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**Article:**

Rees-Owen, RL, Newton, RJ [orcid.org/0000-0003-0144-6867](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0144-6867), Ivanovic, RF et al. (3 more authors) (2020) A calibration of cellulose isotopes in modern prostrate Nothofagus and its application to fossil material from Antarctica. *Science of the Total Environment*. ISSN 0048-9697

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.142247>

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1 A calibration of cellulose isotopes in modern prostrate *Nothofagus* and its  
2 application to fossil material from Antarctica

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12 **Abstract**

13 Carbon and oxygen isotopes ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) in tree rings are widely used to reconstruct  
14 palaeoclimate variables such as temperature during the Holocene (12 thousand years ago -  
15 present), and are used increasingly in deeper time. However, their use is largely restricted to  
16 arboreal trees, which excludes potentially important data from prostrate trees and shrubs, which  
17 grow in high latitude and altitude end-member environments. Here, we calibrate the use of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
18 and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  as climatic archives in two modern species of southern beech (*Nothofagus*) from  
19 Tierra del Fuego, Chile, at the southern limit of their current range. We show that prostrate trees  
20 are potentially suitable archives for recording climatological means over longer periods (on the  
21 order of decades), which opens up these important environments for tree ring isotope analysis.  
22 We then apply our new understanding to a remarkable late Neogene (17-2.5 Ma) fossil  
23 *Nothofagus* assemblage from the Transantarctic Mountains, Antarctica, representative of a

24 prostrate tundra shrub growing during a period of significant ice sheet retreat. The  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the  
25 fossil cellulose was found to be  $\sim 4\text{‰}$  enriched relative to that of the modern tress. This is likely  
26 to be due to a combination of a more positive  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of contemporaneous atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and  
27 enhanced water use efficiency at the fossil site. Using the cellulose- $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in the fossil wood, we  
28 are able to reconstruct precipitation oxygen isotopes over the Antarctic interior for the first time  
29 for this time period. The results show that  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  over Antarctica was  $-16.0 \pm 4.2\text{‰}$ , around  
30  $12\text{‰}$  enriched relative to today, suggesting changes in the hydrological cycle linked to warmer  
31 temperatures and a smaller ice sheet.

32

33 **Keywords:** Antarctica; Neogene; Sirius Group; tree ring isotopes, precipitation

## 34 1 Introduction

35 Tree ring stable isotope analysis is a powerful and widely-used tool for palaeo-climatic  
36 reconstructions (Cernusak and English, 2014; Gessler *et al.*, 2014). It can provide rare insights  
37 into terrestrial palaeo-climate and environmental evolution at high temporal resolution, providing  
38 information on temperature (Gagen *et al.*, 2007; Naulier *et al.*, 2014; Lavergne *et al.*, 2016,  
39 2018), precipitation (Cullen and Grierson, 2009; Xu *et al.*, 2016), drought (Kress *et al.*, 2010;  
40 Labuhn *et al.*, 2016), and large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns (Xu, Sano and  
41 Nakatsuka, 2013; Griebinger *et al.*, 2018).

42 A key source of information in much of this work is the oxygen isotopic composition of tree ring  
43 cellulose ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$ ). The theory on the underpinning variables controlling  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  is relatively well  
44 developed, albeit with large uncertainties and knowledge gaps e.g. (Gessler *et al.*, 2014;  
45 Treydte *et al.*, 2014). The relationship between these variables and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  can be described by  
46 various numerical models and used to investigate oxygen isotope variations in multiple settings  
47 (Roden and Ehleringer, 2000; Farquhar and Gan, 2003; Ogée *et al.*, 2003, 2009; Danis *et al.*,

48 2012; Lavergne, Gennaretti, *et al.*, 2017). Cellulose oxygen isotopes are governed by a complex  
49 array of factors, including source water isotopic composition (itself a result of precipitation  
50 isotopes, soil residence time, and evaporative effects); leaf water enrichment due to  
51 transpiration (Yakir and Sternberg, 2000); fractionation between leaf water and carbonyl oxygen  
52 (Sternberg and DeNiro, 1983; Sternberg and Ellsworth, 2011); and other oxygen exchange  
53 processes between organic compounds and surrounding water, for example during  
54 remobilisation of organic matter or cellulose biosynthesis (e.g. Hill *et al.*, 1995; Sternberg *et al.*,  
55 2006; Gessler *et al.*, 2007; Offerman *et al.*, 2011; Nabeshima *et al.*, 2018). The underpinning  
56 link with source water oxygen isotopes means that tree-ring cellulose  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  can be used to  
57 reconstruct the oxygen isotopic composition of precipitation. This in itself is a function of  
58 precipitation amount, altitude, temperature, residence time in the atmosphere, distance from  
59 moisture source and transport patterns (Dansgaard, 1964; Sime *et al.*, 2009; Aggarwal *et al.*,  
60 2012). Cellulose  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  can therefore be used as a proxy for reconstructing global and regional  
61 hydrological change, for example, changes in basinal water regimes (Brienen *et al.*, 2012) or  
62 large-scale atmospheric circulation patterns (Baldini *et al.*, 2008; Zhu *et al.*, 2012).

63 Carbon isotopes in tree-ring cellulose ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$ ) also have utility as a palaeoclimatic proxy. In  
64 general,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  is controlled by the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  (McCarroll and Loader, 2004;  
65 Treydte *et al.*, 2007); atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentrations (Beerling, 1996; Köhler *et al.*, 2010;  
66 Battipaglia *et al.*, 2013), along with other factors that affect stomatal conductance including soil  
67 moisture and atmospheric vapour pressure deficit; and factors that control photosynthetic  
68 capacity such as nutrient availability and irradiance (Ehleringer *et al.*, 1986; Farquhar,  
69 Ehleringer and Hubick, 1989; Cernusak *et al.*, 2007; Cernusak, Winter and Turner, 2009). A  
70 range of downstream metabolic processes also play a role in shaping  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$ , including post-  
71 carboxylation fractionation, phloem loading and transport, and respiratory isotope fractionation  
72 (Gessler *et al.*, 2009; Priault, Wegener and Werner, 2009; Werner and Gessler, 2011; Werner *et*

73 *al.*, 2011).

74 Both carbon and oxygen tree ring isotopes are increasingly being applied to older time periods  
75 of up to 53 Ma as more fossil plants with adequate preservation are being recovered (Jahren  
76 and Sternberg, 2008; Schubert and Jahren, 2011; Schubert *et al.*, 2012; Wolfe *et al.*, 2012;  
77 Hare *et al.*, 2018). One particular advantage of this growing dataset is the ability of tree ring  
78 isotopes to reconstruct climatic parameters that are much harder to access through marine  
79 sediments. These include environmental geochemical signals like precipitation isotopes  
80 (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2006; Jahren and Sternberg, 2008; Jahren *et al.*, 2009) and atmospheric  
81 carbon isotopes (Arens, Jahren and Amundson, 2000; Jahren *et al.*, 2001). A notable example  
82 is the rich treasure trove of exceptionally well-preserved Eocene and Pliocene fossil wood from  
83 multiple kimberlite deposits in the Canadian High Arctic. These fossil recoveries have revealed  
84 unique details about Eocene and Pliocene palaeoclimate and hydrological cycling through their  
85 stable isotope records, such as reconstructing terrestrial temperatures and the isotopic  
86 composition of precipitation as well as providing insights into high latitude climate variability  
87 (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2006, 2010; Jahren and Sternberg, 2008; Jahren *et al.*, 2009; Csank *et al.*,  
88 2011; Wolfe *et al.*, 2012).

89 In this study, we apply tree ring isotope analysis to a unique suite of fossil prostrate or  
90 *krummoltz Nothofagus* trees recovered from the mid-late Neogene (~17 – 2.5 Ma) Sirius Group  
91 deposits at the Oliver Bluffs in the Transantarctic Mountains, Antarctica (85°07'S, 166°35'E;  
92 Webb and Harwood, 1987, 1993; Francis and Hill, 1996; Hill, Harwood and Webb, 1996). The  
93 plants were deposited at a similar latitude to today (Lawver and Gahagan, 2003) and represent  
94 a period of significant Antarctic Ice Sheet retreat, where warming of the continent allowed a  
95 tundra-like shrub to grow 480 km from the South Pole.

96 Based on both geochemical (Rees-Owen *et al.*, 2018) and microfossil-derived (Francis and Hill,

97 1996; Ashworth and Cantrill, 2004) palaeothermometers, continental summer temperatures  
98 during the trees' lifetimes were  $\sim 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , implying a weakened latitudinal temperature gradient  
99 compared to the present day, where the mean temperature in December is  $-3.4^{\circ}\text{C}$  (McMurdo  
100 Station;  $77^{\circ}51'\text{S}$ ,  $166^{\circ}40'\text{E}$ ). Shallower gradients are also supported by vegetation and marine  
101 proxy-based reconstructions, indicating, for example, a reduction of  $\sim 5.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the meridional  
102 temperature gradient during the early Pliocene relative to today (Brierley *et al.*, 2009; Pound *et*  
103 *al.*, 2012).

104 The age of these sediments has been the subject of a lengthy debate, relating to the nature of  
105 the East Antarctic Ice Sheet under warmer-than-present conditions (Barrett, 2013).

106 Biostratigraphical dating of the plant fossils by association with late Pliocene marine diatoms  
107 (Webb *et al.*, 1984; Harwood, 1986) suggests the incursion of seaways deep into the Antarctic  
108 interior and indicates a dynamic ice sheet as late as 3 million years ago. This relatively young  
109 age for the plant fossils has been challenged by suggestions that the diatoms represent wind-  
110 blown contamination from the open ocean (Burckle and Potter, 1996; Stroeven, Prentice and  
111 Kleman, 1996). Furthermore, cosmogenic exposure dating of nearby moraines indicates these  
112 sediments are much older (at least 5 Ma, but possibly as old as 17 Ma; Ackert, Jr. and Kurz,  
113 2004) and therefore that the ice sheet has been a stable climatic feature since the mid-Miocene.  
114 Evidence for a periodically reduced ice sheet accompanied by vegetation along the margins  
115 exists for the mid-Miocene (17-15 Ma; Warny *et al.*, 2009; Feakins, Warny and Lee, 2012;  
116 Griener *et al.*, 2015; Gasson *et al.*, 2016; Levy *et al.*, 2016). Increasingly both modelling (Dolan  
117 *et al.*, 2011; Austermann *et al.*, 2015; Pollard, Deconto and Alley, 2015; Pollard and Deconto,  
118 2016) and data (Fielding *et al.*, 2012; Cook *et al.*, 2013; Ohneiser *et al.*, 2020) studies also  
119 suggest that at least partial EAIS retreat occurred during the Pliocene, allowing a tundra shrub  
120 to grow around 4.1 Ma. These competing scenarios pose a challenge to dating these fossils.  
121 Nevertheless, the fossiliferous bed clearly represents a period of significant East Antarctic Ice

122 Sheet (EAIS) retreat in response to warming temperatures (Mercer, 1986; Francis and Hill,  
123 1996). Our data will therefore give novel insight into past Antarctic climate change during a vital  
124 period in its glacial history.

125 To date, the vast majority of tree ring stable isotope studies have been applied to trees with an  
126 arboreal habit. Prostrate trees (where stems grow horizontally to avoid harsh conditions such as  
127 freezing winds e.g. *Salix arctica* in the High Arctic and the fossil plants considered in this study)  
128 and shrubs are increasingly used in modern dendrochronological studies (Woodcock and  
129 Bradley, 1994; Hantemirov, Shiyatov and Gorlanova, 2011; Buras and Wilmking, 2014), where  
130 they can provide vital information on past climate for tree-less regions such as those at high  
131 latitude or altitude, and deserts. However, to our knowledge, no studies using tree ring isotopes  
132 in prostrate plants to reconstruct past climate exist, so there is uncertainty over the extent to  
133 which isotope theory developed for arboreal tree rings holds true for *krummholz*-type plants.  
134 Therefore, the objective of the first part of this study is to calibrate the use of tree ring isotopes  
135 ( $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) in high latitude prostrate trees for climatic reconstructions using plants from Isla  
136 Navarino, Chile, where two deciduous southern beech (*Nothofagus*) species grow in both  
137 arborescent and prostrate form in a subpolar forest environment at the southern limit of their  
138 range. The objective of the second part is to apply this new knowledge to our fossil *Nothofagus*  
139 trees to enhance our understanding of how the Antarctic Ice Sheet has behaved during past  
140 warm periods of Earth's history.

## 141 **2 Materials and methods**

### 142 *2.1 Oliver Bluffs; fossil site*

143 The fossil wood was sampled from a sedimentary succession at Oliver Bluffs in the Dominion  
144 Range of the Transantarctic Mountains (85°07'S, 166°35'E), which forms part of the Sirius  
145 Group sediments (Fig. 1). The fossil plant material occurs within one main bedding horizon in  
146 the central part of the exposure at Oliver Bluffs, on the eastern side of the upper valley of the

147 Beardmore Glacier. The present elevation is approximately 1760 m above sea level, but  
148 deposition likely occurred at a much lower altitude (Webb and Harwood, 1993; Ackert, Jr. and  
149 Kurz, 2004). The sedimentary sequence consists of glacial diamictites, and are thought to be  
150 lodgement tills deposited by the ancestral Beardmore Glacier during glacial advance and retreat  
151 (McKelvey *et al.*, 1991). The fossiliferous bed containing fossil wood and leaves comprises  
152 poorly-sorted sandstones with silt lenses, representing an outwash deposit, in places burying  
153 poorly-developed glacial soils on a braided outwash plain (Ashworth and Cantrill, 2004). We  
154 envisage sporadic accretion of sediment over the plain, such that the fossiliferous bed is  
155 spatially heterogeneous, but as a whole is representative of a significant portion of the ice sheet  
156 retreat event (Rees-Owen *et al.*, 2018).

157 The fossil wood fragments were first described as *Nothofagus* (Carlquist, 1987) and later  
158 identified as *Nothofagus beardmorensis* and are dated to between 17 and 2.5 Ma (Hill and  
159 Jordan, 1996; Hill, Harwood and Webb, 1996). Leaf remains and tree ring analyses suggest that  
160 these were deciduous prostrate shrubs, very similar to the *krummholz* *N. pumilio* and *N.*  
161 *antarctica*, which grow at the treeline in Tierra del Fuego, Chile (Francis and Hill, 1996). Due to  
162 the small ring size (<100 µm) and friability of the material, fossil wood fragments were sampled  
163 for isotope analysis in bulk or by isolating individual rings where possible, so our measurements  
164 are averages over multiple years and up to several decades. The necessity of combining  
165 multiple rings together for the analysis of the fossil wood material sets the context for the  
166 modern part of our study in which we stress the interpretation of data on decadal rather than  
167 annual timescales.

## 168 2.2 *Isla Navarino; modern analogue site*

169 Isla Navarino (55°56'S, 67°37'W; Fig. 1) is part of the Magellanic subpolar forests ecoregion  
170 which stretches west of the Andes down to Tierra del Fuego, Chile. The island has a maritime  
171 climate, with mean annual temperatures of 6 °C, average summer highs of 10°C and winter



172 averages of 2°C. Cool windy conditions prevail year round; Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP) is  
173 400-500 mm, which is uniformly distributed throughout the year. The island vegetation is  
174 characterised by Magellanic forest dominated by *Nothofagus* trees to the north, and Magellanic  
175 moorland to the south.

176 The overall intention of this study is to ascertain whether the Antarctic fossil trees can be used  
177 for tree ring isotope work, so we designed our sampling strategy for the modern plants to mimic  
178 this where possible, including limiting our study to *Nothofagus* only. Wood cores and rounds  
179 from branches (for prostrate trees) from 31 living trees were collected at five sites on Isla  
180 Navarino during the austral summer of 2013. Three species of *Nothofagus* trees grow on the  
181 island, one evergreen species (*N. betuloides*) and two deciduous species (*N. antarctica* and *N.*  
182 *pumilio*). Because the fossil *Nothofagus* from the Sirius Group sediments are deciduous (Hill,  
183 Harwood and Webb, 1996), cores were taken from two deciduous *Nothofagus* species over an  
184 altitude transect from near sea-level to the treeline (~600 m) at 5 sites (Table 1; Fig. 1). Over  
185 the transect, *Nothofagus* ranged in habit from arborescent (single stem and generally greater  
186 than 4 m in height) to *krummholz* form (i.e. prostrate, with a small trunk or stem and multiple  
187 branches lying horizontally upon the ground). Species were identified by leaf character (Moore,  
188 1983) and sampled during the height of austral summer 2013 (January), when the trees were in  
189 full leaf. Arborescent trees were cored at chest height (~130 cm above the ground) using an  
190 increment wood corer with a diameter of 5 mm. Prostrate individuals were sampled from primary  
191 branches in order to match sampling from the fossil trees. Two cores or rounds were sampled  
192 per individual tree and the cores and rounds were air-dried; cores were stored in plastic straws.  
193 Rounds were sanded with progressively fine sandpaper, and the surface of the tree-ring cores  
194 were cut using a core-microtome to improve ring visibility.

195 The core samples were dated to the calendar year of their formation and cross-dated using the  
196 techniques described in (Stokes and Smiley, 1968). These were then statistically tested using

197 the programme COFECHA (Holmes, 1983; Grissino-Mayer, 2001) and chronologies were  
198 constructed using ARSTAN. As the austral growing season overlaps two calendar years, rings  
199 were assigned to the year when ring growth began (i.e. the last complete ring taken for each  
200 core in January 2013 was dated to austral summer 2011, as the 2012-2013 ring was still  
201 incomplete at the time of sampling).

202 A 30 year sequence was isolated for isotopic analysis covering the period 1981-2011. This  
203 sequence length was chosen to roughly match the available tree ring spans of the fossil trees  
204 sampled here. Tree rings are composed of earlywood and latewood; the former comprises large  
205 thin-walled cells made of stored photosynthates from the previous year and the latter comprises  
206 thicker-walled cells formed during summer. Therefore to sample at true annual resolution, it has  
207 been suggested that only latewood should be taken (Switsur *et al.*, 1995). However, the rings in  
208 the prostrate plants in this study were too small to obtain sufficient latewood, so the entire ring  
209 was sampled each time; this approach has been used successfully to reconstruct temperature  
210 in the same region (Lavergne *et al.*, 2016). Isotope ratios were measured separately for each  
211 year and each tree. There are multiple missing years in the isotope chronologies where rings  
212 were too small to extract sufficient cellulose for analysis.

213 Chronologies at annual resolution require the construction of chronologies that are statistically  
214 representative of the variability of the site. An Expressed Population Signal (EPS; Wigley, Briffa  
215 and Jones, 1984) was calculated for each site's  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  chronologies. This is a measure  
216 of how well a chronology constructed from a finite number of trees represents the hypothetical  
217 perfect or true chronology; a value of 0.85 is generally considered to be an acceptable  
218 confidence level. On the whole, EPS is highly sensitive to the number of trees in the chronology.  
219 In this study, the EPS for each site was low (particularly for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ) (0.65 – 0.87 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; 0.46 –  
220 0.76 for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ), suggesting that a greater sample size is needed to be representative of the whole  
221 sample site, particularly for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , which generally exhibits lower EPS (Daux *et al.*, 2018).

222 Because we are not intending to develop a detailed chronology for Isla Navarino, but instead  
223 test whether tree ring isotopes are broadly applicable to our prostrate fossil trees, we judge that  
224 this is adequate for the purposes of this study.

225

226 Soil and root samples were also collected, along with water from a stream network covering the  
227 altitude transect in order to estimate source water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ . Soils were sampled from 50 cm depth  
228 around the roots of three trees from each of the five sites (where 90% of *Nothofagus* forest root  
229 mass is situated; Schulze *et al.*, 1996). Root samples were taken from at least one tree at three  
230 of the five sites. Roots and soils were wrapped in cling film, stored in multiple airtight bags and  
231 frozen until required for water extraction. Source water samples were taken from seven fast-  
232 flowing streams and one lake, covering the entire altitudinal transect, filtered (0.2  $\mu\text{m}$ ), and  
233 stored in McCartney vials.

### 234 2.3 Sample preparation and isotopic analysis

235 Except where otherwise indicated, the following procedures were all carried out in the University  
236 of Leeds Cohen Geochemistry laboratories in the School of Earth and Environment, 2013 -  
237 2016.

238 Oxygen isotope ratios are expressed as  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; where delta notation is the conventional notation  
239 used for the ratio of isotopes (e.g.  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$ ) in a sample (R) relative to a standard ( $R_{\text{STD}}$ ) such  
240 that  $\delta = (R/(R_{\text{STD}} - 1)1000)$ , reported in per mil (‰). Results are reported with respect to Vienna  
241 Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW). Carbon isotope ratios ( $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ ) are expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$   
242 and reported relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite standard.

243

244 *2.3.1 Preservation of fossil material*

245 Exceptional preservation of the fossil *Nothofagus* utilised in this study is well documented  
246 (Francis and Hill, 1996), and is supported by scanning electron microscope imaging (Fig 1D),  
247 which shows excellent retention of wood fibres. Although it is clear that some degradation of  
248 vessels has occurred, this should not impact the isotopic signal of the remaining cellulose;  
249 cellulose extracted from fossil trees significantly older than those used in this study (up to 53  
250 Ma; (Wolfe *et al.*, 2012; Hook *et al.*, 2014, 2015; Staccioli, Santoni and Pizzo, 2014) was  
251 extracted in low yield (<5%; Hook *et al.*, 2015) indicating a high degree of cellulose degradation,  
252 but showed no signs of isotopic alteration. Mineral contaminants in the form of microcrystalline  
253 calcite were detected in the Sirius Group fossil trees using energy dispersive X-ray  
254 spectroscopy, which could affect both  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , but the delignification step during  
255 extraction is performed below pH 5, which removed all calcite. After extraction, cellulose was  
256 recovered as a white fluffy material (5 - 30% yield), which is a clear indication that cellulose is  
257 well-preserved and hence the fossil material is appropriate for isotope analysis.

258 *2.3.2 Cellulose isotope measurements*

259 Cellulose was extracted from both modern and fossil samples using batch extraction equipment  
260 described by (Wieloch *et al.*, 2011). To summarise, ground wood samples were heated in  
261 aqueous NaOH solution (5%, 2 hours, 60°C, repeated twice) to remove tannins, resins and fatty  
262 acids. Samples were then heated (60°C) in acidified NaClO<sub>2</sub> (via glacial acetic acid; 7.5%, pH 4-  
263 5) for 10 hours; this step was repeated four times to ensure complete delignification. Finally, we  
264 used a solution of NaOH (17%; 60°C, 2 hours) to remove hemicelluloses, leaving  $\alpha$ -cellulose for  
265 analysis. Cellulose samples were homogenised using a Retsch MM301 Mixer Mill, then freeze-  
266 dried for 24 hours to remove ambient water. Samples were stored in Eppendorf vials and kept in  
267 a desiccator for >24 hours prior to isotope analysis.

268 In order to measure  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$ , the milled, freeze-dried cellulose samples were weighed, packed  
269 into silver capsules and pyrolysed at 1450°C. Oxygen isotope ratios were measured using an  
270 elemental analyser with a purge and trap column (Elementar vario PYRO cube), coupled to an  
271 Isoprime isotope ratio-mass spectrometer. Ratios of  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  were converted to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{VSMOW}}$  with a  
272 one point linear calibration using IAEA-601 (benzoic acid;  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 23.15 \pm 0.3\text{‰}$ ) with reference to  
273 cellulose from Sigma-Aldrich, UK (Lot#SLBD2972V; hereafter Leeds Sigma cellulose). The  
274 Leeds Sigma cellulose was analysed at the University of Leeds against IAEA-CH-3 cellulose,  
275 assuming  $\delta^{18}\text{O} = 31.9 \pm 0.5\text{‰}$  (Hunsinger, Hagopian and Jahren, 2010) and assigned a value of  
276  $29.2 \pm 0.2$ . Standards were included at an interval of every twelve samples. Within-run  
277 reproducibility of an internal check standard was  $\pm 0.37\text{‰}$ . For  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  analysis, extracted cellulose  
278 samples were weighed and packed into tin capsules. Carbon isotope ratios were measured  
279 using an Elementar vario PYRO cube elemental analyser coupled to an Isoprime mass  
280 spectrometer. The encapsulated samples were combusted at 1150°C in pure oxygen. Ratios of  
281  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  were calibrated to the international VPDB scale using in-house urea and C4 sucrose.  
282 These were assigned values of  $-46.83 \pm 0.22\text{‰}$  and  $-11.93 \pm 0.24\text{‰}$ , respectively after calibration  
283 using six replicates of each of the following international standards: IAEA-LSVEC ( $-46.479\text{‰}$ ),  
284 IAEA-CH7 ( $-31.83\text{‰}$ ), IAEA-CH6 ( $-10.45\text{‰}$ ) and IAEA-CO1 ( $+2.48\text{‰}$ ). The precision obtained  
285 for repeat analysis was better than  $\pm 0.2\text{‰}$  ( $\sigma$ ).

286

### 287 *2.3.3 Water isotope measurements*

288 Water was extracted from roots and soils by cryogenic vacuum distillation, following the  
289 procedure detailed by West, Patrickson and Ehleringer (2006). Extracted samples, along with  
290 stream waters, were stored frozen until they were measured for water isotope ratios at the  
291 School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, UK. The  $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  ratios were

292 analysed using a Picarro L1102-i cavity ring-down spectroscopy analyser with a CTC Analytics  
293 autosampler. Each sample was injected and measured 6 times using 2.5  $\mu\text{l}$  of water for each  
294 injection. Together with the samples, two secondary international standards (USGS 64444 and  
295 USGS 67400) and one internal laboratory standard (NTW – Norwich tap water) were measured,  
296 each injected 10 times in order to minimize memory effects. Final isotopic compositions were  
297 calculated using the calibration line based on the secondary international standards and  
298 reported in permil units with respect to V-SMOW on the V-SMOW – SLAP scale. The precision  
299 of the measurements is 0.1 ‰ for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ .

300 The isotopic composition of plant source water for the modern *Nothofagus* in this study was  
301 constrained by measuring  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of soil waters ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{soil}}$ ) for the five sites, which ranged between -  
302  $13.1 \pm 0.73\text{‰}$  and  $-10.6 \pm 1.17\text{‰}$  (1  $\sigma$ ; grand mean =  $-11.9 \pm 0.89\text{‰}$ ; n=16; Table 1). Oxygen  
303 isotopes from eight streams and lakes across the sampling transect ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{stream}}$ ), ranged between  
304  $-11.1\text{‰}$  and  $-9.8\text{‰}$  (mean =  $-10.8 \pm 0.41\text{‰}$ ). Root water extracted from *Nothofagus* trees at three  
305 sites (mean =  $-10.5 \pm 0.54\text{‰}$ , n=4) was isotopically similar to  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{stream}}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ , indicating  
306 that plants took up water from an annually integrated precipitation signal.

307 The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data presented here only represent one year's precipitation. We also used  
308 temperature, precipitation and precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data from the nearby Global Network of  
309 Isotopes in Precipitation (GNIP) station at Ushaia, Argentina ( $54^{\circ}46'48''$  S;  $68^{\circ}16'48''$  W),  
310 approximately 50 km away, in order to take into consideration summer and winter seasonal  
311 precipitation in this study, noting that there are a number of missing years for the data set; a  
312 more complete dataset is available from Punta Arenas but this station is significantly further  
313 away. Mean summer precipitation for Ushaia was  $-9.9 \pm 0.9\text{‰}$ ; mean winter precipitation was -  
314  $11.92 \pm 0.75\text{‰}$ , which is not statistically different from the mean soil water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ).

#### 315 2.3.4 Modelling $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$

316 There are multiple models of varying complexity linking these parameters and it is not clear  
317 whether more complex models provide better predictions than simpler ones. For the purposes of  
318 this study, we used a relatively simple model given by eq. 1 (Anderson *et al.*, 2002), which was  
319 chosen because there are only two unconstrained parameters (relative humidity, RH, and the  
320 fraction of leaf water not subject to fractionation,  $f$ ). We acknowledge that there are more  
321 complex process-based and mechanistic models described in the literature, but consider that  
322 the use of more complex models linking  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  (Roden, Lin and Ehleringer, 2000;  
323 Danis *et al.*, 2012) would require making assumptions about a larger number of parameters  
324 which are difficult to constrain in deep time, for example amount of precipitation and daily max  
325 and min temperatures. The Anderson model has been used in multiple studies to reconstruct  
326 past precipitation isotopes (Csank *et al.*, 2011; Wolfe *et al.*, 2012; Hook *et al.*, 2015).

$$327 \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}} = \delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}} - (1 - f)(1 - RH)(\epsilon_e + \epsilon_k) - \epsilon \quad (1)$$

328 where  $\epsilon$  is the biological fractionation factor associated with the formation of cellulose (+27±3‰;  
329 (Sternberg and DeNiro, 1983),  $\epsilon_e$  is the equilibrium liquid-vapour fractionation for water and  
330 approximates  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of atmospheric vapour (assumed here to be 11‰; Majoube, 1971) and the  
331 subscript *source* denotes source water. The kinetic liquid-vapour fractionation ( $\epsilon_k$ ) is dependent  
332 on leaf morphology and boundary layer vapour transport conditions; broad-leaf trees have  
333 quasi-laminar boundary layer conditions so  $\epsilon_k = 21\text{‰}$  (Buhay, Edwards and Aravena, 1996).  
334 The parameter  $f$  is the fraction of leaf water not subject to evaporation (Allison, Gat and Leaney,  
335 1985) and also includes the isotopic alteration of carbon-bound oxygen via exchange with stem  
336 water (Roden and Ehleringer, 1999).

337 We tested the assumptions made by Anderson *et al.* (2002) using measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  from the  
338 modern analogue trees as input for the model (with RH = 0.7,  $f = 0.2$  as in Allison *et al.*, 1985)

339 and compared the results against measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  (i.e. soil and stream water)  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{root}}$  from  
340 Isla Navarino, and the GNIP precipitation data from Ushaia. In order to apply the model to fossil  
341 *Nothofagus*, we applied a large range of values for RH that are consistent with measurements  
342 from high latitude modern analogue sites such as Isla Navarino (0.5 - 0.85) and using a random  
343 number generator with uniform distribution, we sampled between these constraints (n=10000) to  
344 provide an estimate of the possible range of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip.}}$

### 345 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 346 *3.1. Oxygen and carbon isotope ratios in modern Nothofagus*

347 Oxygen and carbon isotope ratios in modern *Nothofagus* trees over a range of morphologies  
348 were measured to provide a first order check on the ability of fossil prostrate *Nothofagus* plants  
349 to record long-term climate and environmental variables. Mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  for all sites over the  
350 sample period (1981-2011) ranged between 24.1‰ and 26.9‰. There was no statistically  
351 significant difference between the two *Nothofagus* species ( $p>0.7$ ; Student's unpaired *t*-test).  
352 However, there is also no statistically significant difference between sites for mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$ , and  
353 therefore for altitude and morphology (i.e. prostrate or arboreal form), indicating that morphology  
354 does not impact absolute  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  integrated over multiple tree rings. Intriguingly, prostrate trees  
355 in this study exhibit much lower inter-tree variability than their arborescent counterparts ( $\sigma =$   
356 2.1‰ and  $\sigma = 0.8\text{‰}$ , for arboreal and prostrate morphologies, respectively (Fig. 3)). Prostrate  
357 plants are more aerodynamically decoupled from the atmosphere, and retain tight control over  
358 their microclimate (Barrera *et al.*, 2000; Korner, 2003), which may reduce inter-tree variability in  
359 transpiration.

360 Mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  for each site ranged between -27.2‰ and -26.7‰, (grand mean =  $-26.6\pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ),  
361 which is consistent with typical values for C3 land-plants (O'Leary, 1988). Mean inter-tree  
362 variability was low ( $\sigma$  range = 0.6 - 0.8‰) and did not vary with altitude or morphology. In this



363 case,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  variability may be dominated by carbon assimilation rather than stomatal  
364 conductance (in support of findings of Farquhar, Barbour and Henry, (1998) and Scheidegger *et*  
365 *al.*, (2000) for example). A dominant stomatal conductance signal would lead to co-varying  
366 carbon and oxygen isotope ratios with morphology (Lavergne, Daux, *et al.*, 2017; Guerrieri *et*  
367 *al.*, 2019).

368 The low EPS in this study means our chronology is inappropriate for studying climate variations  
369 at interannual resolution, and would need to be updated with more trees if that were the purpose  
370 of the study. However, this does not prevent us using the data to understand a longer-term  
371 integrated climate signal; the low inter-tree variability in the prostrate plants in particular  
372 suggests they may function well as a record of climate information integrated over longer  
373 timescales and we test this hypothesis using a physiological model below. This is particularly  
374 pertinent to the fossil plants in this study, where the tree ring widths are extremely narrow and  
375 do not provide sufficient material for analysis at annual resolution; data from the fossil plants is  
376 integrated over the entire individual plant.

### 377 *3.2 Carbon isotopes in fossil Nothofagus*

378 Mean  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  was  $-22.6 \pm 1.9\text{‰}$  ( $1 \sigma$ ). The inter-tree variability here is much larger than in either  
379 the arboreal or prostrate plants from Isla Navarino ( $-26.6 \pm 0.7\text{‰}$ ), which again is consistent with  
380 the dataset spanning millennial timescales. This range of values is significantly enriched by  
381  $\sim +4\text{‰}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ) relative to the mean values seen in the modern *Nothofagus* trees (Fig. 2).

382 Scarring on the bark (Francis and Hill, 1996) of the fossil plants implies strong winds and  
383 paleosol analysis suggests that MAP was 120-220 mm (Retallack, Krull and Bockheim, 2001),  
384 which is considerably lower than the MAP on Isla Navarino (400-500 mm). This would lead to  
385 enhanced water stress, although fossil *Nothofagus* leaves associated with the wood fragments  
386 are large in size indicating that the plants were not living in a marginal habitat (Hill *et al.*, 1996)

387 and thus any water stress could not have been too severe. For both fossil tree age scenarios,  
388 atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was equal to, or greater than present day, at ~400 ppm for the Pliocene, and  
389 exceeding 500 ppm for the warmest periods of the mid-Miocene (Pagani *et al.*, 2010; Holbourn  
390 *et al.*, 2015; Levy *et al.*, 2016). Both of these factors would lead to enhanced water-use  
391 efficiency, reducing stomatal conductance and hence enriching  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$ .

392 Additionally, Tipple, Meyers and Pagani, (2010) (Tipple, Meyers and Pagani, 2010) find that  
393  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> was higher than present day for both the Pliocene (between around -  
394 6.7 and -6‰) and mid-Miocene (between around -5.7 and -5‰), compared to between -8.5 and  
395 -7.5‰ for the present day (Keeling *et al.*, 2017). This increase in the baseline  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  in  
396 combination with enhanced water-use efficiency, is sufficient to explain the large enrichment we  
397 see between modern and fossil  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  data.

### 398 3.3. Source water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in modern *Nothofagus*

399 There was no significant trend in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of measured soil, root or stream waters with altitude,  
400 which is most likely because of the small altitude range covered in this study (0-600 m). Sites 2  
401 and 3  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{soil}}$  are statistically different from each other ( $p < 0.05$ ; one way ANOVA with post-hoc  
402 Tukey test) and site 2 is also significantly depleted relative to the stream and root water,  
403 suggesting an increased contribution from winter precipitation to soils. From these observations  
404 we infer that plant source water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$ ) can be treated as  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ , where  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  is  
405 controlled by latitude, condensation temperature and precipitation amount (Dansgaard, 1964).

### 406 3.4 Source water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ prediction from modern cellulose $\delta^{18}\text{O}$

407 We now test whether  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  can be reconstructed from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$ , using the model from  
408 Anderson *et al.*, (2002).

409 The chosen model under-predicted  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  by between 0.2‰ and 2.9‰ (mean for all sites =

410 1.5‰; Fig. 3). This could be due to model parametrization; we chose a value of exactly 27‰ for  
411 the biological fraction factor  $\epsilon$ , but another value within the accepted range of 24-30‰ could  
412 equally be chosen (as in Anderson et al., 2002 and demonstrated by the x-axis error bars).  
413 Moreover, modelled  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  was not statistically different from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{root}}$ ,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{stream}}$  or GNIP  
414 summer precipitation, indicating that the model works well for predicting  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  from  
415 measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  in *Nothofagus*. We now apply the model to the fossil *Nothofagus* in order to  
416 calculate ancient  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ .

### 417 3.5. Reconstructing ancient precipitation $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from fossil *Nothofagus*

418 Mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  for the fossil plants was  $20.3 \pm 3.0\text{‰}$ . The inter-tree variability is similar in  
419 magnitude to that seen in modern trees, but is greater than the inter-tree variability seen in the  
420 prostrate plants of this study. It seems likely that these data capture both significant temporal  
421 variability and climate variability. It is important to note that here, we are treating all fossils as  
422 being geologically contemporaneous as they were all collected from the same bed, but it is  
423 highly likely that our data may span multiple millennia. Ice sheet fluctuations during both the  
424 mid-Miocene and Pliocene occurred at orbital timescales (Greenop et al., 2014; Patterson et al.,  
425 2014); therefore the duration represented by the fossils must be less than 100 kyr, but long  
426 enough for poorly developed soils to form and woody plants to colonise the area. This is  
427 consistent with the larger variability in the fossil data compared to the modern. Mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  for  
428 the Sirius Group plant is significantly depleted by  $\sim 5\text{‰}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ) relative to the mean of the  
429 modern *Nothofagus* trees from Isla Navarino ( $25.5 \pm 1.5\text{‰}$ ). Broadly, there are two major controls  
430 on  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$ , which could cause such an offset: evapotranspiration rates (controlled by relative  
431 humidity and stomatal conductance) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of the plant's source water (McCarroll and  
432 Loader, 2004). From the modern data, we assume that plant source water is equal to  
433 precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  within the uncertainty of precipitation variability. In addition to latitude,

434 precipitation amount, and temperature, there are further processes that could modify this signal,  
435 including evaporation from soil or plants using groundwater as a moisture source. Depletion  
436 could result from a large decrease in stomatal conductance caused by increased vapour  
437 pressure deficit reducing evapotranspiration from leaves. However, vapour pressure deficit  
438 across southern Chile is already relatively low (<0.5 kPa; Du *et al.*, 2018) and it is unlikely that  
439 there would have been significant decreases in vapour pressure deficit for Antarctica when  
440 summer temperatures are not predicted to have been much lower (Rees-Owen *et al.*, 2018).  
441 Alternatively, decreased  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  could be caused by a difference in  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$ , which is consistent  
442 with the higher palaeolatitude of the fossil plants (85°S for the Sirius Group, 54°S for Isla  
443 Navarino). We test this hypothesis using the physiological model for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  from Anderson *et al.*  
444 (2002). Using this approach, we calculate that mean continental Antarctic palaeoprecipitation  
445 was  $-16 \pm 4.2\text{‰}$  (1  $\sigma$ ; ranging between  $-26\text{‰}$  and  $-3.5\text{‰}$ ). Since  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  is strongly modified by  
446 ambient relative humidity, the large range in our results is consistent with the conservative (i.e.  
447 wide) humidity range used in this study.

448 In the present day,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  over East Antarctica is highly variable, ranging from  $-55\text{‰}$  at the  
449 highest elevations and furthest from the coast, to  $-25\text{‰}$  near sea level at lower latitudes <75°S  
450 (Masson-Delmotte *et al.*, 2008). However, there is considerable uncertainty surrounding the  
451 palaeoaltitude of the *Nothofagus* fossils sampled in this study (Ackert, Jr. and Kurz, 2004),  
452 which makes it difficult to provide context for the reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  values. We therefore  
453 compared our record to measured

454 Antarctic  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  from sites above 75°S and less than 700 m above sea level (the height of the  
455 timberline on Isla Navarino; Masson-Delmotte *et al.*, 2008), representing a reasonable habitat  
456 range. Reconstructed  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  was significantly enriched by  $\sim +12\text{‰}$  relative to modern  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$   
457 (ancient mean =  $-16\text{‰}$ , modern mean =  $-28\text{‰}$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 4). Growth experiments have

458 suggested that plant  $\delta^2\text{H}$  (and therefore by extension,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) can be significantly enriched in  
459 plants grown under continuous light, analogous to the polar light regime (Yang *et al.*, 2009).  
460 Therefore, part of the enrichment in the Sirius Group specimens could be accounted for by the  
461 continuous light regime experienced by the Antarctic plants during the growing season, which  
462 would increase  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  via continuous transpiration, as opposed to the light regime on Isla  
463 Navarino, where plants undergo a diurnal transpiration-respiration cycle. However, the plants  
464 used by Yang *et al.* (2009) have a relatively high transpiration rate because of the relatively  
465 warm growing temperatures used in their experimental study. We suggest that the transpiration  
466 rate for the Sirius Group plants would likely be much lower because of the cold summer  
467 temperatures ( $\sim 5^\circ\text{C}$ , compared to  $\sim 20^\circ\text{C}$  in the environment used by Yang *et al.*, 2009).  
468 Furthermore, *Nothofagus* have been documented as having significantly tighter stomatal control  
469 of transpiration than co-existing conifers (Fernández, Gyenge and Schlichter, 2009), as used by  
470 Yang *et al.* (2009). Therefore it seems likely that there is much lower enrichment due to  
471 continuous light in the Sirius Group fossils (see Supplementary Information for further  
472 discussion).

473 Our result has implications for regional and global climate during periods of ice sheet retreat in  
474 the Neogene. A significant enrichment in precipitation isotopes implies a considerable change in  
475 some of the atmospheric processes of the hydrological cycle. Plausible mechanisms include  
476 increased temperatures affecting fractionation during condensation, or changes in rainout  
477 patterns due to shifts in source moisture region or different atmospheric circulation patterns  
478 leading to a shortened vapour transport pathway. As previously discussed, warmer Antarctic  
479 temperatures (relative to today) are consistent with multiple contemporaneous terrestrial  
480 temperature proxies, which suggest that summer temperatures reached  $5^\circ\text{C}$  during the period of  
481 study (Ashworth and Kuschel, 2003; Ashworth and Preece, 2003; Ashworth and Cantrill, 2004;  
482 Rees-Owen *et al.*, 2018). This result is also consistent with both age scenarios for the site:

483 during both the mid-Miocene and Pliocene, sea surface temperatures in the Southern Ocean  
484 were several degrees warmer than today (Warny *et al.*, 2009; McKay *et al.*, 2012; Clark *et al.*,  
485 2013) and there is evidence for reduced sea ice cover (Whitehead, Wotherspoon and Bohaty,  
486 2005; Warny *et al.*, 2009). However, previous work by Feakins *et al.*, (2012) suggests that the  
487 relationship between temperature and precipitation isotopes earlier in the Miocene (20 - 15 Ma)  
488 on the Antarctic coast was different from the modern, driven by increased evaporation from a  
489 warmer Southern Ocean. Similarly, isotopic disequilibrium between vapour and precipitation in  
490 modern-day Patagonia has been suggested to explain greater than expected  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$   
491 (Penchenat *et al.*, 2020). This implies that other factors may also influence the hydrological  
492 cycle at this time, which is plausible within the context of a warmer Neogene world, where  
493 warmer Southern Ocean temperatures could drive an increase in evaporation from high latitude  
494 moisture sources. Equally, the smaller ice sheet could well have influenced regional  
495 atmospheric circulation patterns, and changes in global atmospheric circulation are documented  
496 for the Pliocene (Brierley *et al.*, 2009). These variables are likely to be important for  
497 understanding the full significance of our data, but are unconstrained, and a full exploration of  
498 hydrological changes is beyond the scope of this study. These questions could be more fully  
499 answered through further data collection to reduce proxy uncertainty, and the use of a coupled  
500 ocean-atmosphere climate model to investigate hydrodynamic changes.

#### 501 **4. Conclusions**

502 By testing a simple physiological model linking  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  with  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  in two species of modern  
503 *Nothofagus* plants, which grow in both arboreal and prostrate form, we found that  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  of  
504 prostrate *Nothofagus* faithfully records  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  at multi- year resolution. Hitherto, most tree ring  
505 stable isotope analyses have been applied to trees with an arboreal habit in temperate and  
506 tropical environments. Therefore, it was previously unclear whether the assumptions made in

507 tree ring isotope theory hold true for *krummholz*-type plants, such as those from Oliver Bluffs,  
508 which feature growth asymmetry that could affect isotopic signals via resource partitioning. Our  
509 findings demonstrate that prostrate trees are potentially suitable archives for recording  
510 climatological means over longer periods (on the order of decades). This result opens up high  
511 latitude and altitude end-member environments in both palaeo and modern times for tree ring  
512 isotope analysis.

513 The carbon isotope composition of cellulose from exceptionally well-preserved Neogene fossil  
514 wood from the Transantarctic Mountains, Antarctica was  $\sim 4\text{‰}$  more positive than that of the  
515 modern samples. This difference is best explained as the result of a more positive value for the  
516  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of contemporaneous atmospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  and enhanced water use efficiency at the Oliver  
517 Bluffs site, although the precise contribution of each of these factors to this signal is unknown.

518 The oxygen isotopic composition of the fossil wood provides new insights into Neogene  
519 hydrological cycling. Our record indicates that during a period of EAIS ice sheet retreat in which  
520 small prostrate shrubs colonised the exposed glacial landscape close to the South Pole, the  
521 hydrological cycle was markedly different to today with precipitation significantly enriched in  $^{18}\text{O}$   
522 by  $\sim 12\text{‰}$  relative to modern precipitation over the continent. While the enrichment may be  
523 temperature driven alone, our result correlates well with the result of Feakins et al. (2012),  
524 suggesting that moisture source regions may have been different in the past. However, it is not  
525 possible to distinguish between these two possibilities, or some combination of both, based on  
526 the geochemical data alone.

## 527 **Acknowledgements**

528 Many thanks are due to our two anonymous reviewers, whose detailed and helpful comments  
529 have helped to improve this manuscript. We thank F. Keay and A. Connolly of Leeds University  
530 for technical and analytical support, J. Forth for support in the field, and R. Brien for

531 equipment loans and useful discussions on sampling tree rings. R.L.R.O. thanks the Natural  
532 Environmental Research Council (NERC) for supporting her PhD studentship (NE/K500847/1),  
533 the BGS for CASE support, and the Trans-Antarctic Association for support with fieldwork  
534 (TAA/13/10). R.I. was supported by a NERC Independent Fellowship (NE/K008536/1). J.B.R.  
535 publishes with the approval of the Executive Director, British Geological Survey (NERC). Fossil  
536 samples were obtained from A. Ashworth, North Dakota State University, and were collected  
537 during fieldwork for an NSF-funded project undertaken by A. Ashworth, J. Francis, D. Cantrill  
538 and S. Roof. Modern tree core samples were taken during the 2012-13 field season; thanks are  
539 due to Omora Ethnobotanical Park for permission to sample their trees and use their field  
540 station, as well as Marcelo Leppe at INACH for invaluable advice on conducting fieldwork in  
541 Chile.

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929 **Figure Captions**

930

931 Figure 1: **(A)** Location of sampling sites on Isla Navarino in Tierra del Fuego, Chile. Yellow  
932 triangle = marks the location of the GNIP station at Ushuaia; open circles = mark the tree ring  
933 sampling sites. **(B)** Fossil wood location at Oliver Bluffs (black filled circle), Transantarctic  
934 Mountains, Antarctica. White represents ice; grey shapes are Transantarctic Mountain outcrops.  
935 **(C)** Photograph of exceptionally preserved fossil *Nothofagus* from Oliver Bluffs. **(D)** Scanning  
936 Electron Microscope image of fossil *Nothofagus*, demonstrating excellent preservation of wood  
937 fibres. **(E)** Prostrate *Nothofagus antarctica* from Isla Navarino.

938

939 Figure 2: **(A)** Standard deviation of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$  (open circles) and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  (closed circles) with altitude  
940 for *Nothofagus* from Isla Navarino, demonstrating a decrease in variability for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  for  
941 prostrate trees. **(B)** Mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  data for modern *Nothofagus* separated into arboreal and  
942 prostrate form, and fossil *Nothofagus*. **(C)** As panel **(B)** but for  $\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{cell}}$ .

943

944 Figure 3: The relationship between modelled source water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  water  
945 for each site (from soils from each of the five sites (circles), roots from three sites (squares) and  
946 Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{precip}}$  (summer precipitation; diamond). Modelled  
947 source water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  was calculated from measured  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{cell}}$  (modern *Nothofagus*) using the same  
948 method as Anderson et al. (2002). Markers give the mean  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ , y-error bars show the full  
949 measured data range, x-errors show the range of modelled  $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{source}}$  if  $\varepsilon$  were varied within the  
950 range given by Sternberg and DeNiro, (1983), and a 1:1 ratio is given by the dotted line for  
951 comparison. Modelled data is calculated using  $\text{RH} = 0.7$ ,  $f = 0.2$ .

952

953 Figure 4: Cellulose  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  from the Sirius Group fossil *Nothofagus*, with modelled  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of  
954 palaeo precipitation and modern Antarctic snow. Modern measurements from Masson-Delmotte  
955 et al. (2008); data restricted to  $>75^\circ\text{S}$  and below 700 masl. The median is given by the line, the  
956 first and third quartiles by the box, and the whiskers denote the full range of data.