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Geology of the Wilkes land sub-basin and stability of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet: Insights from rock magnetism at IODP Site U1361

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1 Geology of the Wilkes Land Sub-basin and Stability of  
2 the East Antarctic Ice Sheet: Insights from rock  
3 magnetism at IODP Site U1361

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19 **Abstract**

20 IODP Expedition 318 drilled Site U1361 on the continental rise offshore of  
21 Adélie Land and the Wilkes sub-glacial basin. The objective was to recon-  
22 struct the stability of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet (EAIS) during Neogene  
23 warm periods, such as the late Miocene and the early Pliocene. The sedimen-  
24 tary record tells a complex story of compaction, and erosion (thus hiatuses).  
25 Teasing out the paleoenvironmental implications is essential for understand-  
26 ing the evolution of the EAIS. Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility (AMS)  
27 is sensitive to differential compaction and other rock magnetic parameters  
28 like isothermal remanence and anhysteretic remanence are very sensitive to

29 changes in the terrestrial source region. In general, highly anisotropic layers  
30 correspond with laminated clay-rich units, while more isotropic layers are  
31 bioturbated and have less clay. Layers enriched in diatoms are associated  
32 with the latter, which also have higher Ba/Al ratios consistent with higher  
33 productivity. Higher anisotropy layers have lower porosity and moisture con-  
34 tents and have fine grained magnetic mineralogy dominated by maghemite,  
35 the more oxidized form of iron oxide, while the lower anisotropy layers have  
36 magnetic mineralogies dominated by magnetite. The different magnetic min-  
37 eralogies support the suggestion based on isotopic signatures by Cook et al.  
38 (2013) of different source regions during low productivity (cooler) and high  
39 productivity (warmer) times. These two facies were tied to the coastal out-  
40 crops of the Lower Paleozoic granitic terranes and the Ferrar Large Igneous  
41 Province in the more inland Wilkes Subglacial Basin respectively. Here we  
42 present evidence for a third geological unit, one eroded at the boundaries be-  
43 tween the high and low clay zone with a “hard” (mostly hematite) dominated  
44 magnetic mineralogy. This unit likely outcrops in the Wilkes sub-glacial basin  
45 and could be hydrothermally altered Beacon sandstone similar to that de-  
46 tected by Craw and Findlay (1984) in Taylor Valley or the equivalent to  
47 the Elatina Formation in the Adelaide Geosyncline in Southern Australia  
48 (Schmidt and Williams, 2013). Correlation of the “hard” events with global  
49 oxygen isotope stacks of Zachos et al. (2001) and Lisiecki and Raymo (2005)  
50 suggest that the source region was eroded during times with higher global  
51 ice volume.

52 *Keywords:* East Antarctic Ice Sheet Stability, rock magnetism, Pliocene  
53 paleoclimate, Integrated Ocean Drilling Program, Joides Resolution,

55 **1. Introduction**

56 As atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels exceed the 400 ppm mark, our eyes naturally  
57 turn to the last time they were that high, the Pliocene, when they were esti-  
58 mated to be between 365 and 415 ppm (Pagani et al., 2010). Implications for  
59 temperature and sea level rise can perhaps be gleaned by such comparisons.  
60 Global sea level is controlled by both temperature and the amount of ice  
61 stored on continents. As global climate changes, understanding the response  
62 of global ice volume to rising temperatures is urgently needed. For exam-  
63 ple, melting of the Greenland Ice sheet would result in a 7 m rise, and full  
64 deglaciation of the Western Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) and East Antarc-  
65 tic Ice Sheet (EAIS) would contribute another ~5 m and 52 m respectively  
66 (Lythe et al., 2001) (see also Fretwell et al. (2013)). Whereas it appears likely  
67 that the Greenland Ice Sheet is quite vulnerable to warming climate (Gre-  
68 gory et al., 2004), at least some studies (Huybrechts and de Wolde, 1999)  
69 predict that the EAIS will grow owing to increased precipitation (see also  
70 Alley et al. (2005)). Worryingly, recent reports indicate that while parts of  
71 the EAIS are growing, other parts are decreasing (Fig. 1 and Vaughan et al.  
72 (2013)). The past response of the EAIS in times with comparable tectonic  
73 configurations and atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> levels to the present day, i.e. in the  
74 Pliocene, therefore are needed to inform current discussions of rising sea-  
75 levels. While Miller et al. (2012) summarized evidence for global sea-level  
76 that was  $22 \pm 10$  m higher than present during the Pliocene, concluding that  
77 it was “very likely that several meters of eustatic rise can be attributed to



78 ice loss from the marine margins of East Antarctica.”, the large error bars  
79 leave room for considerable doubt.

80 An attractive target for investigating EAIS stability is the eastern sector  
81 of the Wilkes Land margin, located at the seaward termination of the largest  
82 East Antarctic subglacial basin, the Wilkes subglacial basin on Wilkes Land,  
83 Antarctica (Fig. 1). Such an investigation was one of the rationales for the  
84 drilling of Site U1361 (64.2457°S, 143.5320°E) during Expedition 318 of the  
85 International Ocean Drilling Program (Escutia et al., 2011). In an initial  
86 study, Cook et al. (2013) reported strontium and neodymium isotopic ratios  
87 from detrital material indicating erosion of two distinctly different source  
88 bodies, now mostly under the ice sheet. They interpreted the data as evidence  
89 for retreat of the ice sheet margin several hundreds of kilometers inland  
90 during the warmer intervals of the Pliocene. Here we report complimentary  
91 rock magnetic data which provide additional evidence for their conclusions  
92 and point to erosion of a third geological unit accessed during glacial advance  
93 and retreat.

## 94 **2. Material and Methods**

95 Site U1361 was drilled into a submarine levee off the coast of Adélie  
96 Land, just to the west of the Wilkes subglacial basin. Hole U1361A was  
97 cored using the advanced piston coring system to refusal at 151.5 mbsf be-  
98 low which an extended core barrel was used to a depth of 388 mbsf. Tauxe  
99 et al. (2012) compiled magneto-, bio-, and lithostratigraphic information for  
100 the Expedition 318 cores documenting a sedimentary record from the Mid-  
101 dle Miocene to the late Pleistocene with few hiatuses and excellent mag-

102 netostratigraphic control. The complete data set of previously published  
103 paleomagnetic and rock magnetic data is available in the MagIC database  
104 at: <http://earthref.org/doi/10.1029/2012PA002308>

105 The interval studied here is 40-160 mbsf and spans  $\sim 2.2$  Ma to 6.4 Ma  
106 (Fig. 2). Two major lithofacies are represented: laminated clay-rich units  
107 and bioturbated units with less clay and more abundant diatoms.

108 Paleomagnetic samples were taken every core section ( $\sim 1.5$  m inter-  
109 vals) for a total of 80 discrete samples. Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility  
110 (AMS) including bulk susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) was measured on all discrete samples  
111 on the Kappabridge KLY4S magnetic susceptibility instrument either on the  
112 ship or in the Scripps Paleomagnetic Laboratory. These data, represented as  
113 maximum, intermediate and minimum eigenvalues ( $\tau_1, \tau_2, \tau_3$ ) were reported  
114 by Tauxe et al. (2012). Shipboard measurements of moisture content, poros-  
115 ity, and natural gamma ray (NGR) were reported by Escutia et al. (2011).  
116 As part of the post-cruise geochemical investigations, Cook et al. (2013)  
117 measured x-ray fluorescence (XRF), diatom valve concentrations (DVC) and  
118 strontium and neodymium isotopes. The XRF data from Cook et al. (2013)  
119 are shown as black lines while those reported here are in blue. Here we  
120 use the barium/aluminum (Ba/Al) ratio and shipboard NGR (Escutia et al.,  
121 2011) as a proxies for primary productivity (Dymond et al., 1992) and the  
122 clay fraction (Dunlea et al., 2013) respectively in the cores.

123 For the present study, we measured anhysteretic remanence (ARM) ac-  
124 quired in an alternating field of 180 mT in the presence of a 50  $\mu$ T DC bias  
125 field using an SI-4 alternating field demagnetizer and measured using the 2-G  
126 Enterprises magnetometer in the Scripps Paleomagnetic Laboratory. Follow-

127 ing the ARM step, IRMs were imparted to the discrete samples using an  
128 ASC impulse demagnetizer in fields increasing up to  $\sim 1.2$  T. We refer here  
129 to the ratio of the IRM at 1 T and the 0.5 T IRM steps as the  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  ratio.  
130 Following IRM acquisition experiments, small chips were taken from repre-  
131 sentative cubes and glued into clean glass vials with KaSil cement. These  
132 were exposed again to a field of  $\sim 1$  T along the (new) X direction. A second  
133 IRM was imparted in a 0.5 T field along the Y axis and a third IRM in a  
134 0.1 T field along the Z axis. The specimens were then thermally demagne-  
135 tized in a step-wise fashion to determine the blocking temperatures of the  
136 different coercivity fractions in the specimens in an experiment known as the  
137 ‘3D-IRM demagnetization experiment’ of Lowrie (1990). All rock and pa-  
138 leomagnetic data analyzed for the present study are available for download  
139 from the MagIC data base at:

140 <http://earthref.org/doi/10.1029/2012PA002308>

141 Geochemical and physical property data used in the interpretations here are  
142 available for download from the ERDA along with the Python scripts used  
143 to generate the figures.

### 144 **3. Results**

#### 145 *3.1. Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility*

146 We re-plot the eigenvalues of the AMS tensors for the interval 40-160  
147 mbsf from Hole U1361A as presented by Tauxe et al. (2012) in Fig. 2a. One  
148 measure of the degree of anisotropy is the ratio of  $\tau_1/\tau_3$ , usually termed  $P$   
149 (Chapter 13 in Tauxe et al. (2010)), is shown in Fig. 2b. Stratigraphic in-  
150 tervals with high values of  $P$  (here taken as  $> 1.03$ ) are shaded in grey. We

151 also plot the (uncalibrated) aluminum and barium data from the XRF mea-  
152 surements of Cook et al. (2013) in Figs. 2c and d (black lines) and report  
153 new data for the interval below 104 mbsf here (shown in blue). These data  
154 suggest that the zones of high anisotropy correspond with zones of high alu-  
155 minum which in turn is directly related to the clay content. This contention  
156 is supported by the variations in natural gamma radiation (NGR), shown in  
157 Fig. 2e, whereby zones of relatively high NGR ( $>\sim 34$ ) with few exceptions  
158 correspond to high  $P$  and also high aluminum (clay). We assume in the  
159 following that the high  $P$  and high NGR intervals ( $>\sim 34$ ) can be used as  
160 proxies for clay-rich zones in this study.

161 Schwehr et al. (2006) investigated the role of porosity and water con-  
162 tent (related to compaction) in controlling the anisotropy fabric and found  
163 a strong correlation. They showed that changes in anisotropy degree can  
164 result from compaction disequilibria resulting from changes in lithology, for  
165 example from alternating between clay-rich and clay-poor layers, or from hia-  
166 tuses. Here, we plot moisture content and porosity in Fig. 2f. The grey (high  
167 anisotropy) zones do appear to be associated with zones of low moisture and  
168 porosity, further supporting the connection between anisotropy, clay content  
169 and laminated versus bioturbated layers.

170 The ratio of barium to aluminum is a proxy for primary productivity (see  
171 also Fig. 2) is shown in Fig. 3b. Zones of high Ba/Al ratios are closely as-  
172 sociated with the low anisotropy zones (white). Using Ba/Al as a proxy for  
173 productivity, we infer that the clay rich intervals are associated with lower  
174 productivity. To further explore this possibility, we plot diatom valve counts  
175 of Cook et al. (2013) in Fig. 3c. We see that the two zones of high diatom

176 valve counts are also associated with high Ba/Al and low AMS anisotropy.  
177 The expanded section from 88 to 104 mbsf in Fig. 3e shows shipboard high  
178 resolution core photos with light and dark bands associated with the low and  
179 high anisotropy values respectively. Note that the contrast on the photos was  
180 increased to highlight the patterns. As there are only two zones with signifi-  
181 cant diatom valve counts, the Ba/Al where measured is a superior lithological  
182 tool for identifying zones of high productivity. While Ba/Al was not mea-  
183 sured for the entire core,  $P$  and NGR were, hence these represents important  
184 proxies for primary productivity in this interval of Hole U1361A. We note  
185 here that because the Ba/Al ratio plot is quite similar to the aluminum plot  
186 shown in Fig. 2, that it is possible that the ratio is dominated by variabil-  
187 ity in aluminum rather than barium and merely reflects the clay content as  
188 opposed to productivity.

### 189 3.2. Isothermal remanence

190 Representative examples of the behavior of the U1361A sediments during  
191 the IRM acquisition and 3D-IRM demagnetization experiments are shown in  
192 Fig. 4. Figs. 4a and b show the behavior of a specimen whose IRM saturated  
193 by about 0.3 T impulse ( $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  of  $\sim 1$ ); it is also virtually completely de-  
194 magnetized by between 575 and 600°C (Fig. 4b) consistent with a magnetite  
195 remanence. All such ‘Type I’ specimens ( $N = 21$ ) belong to the “clay-poor”,  
196 bioturbated, low anisotropy ( $P < 1.03$ ) and high productivity, lithofacies  
197 (e.g., Fig. 5a). Specimens like the one shown in Figs. 4c and d also saturate  
198 in low impulse fields but display an change in slope in the medium and low  
199 coercivity fraction ( $Y$  and  $Z$  axes) between 300 and 425°C. Frequently, these  
200 did not completely demagnetize until about 625°C (Fig. 4d), suggestive of

201 maghemite. All of these ‘Type II’ specimens ( $N = 20$ ) had  $P$  values greater  
202 than 1.03 and belong to the “clay-rich” facies associated with the laminated,  
203 low productivity intervals (e.g., Fig. 5b). The specimen shown in Figs. 4d  
204 and e does not saturate even in an impulse field of over 1 T ( $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T} = 1.11$ )  
205 and has 57% of the (total) remanence remaining after demagnetization to  
206 600°C. This ‘Type III’ behavior is characteristic of hematite. Eleven of the  
207 13 specimens displaying this behavior were found at the boundaries between  
208 the high and low  $P$  zones (e.g., Fig. 5c). The two exceptions were found  
209 bordering zones with high NGR values. One of these is also adjacent to  
210 a sampling gap and hiatus inferred from the magnetostratigraphic pattern.  
211 The fourth type of behavior is that shown in Figs. 4g and h whereby the IRM  
212 acquisition curve is quite ‘hard’ with  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  values of  $\sim 1.07$ , but the speci-  
213 mens are virtually completely demagnetized by between 575 and 600°C. This  
214 ‘Type IV’ behavior is characteristic of multi-axial single domain magnetite  
215 (Tauxe et al., 2002). All of these specimens ( $N = 3$ ) were also found at the  
216 boundaries between the high and low  $P$  zones (e.g., Fig. 5d). The average  
217  $P$  value of the Types III and IV specimens was  $1.03 \pm 0.02$  or transitional  
218 between the ‘low’ and ‘high’ anisotropy zones. Therefore, for the purposes of  
219 this study, we classify specimens as being ‘soft’ if their  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  values were  
220 less than 1.03.

## 221 4. Discussion

222 ARM, IRM and  $\chi$  are sensitive to magnetic grain size (Maher and Thomp-  
223 son, 1999) and are frequently plotted against one another to detect changes  
224 in grain size or changes in provenance (Banerjee et al., 1981). In Fig. 6a we

225 plot the mass normalized ARM against bulk susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) in and ARM  
226 against IRM acquired in a 1.2 T field in Fig. 6b. All of the magnetically  
227 hard specimens ( $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T} > 1.03$ , plotted as red dots) cluster near the origin.  
228 The remaining, magnetically soft, specimens can be divided into two groups:  
229 those that are characterized by low  $P$  (Type I, or magnetite remanences)  
230 and those with high  $P$  (Type II, or maghemite remanences). The two types  
231 have distinct slopes consistent with their different mineralogies and point to  
232 different sources of the magnetic minerals. It is not surprising that the high  
233  $P$  specimens, belonging to the laminated clay facies, appear to have finer  
234 magnetic grain sizes, based on the steeper slope of the ARM versus  $\chi$  trend  
235 lines. We note however that the interpretation as to grain size of such data  
236 (e.g., King et al. (1983)) is based solely on magnetite and should be used  
237 with caution in this case as there is evidence of significant maghemitization  
238 of the high  $P$  specimens. Nonetheless, the data demonstrate that the high  
239 and low clay facies have markedly different magnetic mineralogies and ap-  
240 parently also magnetic grain sizes. Therefore, the two ‘soft’ types must have  
241 different sedimentological histories.

242 The rock magnetic results point to three distinct populations of mag-  
243 netic mineralogies. Fig. 7 shows the clay proxy NGR and  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  plotted  
244 against stratigraphic depth. With few exceptions, the magnetically soft mag-  
245 netite specimens (black dots) in the  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  profile, are associated with the  
246 clay-poor facies (low  $P$ , indicated by white zones), while the magnetically  
247 soft maghemite specimens (brown dots), are associated with the clay-rich  
248 (high  $P$ , indicated by grey zones) specimens. The horizontal lines mark the  
249 positions of the magnetically hard specimens (red dots), which with only

250 two exceptions (indicated as dotted black lines) are found at the transitions  
251 between high and low clay in the NGR clay proxy data.

252 The origin of the two ‘soft’ groups can be understood in the light of  
253 the  $\epsilon\text{Nd}$  (the deviation of measured  $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$  ratios from the Chondritic  
254 Uniform Reservoir in parts per 10,000) and  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  isotopic data of Cook  
255 et al. (2013), shown in Fig. 7d. The intervals of low  $\epsilon\text{Nd}$  (less than the  
256 dashed red line plotted at  $\epsilon\text{Nd} < -9.25$ ) and high  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  are all associated  
257 with clay-rich intervals (NGR  $>34$ ). These were deposited (and presumably  
258 eroded) during the low-productivity (cooler?) intervals. In contrast, the clay-  
259 poor intervals with NGR  $<34$  are associated with high  $\epsilon\text{Nd}$  and low  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$   
260 values, deposited during the higher productivity (warmer?) intervals during  
261 the Pliocene. Cook et al. (2013) inferred different source regions based on the  
262 isotopic signatures of the detrital material and tied these two groups to Lower  
263 Paleozoic terranes and the Ferrar Large Igneous Province (FLIP) respectively  
264 (see Fig. 8). Based on the occurrences of these two rock types on Wilkes Land,  
265 they argued that the cooler intervals have isotopic signatures compatible with  
266 granitic bedrock in the hinterland of the nearby Ninnis Glacier (NG on Fig.8).  
267 The warmer intervals have isotopic signatures like those of the FLIP rocks  
268 whose magnetic anomaly signature was detected in the Wilkes subglacial  
269 basin by Ferraccioli et al. (2009).

270 As already mentioned, with two exceptions, the high  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  intervals  
271 (Types III and IV) are observed at the transitions between high and low  
272 NGR. All but three of these specimens are identifiable as hematite dominated.  
273 Hematite is unusual in such a grey-black sediments and is likely of detrital  
274 origin. Although glacial to interglacial transitions could be associated with



275 changes in ventilation that can promote diagenetic enrichments involving  
276 secondary hematite pigmentation, reddish tinted horizons are not associated  
277 with the horizons actually sampled (e.g., Fig. 5c). Therefore, we suspect a  
278 third, as yet unidentified, terrane that eroded during glacial advance and  
279 retreat. The closest red bed units in outcrop (which could provide hematite  
280 rich sedimentary particles) appear to be Permian red beds of the Amery  
281 Group, exposed in the Prince Charles Mountains (see Mikhalsky et al. (2001),  
282 Keating and Sakai (1991) and references therein); these are quite distant  
283 from U1361 and are unlikely to be a source for the detrital hematite found  
284 at Site U1361. However, Veevers and Saeed (2011) found references to red  
285 sandstones in Mawson (1915) (v. 2, p 294). According to that delightful  
286 account,

287 “Stillwell met with a great range of minerals and rocks in the  
288 terminal moraine near Winter Quarters, Adelie Land. Amongst  
289 them was red sandstone in abundance, suggesting that the Beacon  
290 sandstone formation extend also throughout Adelie Land, but is  
291 hidden by the ice-cap.”

292 Moreover, Craw and Findlay (1984) found hydrothermally altered granitoids  
293 and Beacon sandstone with enrichment of hematite, altered by the intrusion  
294 of the Ferrar sills near Taylor Glacier. These units are also likely to occur  
295 in the Wilkes sub-glacial basin along with the FLIP units detected by Fer-  
296 raccioli et al. (2009). Another likely source, however, is the Neoproterozoic  
297 Elatina Formation, exposed on the southern Australian margin in the Ade-  
298 laide geosyncline Williams et al. (2008). This formation has recently been  
299 studied by Schmidt and Williams (2013) who found a remanence dominated

300 by hematite. Aitken et al. (2014) reconstructed the geological connections  
301 between Australia and Antarctica largely based on magnetic and gravity  
302 anomalies. We show their reconstruction for the time prior to the break up  
303 of Gondwana at 160 Ma, along with the Adelaide basin (from Schmidt and  
304 Williams (2013) and Williams et al. (2008)) and the location of Site U1361  
305 in Fig. 8 in present coordinates with respect to Antarctica. The Adelaide  
306 basin along with its hematite rich red beds are thought to correlate to units  
307 now covered by ice and have therefore not been identified in outcrop on the  
308 Antarctic margin. Notably, Finn et al. (2006) explained lows in the mag-  
309 netic anomalies east of the Mawson block (MB in Fig. 8) as ‘magnetite-poor  
310 upper Neoproterozoic and lower Paleozoic sedimentary rocks and their meta-  
311 morphic equivalents’. It seems likely that there is a small outcrop of either  
312 Beacon red sandstone (as suspected by Mawson) or Elatina equivalent Neo-  
313 proterozoic red beds on the Antarctic margin (Finn et al., 2006), that eroded  
314 during growth and decay of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet.

315 The Type IV behavior suggests a magnetically hard, magnetite remanence  
316 and the source of this phase is more elusive. Nonetheless, magnetically hard  
317 magnetite was frequently observed in the McMurdo volcanic province (see  
318 data of Lawrence et al. (2009) shown in Fig. 9) and McMurdo volcanics  
319 hidden under the ice sheet is also a possible source for such specimens. These  
320 would be difficult to distinguish from the FLIP units in aeromagnetic surveys.

321 The excellent magnetostratigraphic control for Site U1361 allows us to  
322 tie the hard  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  layers to the GPTS with a high degree of confidence  
323 (dashed green lines in Fig. 7). Patterson et al. (2014) performed a detailed  
324 and quantitative correlation of the interval of U1361A between 50 and 100

325 mbsf and we will not duplicate that effort here. Nonetheless, the oxygen  
326 isotopic stacks of Zachos et al. (2001) and Lisiecki and Raymo (2005) (black  
327 and red curves in Fig. 7e respectively with the cyan curve representing a  
328 low pass filtered version of the Zachos et al. (2001) data) are particularly  
329 intriguing here. While it is tempting but perhaps dangerous to tie a particular  
330 high  $IRM_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  event to a particular isotopic event (say M2), it does appear  
331 likely that unusually cold intervals (high global  $\delta^{18}O$  data in the filtered  
332 record between  $\sim 5.6$ - $6.2$  Ma,  $4.6$ - $5$  Ma and  $<3.6$  Ma), result in erosion of an  
333 elusive hematite bearing lithofacies now hidden under the ice on Antarctic  
334 continent.

## 335 5. Conclusions

- 336 • Anisotropy of magnetic susceptibility is a sensitive indicator of the  
337 clay fraction at Hole U1361A. The clay-rich, high anisotropy, zones  
338 are apparently lower productivity and are likely associated with colder  
339 intervals while the clay-poor, low anisotropy, zones are associated with  
340 warmer intervals during the Pliocene.
- 341 • There are four distinct categories of behavior during IRM acquisition  
342 and thermal demagnetization. The first two (Types I and II) are mag-  
343 netically 'soft' and are likely to be magnetite and its more oxidized  
344 cousin, maghemite. The second two (Types III and IV) are magneti-  
345 cally 'hard' and are likely to be hematite and a rare, magnetically hard,  
346 form of magnetite.
- 347 • The maghemite (Type II) mineralogies are associated with the clay-rich

348 facies while the magnetite (Type I) remanences are associated with the  
349 clay-poor facies. In turn, these are associated with zones inferred to be  
350 lower and higher productivity, based on the Ba/Al ratios in the sedi-  
351 ments hence belong to the colder and warmer intervals of the Pliocene  
352 respectively. These are also tied to the Paleozoic and Ferrar Large Ig-  
353 neous Province sources respectively according to the  $\epsilon\text{Nd}$  and strontium  
354 isotopic results of Cook et al. (2013).

355 • The magnetically hard Types III and IV remanences (hematite and  
356 a few rare magnetite specimens respectively) are associated with the  
357 transition zones between clay poor and clay-rich facies. These were  
358 sourced in an unknown lithologic unit that eroded during glacial ad-  
359 vance and retreat. It appears likely that the source for the hematite rich  
360 layers is either hydrothermally altered Beacon sandstone units or Neo-  
361 proterozoic red beds, correlative to units in the Adelaide Basin studied  
362 by Schmidt and Williams (2013). The ‘hard’ magnetite layers could  
363 have a source in McMurdo volcanics. Both of these are likely hidden  
364 under the ice.

365 • The occurrence of the hard  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  layers in periods with more global  
366 ice volume is consistent with the contention that they are sourced in a  
367 geological unit that gets eroded during ice sheet advance and retreat  
368 of glaciers associated with particularly cold intervals.

369 • This study, in combination with the work of Cook et al. (2013), strongly  
370 supports an active response of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet to climatic  
371 forcing in the Pliocene. As  $\text{CO}_2$  levels approach those last seen in the

372 Pliocene, we can expect a greater role of EAIS melting than is presently  
373 envisioned.

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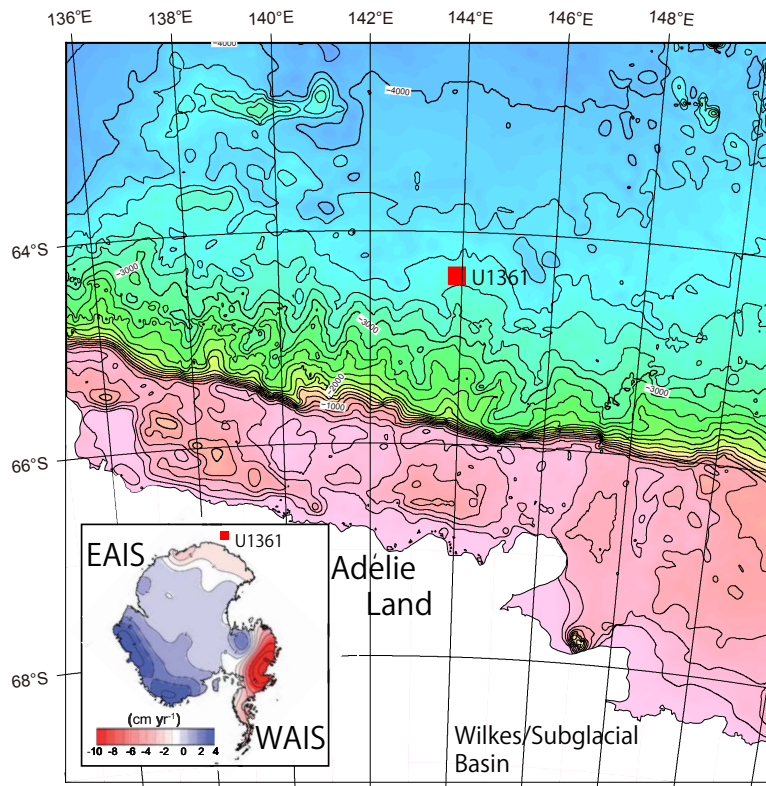


Figure 1: Map showing location of IODP Expedition 318 Site U1361 drilled at 64.2457°S, 143.5320°E, 3466 mbrf. Inset (adapted from the Vaughan et al. (2013)) shows the ice loss determined between 2006 and 2012 from GRACE time-variable gravity data in cm water/year from the East and West Antarctic Ice Sheets (EAIS and WAIS respectively).

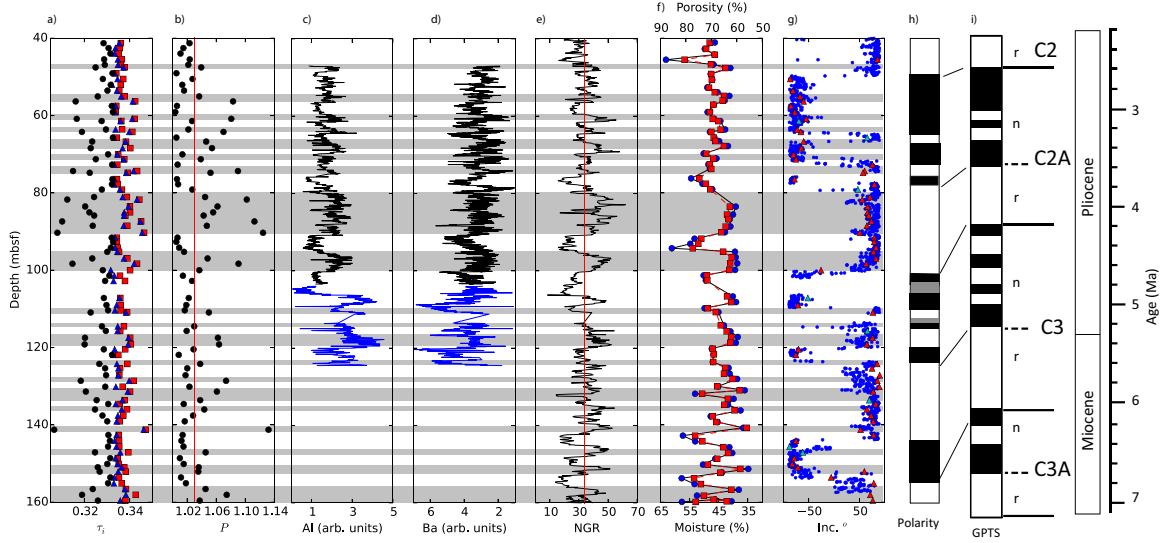


Figure 2: a) Eigenvalues (red squares:  $\tau_1$ , blue triangles:  $\tau_2$ , black circles:  $\tau_3$ ) b) Anisotropy degree, ( $P = \tau_1/\tau_3$ ). c) Aluminum (expressed as arbitrary units from XRF data. d) Barium (arbitrary units), e) Natural gamma radiation (NGR, Escutia et al. (2011)). f) Shipboard moisture content and porosity from (Escutia et al., 2011). g) Inclinations from Tauxe et al. (2012). Small blue dots are data from the archive halves demagnetized to 20 mT. Red (cyan) triangles are acceptable best-fit lines and Fisher means respectively, according to the criteria defined by Tauxe et al. (2012). h) Polarity log. Black intervals are normal (negative inclinations) , white reverse (positive inclinations) and grey are intervals with no data. i) Geomagnetic Polarity Time Scale (GPTS), black (white) intervals are normal (reverse) polarity. Chrons are calibrated by as in the Geological Time Scale of Gradstein et al. (2004), GTS04 for consistency with other work on Expedition 318 material. Intervals with high  $P$  ( $P > 1.03$ ) are marked with grey bars. Black lines in barium and aluminum data are from Cook et al. (2013) and blue lines are reported here.

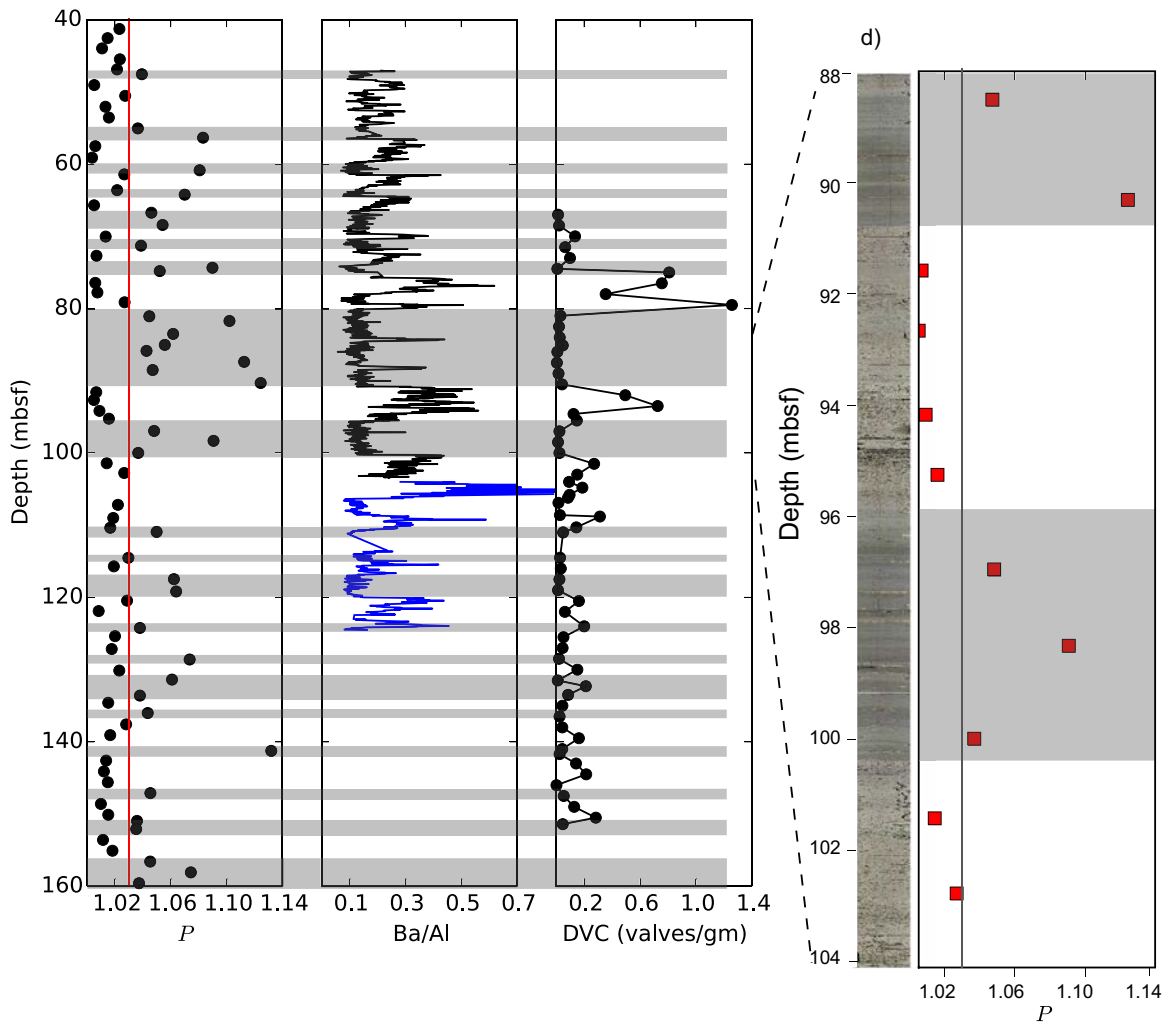


Figure 3: a)  $P$  (from Fig. 2). Grey bars as in Fig. 2. b) Ba/Al (data from Fig. 2.) c) Diatom valve concentration (valves/g; black). Valve counts (from Cook et al. (2013)) are divided by  $10^7$ . d) Expanded section showing core photo and associated  $P$  values.

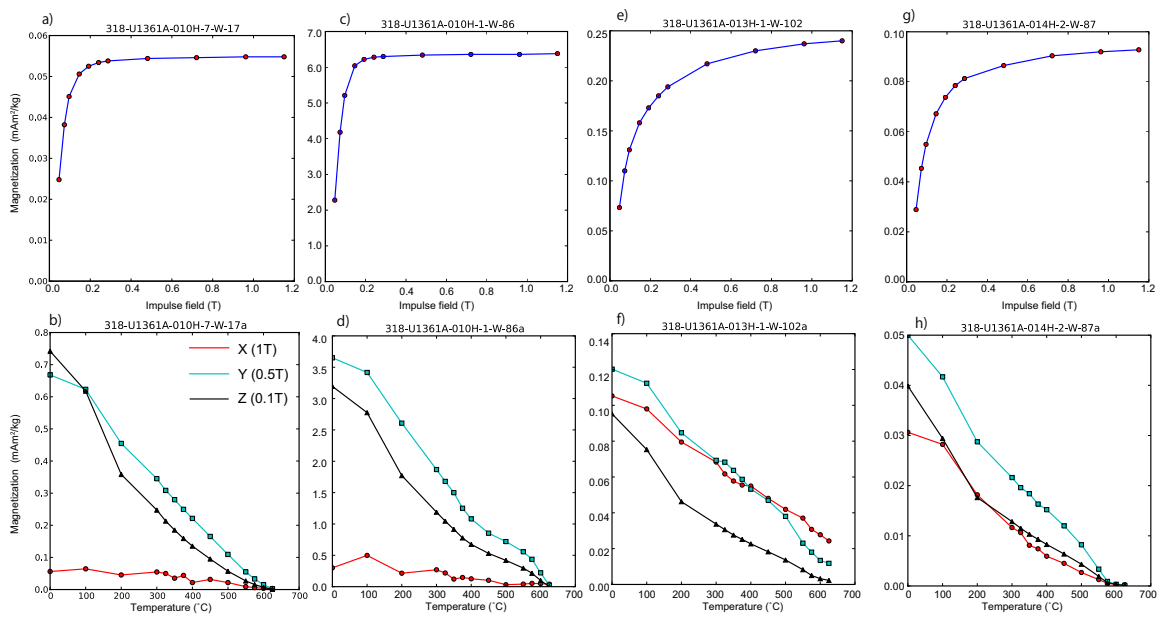


Figure 4: a), c), e), g) Representative isothermal remanent magnetization (IRM) acquisition curves. b), d), f), h) 3-D IRM demagnetization experiments.

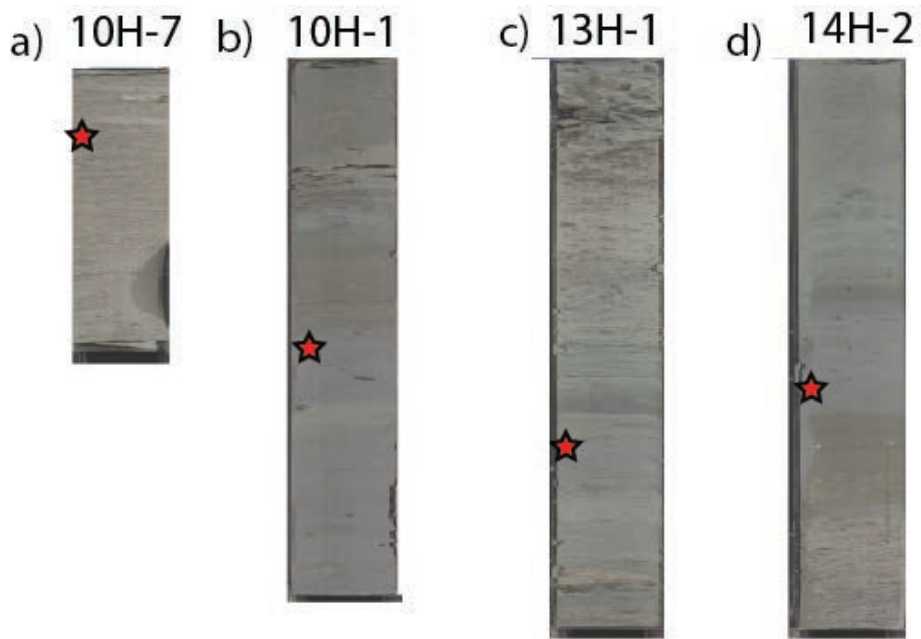


Figure 5: Photos of the core sections in which the samples in Figure 4 were taken. Locations of sample horizons indicated by red stars. Exposure of the photos enhanced to 100%, but colors were otherwise not manipulated. Horizontal scale 2x vertical. Section lengths are 74cm in a) and 150cm in b-d.



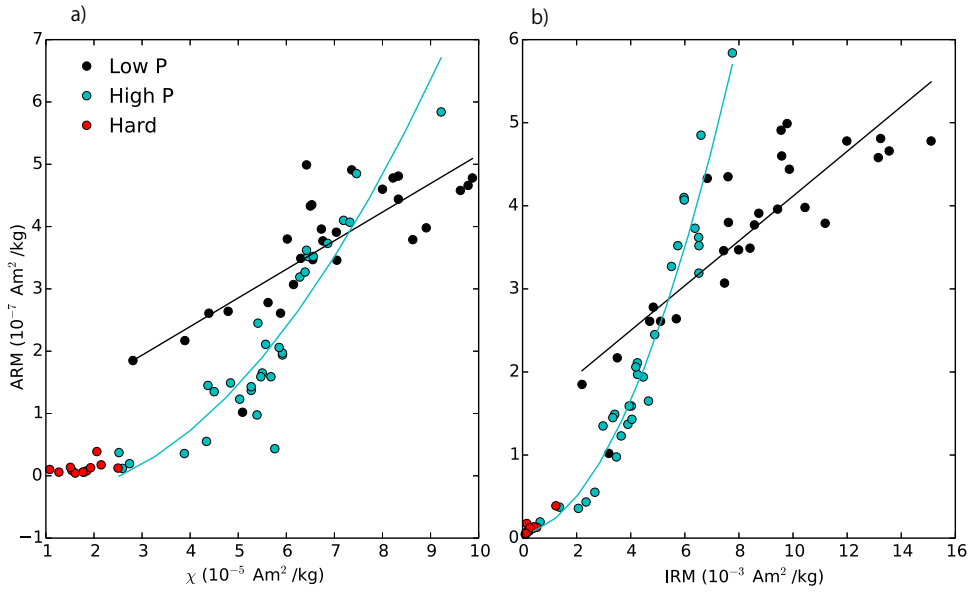


Figure 6: a) Plot of mass normalized ARM versus bulk susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) for the three types of specimens. Best-fit lines from a linear regression for the high  $P$  versus low  $P$  groups of low  $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  specimens are also shown, suggesting that the high  $P$  (clay-rich) sediments have smaller magnetic grain sizes as well as bulk sediment grain sizes. b) Plot of mass normalized ARM versus IRM distinguished by different degrees of anisotropy ( $P$ ) and magnetic 'hardness' ( $\text{IRM}_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$ ). Best-fit line and second order polynomial are shown for the low and high  $P$  groups respectively.

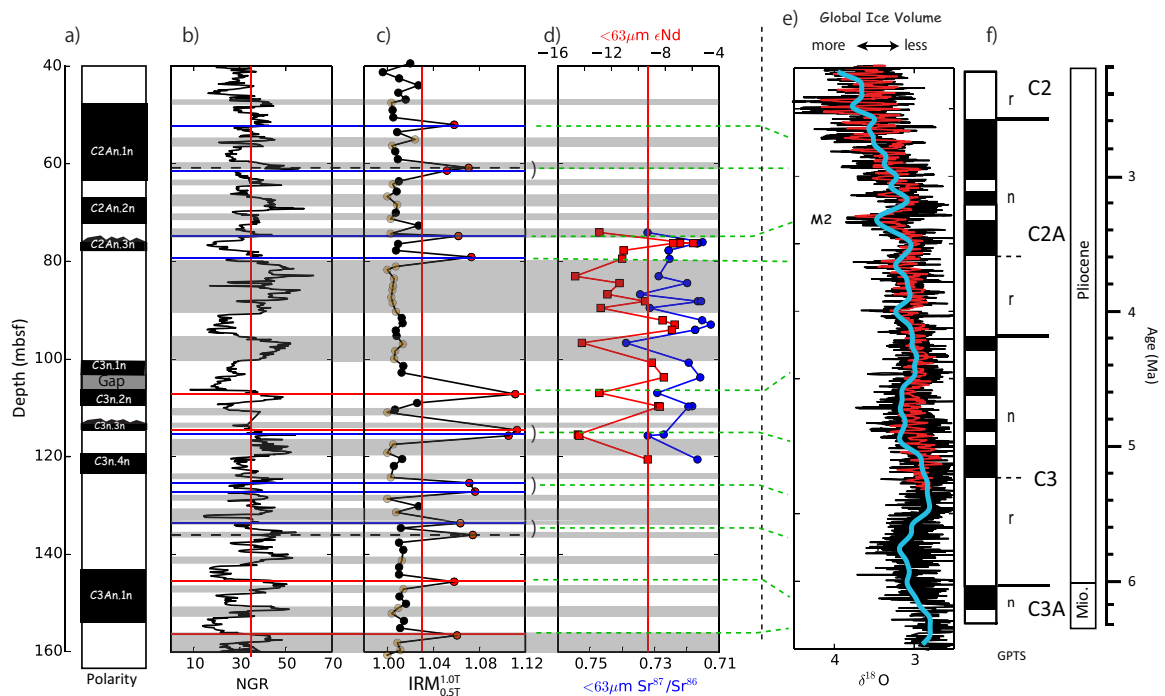


Figure 7: Summary of data for U1361A. a) Magnetic polarity zonation (see Fig.1), b) NGR (Fig. 2), c)  $IRM_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  where black dots are ‘magnetite’, brown are ‘maghemite’ and red are ‘hard’, d)  $\epsilon Nd$  and  $^{87}Sr/^{86}Sr$  (Cook et al., 2013), e) Global stacks of oxygen isotopes of Zachos et al. (2001) (black) and Lisiecki and Raymo (2005) (red). Heavy cyan curve is a low pass filter of the Zachos et al. (2001) curve. f) The GPTS (Gradstein et al., 2004). The grey intervals represent high anisotropy layers from Fig. 1. Horizontal lines are the positions of high  $IRM_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  samples. Blue (red) solid lines are low clay to high clay (high clay to low clay) transitions. Black dashed lines are neither. Green dashed lines are correlations of high  $IRM_{0.5T}^{1.0T}$  layers to the oxygen isotopic record.

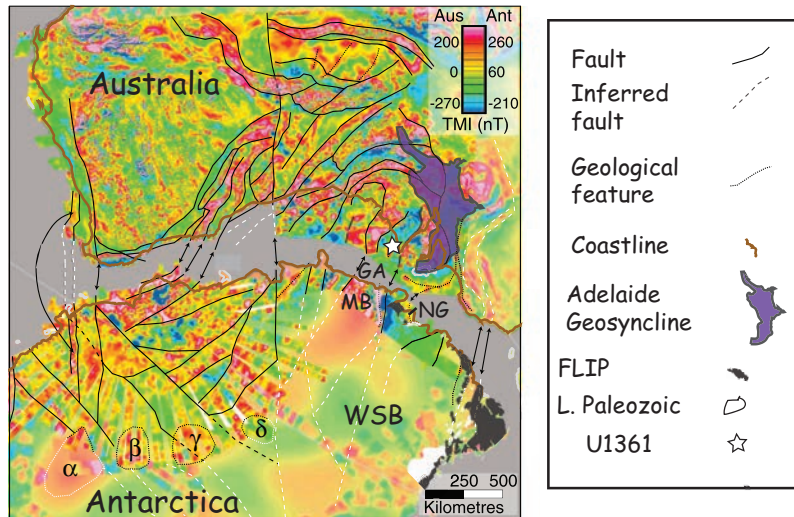


Figure 8: Magnetic anomaly map (for Australia and Wilkes Land region of Antarctica of Aitken et al. (2014)). The continents are in the ‘Leeuwen’ Gondwana reconstruction for 160 Ma. The location of Site U1361 is the current location with respect to Antarctica. WSB is the Wilkes Subglacial Basin. Geological piercing points drawn as double arrows are suggested geological correlations. GA is the Gawler-Terre Adélie connection. Geological units of Ferrar Large Igneous Province (FLIP) (black) and Lower Paleozoic age (white) were inferred from isotopic analyses of Cook et al. (2013) as sources of detritus in the clay-rich and clay-poor zones. The closest likely source of the Lower Paleozoic age material is just south of the Ninnis Glacier (NG). The closest likely source of FLIP material is in the WSB where it is inferred to exist based on aeromagnetic anomalies of Damaske et al. (2003) and Ferraccioli et al. (2009). It is possible that there are outcrops of hydrothermally altered Beacon sandstones (with hematite enrichment) in association with the FLIP material, as seen in near the Taylor Glacier Craw and Findlay (1984). Alternatively, the Adelaide geosyncline of South Australia from Schmidt and Williams (2013) contains outcrops of the red beds of the Elatina Formation. If present on the Antarctic continent, these units could be the source of the hematite present at many clay-rich/clay-poor transitions.

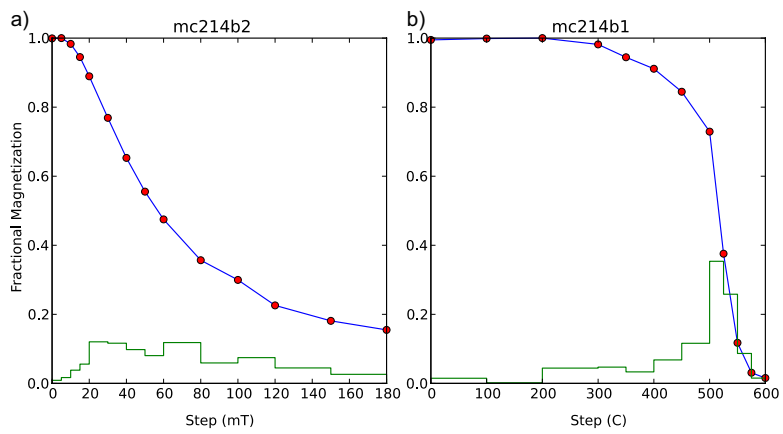
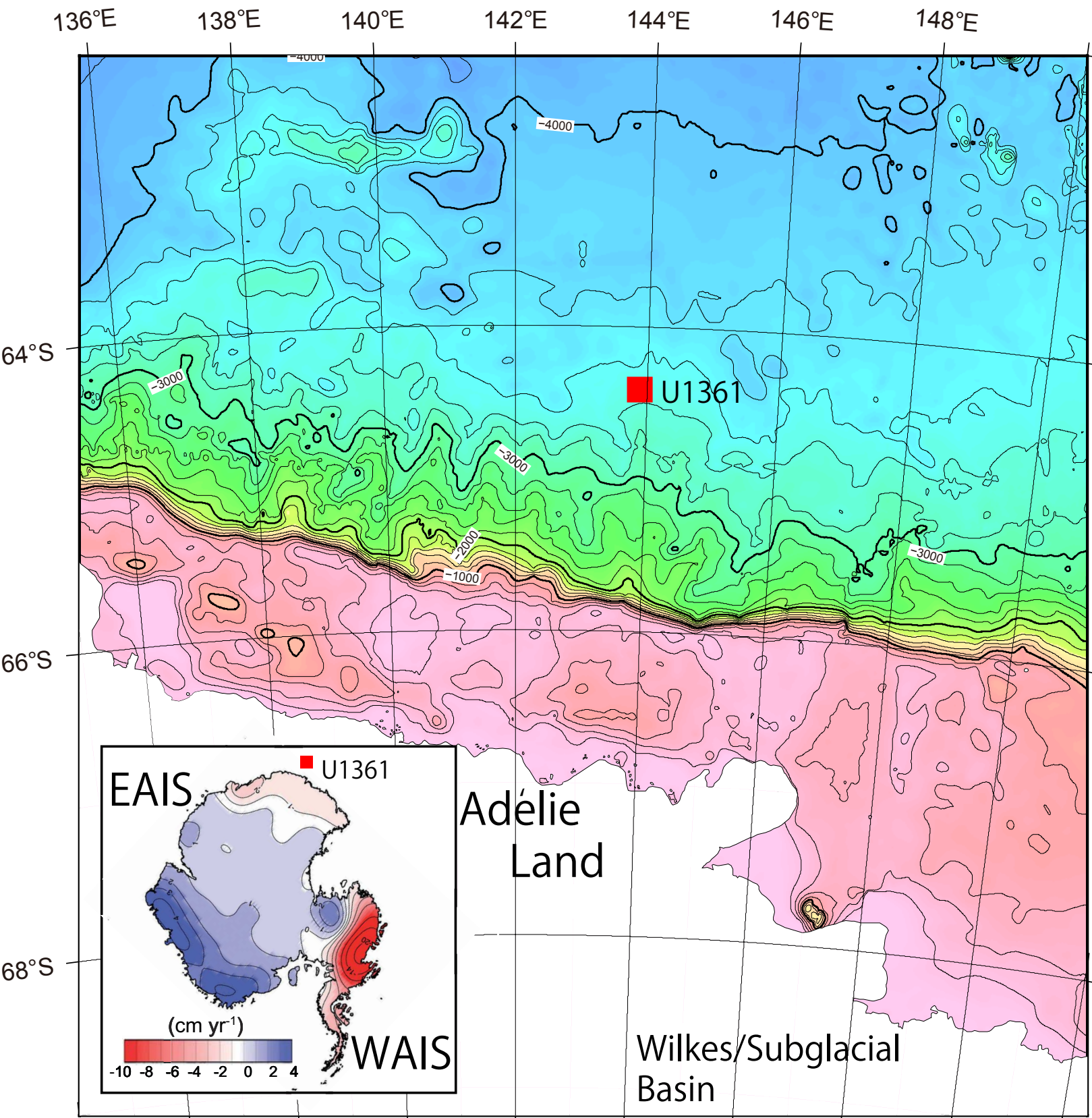


Figure 9: Typical example of high coercivity behavior coupled with blocking temperatures (maximum of  $\sim 580^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) typical of magnetite for a specimen from the McMurdo Sound volcanics. a) Alternating field demagnetization. b) Thermal demagnetization. [Data from Lawrence et al. (2009) available for download at: [http://earthref.org/MAGIC/9411/.](http://earthref.org/MAGIC/9411/)]

- Climate models predict growth of East Antarctic Ice Sheet with global warming
- Records from IODP Exp. 318 show instability of the EAIS during the Pliocene.
- Rock magnetic techniques detect erosion of three distinct geological units.

Figure 1  
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**Figure 2**  
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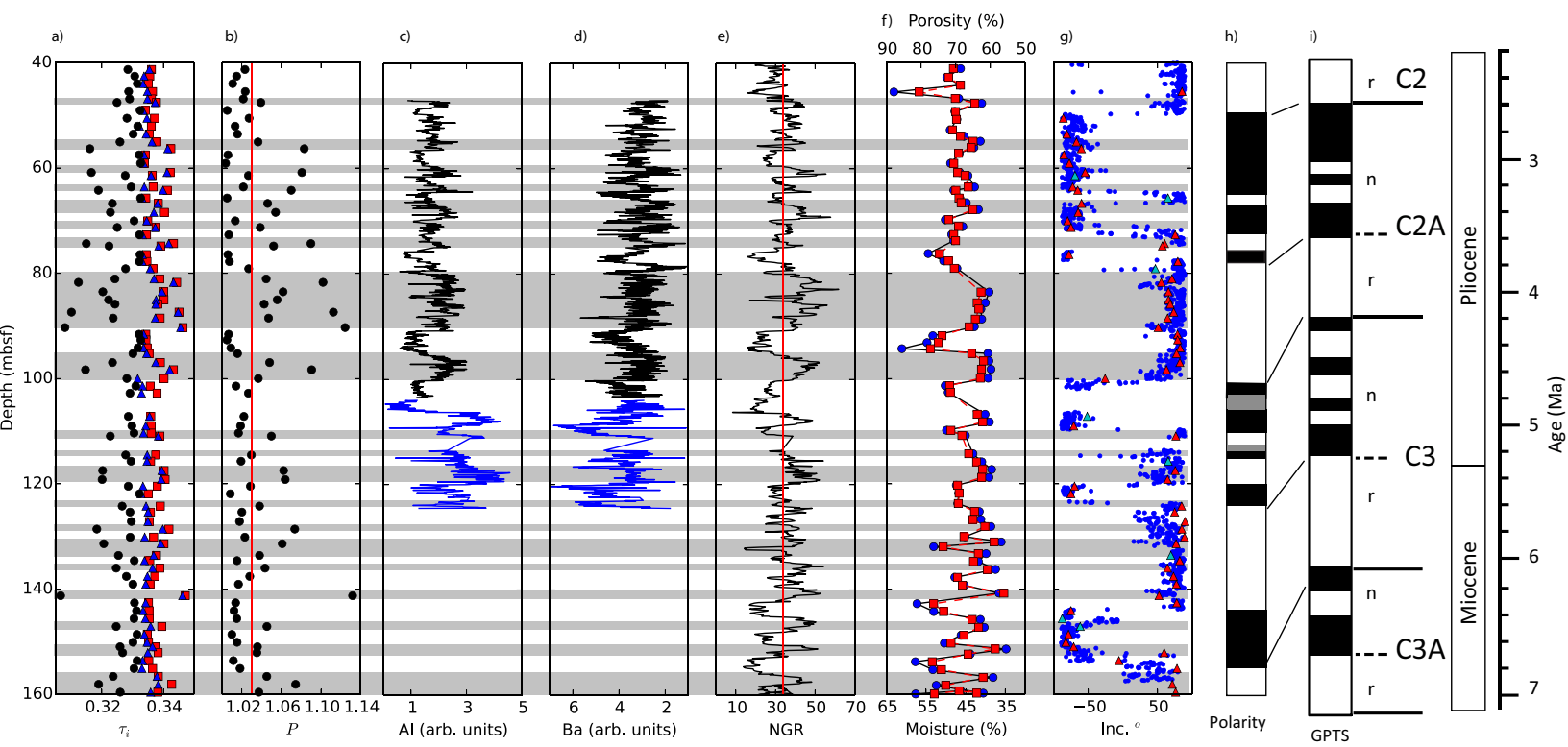
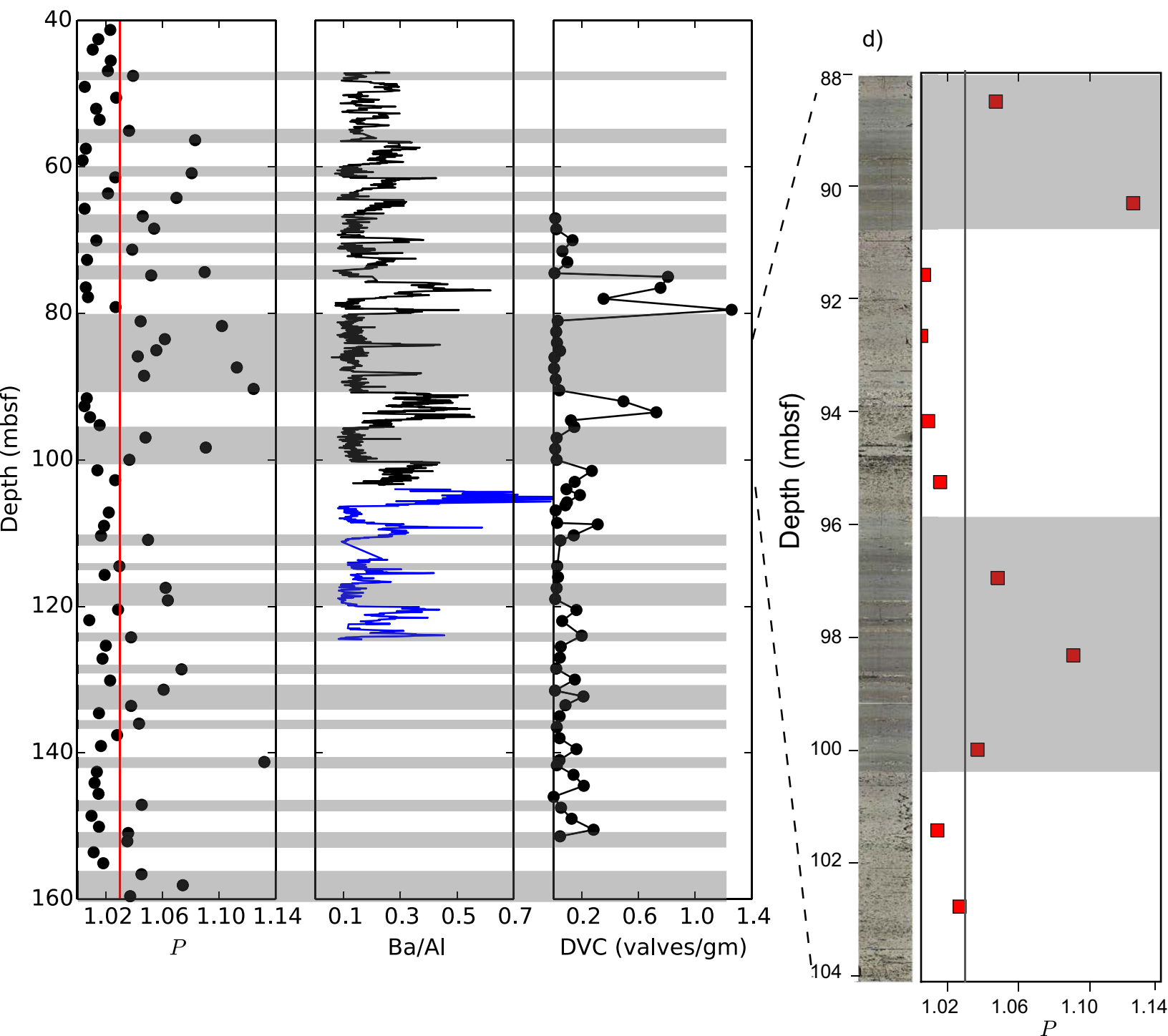


Figure 3  
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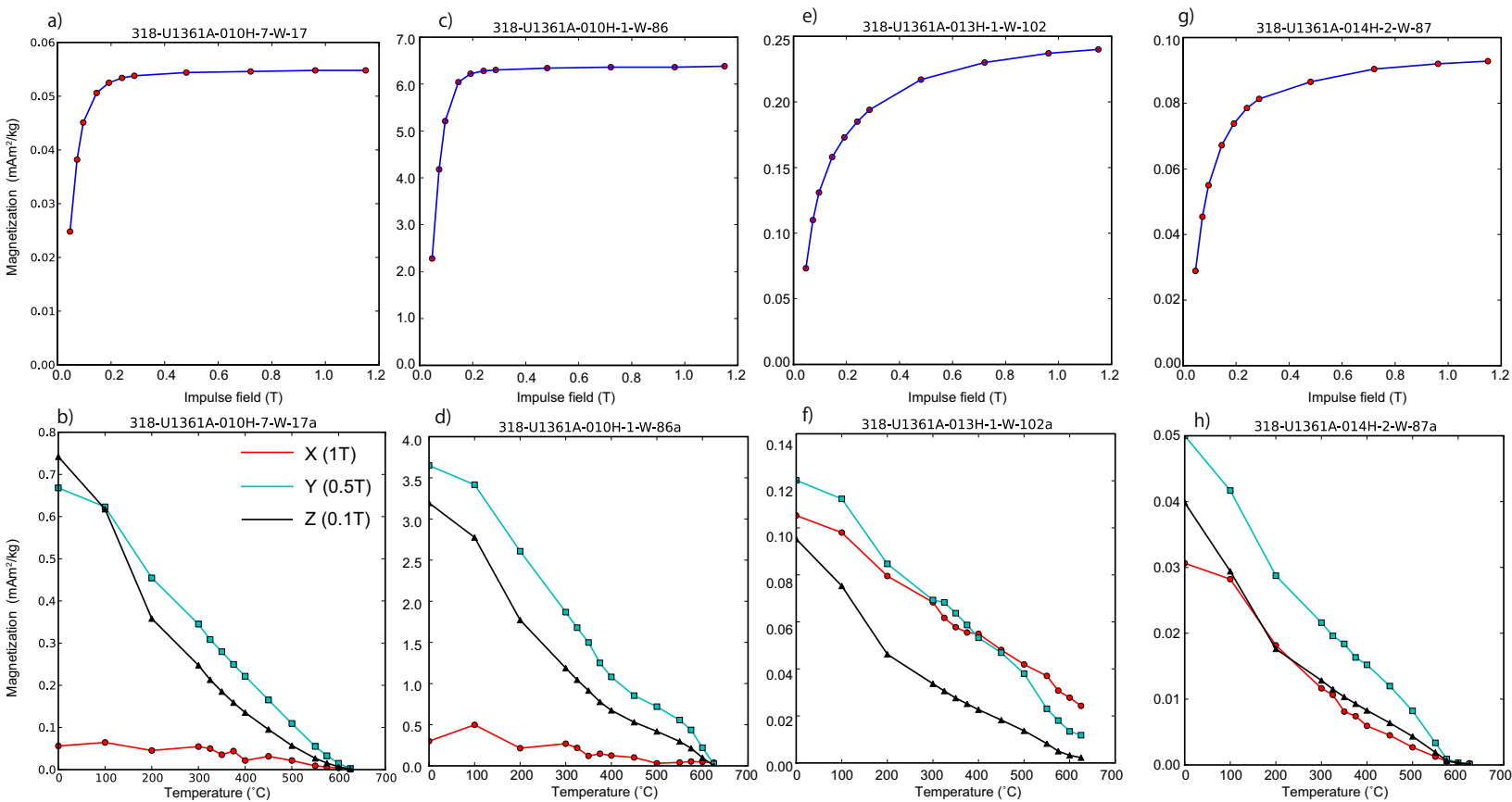
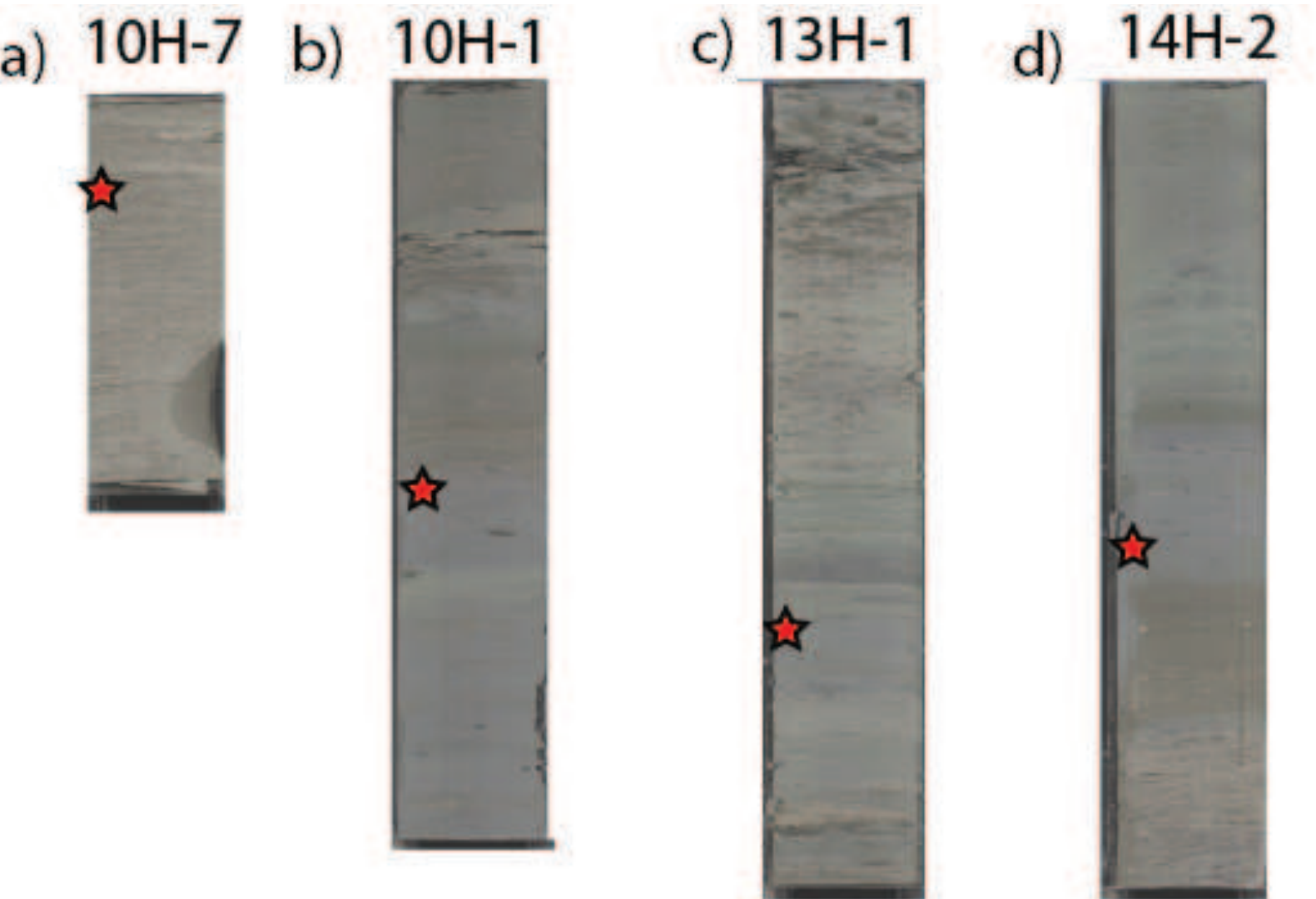
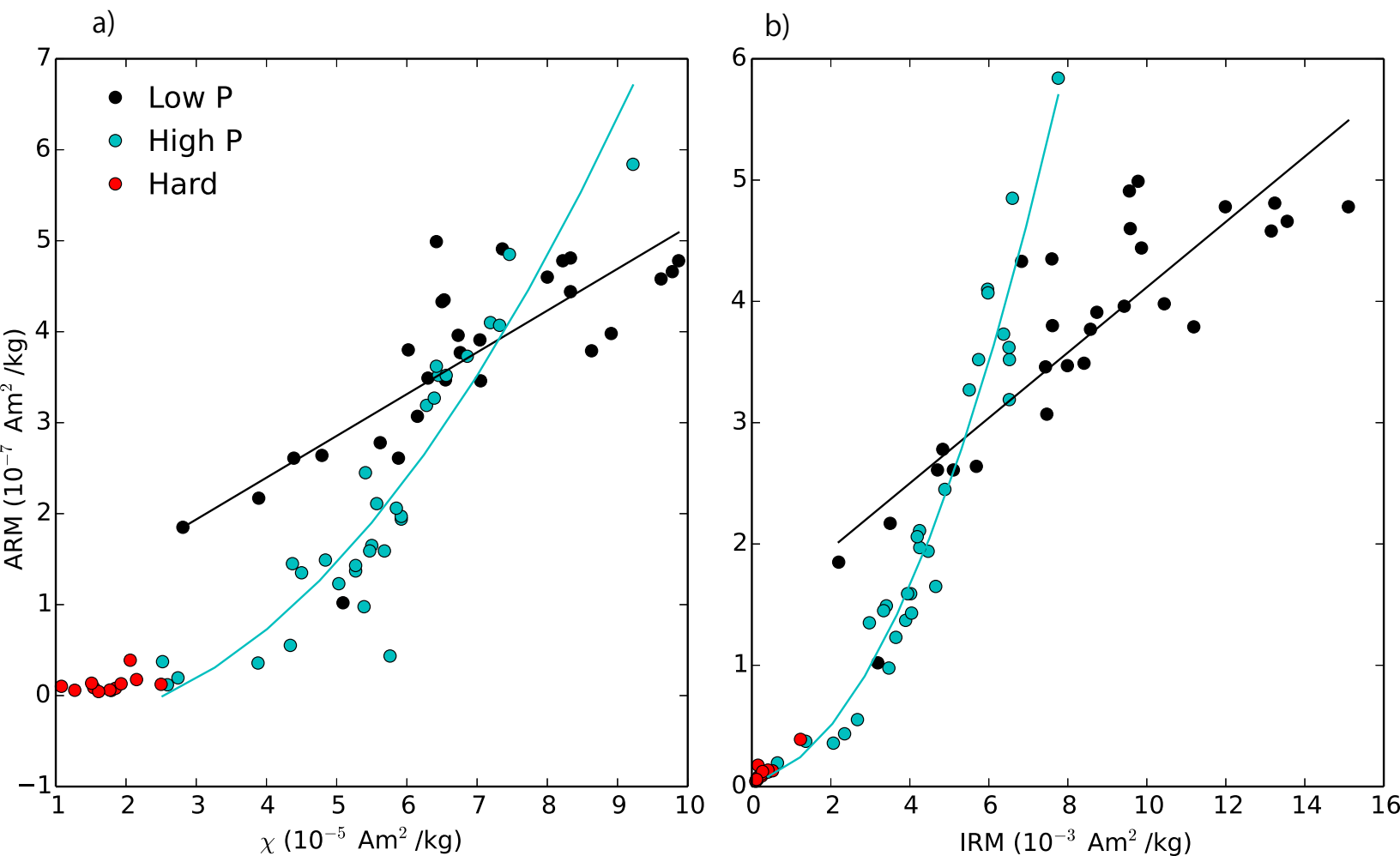
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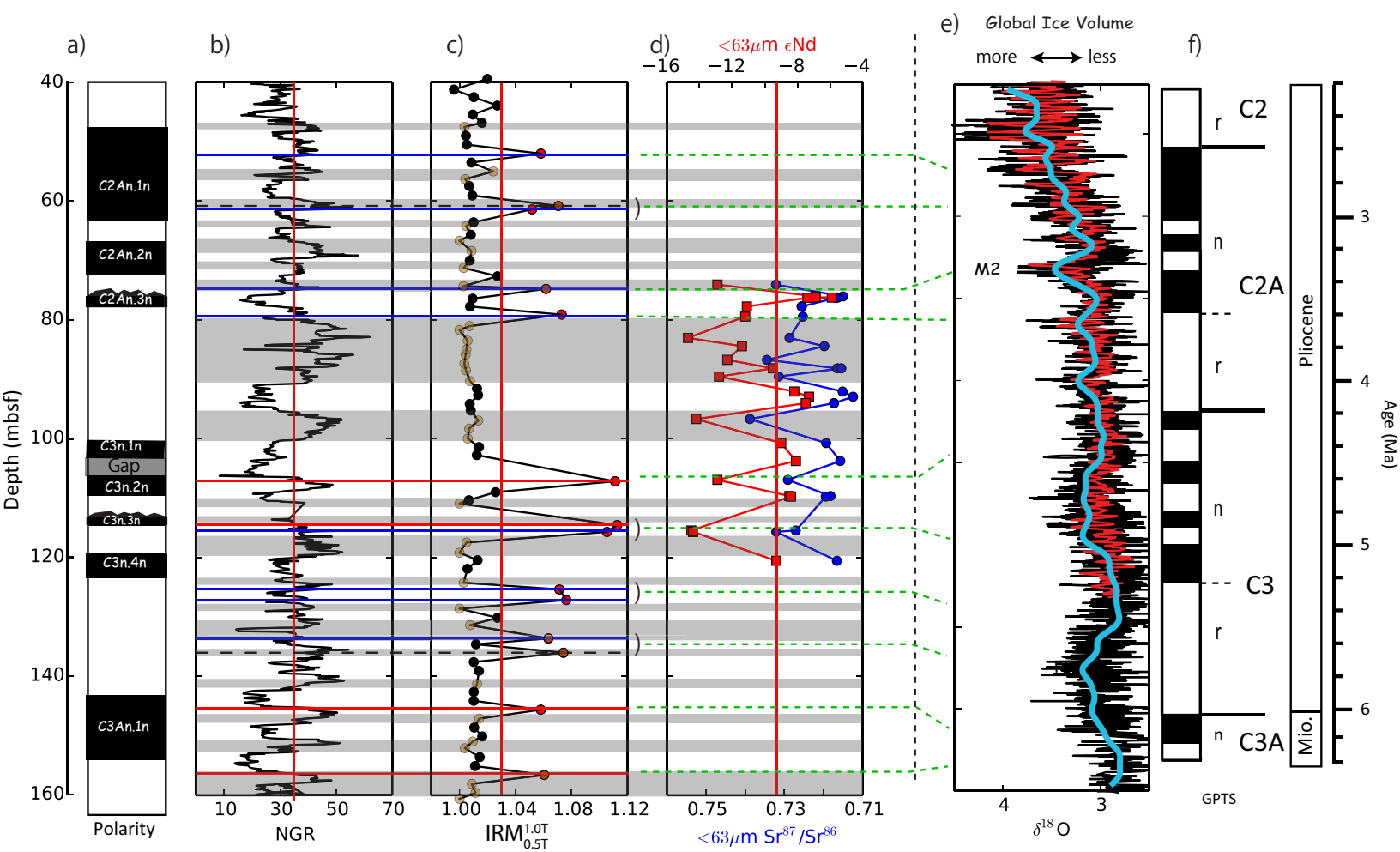
Figure 5  
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**Figure 6**  
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**Figure 7**  
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**Figure 8**  
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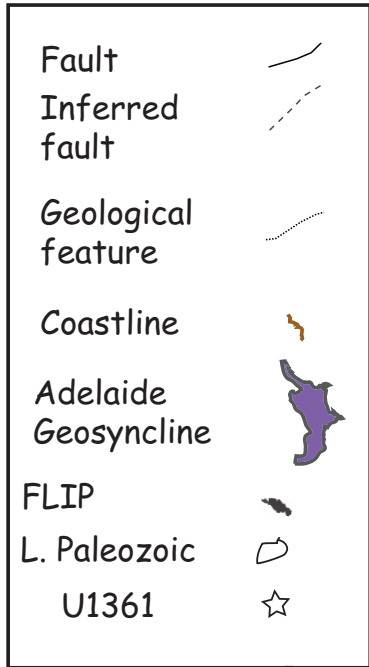
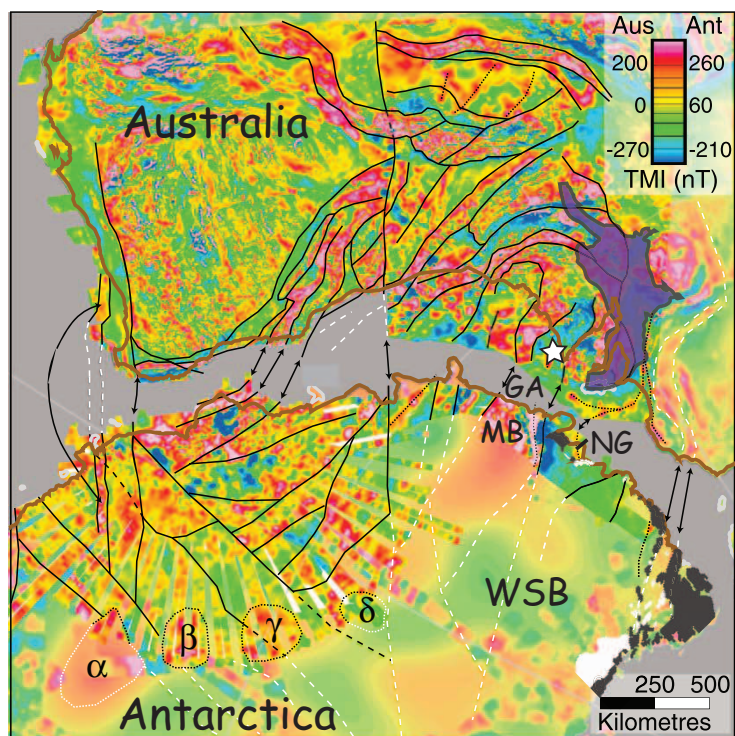
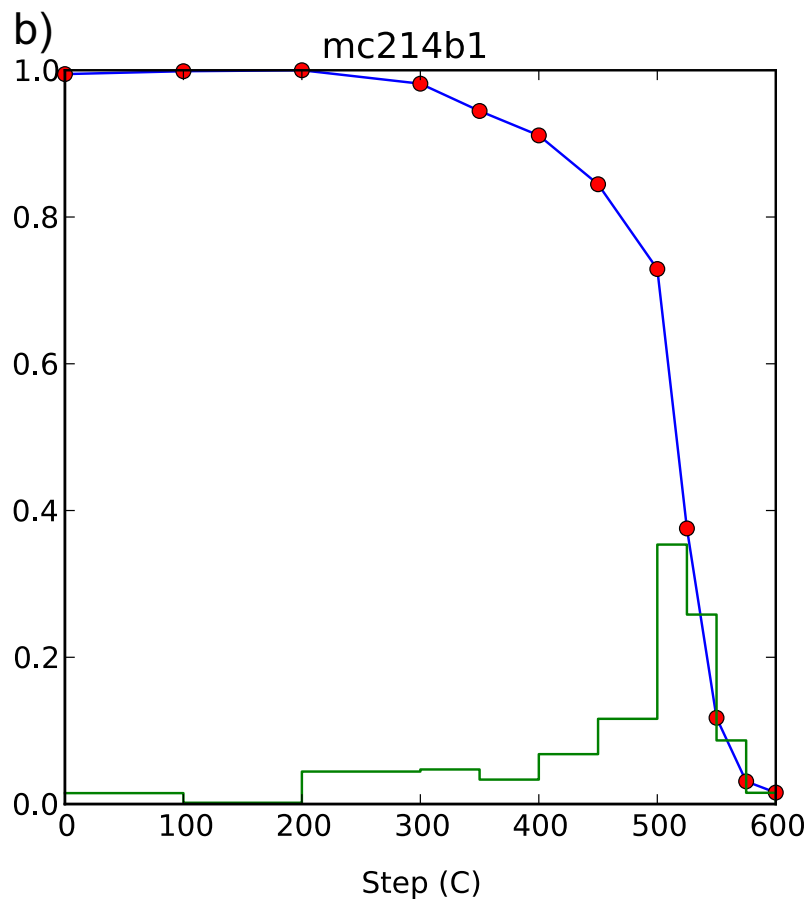
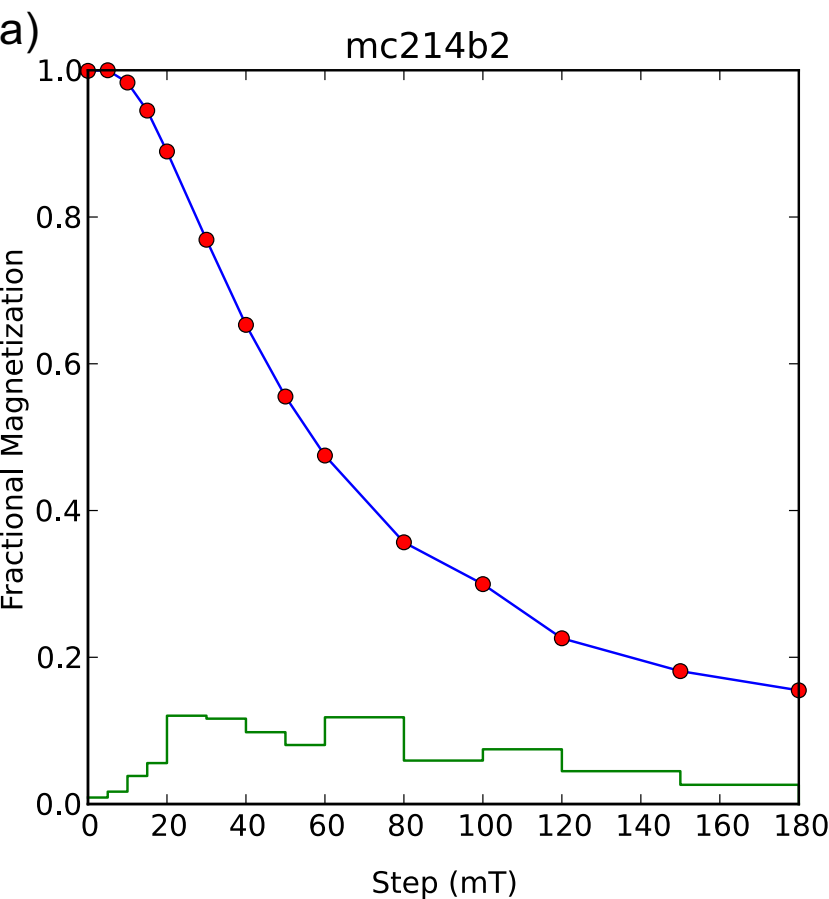


Figure 9  
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