiquitous associated with 'a'ā lava-fed deltas
161 at Minna Hook and much less common sheet-like sequences in northern Victoria Land. The
162 ice was erosive and the presence of fluvial beds indicates that meltwater flowed at the ice:bed
163 interface as a sheet or in tunnels. A wet-based thermal regime is indicated. The fluvial
164 deposits are mainly monomict, composed of juvenile glassy clasts. They are thus syn-
165 eruptive. Conversely, polymict fluvial deposits formed by erosion of lithified pre-existing
166 sequences are rare suggesting that meltwater was generated mainly during the eruptive
167 episodes and it was otherwise relatively scarce. Therefore, the basal thermal regime may have
168 been polythermal, rather than warm. Such an interpretation for the Minna Hook volcanics, at
169 least, is supported by interpretations of marine sediments of the same age recovered in
170 drillcore nearby in McMurdo Sound (McKay et al., 2009).

171 The widespread lava-fed delta sequences in the Hallett Volcanic Province and at Cape
172 Washington differ from those at Minna Hook. For example, the surfaces between the
173 individual Hallett and Melbourne deltas are essentially uneroded; they also lack fluvial
174 sediments and diamict; and they are rough on a scale of a few decimeters, characterized by
175 essentially unmodified 'a'ā lava rubble (clinkers; fig. 2b in Data repository). However, with
176 their passage zones dipping radially away from their source vents, they were also
177 demonstrably glacially emplaced (Smellie et al., 2011a). The absence of diamicts (tills),
178 fluvial sediments and glacially eroded surfaces in a glacial setting suggests mean annual
179 temperatures $< 0^{\circ}\text{C}$ and an essentially protective ice cover frozen to its bed, i.e. a cold-based
180 thermal regime (Smellie et al., 2011b). An alternative hypothesis, that the volcanic strata are
181 the products of numerous eruptions over a short space of time in which erosion by ice was
182 insufficient to leave an imprint, is unlikely as a general explanation. The erosion rates of wet-
183 based glaciers are typically millimeters per year (Hallet et al., 1996) and will rapidly leave a
184 record. $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ dating also suggests that ample time was available between eruptions
185 (Fargo, 2009; Gemelli, 2009; Smellie et al., 2011a,b).

186 DISCUSSION

187 The Victoria Land sequences show evidence for basal regime from multiple
188 successive eruptions. Moreover, the sequences reflect inland ice (i.e. non-ice-stream) basal
189 conditions. Thus, any ambiguity caused by including data for ice streams or outlet glaciers is
190 removed. Moreover, the sequences are of similar thickness and extend over similar vertical
191 intervals (mostly ~500-600 m, each composed of products of several eruptions) thus
192 excluding any topographic influence on basal regime variability (Stroeven and Kleman,
193 1999). The observed differences in thermal regime are therefore likely to be real. Our results
194 are summarized in Figure 2 (see also tables 1 and 2 in Data repository). They are consistent
195 with those of marine sedimentary investigations of drillcores for the same time period that

196 show a much coarser pattern of alternating thermal regimes within a broadly progressive
197 change from wet-based to cold-based ice in younger strata (McKay et al., 2009; Passchier et
198 al., 2011; Fig. 2). Taken together with those studies, we are now able to document the
199 recurrence of wet-based ice within the Miocene on multiple occasions and at multiple
200 localities scattered within a zone 800 km in length. The new glaciovolcanic data suggest that
201 between ~12 and 9 Ma, wet-based ice prevailed at Minna Hook whereas cold-based ice
202 conditions occurred during the same period (at ~10 Ma) in the Hallett Volcanic Province.
203 After ~8 Ma, periods of wet-based ice were present but uncommon within a generally cold-
204 based regime in the Hallett Volcanic Province and Melbourne Volcanic Field. The results
205 clearly conflict with the prevailing paradigm of a single step-wise change from wet-based to
206 cold-based ice. Instead we suggest that, rather than the entire ice sheet switching between
207 thermal regimes through time, the bed of the Neogene EAIS at any time was probably a
208 patchwork or mosaic of variably deforming ice with different basal regimes, i.e. a
209 polythermal ice sheet. Whilst our interpretation applies to Victoria Land, it is likely that it can
210 also be extended to the rest of the EAIS, similar to how thermal regime in the present EAIS is
211 now envisaged (Pattyn, 2010; Kleman and Glasser, 2012). Stroeven and Kleman (1999) also
212 argued for a polythermal Neogene EAIS in Victoria Land based on theoretical grounds and
213 observations in Scandinavia applied to a high-relief terrain, but their model relies on the
214 presence of a very thick, topography-drowning EAIS that is unlike the much thinner glacial
215 cover that our evidence indicates existed for much of the period (Smellie et al., 2011b).

216 Our study also potentially provides a powerful first-order explanation for the
217 conflicting and currently irreconcilable results of published surface exposure and landscape
218 evolution studies in Victoria Land, which suggested a widely varying timing for the supposed
219 step-change transition to a cold-based ice sheet (i.e. at ~14 Ma: Lewis et al., 2007; between
220 8.2 and 7.5 Ma: Armienti and Baroni, 1999; prior to 3.5 Ma: Oberholzer et al., 2008; or after
221 ~2.5 Ma: van der Wateren et al., 1999). Under our new hypothesis, the apparent occurrence
222 of wet-based conditions at different times in different places may simply reflect the presence
223 of geographically limited and possibly transient patches of wet-based ice within an
224 overarching polythermal (temperature mosaic) basal thermal regime. The geographical mix
225 of thermal regimes suggested by the sedimentary and, particularly, glaciovolcanic studies will
226 make the dynamics of the Neogene (and present-day) EAIS difficult to model successfully.
227 However, our study shows that glaciovolcanic records in Antarctica have the potential to
228 enhance significantly our understanding of Neogene EAIS development.

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232 Science Foundation (USA). Correspondence should be addressed to JLS (jls55@le.ac.uk).

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324 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

325 Figure 1. Locations of glaciovolcanic centers studied in Antarctica. MZS – Mario Zuchelli
326 Station (Italy); MCM – McMurdo Station (USA).

327 Figure 2. Summary diagram illustrating variations in basal thermal regime over time in
328 Victoria Land based on information derived from glaciovolcanic and sedimentary sequences.
329 Error ranges for most data points are within the size of the depicted symbol or are shown as
330 vertical lines. Sources for sedimentary sequences: CRP1-3 ([Barrett, 2007](#)); AND-1B ([McKay
331 et al., 2009](#)); AND-2A ([Passchier et al., 2011](#)).

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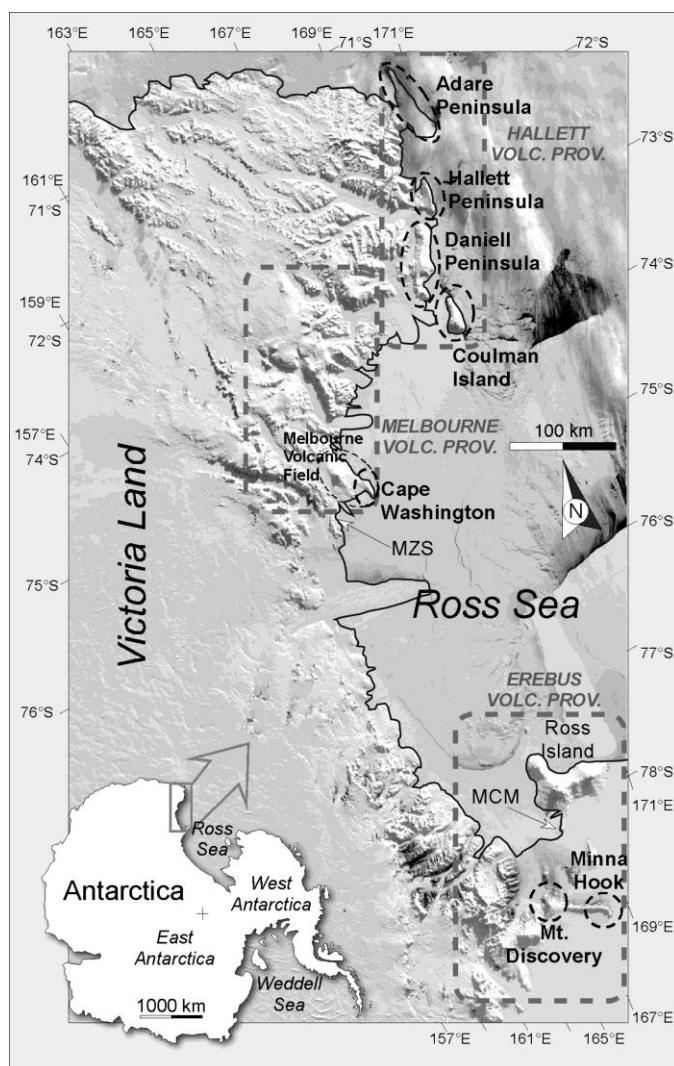


Figure 1

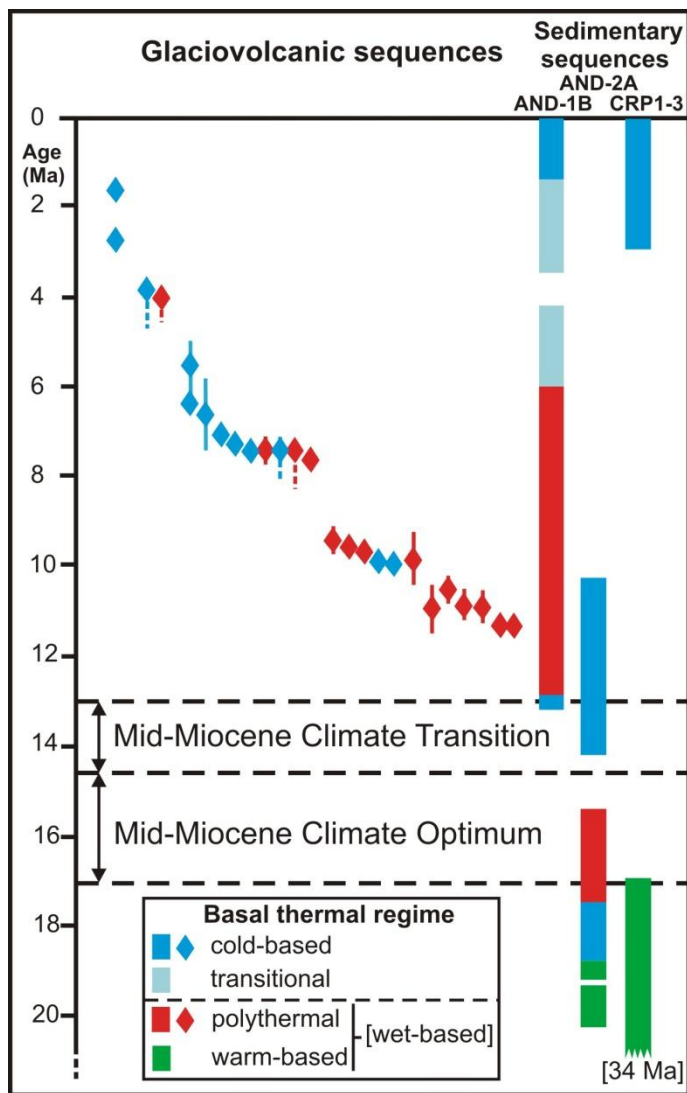


Figure 2

Supplementary Information for:

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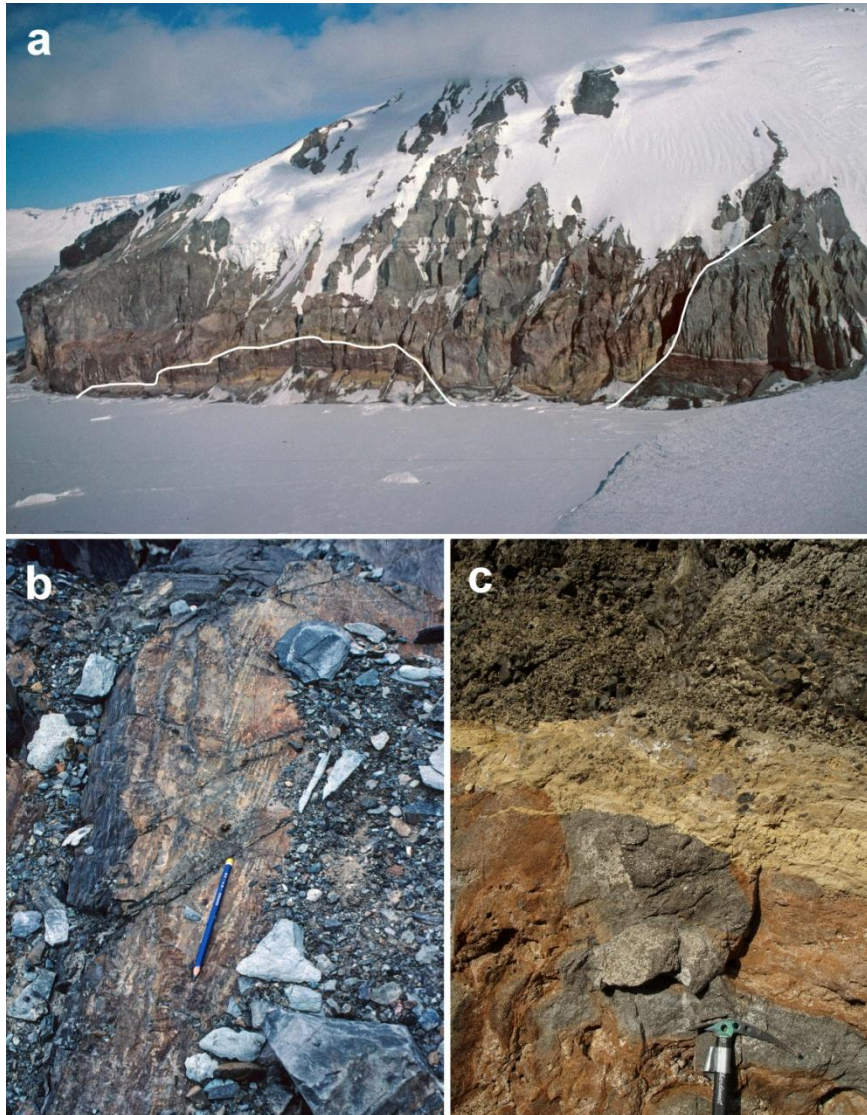


Figure 1. Glaciovolcanic sequences and related features indicative of the basal thermal regime of the EAIS in Victoria Land. 1. Wet-based ice features: (a) prominent erosional unconformity in felsic sheet-like sequences at northern Mandible Cirque, Daniell Peninsula; sequence is ~600 m thick; (b) striated metamorphic basement surface underlying volcanoclastic rocks, west of Hallett Peninsula; striations parallel to pencil; (c) cross section through sharp erosional surface truncating mafic lava pillow (grey) overlain by yellow fluvial sandstones and grey hyaloclastite breccia at Minna Hook.

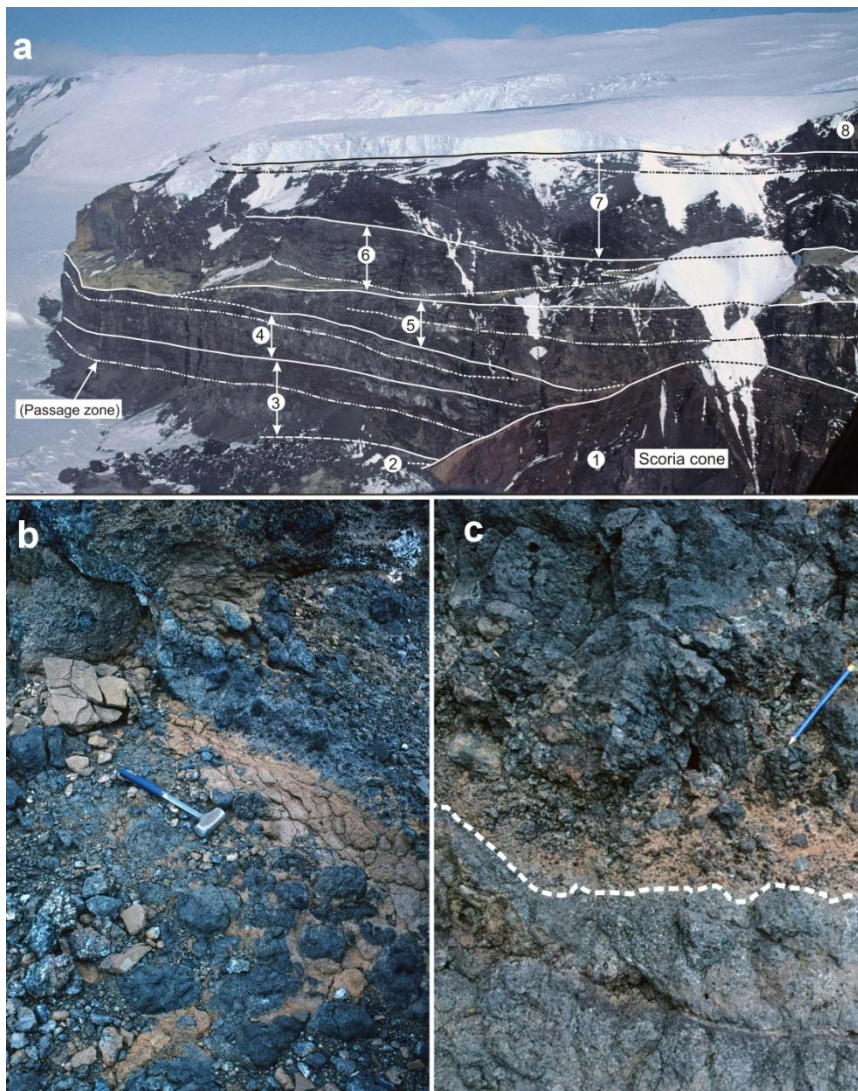


Figure 2. Glaciovolcanic sequences and related features indicative of the basal thermal regime of the EAIS in Victoria Land. Cold-based ice features: (a) ~600 m section of multiple lava-fed deltas (numbered 2-8) lacking erosion and interbedded glacial sediments overlying an erosionally unmodified basal scoria cone; Cape Phillips, Daniell Peninsula; (b)-(c) plan and cross sectional views of a rough-textured surface between two lava-fed deltas, showing a general lack of glacial erosion and (in b) presence of essentially unmodified lava clinkers; northern Daniell Peninsula.

Table 1. Inferred basal thermal regimes and age of ice associated with glaciovolcanic sequences in Victoria Land

Locality	Age (Ma)*	Interpreted thermal regime	Comments
Cape Washington	2.88±0.008 – 1.73±0.04	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas (2 dated)
Cape Adare, Adare Peninsula (eruptions)	c. 3.8	Cold-based	Sequence examined at top only, by helicopter elsewhere; age by K-Ar only
Cape Adare, Adare Peninsula (unconformity within sequence)	>3.8	Wet-based	Prominent erosional glacial unconformity within volcanic sequence; age uncertain (by K-Ar only); probably caused by expanded much thicker ice sheet
←—————		Substantial time gap	—————→
West of Cape Daniell, Daniell Peninsula	6.34±0.05 – 5.6±0.5	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; top & base deltas dated; youngest dated by K-Ar
North Cotter Cliffs, E Hallett Peninsula	6.60±0.80	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; only one delta dated; by K-Ar
North of Salmon Cliff, W Hallett Peninsula	7.05±0.04	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; only one delta dated
Roberts Cliff, W Hallett Peninsula	7.26±0.05	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; only one delta dated
Redcastle Ridge, W Hallett Peninsula	7.41±0.04	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; only one delta dated
Northern Coulman Island (unconformity within sequence)	c. 7.4	Wet-based	Age by K-Ar; probably caused by expanded much thicker ice sheet
Coulman Island (eruptions)	7.2±1.0 – 7.6±0.8	Cold-based	Multiple lava-fed deltas; ages by K-Ar
West Edisto Inlet (Herschel Tuffaceous Moraine), W of Hallett Peninsula	c. 7.4	Wet-based	Lacustrine sequence infilled by ash turbidites situated on the flank of a valley-filling glacier; age similar to or older than nearby Hallett Peninsula sequences
Tucker Glacier	7.61±0.05	Wet-based	Thermal regime possibly reflects that of expanded adjacent outlet glacier
←—————		Substantial time gap	—————→
Minna Hook (7)	9.40±0.30	Wet-based	
Minna Hook (6)	9.53±0.07	Wet-based	Felsic dome with hyaloclastite breccia base and basal diamict (till) on glacially eroded surface
Mandible Cirque, Daniell Peninsula	9.68±0.05	Wet-based	Felsic dome with hyaloclastite breccia base and basal diamict (till) on glacially eroded surface
Cape Jones, Daniell Peninsula	9.87±0.09	Cold-based	Minor erosion but no diamict or fluvial sediments; volcano slopes pristine above c. 400-600 m a.s.l.
Cape Phillips, Daniell Peninsula	9.95±0.07	Cold-based	Minor erosion but no diamict or fluvial sediments
Minna Hook (unconformity within sequence)	c. 10.38 – 9.40	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units; probably caused by expanded much thicker ice sheet
Minna Hook (5)**	c. 11.47 – 10.39	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units
Minna Hook (4)**	10.50±0.30	Wet-based	
Minna Hook (3)**	c. 11.2 – 10.5	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units
Minna Hook (unconformity within sequence)	c. 11.2 – 10.6	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units
Minna Hook (2)**	c. 11.40 – 11.20	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units

Minna Hook (1)	c. 11.40 – 11.21	Wet-based	Age bracketed by dated units
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* All ages by ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar except where otherwise indicated in comments; from Fargo (2009), Gemelli (2009) and Smellie et al. (2011); see Table 2 for analytical details of ages.

** Despite similar or overlapping ages, the dated informally-numbered units at Minna Hook included in this table relate to different lava-fed deltas.

Table 2. Summary details of ^{40}Ar - ^{39}Ar ages for volcanic sequences in Victoria Land used in this study

Sample	Locality	Technique	Material	^{39}Ar % concordant segment (plateau)	n ^a	Error-weighted mean age (Ma) ^b	$\pm 2\sigma$ (internal error)	MSWD ^c	Total gas age (Ma)	$\pm 2\sigma$ (internal error)	Ref
11-01-06 JS5	Cape Washington (2)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	61.6	4	1.729	0.037	1.19	1.852	0.080	Gemelli 2009
11-01-06 JS3	Cape Washington (1)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	60.8	3	2.885	0.080	1.63	2.958	0.037	Gemelli 2009
2-01-06 JS7	Bluff 7 km WNW of Cape Daniell, Daniell Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	53.9	4	6.338	0.050	1.8	6.445	0.045	Smellie et al 2011
1-01-06 JS5	First bluff N of Salmon Cliff, Hallett Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	74.9	5	7.049	0.040	0.22	7.070	0.043	Smellie et al 2011
29-12-05 JS10	Roberts Cliff, Hallett Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	72.3	5	7.257	0.050	1.5	7.322	0.053	Smellie et al 2011
4-01-06 JS1	Redcastle Ridge, Hallett Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	61.0	4	7.407	0.043	0.36	7.441	0.047	Smellie et al 2011
4-01-06 JS11	S flank of Tucker Glacier, 4.5 km NW of Crater Cirque	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	57.3	4	7.605	0.049	0.20	7.322	0.062	Smellie et al 2011
19-12-05 JS2	Mandible Cirque, Daniell Peninsula	Total fusion	Alkali feldspar	-	8	9.683	0.051	0.50	9.669	0.051	Smellie et al 2011
21-12-05 JS8	Cape Jones, Daniell Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	54.4	4	9.866	0.088	1.6	10.144	0.092	Smellie et al 2011
4-01-06 JS6	Cape Phillips, Daniell Peninsula	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	-	-	No plateau	-	-	9.950	0.066	Smellie et al 2011
MB06-587	Minna Hook (7)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	90.76	8	9.4	0.3	0.64	9.0	0.4	Fargo 2009
MB06-504	Minna Hook (6)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	100	10	9.53	0.07	1.68	9.51	0.07	Fargo 2009
MB06-765	Minna Hook (4)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	100	10	10.5	0.3	1.23	11.0	0.7	Fargo 2009
MB06-509	Minna Hook (bracketing age)	Lazer step heating	Kaersutite	100	9	10.39	0.09	0.85	10.36	0.09	Fargo 2009

MB06-761	Minna Hook (bracketing age)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	78.88	6	11.2	0.1	5.17	11.5	0.2	Fargo 2009
MB06-763	Minna Hook (bracketing age)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	63.72	5	11.42	0.08	1.86	11.8	0.4	Fargo 2009
MB06-546	Minna Hook (bracketing age)	Lazer step heating	Groundmass	81.8	6	11.47	0.08	4.14	11.6	0.09	Fargo 2009

^a – number of steps or analyses used in the error-weighted mean calculation.

^b – preferred ages indicated in bold typeface.

^c – mean squares of weighted deviates.

Notes:

1. Ages of units not dated directly (Minna Hook only) were bracketed by dating units higher and lower in the succession.
2. All ages are relative to Fish Canyon sanidine at 28.02 Ma (Renne et al., 1998) and decay constants are after Steiger and Jaeger (1977).

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