RECORD OF HOLOCENE PALAEOClimATE CHANGE ALONG THE ANTARCTIC PENINSULA: EVIDENCE FROM GLACIAL MARINE SEDIMENTS, LALLEMAND FJORD

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(with six text-figures and one plate)

INTRODUCTION

Until recently, little documented evidence existed of a Hypsithermal event in the Antarctic region (Domack et al., 1991, Domack 1995). This lack of recognisable evidence has been attributed to the absence of outcrop exposures suitable for study, yet the recent analyses of ice and marine sediment cores have suggested such an event did occur (Domack 1995). In light of the environmental changes believed to be influenced by present atmospheric warming in the Antarctic Peninsula region (AP; Jones et al., 1993), the identification and documentation of a Hypsithermal event in Antarctica could provide researchers with an improved understanding of the expected response of the Antarctic glacial, oceanic and biotic systems to continued warming. Sedimentologic and geochemical analyses of a 5.5 m long, high-resolution sediment core (PD92 GC-1), collected in Lallemand Fjord, represent the most detailed record of Holocene climate change, to date, in Antarctica. Grain size, smear slide analysis, magnetic susceptibility and total organic carbon content (TOC) were measured. One radiocarbon date establishes a chronology for the base of the core. Correlation with the upper portion of core GC-1 with other cores collected in the fjord is based upon carbon stratigraphy, nine radiocarbon analyses and 210Pb data. Deposition of Lallemand Fjord is believed to have occurred prior to 8000 yr BP, followed by a period of open marine conditions with variable extent of sea ice (variable TOC content) between 8000 and 2700 14C yr BP. A climatic optimum is recognised between 4200 and 2700 yr BP. Around 2700 yr BP, a decrease in TOC and diatom abundance reflects the formation of more extensive and seasonally persistent sea (fast) ice. The Muller Ice Shelf, now present in the fjord, advanced approximately 400 years ago, coincident with the Little Ice Age. These results indicate environmental variability throughout the Holocene that was consistent across most portions of the maritime Antarctic Peninsula. Surprisingly, the timing of climate transitions correlates with Northern Hemisphere "T"-Events and ice-core data from Greenland, indicating the possibility of coherent climate variability in the Holocene, at least for the high latitudes.

Key Words: Holocene, palaeoclimate, Lallemand Fjord, Antarctic, glacial marine.
During unusual years, the fjord may be free of sea ice as early as December. The persistent sea ice is an important factor, since it limits the amount of light available to phytoplankton during the spring and summer. Hence, the protected environment of LF provides an optimum environment for studying regional palaeoclimatic trends during the Holocene, as they may have influenced sea-ice and ice-shelf extent.

METHODS

Gravity Core 1 (GC-1) was obtained by the science party of project S-285 in LF (fig. 2) during cruise 92-2 of the RV Polar Duke (19 March–15 April 1992). The 5.5 m long by 70 mm diameter core was collected, using a modified piston core apparatus in a water depth of 630 m. The removal of the trigger and piston device from the core apparatus allowed for the collection of long gravity cores. It is believed that the sediment–water interface was recovered for GC-1; however, detailed physical property measurements, such as water content, were not conducted.

Physical Properties

Sediment samples, taken in 1995 from GC-1 at 0.1 m intervals, were analysed with the Hamilton College Malvern Mastersizer E particle-size analyser (using laser diffraction) to obtain volume per cent measurements of fine/medium sand, coarse silt, med/fine silt and clay. Samples of sediment were placed in an ultrasonic Calgon bath and completely suspended for five minutes to disperse clay floccules prior to analysis. The samples were then suspended in an ultrasonic particle-size analyser (using laser diffraction) to obtain volume per cent measurements of fine/medium sand, coarse silt, med/fine silt and clay.
bath with a mechanical stirrer and analysed to determine the volume percentages of specified grain sizes. (For complete procedure see LoPiccolo 1996).

Weight per cent sand analyses were also done on GC-1 in the autumn of 1995. Samples of 3-5 g of sediment were placed in 50 ml beakers and dried for 24 h in an oven at 40°C. Upon removal from the oven, samples were cooled and weighed to obtain a total dry weight for the sample. The sample was then covered with 50 ml of a Calgon solution and stirred to suspend the sediment and encourage the disintegration of any flocs. After 24 h, each sample was wet sieved through a 63 µm sieve. Sediment which did not pass through the sieve was dried for another 24 h and reweighed. The weight obtained represented the weight per cent sand for the sample.

The Malvern is unable to analyse particles greater than 600 µm in diameter; therefore, a gravel grain count was conducted for the particle fraction in excess of 2 mm. Data were obtained, using X-ray radiographs of the archive half of GC-1 taken in 1994. The X-rays (pl. 1) were analysed at 50 mm intervals down-core, and particles greater than 2 mm in diameter were counted within each 50 mm interval, to obtain information regarding the concentration (grains/50 mm core length) of the coarsest grain-size fraction of the core (after Grobe 1987).

Whole core magnetic susceptibility for GC-1 was measured at 50 mm intervals, using the Barrington MS-2B Core Sensor. Magnetic Susceptibility (MS) values are expressed as x 10^-6 CGS.

### Geochronological Analyses

During the spring and summer of 1995, 55 sediment samples from GC-1 were analysed at Hamilton College for TOC content, using the LECO inductance furnace with attached LECO WR-12 carbon determinator. Each sample was placed in a separate 100 ml glass beaker and completely mixed with about 25 ml of 2 N hydrochloric acid to dissolve any calcium carbonate. After 24 h, the acid was carefully decanted with a syringe, using special caution not to interrupt the sediment-acid interface. Each sample underwent a series of de-ionised water washings, during which 10 ml of de-ionised water was placed in each beaker and the sediment was totally suspended. The samples were allowed to settle for 24 h and then the supernatant liquid was decanted so as not to disturb the sediment interface. The washing procedure was repeated five times. After the last decantation, the samples were placed in an oven at 106°C, for 24 h, to remove moisture. Carbonate calcium contents are very low for these samples (less than 1%) so corrections for CaCl and hydration were not conducted during the analyses. Each dry sample was removed from its beaker and gently ground using a mortar and pestle. Between 0.4 and 0.6 g of dry sediment was weighed and placed in a ceramic crucible in preparation for burning. The LECO furnace is designed to minimise sources of error; however, drift may occur during a series of burns. Corrections for drift are made before, during, and after the samples have been burned. Standards were burned, as described by Franceschini (1995), and these results were corrected to account for instrument drift. In all cases, drift was observed to be linear versus time. Accuracy was determined to be ± 0.005% TOC.

### Radiocarbon Dating

A scaphopod (Dentalium) shell sample was chosen for radiocarbon analysis, based upon evidence suggesting in situ preservation (pl. 1B). An undisturbed sample is essential to obtain an accurate radiocarbon age for the associated sediment interval depth. Hence, the determination of in situ preservation is necessary to rule out any reworking of the sediment and/or shell, which would produce a false radiocarbon date.

The scaphopod class (of Mollusca) is characterised by conical (tusk-shaped) shells, open at both ends. Members of the class are benthic selective feeders and dwell in the upper 0.1 m of the marine sediment. They burrow into the sediment at an oblique angle with the aid of a muscular...
foot, usually until only the uppermost portion of the shell protrudes at the sediment–water interface (pl. 1B; Gainey 1972). Upon completion of burrowing, the animal constructs a feeding cavity by probing and packing the surrounding sediment with this foot. The action results in a conical cavity, slightly larger than the opening for the foot, at the anterior end of the animal (pl. 1B). The scaphopod brings foraminifera into this cavity from the surrounding sediment and ingests them with its proboscis (Gainey 1972). Although the feeding mechanisms of the class are variable, the action of burrowing and the construction of some type of feeding cavity are universal for the class (P. Reynolds, pers. comm.).

Examination of the X-ray radiograph from 4.52–4.75 m (pl. 1B) reveals several indications of in situ preservation. The 40 mm scaphopod shell is oriented in an obliquely inclined position, typical of a scaphopod in feeding position. In addition, a 10 mm long, light grey, conical region exists at the anterior end of the shell (pl. 1B). The orientation of the scaphopod shell, a lack of coarse sediment infill within the shell, coupled with the presence of a feeding burrow at the anterior end of the shell (interpreted by P. Reynolds, pers. comm.), strongly suggest in situ preservation of the sample. The possibility of the three factors existing in reworked sediment is “highly unlikely” (P. Reynolds, pers. comm.).

The scaphopod was removed from a depth of 4.56–4.60 m and sent to Oxford University’s tandem accelerator mass spectrometer facility, where a radiocarbon analysis was conducted via GEOCHRON Laboratories (GX-20530-AMS). An uncorrected radiocarbon age of 9588 ± 70 yr BP was obtained, using the Libby half life (5570 years). The age was corrected for a δ^{13}C value of +0.5‰. The interpretation of radiocarbon dates from the Antarctic is complex, due to unusually low δ^{13}C concentrations in Antarctic waters, as well as the geographical variation of water mass circulation (Gordon & Harkness 1992). Living organic material has been found to exhibit anomalously “old” δ^{14}C dates, a phenomena often referred to as the Antarctic Reservoir Effect. Therefore, measured radiocarbon dates must be corrected to account for the elevated ages (low δ^{14}C activity) seen in recent materials, in order for accurate down core ages to be obtained (Gordon & Harkness 1992). The reservoir correction has an estimated value of 1300–1250 yr BP for the AP (as suggested by Gordon & Harkness 1992, Domack 1992).

It should be noted that biogenic material (calcite) from near-surface sediments in LF has been dated to 1900 yr BP, indicating that the local reservoir effect in this fjord may be much older than the 1300 yr BP correction. However, due to the absence of a radiocarbon date for living organic material in LF, a standard value of 1300 years has been used as the reservoir correction for core GC-1. Using a corrected date of 8058 yr BP for the scaphopod shell, the projected sedimentation rate for core GC-1 is 0.57 mm/yr. This is roughly half of the sedimentation rate documented for cores KC-72 and 75 (1.2 and 1.3 mm/yr respectively). However, it should be noted that a single radiocarbon date has been used in the extrapolation (rate determination) in GC-1. The use of a single date assumes that the sedimentation rate was constant at this site throughout the period represented by the core.

RESULTS

Core GC-1 was described as a grey to grey-olive green silty-pebbly mud with scattered ice-rafted debris in the upper 5.19 m; and a laminated grey silty mud and medium to fine-grain sand from 5.15 to 5.3 m (fig. 3, pl. 1A). The depositional record, graphically represented by plotting each of the parameters versus core depth, extends over a 9700-year period (fig. 3). The distribution of each parameter can be used to evaluate environmental variability over time. Total organic carbon, and magnetic susceptibility values relate to sediment type, recording biogenic and tectogenous (respectively) input to the fjord system (Domack & Ishman 1992). Logically, the values of the two parameters should be inversely related; that is, high rates of biogenic sedimentation exists with relatively low magnetic susceptibility values (Domack & Ishman 1992). Volume per cent grain-size data and gravel grain counts represent a distribution of particle sizes present in the core (fig. 3).

Gravity Core 1 was obtained from a position roughly 8 km from the calving front of the Muller Ice Shelf (fig. 2). Generally, GC-1 contains relatively high magnetic susceptibility values (> 340 × 10^-6 CGS), low percentages of organic carbon content (<0.4%), and almost continuous, coarse, ice-rafted sediment (averaging 10–15 grains/50 mm interval; fig. 3).

Grain Size

GC-1 consists of 75 to 90% clay and fine–medium silt-sized particles, based upon the volume per cent data. These percentages are slightly higher than the percentage of fine grains found in KC 72 and lower than those in KC 75 (Domack et al. 1995) and reflect the position of the cores within the fjord; coarser sediments are observed closer to the ice shelf (KC 72) and finer sediments are characteristic of more open fjord settings (KC 75; Stein 1992, Domack et al. 1995). Core GC-1 is located directly between KC 72 and KC 75. The silt and clay fraction of GC-1 remains relatively constant (>75%) until 5 m and then decreases to approximately 60% fines. The coarse silt and sand fraction represents 10 to 15% of the particle distribution from 0 to 5.5 m. High percentages (20–25%) of coarse silt and sand were measured at 1.9 m and 5.0–5.5 m; while low percentages (<10%) were measured at 0.5 m, 2.9 m, 3.7 m and 4.8 m. Volume per cent sand and weight per cent sand exhibit slight variations with depth, as expected, though excellent agreement in the two methods exists between 5.5 and 5.0 m (Shevenell 1996).

Ice-rafterdebris (IRD) abundance, indicated by the number of gravel grains (>2 mm diameter) per 50 mm interval, is variable, yet continuous throughout the core (fig. 3). There is an increasing trend from the top of the core (<10 grains/50 mm interval) to 4.15 m, where a peak (58 grains/50 mm interval in gravel abundance) is present. X-ray radiographs of GC-1 show a concentration of large, angular gravel grains at a depth of 4.15 m (pl. 1C). From 4.2 m to the base of the core, the concentration of gravel decreases. It is interesting to note that, while relatively large numbers of gravel grains exist, extremely low percentages of sorted sand are present. This trend is most visible from 3 m to the base of the core (fig. 3). Domack et al. (1995) noted a similar pattern and interpreted the sediments with the most gravel clasts as having been deposited distal to the Muller Ice Shelf.
Total Organic Carbon

The TOC contents in AP cores are useful for palaeoenvironmental information, because of the lack of terrestrial sources of plant debris and reworked organic particulates. This means that the TOC content in Antarctic marine sediments can be more closely related to productivity in the marine realm as opposed to the Arctic. TOC content in modern sediments of LF is low (<0.4%) and reflects the polar climate and persistent sea-ice coverage (Domack et al. 1995). The content in GC-1 is generally lower than that in KC 5 and KC 75, and higher than that in KC 72 (fig. 4). Again, the variations in sediment type directly reflect the geographic variation in sedimentation in the fjord with respect to the glacial margin (fig. 4).

The TOC content for GC-1 generally increases to a depth of 1.6 m, although minima were noted at 0.3 m and 1.2 m. At 0.3 m, the content is comparable to minima found in KC 72 and KC 75, which have been interpreted as Little Ice Age intervals (fig. 4; Stein 1992, Domack et al. 1995). At 1.6 m, it increases dramatically (0.4%); high TOC content (0.25 to 0.42%) exists in core GC-1 from 1.6 m to 2.6 m. Within this interval, a core maximum of 0.42% was measured at 1.8 m. From 1.8 m to 2.6 m, peak percentages decrease slightly. Within this unit, minima exist at 1.9 m (0.26%), 2.3 m (0.28%) and 2.5 m (0.21%); however, the relatively low values in this unit are high with respect to the TOC content for the entire core.

Following the period of high TOC content, it drops to an average value for the core and remains relatively stable (0.25–0.30%) from 2.8 m to 3.8 m (fig. 5). A higher content was measured around 4.0 m with values (0.33–0.36%) comparable to those within the period of peak biogenic sedimentation for the region. At 4.1 m it decreases, and this general trend continues to the base of the core; the content of biogenic material in the lowest unit of the core appears to be minimal.

No notable correlation was observed between TOC content and medium to fine silt indicating that the preserved carbon signal has not been masked by changes in the fine-grained terrigenous input (Shevenell 1996).

Magnetic Susceptibility

An interesting pattern of MS exists in GC-1. Extremely high values (340 to 850 × 10⁻⁶ CGS) indicate the importance of terrigenous input, and a large magnetic component to the overall pattern of sediment flux in LF. Recent magnetic values are low. Values decrease from 0.35 to 0.95 m and then increase to a peak at 1.15 m, decrease to a minimum (340 × 10⁻⁶ CGS) at 1.8 m and then remain relatively stable (400 × 10⁻⁶ CGS) until 4.0 m, where they begin to increase to a maximum value for the core at 5.35 m (850 × 10⁻⁶ CGS). Peaks exist at 1.9 m (420 × 10⁻⁶ CGS), 2.4 m (630 × 10⁻⁶ CGS), and yet another at 3.9 m (530 × 10⁻⁶ CGS) (fig. 3).
T.O.C. %

Location of Radiocarbon Dates (Domack et al., 1995)

FIG. 4 — TOC % versus depth for samples taken from kasten cores 72, 75 and 5 and Gravity Core 1. Dashed lines connect time synchronous depositional horizons based upon the preserved carbon signal.

FIG. 5 — TOC % versus depth for samples taken from Gravity Core 1, with a corrected radiocarbon chronology (yr BP) derived from the extrapolated sedimentation rate. Global T-events and warm climatic events are indicated.

MS and volume per cent sand data do not seem to be related, except from 4 m to the base of the core, where the increasing values seem to be directly related. The coarse silt-size fraction is likely to be the carrier of the MS signal. Peaks in MS at 2.4 m and 3.9 m directly relate to peaks in TOC at the same depths.

Smear Slide Analysis

Further support for conclusions drawn from the MS and TOC data is provided by smear slide analysis performed for the percentages of Chaetoceros resting spores, pennate diatoms, centric diatoms, diatom fragments and mineral grain components (fig. 6A, B). The smear slide data demonstrate significant variability in particle composition, in support of the observed variation in TOC content (fig. 5). Mineral grains dominate the samples in the lower and the upper portions of the core, while the middle portions of the core are dominated by diatom particles. Breakdown of the biogenic fraction reveals that the Chaetoceros resting spores are overly abundant in the high carbon intervals. In contrast, diatom fragments are abundant, where mineral grains are also abundant and where the TOC content is low.

MS lows are characterised by higher than normal abundances of Chaetoceros resting spores (Leventer et al., in press). The minimum magnetic value ($340 \times 10^6$ CGS) at 1.8 m corresponds to the maximum percentage of
with the higher pennate concentrations found in sea ice (Clarke et al. 1984), thus suggesting blooms are related to sea-ice meltwater layers (sea-ice marginal zone). In contrast, the TOC maximum interval (at about 3000 yr BP) is marked by a low ratio of pennate to centric diatoms but elevated concentrations of Chaetoceros spores (figs 5, 6B). This suggests that production during the TOC maximum interval, while elevated, was perhaps related to open water rather than sea-ice marginal processes.

The diatom fragment concentration is significantly higher during periods of low TOC (fig. 6B). Between 0 and 1.0 m and at 4.0 m, the fragment concentration exceeds 20% and dominates the biogenic fraction. During high to average TOC levels, the fragment concentration is generally lower and is always less than that of the whole pennate forms. The low TOC values suggest extensive sea ice during these depositional periods and infringement of glaciers along the periphery of LF, consistent with reworking of diatoms (fragmentation). This reworking dilutes the deposition of pelagic productivity in the system, which is suppressed by a persistent sea-ice regime.

**Carbon Chronology**

The chronology for GC-1 is based upon radiocarbon analysis of an in situ scaphopod sample, collected from a depth of 4.57 m from which a sedimentation rate of 0.57 mm/yr was obtained, using a reservoir correction of 1300 years. The rate was extrapolated to the surface. Assuming the core top represents the sediment–water interface, the core has a sedimentation rate of roughly half of those obtained by Stein (1992) and Domack et al. (1995) for cores KC 72, KC 75 and KC 5 (1.2–1.3 mm/yr). The discrepancy in sedimentation rates must be addressed; based upon the high resolution of GC-1, a sedimentation rate of 0.57 mm/yr seems quite accurate, and excellent correlations of the TOC signal can be made between cores 72, 71 and 75 (fig. 4).

Two important assumptions have been made and cannot be ignored with regard to the chronology obtained for GC-1. First, the sedimentation rate has been assumed to be constant for the entire depositional history of GC-1. Second, the initial rate has been calculated using a reservoir correction of 1300 years (as proposed for the AP). Due to the unavailability of a radiocarbon date for living organic material in the fjord, however, an older reservoir correction for LF has been proposed, based upon radiocarbon dating of near surface sediment (Domack et al. 1995). For the purposes of this paper, the chronology is assumed to be accurate, until evidence is found which either provides a definitive reservoir correction for LF or revises the constant sedimentation rate for the core.

**DESCRIPTION AND INTERPRETATION OF GC-1 SEDIMENTARY UNITS**

Three distinct palaeoenvironments may be inferred for LF throughout the Holocene. A number of parameters exhibit strong correlations and represent distinct palaeoenvironments in the fjord. A division of the core, based upon similar sedimentologic trends, yields three distinct units; the lower (5.5–4.55 m), middle (4.55–1.45 m), and the upper (1.45–0 m) units reflect ice (glacier) proximal, open marine and ice-shelf influenced depositional environments (fig. 3).
The Lower Unit

The lower unit (5.5–4.55 m) of GC-1 is a laminated grey silty mud and medium to fine-grained sand unit (5.5–5.15 m) overlain by a structureless grey silty mud (5.38–4.55 m). TOC content and gravel frequency generally increase up core and are inversely related to the trends of magnetic susceptibility and mean grain size (fig. 3).

The fining upward sequence represents a gradual shift from an ice (glacier) proximal to open marine depositional environment, indicative of fjord deglaciation. Laminated terrigenous silts and medium to fine-grained siliciclastic sands typify proximal glaciomarine sediments in subpolar fjord settings, due to terrigenous sedimentation from meltwater influx. However, laminated silts and sands are a minor component of polar fjords, because of low meltwater input from the glacial system. Therefore, as deglaciation occurred in LF during the early to mid Holocene (prior to 8000 yr BP), meltwater input to the fjord system became more significant, resulting in coarse, laminated ice proximal deposits (pl. 1A).

As the glacial system receded towards the fjord heads, the percentage of coarse silt and sand decreased, due to settling of coarse material at the ice edge. Sedimentation at this time was gradually dominated by the settling of medium to fine-grained terrigenous silts, biogenic material and abundant iceberg rafting, a regime indicative of more open marine conditions (fig. 3). Increased preservation of the biogenic component (TOC content) is associated with the deglaciation of the fjord, as represented by the inverse relationship between magnetic susceptibility and TOC content trends in the upper section of the unit. Although TOC content increases slightly in the unit, the trend probably reflects a combination of the decreased dilution of biogenic material in the fjord system. Based upon the 

The Holocene commenced with a period of warm temperatures, which has been documented in ice-core records from the Antarctic (Cias et al. 1991) and has most recently been reflected in ice-core data from Greenland (O’Brien et al. 1995). The lower unit reflects the deglaciation of LF (fig. 5) during the warm early Holocene (prior to 8000 yr BP) and correlates with a climatic warm period observed in ice core records from Greenland (O’Brien et al. 1995). The distinct sedimentation record present in the lower unit of GC-1 is characteristically different from that of the modern Müller Ice Shelf system, indicating that sedimentation was influenced by a different type of glacial system. The deglaciation observed in LF during the early Holocene could represent the continued retreat of the modern Müller Ice Shelf. In contrast to Pudsey et al. (1994), the higher resolution record of GC-1 places the deglaciation of LF and the inner continental shelf prior to 8000 yr BP.

The Middle Unit

The middle unit (4.55–1.45 m) of GC-1 is a grey-olive green to light olive grey silty mud, with scattered IRD (fig. 4). TOC content and IRD fraction decrease up core in this unit. Magnetic susceptibility and mean grain size are variable and generally higher than observed in the middle unit. Magnetic susceptibility values decrease from 0–0.35 m as does mean grain size (0.1–0.3 mm; fig. 3). The upper unit of GC-1 displays similar characteristics to KC 72 and KC 75, interpreted by Stein (1992) and Domack et al. (1995) as an ice-shelf influenced depositional environment (fig. 4). A decreasing trend of TOC content in the lower section of the unit reflects the changing depositional environment, from that of an open marine environment with minimal sea-ice coverage to that typical of a colder (fast ice or ice shelf) influenced environment.
Hence, some climatic and/or oceanographic event induced cooling and the formation and slow advance of the Müller Ice Shelf, culminating at about 400 yr BP (the Little Ice Age).

The siliciclastic content increases as biogenic components decrease with encroachment of the ice-sheeph system (fig 6). In addition, increases in mean grain size and coarse silt and sand directly correspond to peak magnetic susceptibility value, indicative of an ice proximal setting. Input of coarse-grained sediment (sand) is probably aeolian in origin, due to the debris-poor nature of ice-sheeph systems; for a more complete discussion of aeolian sedimentation, see Stein (1992) and Domack et al. (1995). It is interesting to note the decreased magnitude of the terrigenous sediment input with the advance of the ice shelf as compared to the early Holocene deglaciation of LF (figs 4, 6). The sedimentology of the upper unit reflects a typical ice-sheeph depositional system, with minimal IRD and coarse-grained terrigenous material. In contrast, the glacial system, which receded from LF in the early Holocene, had an increased coarse sediment fraction, indicative of a glacial system (a calving tidewater margin) different from that of the modern Müller Ice Shelf system.

The upper unit of GC-1 displays similar sedimentologic and geochemical characteristics to Kasten Cores 72, 75, and 5. TOC content in all four cores increases with depth, with maxima at the base of cores 72 and 75 and at 1.8 m in GC-1 and 2.6 m in KC 5. Due to their short length, correlation of TOC maxima for LF may not be defined using cores 72, 75 and 5; however, the extended record of sedimentation in GC-1 defines a TOC maximum for the fjord at ~3200 yr BP and a transition to a colder setting dominated by fast ice at ~2700 yr BP. The decline in TOC content associated with the formation of semipermanent fast ice around 2700 yr BP corresponds to another global “T-Event” (3000-2000 yr BP), recently documented in the GISP2 ice core (O’Brien et al. 1995). TOC content minima at 0.5 m, 0.3 m, 0.7 m, and 0.6 m in cores 72, GC-1, 75 and 5 (respectively), reflect the maximum extent of the Müller Ice Shelf during the LIA (roughly 400 yr BP) and are associated with the LIA “T-Event” (600-100 yr BP) observed in the Northern Hemisphere (O’Brien et al. 1995).

Increasing TOC content at the base of cores 72, 75 and 5 can be assumed to correlate with the increase in TOC content at the base of the upper unit of GC-1. A discrepancy in the dates of this transition arises from the variable sedimentation rates in cores 72, 75 and 5. However, the transition from open marine to fast ice conditions in GC-1 (2700 yr BP) directly correlates to a similar palaeoenvironmental transition present in core PD92-2-30, which has been dated to 3000-2700 yr BP (Leventer et al., in press). The dates of the transition in GC-1 and core 30 agree with the 2700 yr BP date obtained from lake sediments on Livingston Island and James Ross Island (fig. 2), suggested by Björck et al. (1991, 1996) to represent the end of a climatic optimum for the AP.

CONCLUSIONS

The sedimentology and geochemistry of Gravity Core 1 establishes three palaeoenvironments for LF, Antarctica, during the Holocene; each palaeoenvironment has been inferred from specific sedimentologic units present in the core. The lower unit (5.5-4.55 m) of GC-1 reflects the deglaciation of the fjord and is characterised by coarse ice proximal terrigenous deposits and a diluted biogenic component. The sediment in the middle unit (4.55-1.45 m) is characteristic of an open fjord environment, with a relatively high biogenic component, low terrigenous component and variable IRD. Variation in TOC content of the unit is explained by the decline of productivity, based upon the extensive seasonal sea ice present in the fjord; particularly between 6700 and 4900 yr BP. The geochemistry of the upper unit (1.45-0 m) correlates with Kasten Cores 72, 75 and 5, previously documented by Stein (1992) and Domack et al. (1995) as reflecting the formation and fluctuation of the Müller Ice Shelf in the latest Holocene. The core’s 14C chronology, based upon the well-constrained AMS date on scaphopod calcite (see earlier), extends throughout the entire Holocene. A period of maximum sea-ice extent appears to have begun in the fjord about 2700 yr BP (the onset of the Neoglacial).

The high resolution sedimentologic record of Gravity Core 1 represents the most complete maritime record of Holocene climate change, to date, in the Antarctic. Results indicate extensive environmental variability throughout the Holocene in climatically sensitive LF, inferred as reflecting climatic variability. A palaeoclimatic reconstruction for the region suggests that a climatic warming in the early Holocene caused the deglaciation of the fjord. Warm temperatures gave way to colder temperatures which caused seasonally variable sea-ice coverage in the deglaciated fjord between 6700 and 4900 14C yr BP. Another climatic warm period, reflected by high productivity, occurred in the late middle Holocene between 4900 and 2700 yr BP. The formation of the Müller Ice Shelf around 400 yr BP reflects the colder climates of the late Neoglacial. Based upon this palaeoclimatic interpretation, climatic variability may be inferred for the AP, making the definition of a specific “Hypothermal” event difficult. However, the overall cooling trend observed in LF for the middle to late Holocene is consistent with recent ice-core data from East Antarctica (Plateau Remote, Mosely-Thompson 1996). A similar, time-synchronous record of Holocene climatic variability was documented in the GISP2 ice core (O’Brien et al. 1995). Both the Northern Hemisphere ice-core record (GISP2) and the Southern Hemisphere sedimentary record (GC-1) correlate with climatically cold triple events (“T-Events” or minima in solar irradiance; Stuiver & Braziunas 1989) previously defined for the Northern Hemisphere (fig. 5). The documentation of a similar climatic variability in the polar regions of the Southern and Northern Hemispheres is important in terms of establishing a high-latitude pattern of variable climate change in the Holocene; this enables a shift of focus towards establishing an increased understanding of the causes of regional climatic variability. Understanding the natural variability of global and regional climatic cycles in the Earth’s recent past may assist researchers in understanding the response of the Earth’s systems to the warmer temperatures documented in the era of “Global Warming”. An additional AMS date from the sea-ice maxima in the middle unit of core GC-1, as well as additional micropalaeontologic (diatom and foraminifera) analysis, may aid in solidifying the palaeoclimatic chronology of this important region.
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