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A beryllium-10 chronology of late-glacial moraines in the upper Rakaia valley, Southern Alps, New Zealand supports Southern-Hemisphere warming during the Younger Dryas

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Abstract

Interhemispheric differences in the timing of pauses or reversals in the temperature rise at the end of the last ice age can help to clarify the mechanisms that influence glacial terminations. Our beryllium-10 (^{10}Be) surface-exposure chronology for the moraines of the upper Rakaia valley of New Zealand's Southern Alps, combined with glaciological modeling, show that late-glacial temperature change in the atmosphere over the Southern Alps exhibited an Antarctic-like

pattern. During the Antarctic Cold Reversal, the upper Rakaia glacier built two well-defined, closely-spaced moraines on Reischek knob at 13,900 ± 120 [1σ; ± 310 yrs when including a 2.1% production-rate (PR) uncertainty] and 13,140 ± 250 (± 370) yrs ago, in positions consistent with mean annual temperature approximately 2 °C cooler than modern values. The formation of distinct, widely-spaced moraines at 12,140 ± 200 (± 320) and 11,620 ± 160 (± 290) yrs ago on Meins Knob, 2 km up-valley from the Reischek knob moraines, indicates that the glacier thinned by ~250 m during Heinrich Stadial 0 (HS 0, coeval with the Younger Dryas 12,900 to 11,600 yrs ago). The glacier-inferred temperature rise in the upper Rakaia valley during HS 0 was about 1 °C. Because a similar pattern is documented by well-dated glacial geomorphologic records from the Andes of South America, the implication is that this late-glacial atmospheric climate signal extended from 79°S north to at least 36°S, and thus was a major feature of Southern Hemisphere paleoclimate during the last glacial termination.

1. Introduction

The last glacial termination is a key interval for understanding the role of millennial-scale climate events in ice-age climate cycles. In seeking to determine the causes and effects of the Antarctic Cold Reversal (ACR) and Heinrich Stadial 1 and 0 (HS 1, HS 0; the latter equating to the Younger Dryas), we must first understand their timings and geographic footprints. Isotope records from Antarctic ice cores indicate cooling during the ACR followed by renewed warming during HS 0 (Brook *et al.,* 2005; Stenni *et al.,* 2011; Pedro *et al.,* 2011; WAIS Divide Project Members, 2013; Buizert *et al*., 2015; Cuffey *et al.,* 2016). Greenland ice cores show nearly opposite isotopic patterns (e.g., Rasmussen *et al.,* 2006). However, these antiphased changes in the polar latitudes of both hemispheres are of uncertain geographic extent, making it difficult to ascertain their causes as well as their potential significance in regard to the behavior of Earth's

climate system. For example, to what extent did the Antarctic pattern impinge on the Southern Hemisphere's mid-latitudes (Newnham *et al.,* 2012; Pedro *et al*., 2016)? Glacial landforms in New Zealand's Southern Alps provide archives suitable for ascertaining the timing of climate warming during the last glacial termination, and thereby test hypotheses about the geographic footprints of regional to hemispheric climate events. Here, we present a chronology of late-glacial moraine formation in the upper reaches of the Rakaia valley. Our dataset complements the chronology of ice recession during the last glacial termination obtained by dating of glacial landforms farther down the Rakaia valley (Putnam *et al*. 2013b). The quantification of glacier recession in a single valley in the Southern Alps reduces possible concerns about valley-specific differences in glacier behavior arising from factors such as topography, aspect and geometry.-

The Southern Alps are situated near the antipode of the North Atlantic region, and thus are aptly positioned to test the inter-hemispheric phasing of millennial-scale climate changes. Furthermore, the Southern Alps lie athwart the Southern Hemisphere westerly winds at the northern edge of the Southern Ocean, marked by the Subtropical Front (STF, Fig. 1; Bostock *et al*., 2015). Their location near the STF makes the Southern Alps subject to both tropical and Antarctic influences (De Deckker *et al*., 2012; Putnam *et al*., 2012, 2013a). Variations in present-day glacier mass balance in the Southern Alps are largely attributed to changes in air temperature, due both to solar radiation and to turbulent heat flux from air masses passing over the ocean west of New Zealand; precipitation changes play a lesser role (Anderson and Macintosh, 2006). Consequently, length variations of glaciers in New Zealand's Southern Alps can be linked primarily to changes in air temperature (Oerlemans, 1997, 2005; Anderson and Mackintosh, 2006; Anderson *et al.,* 2010; Purdie *et al.,* 2011; Golledge *et al.,* 2012). This provides a basis for inferring that glacial landforms in the Southern Alps (Fig. 2) document times

71 of greater-than-present ice extent that resulted primarily from atmospheric temperatures that
72 were colder than present.

73 The Rakaia valley glacial landforms record progressive ice recession during the last
74 glacial termination (Fig. 3) (Burrows and Russell, 1975; Shulmeister *et al.*, 2010; Barrell, 2011;
75 Barrell *et al*., 2011; Putnam *et al*., 2013b). A notable feature is that the lower reaches of the
76 Rakaia valley occupy a tectonic depression, rather than being of purely ice-hewn origin (Barrell
77 *et al*., 2011). Consequently, there is not a well-defined glacial trough. In addition, numerous,
78 glacially-sculpted bedrock hills and spurs project from the valley floor and walls. Glacially-
79 transported boulders on both the ice-sculpted rock surfaces and the morainic deposits afford
80 opportunities for palaeoclimatic investigation (Putnam *et al.*, 2013b**)**. Using mapped glacial
81 landforms as targets (Barrell *et al.*, 2011), we employed ^{10}Be surface-exposure dating and
82 glaciological modeling in the upper reaches of the Rakaia valley to reconstruct a chronology of
83 ice extent and associated climate during the latter part of the last glacial termination. Our work
84 builds upon the chronology of Putnam *et al.* (2013b), which shows the details of ice retreat
85 during the first part of the last glacial termination in the Rakaia valley from ~18,000 to ~15,000
86 years ago. On the basis of our mapping, surface-exposure dating, and climate reconstruction, we
87 discuss the climate events of the last glacial termination in the Southern Alps.

88 **2. Geology and geomorphology of the upper Rakaia valley**

89 The Rakaia valley drains a portion of the southeast side of the main hydrographic divide
90 (Main Divide) of the Southern Alps. During the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) the former
91 Rakaia glacier was a major outlet of the Southern Alps ice field (Barrell *et al.*, 2011). Bedrock in
92 the Rakaia catchment comprises predominantly greywacke sandstone and argillite mudstone of

93 the Rakaia Terrane (Cox and Barrell, 2007). The Rakaia valley is fed by three major tributaries,
94 from north to south, the Wilberforce River, the Mathias River, and the upstream reach of the
95 Rakaia River, hereafter the upper Rakaia River, which flows down the upper Rakaia valley (Fig.
96 3). The upper Rakaia River has its source at the confluence of the meltwater streams from the
97 Lyell Glacier and the Ramsay Glacier. Although aggradation of the upper Rakaia valley floor,
98 and gully erosion of the valley sides, have obscured or removed much of the glacial imprint in
99 the upper Rakaia valley, important remnants of moraines persist, particularly on the crests and
100 flanks of ice-smoothed bedrock spurs (Barrell *et al.*, 2011). On the eastern flank of Reischek
101 Stream, morainal landforms occupy the northern and western flanks of a bedrock spur. The spur
102 was referred to as "high moraine bluff" by Burrows and Russell (1975) and as "Reischek knob"
103 by Putnam *et al*. (2013b). The Reischek knob moraines were formed at the margin of a much-
104 expanded Reischek Glacier, at a time when it was confluent with the upper Rakaia glacier, itself
105 the product of the much-expanded and coalesced Lyell and Ramsay glaciers. Burrows and
106 Russell (1975) tentatively correlated the higher and lower portions of a prominent moraine ridge
107 complex on Reischek knob with glacier termini near Lake Stream (higher ridge) and Jagged
108 Stream (lower ridge), respectively ~17 km and ~11 km down-valley of Reischek knob. Standing
109 on the southern side of the confluence of the Lyell and Ramsay valleys is Meins Knob, a broad-
110 crested bedrock ridge, capped with remnant glacial landforms (Meins Knob moraines of Burrows
111 and Russell (1975)). As Meins Knob lies ~2 km up-valley, and as much as 200 m elevation
112 lower than, the prominent moraine ridges on Reischek knob, the Meins Knob moraines were
113 formed after the upper Rakaia glacier had attained a lesser elevation than it had at the time the
114 Reischek knob moraines were formed.

A recent study documented the geomorphology and moraine chronology of the Rakaia valley from Reischek knob downstream (Putnam *et al*., 2013b). That study examined two landform features on Reischek knob, outboard of the prominent moraine ridges on the knob. Those landform features were given informal names and comprise till-veneered bedrock (Reischek knob I), and meltwater channels incised into, and therefore younger than, the till-veneered bedrock landform (Reischek knob II). The meltwater channels emanate from the outermost part of the moraine ridge complex. The study area adjoins that of Putnam *et al*. (2013b) and the oldest landforms addressed in our study are in the moraine ridge complex on Reischek knob. Within the moraine ridge complex, we focused on two prominent moraine ridges, the outer (higher) identified here as Reischek III, and the inner (lower) as Reischek IV.

The moraines on Meins Knob follow the long axis of this bedrock spur, which is nearly perpendicular to the trend of the Rakaia valley (see map, Fig. 4). The Meins Knob I moraine extends ~1200 m along the top of the spur. The Meins Knob II moraine ridge extends ~500 m along the western slope of the spur, and lies ~200 m up-valley from, and ~100 m lower than, the Meins Knob I moraine ridge. Between these two moraine ridges is a flight of low ridges or kame terraces, each of which lacks surface boulders.

3. Methods

3.1 Sampling for ^{10}Be surface-exposure dating

We used ^{10}Be surface-exposure dating to build a chronology of the Reischek knob III and IV moraines and the Meins Knob moraines. We selected for sampling boulders that were well embedded in moraine ridges. We avoided sampling boulders on portions of moraines that showed signs of post-depositional disturbance such as erosion or slumping, and boulders on

137 landforms situated below cliffs and steep slopes that could have been emplaced by rock fall
138 subsequent to ice withdrawal. We also avoided boulders that showed signs of surface instability
139 such as spalling or flaking. We used a hammer and chisel, or else the drill-and-blast method of
140 Kelly (2003), to sample the top one-to-five cm of boulders that were deemed suitable for dating.

141 **3.2 Laboratory procedures and ^{10}Be age calculations**

142 We processed all samples for ^{10}Be analysis at the Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory
143 cosmogenic isotope laboratory, following the methods described by Schaefer *et al.* (2009), and
144 available online at http://www.ldeo.columbia.edu/tcn. The LDEO cation exchange column that
145 we used to separate Be from Ti and Al generally follows the procedure adapted by Stone
146 (http://depts.washington.edu/cosmolab/chem/Al-26_Be-10.pdf) from that of Ditchburn and
147 Whitehead (1994). Beryllium isotope ratios were measured at the Lawrence Livermore National
148 Laboratory Center for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (Rood *et al.*, 2010, 2013). We corrected
149 sample ^{10}Be quantities (1.6-3.2 x 10^6 atoms ^{10}Be) for background ^{10}Be contamination by
150 subtracting the total number of ^{10}Be atoms measured in one or two procedural blanks (0.1-1.4
151 x10^4 atoms ^{10}Be, see Table 3) that were run with each respective sample, and propagated sample
152 and blank uncertainties in quadrature, including a 1.5% uncertainty in the ^{9}Be carrier
153 concentration. In cases where two blanks were run with a sample, we used the average and
154 standard deviation of both blanks. Background ^{10}Be/^{9}Be ratios were less than one percent of
155 sample ^{10}Be/^{9}Be ratios (Table 1); uncertainty in the background corrections affects the overall
156 age uncertainty by less than 0.2%.

157 We determined exposure ages by using the online calculator of Balco *et al.* (2008) with
158 the production-rate calibration data of Putnam *et al.* (2010a), which imply ^{10}Be production of

159 3.74 ± 0.08 at g^{-1} yr^{-1} at sea level and high latitude (with the time-dependent scaling scheme of
160 Lal (1991)/Stone (2000) ("Lm")). Ages given in the text were calculated using Lm scaling
161 (Table 2) that includes the high-resolution geomagnetic model of Lifton *et al.* (2008). Because
162 the Macaulay River calibration site of Putnam *et al.* (2010a) is located about 40 km southwest
163 of the upper Rakaia valley and lies at a similar elevation, the choice of scaling scheme has little
164 impact on the exposure ages (see Table 2).

165 We made no corrections for snow cover or for erosion of boulder surfaces. In the central
166 part of the Southern Alps, winter (June-July-August) snow cover is generally persistent only at
167 altitudes above ~1500 m. Below that altitude a winter snowfall of 1 m is an exceptional event
168 and generally melts away within a few weeks. Moreover, the sampled boulders protrude from the
169 crests of moraine ridges and are likely to be swept clear of snow by the wind. Thus, at the
170 elevation of our sample sites (1150-1450 m above sea level), significant shielding due to snow is
171 unlikely, especially given the northerly (sunny) aspect of Reischek knob and Meins Knob.

172 Quartz veins that protrude 2-10 millimeters from the surface of many of the sampled
173 boulders indicate low erosion rates of 0.2-0.7 mm/ka. Assuming erosion of 0.7 mm/ka would
174 make the ages some 0.6-0.7% older. We chose not to make any erosion corrections for several
175 reasons. One is that quartz-vein heights, and thus the implied erosion rates, vary from one
176 boulder to another. Another is that at the production-rate calibration site no erosion correction
177 was applied, and so the effects, if any, of erosion are integrated within the production rate.
178 Finally, the effect on the calculated ages of an erosion correction would in any case be minimal.
179 Another consideration is the question of pre-exposure, which may result in inherited ^{10}Be
180 concentrations. Rapid erosion and frequent rock fall in the steep glacier catchments of the
181 Southern Alps means that in general the rock wall surfaces of the valleys are regularly being

refreshed. Thus, the material delivered to the glaciers and subsequently deposited in moraines is unlikely to have carried significant pre-exposure. The late-glacial to Holocene glaciers of the Southern Alps were relatively short and it is likely that the transit time of supraglacial rock debris from source to a moraine repository was a century or less (Schaefer *et al.*, 2009; Balco, 2011; Putnam *et al.*, 2012). To facilitate comparison with radiocarbon ages, all ^{10}Be ages have been referenced to the year 1950 CE by subtracting 61 years from the calculated ages (all samples were collected in February, 2011).

3.3 Glacier Model Application

Glacier reconstructions were made using a 2-dimensional energy, mass-balance, and ice-flow model (Plummer and Phillips, 2003) that has previously been applied to the last glacial maximum and subsequent recession of the Rakaia glacier (Putnam *et al.*, 2013b; Rowan *et al.*, 2013). Model parameterization used for the Rakaia glacier followed that employed by Rowan *et al.* (2013) and Putnam *et al.* (2013b), except for a smaller model domain used to consider only the upper Rakaia catchment upstream from Prospect Hill (Fig. 3). The use of this smaller model domain allowed a greater level of accuracy in the simulated glacier results compared to those determined over a larger domain. In particular, the smaller domain allows us to resolve with more confidence the change in ice thickness resulting from small (<0.5 °C) variations in mean annual air temperature.

Model parameters and variables are given in Table 4 and briefly summarized here. The model domain is defined from the Land Information New Zealand (2011) 25-m digital elevation model (DEM), resampled to a 200-m grid resolution. Mean monthly air temperature and secondary climate variables (e.g. wind speed, cloudiness) are defined by values taken from

204 automatic weather stations within 70 km of the Rakaia valley and reported in the New Zealand
205 National Climate Database (CliFlo) (http://cliflo.niwa.co.nz/). Precipitation is defined using the
206 National Institute of Water and Atmospheric Research (NIWA) 500-m gridded monthly data
207 that are interpolated from 30 years of automatic weather station records (Tait *et al.,* 2006).

208 The glacier model calculates surface energy balance across the model domain using the
209 DEM topography and an estimate of solar position at 13,000 yrs ago to determine radiative
210 fluxes. Ice flow is calculated using the shallow ice approximation and is by deformation only.
211 The choice of ice flow parameters follows that used in previous studies of the Rakaia glacier
212 (Putnam *et al.,* 2013b; Rowan *et al.,* 2013) and was designed to give the best fit of the simulated
213 ice thickness to mapped terminal and lateral moraines in the Rakaia and Ashburton catchments.
214 Following initial simulations for a given change in temperature, modeled glaciers were added to
215 the DEM topography to recalculate mass balance iteratively across the simulated glacier
216 surface, which had higher elevations for greater ice extents. Results from this ice-flow model
217 were considered acceptable when the integrated mass balance (the difference between
218 accumulation and ablation across the entire glacier) was within 4% of steady state (i.e.
219 integrated balance = 0 ± 0.04 m water equivalent per year). Glacier model simulations were run
220 to simulate differences in temperature (ΔT) in increments of 0.25 °C between –1.0 and –2.25 °C
221 with respect to modern climate. For each component of the glacial sequence, we adopted the
222 temperature depression, relative to modern, associated with the simulated ice margin that gave
223 the best fit to the observed geomorphology.

224 **4. Chronology of late-glacial moraines in the upper Rakaia valley**

We present 22 ^{10}Be surface-exposure ages of boulders on the moraine ridges of Reischek knob and Meins Knob (Table 2). All reported uncertainties on individual boulder ages include the one standard deviation analytical error (i.e., 1σ) propagated with a 1.5% carrier concentration uncertainty as well as the procedural blank error. Moraine age uncertainties are reported as the 1σ error on the arithmetic mean of the boulder population, with the production-rate (PR) uncertainty of 2.1% propagated in quadrature whenever we compare the moraine ages to independently dated records. The four boulders sampled from the Reischek knob III moraine range in age from 13,790 ± 260 to 14,010 ± 260 yrs with an arithmetic mean age of 13,900 ± 120 yrs (13,900 ± 310 yrs including PR uncertainty) (Fig. 5). Five sampled boulders from the Reischek knob IV moraine yield ages that range from 12,770 ± 250 to 13,440 ± 290 yrs, with an arithmetic mean age of 13,140 ± 250 yrs (13,140 ± 370 yrs including PR uncertainty). Eight boulders on the Meins Knob I moraine range in age from 11,930 ± 290 to 12,490 ± 250 yrs, and give an arithmetic mean age of 12,140 ± 200 yrs (12,140 ± 320 yrs including PR uncertainty). Exposure ages of five boulders embedded in the Meins Knob II moraine range from 11,440 ± 280 to 11,770 ± 270 yrs and afford an arithmetic mean age of 11,620 ± 160 yrs (11,620 ± 290 yrs including PR uncertainty).

Topographic profiling of moraines (Fig. 6) indicates that following the formation of moraines on Reischek knob at 13,900 ± 120 and 13,140 ± 250 yrs ago, the ice surface lowered by about 150 m relative to the Reischek knob IV moraine ridge. This allowed construction of the Meins Knob I moraine which culminated at 12,140 ± 200 yrs ago. After a further thinning of ~100 m, the glacier formed the Meins Knob II moraine at 11,620 ± 160 yrs ago. The abandonment of that moraine implies further thinning of the glacier. Thus, the net thinning of

247 glacier ice in the upper Rakaia valley between 13,140 ± 250 and 11,620 ± 160 yrs ago amounted
248 to some 250 m (Fig. 6).

249 **5. Glacier-inferred paleoclimatic reconstruction**

250 The upper Rakaia valley exhibits a complex hypsometry with a multitude of tributary
251 valleys that present a challenge for accurate paleo-snowline reconstruction by traditional
252 graphical methods. Hence we adopted the approach of glaciological numerical modeling to infer
253 a temperature signal from our moraine record. We are aware that temperature is not the sole
254 control on glacier mass balance, and recognize that large changes in precipitation amount can
255 mimic the effects of small temperature changes (e.g. Anderson and Mackintosh, 2006; Rowan *et*
256 *al*., 2014). However, we note that atmospheric temperature is observed to be the predominant
257 control on recent glacier mass-balance changes in the central Southern Alps (Anderson *et al.*,
258 2010; Rowan *et al*., 2014). The results of our modeling indicate that a mean annual air
259 temperature of about 2 °C cooler than present values could have sustained the glacier margin at
260 the position of the Reischek knob III and Reischek knob IV moraines (Fig. 7). The Meins Knob I
261 and II moraines correspond to temperatures of ~1.25 °C and ~1.0 °C cooler than modern,
262 respectively. Thus, the modeling indicates that the ~250 m lowering of the glacier surface in the
263 upper Rakaia valley between 13,140 ± 250 and 11,620 ± 160 yrs ago can be accounted for by a
264 mean annual air temperature increase of ~1 °C (Fig. 7).

265 **6. Discussion**

266 The glacial geomorphologic record of Rakaia valley reveals a pattern of glacier
267 withdrawal through the last glacial termination in New Zealand (Fig. 8). Extensive recession
268 occurred during HS 1 (~17,800 – ~14,700 yrs ago, Putnam *et al.*, 2013b). Shortly thereafter, the

Rakaia glacier paused, or alternatively may have resurged from a more retracted position, resulting in moraine construction on Reischek knob at ~13,900 and ~13,140 yrs ago under conditions of mean air temperature about 2.0 °C lower than today. This interval of moraine construction generally corresponds to the ACR originally registered in Antarctic ice cores. Further ice retreat between ~13,140 and ~11,620 yrs ago exposed Meins Knob during HS 0 (Younger Dryas), corresponding to an atmospheric warming of ~1.0 °C.

The late-glacial moraines on Reischek knob were constructed coevally with late-glacial moraines that we have dated elsewhere in the Southern Alps. The mid-Macaulay moraines in the Lake Tekapo catchment ("MM" in Fig. 2) date from ~13,300 yrs ago (Putnam *et al.*, 2010b). In the Lake Pukaki catchment, the Pukaki glacier formed the Birch Hill moraines in two episodes at ~14,100 and ~13,000 yrs ago (Putnam *et al.*, 2010b; "BH" in Fig. 2). In the Ben Ohau Range, a cirque glacier at the head of the Irishman Stream (Fig. 2) deposited the outermost late-glacial moraine at ~13,000 yrs ago (Kaplan *et al.*, 2010; "IS" in Fig. 2). Also in the Ben Ohau Range, the most extensive late-glacial moraines in the two branches of Whale Stream range in age from ~15,400 to ~12,900 yrs ago (n = 6, east branch) and ~14,800 to ~13,400 yrs ago (n = 4, west branch) (Kaplan *et al*., 2013; "WS" in Fig. 2). An additional example of late-glacial ice resurgence is provided by wood with an age of ~13,000 yrs, incorporated within till at Canavans Knob, just inside the Waiho Loop moraine on the western side of the Southern Alps (Denton and Hendy, 1994; Putnam *et al*., 2010b; "WL" in Fig. 2). The general correspondence in timing of moraine construction among these sites indicates a widespread pause in the Southern Alps of warming and glacier recession, punctuated with intermittent glacier advances, between ~14,000 and ~13,000 years ago.

The subsequent HS 0 warming of ~1.0 °C in the Rakaia valley was only a quarter of the amount that occurred during HS 1 (Putnam *et al.,* 2013b). Of the ~4 °C warming in the Rakaia valley during HS 1, 3.25 °C took place between ~17,900 and ~16,250 years ago (Putnam *et al.*, 2013b; Table 5). The temperature increase of ~1 °C in the Rakaia valley during HS 0 is similar to the 0.65 °C warming estimated from an approximately contemporaneous snowline rise on the Irishman Stream cirque glacier, located 100 km to the southwest of the upper Rakaia valley (Kaplan *et al.,* 2010; Doughty *et al.,* 2013). Glacier recession during HS 0 also occurred at Whale Stream, situated near Irishman Stream, in response to an estimated net warming there of ~0.6 °C (Kaplan *et al.*, 2013). These derived estimates agree within reported uncertainties, and indicate a moderate regional increase of temperature during HS 0.

Glacier records from southern South America yield a signature for the last glacial termination similar to that documented from the Southern Alps, implying an overall pan-Pacific pattern. Rapid warming and deglaciation in the Chilean Lake District between 39°S and 43°S began at ~17,800 yrs ago (Moreno *et al*., 2015). Glacier resurgence during the ACR at Lago Argentino (50°S) culminated at ~13,000 yrs ago with formation of the Puerto Bandera moraines, with subsequent recession during HS 0 interrupted by the formation of the Herminita moraines at ~12,200 yrs ago (Kaplan *et al.*, 2011, Strelin *et al.*, 2011). In Cordillera Darwin of Tierra del Fuego, extensive glacier recession occurred during the first half of HS 1 (Hall *et al*., 2013). The ACR cool episode is also well documented in other paleoclimate proxies from the Pacific margin of southern South America, such as pollen- and chironomid-inferred temperatures from lacustrine sediment cores (Massaferro *et al.,* 2009) and sea-surface temperature indicators from marine sediment cores (Lamy *et al.,* 2004, 2007; Kaiser *et al*., 2005).

A detailed climate history for central West Antarctica has been derived from a combination of ice accumulation, isotopic and borehole temperature records in the WAIS Divide ice core (WAIS Divide Project Members, 2013; Buizert *et al*., 2015; Cuffey *et al.*, 2016; see Fig. 8). These West Antarctic records indicate a sustained rise in accumulation rate and atmospheric temperature through HS 1, followed by a general plateau or decrease in accumulation and temperature during the ACR, and then further rise towards Holocene conditions. The similarity to the Rakaia valley glacier-climate reconstruction record is striking, where there was sustained warming during HS 1, a plateau in overall warming during the ACR with episodes of late-glacial moraine formation, followed by progressive slight rise in temperature through HS 0 (Fig. 8).

An important element of the Rakaia valley/West Antarctica comparison is the correlation between the glacier-inferred temperature reconstruction from the Rakaia valley and the accumulation rates inferred from the WAIS Divide ice core. Atmospheric temperature exerts a first-order control on moisture delivered to the Antarctic interior and precipitated as snow, with a secondary control being the strength of the Antarctic circumpolar vortex (Bromwich, 1988; Frieler *et al*., 2015). Accumulation rates at WAIS Divide increased sharply at ~18,000 yrs ago and achieved near-interglacial levels by ~15,500 yrs ago, all during HS 1. Snow accumulation rate at the WAIS Divide core site nearly doubled during HS 1 (WAIS Divide Project Members, 2013). This record of Antarctic snow accumulation suggests that rapid warming of Antarctic atmospheric temperature was basically complete by the end of HS 1. We infer from the general similarity between Rakaia glacier recession and the jump in Antarctic snow accumulation during HS 1 that rapid warming to near-interglacial conditions commenced in both places at about the same time, further extending the footprint of this remarkable warming event from 44°S to the deep interior of West Antarctica. This scenario is generally supported by isotope-derived

temperatures from the WAIS Divide ice core (Cuffey et al., 2016), particularly on the millennial time scale. However, we find the best match when comparing glacier-derived temperatures in the Southern Alps with WAIS Divide accumulation rates. Several late-glacial century-scale reductions in WAIS accumulation are coeval with glacier resurgence in the Rakaia valley, but the WAIS temperature reconstruction co-registers only one of the century-scale accumulation dips, at ~16,000 yrs ago.

7. Conclusions

We used ^{10}Be surface-exposure dating combined with a glaciological model of the upper Rakaia glacier to infer late-glacial temperature change in the Southern Alps of New Zealand. The upper Rakaia glacier built moraines at ~13,900 and ~13,140 yrs ago, during the ACR, in response to temperatures some 2 °C cooler than modern values. Subsequent glacier recession during HS 0 was driven by net warming of ~1 °C between ~13,140 and ~11,620 yrs ago. Our results provide a deglacial atmospheric temperature signature in New Zealand mirroring that registered over the West Antarctic Ice Sheet. Taken together with information from South America, these results imply that southern mid-to-high latitudes experienced a remarkable warming during HS 1 that brought the climate from glacial to near-interglacial temperatures. This net warming trend subsided around ~14,000 yrs ago, with episodes of glacier margin expansion or stillstand, superimposed on a subtle net warming trend into the Holocene. Any explanation for last glacial termination must explain a unified climatic signal extending from the Southern Alps of New Zealand to the interior of West Antarctica.

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Figures

Figure 1. Map of a portion of the Southern Hemisphere including New Zealand, Australia, and part of Antarctica. Ocean current depictions adapted from Carter *et al.* (1998) and Orsi *et al.* (1995).

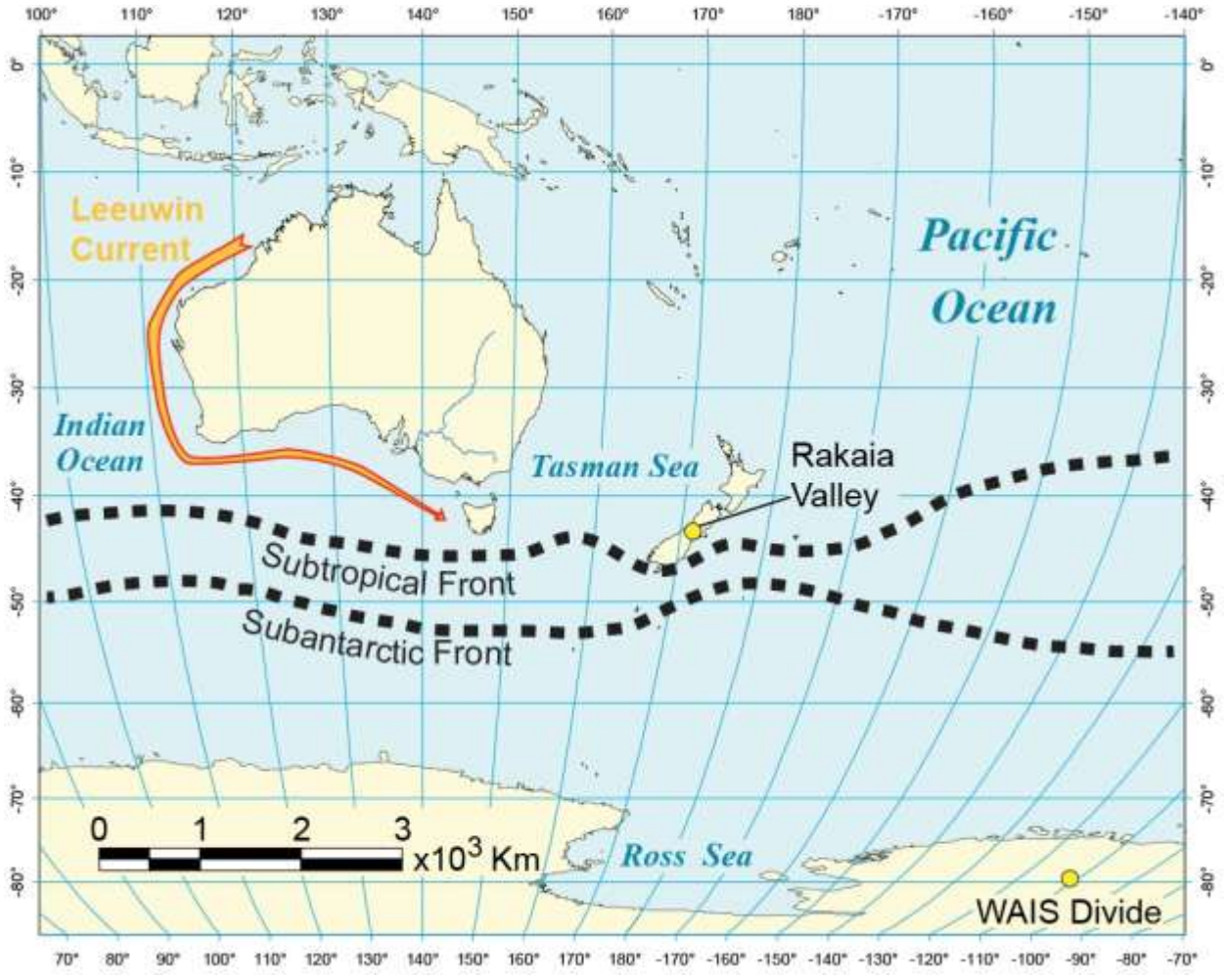

Figure 2. Glacial geomorphologic map of the central South Island of New Zealand, adapted by Putnam *et al.* (2013b) from Barrell *et al.* (2011). Rakaia valley study area outlined in black box appears in more detail in Fig. 3. Abbreviations of moraine locations mentioned in the text are: BH, Birch Hill; IS, Irishman Stream; MM, middle Macaulay valley; WL, Waiho Loop; WS, Whale Stream. Geomorphic symbols explained in the legend apply also to Fig. 3.

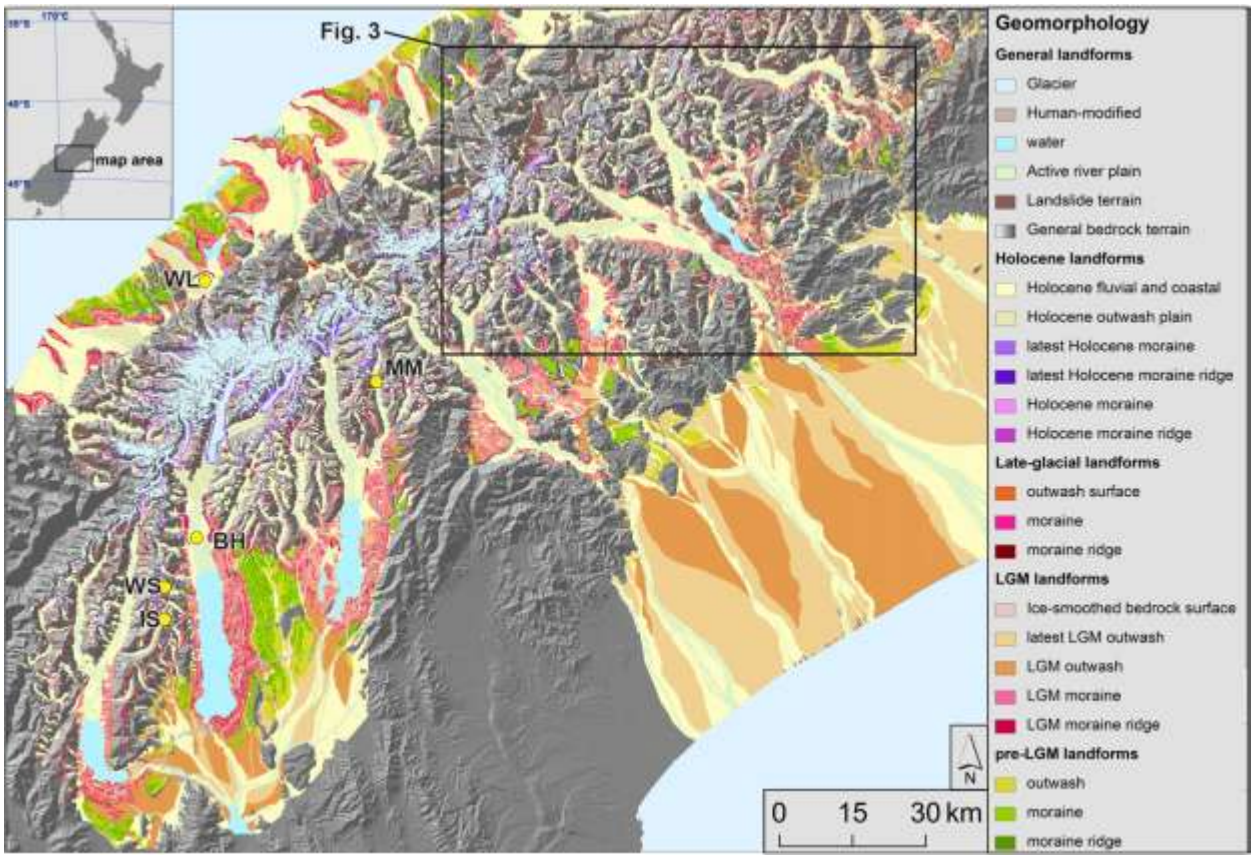

Figure 3. Glacial geomorphologic map of the Rakaia valley after Barrell *et al.* (2011). ^{10}Be ages of late-glacial landforms on Reischek knob and Meins Knob, located near the western headwaters of the valley, are shown in more detail in Fig. 4. Dates showing glacier retreat during HS1 (Putnam *et al.*, 2013b) are shown for context; outliers omitted from mean landform ages are shown in italic print. Geographic abbreviations are: BB, Big Ben; CH, Castle Hill; DH, Double Hill; LC, Lake Coleridge; LyS, Lyndon saddle; PH, Prospect Hill; TS, Turtons Saddle. All ages are shown with 1σ analytical error (internal error only) to facilitate comparison within the Rakaia valley. Valley profile is shown in Fig. 6.

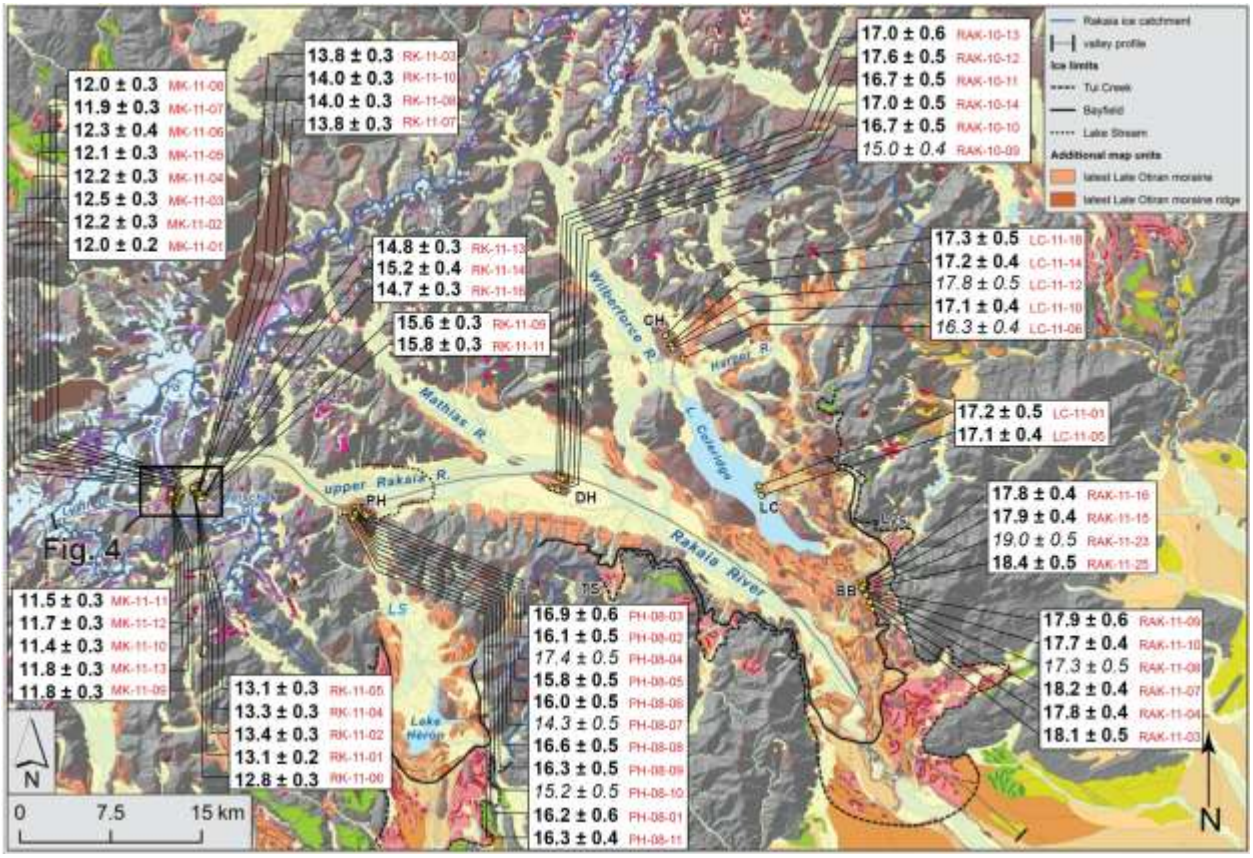

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Figure 4. Glacial geomorphologic map of a portion of the upper Rakaia valley showing the late-glacial moraines on Reischek knob and Meins Knob. Samples that record glacier recession during HS1 (RK-11-09, 11, 13, 14, and16, Putnam *et al*., 2013b) are shown for clarity. Grayscale background image is a digital elevation model with relief highlighted by simulated illumination from the northwest. Ages are presented with 1σ internal uncertainty. Ages and sample numbers are connected by yellow lines to yellow dots that depict sample locations; several of these dots overlap at this map scale.

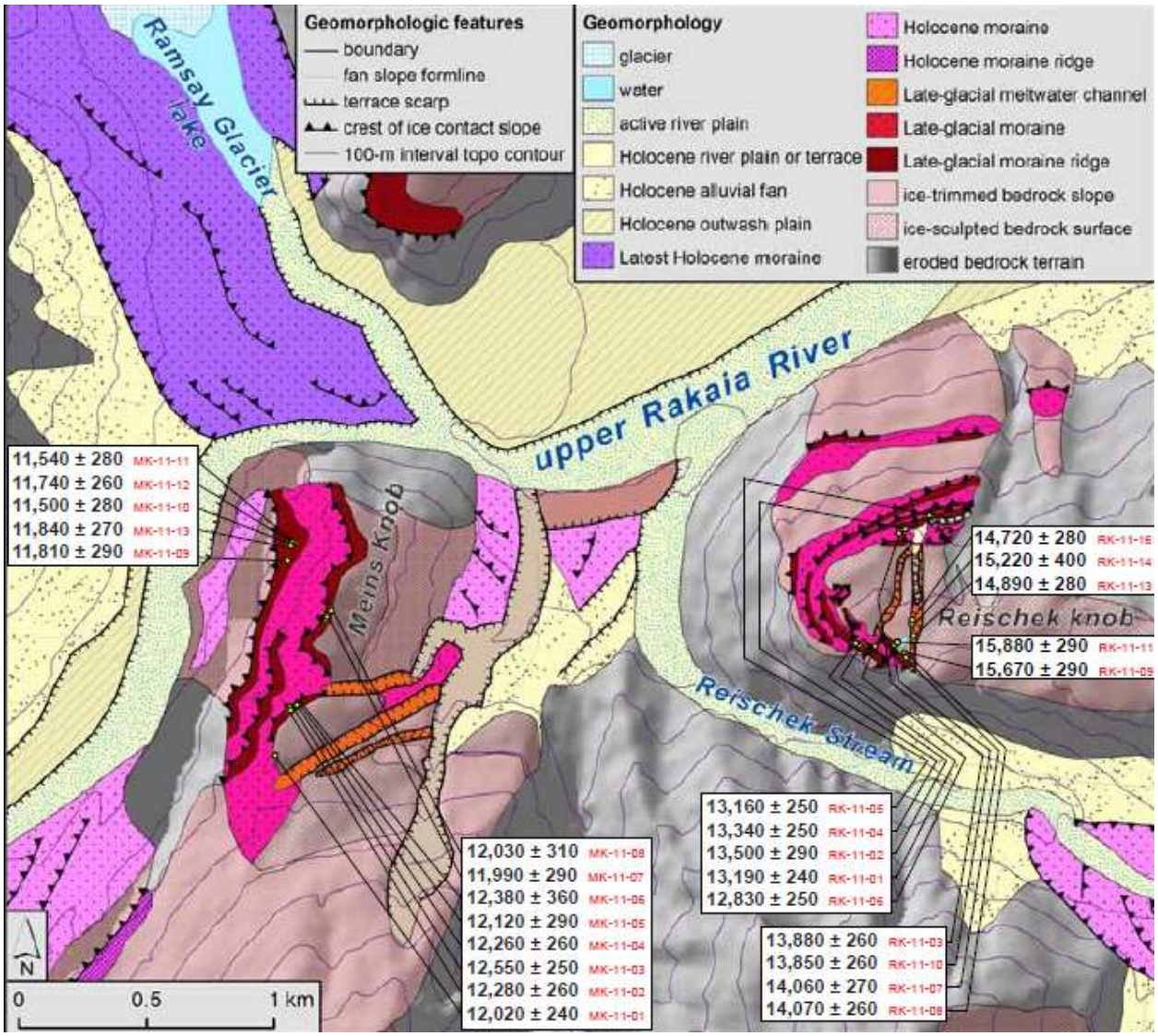


Figure 5. Normal kernel density diagrams (Lowell, 1995; "camel plots" of Balco, 2011) of sample ages for each moraine ridge, expressed in thousands of years before 1950 CE (kyrs). Thin black lines are Gaussian curves for each sample. Thick black line is a Gaussian curve representing the sum of all samples from the respective moraine ridge. One-, two- and three-σ confidence intervals of mean are shown as black, red, and green lines, respectively. The 1σ range discussed in the text is highlighted in yellow. Statistics for each plot appear below it.

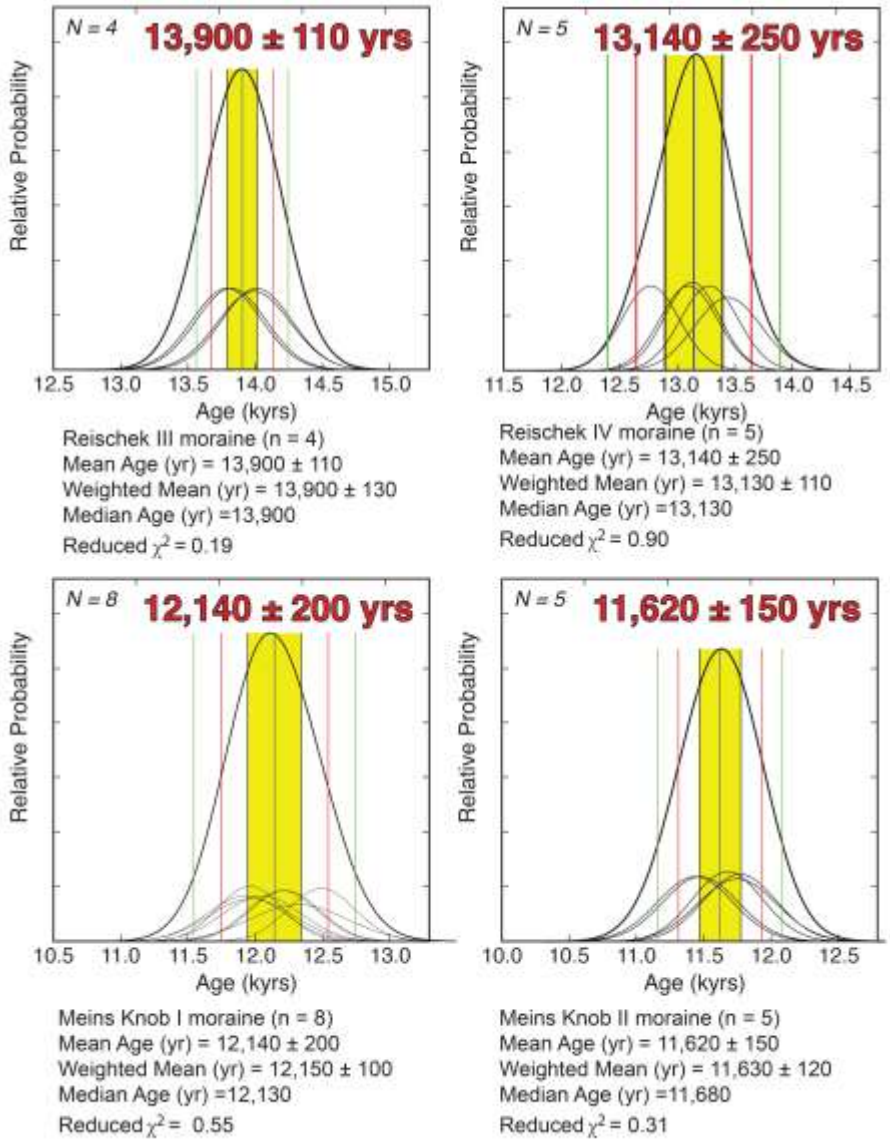


Figure 6. Profile of the Rakaia valley. Mapped moraine elevations are projected perpendicularly onto the profile line (see Fig. 3). Vertical exaggeration is approximately 11:1.

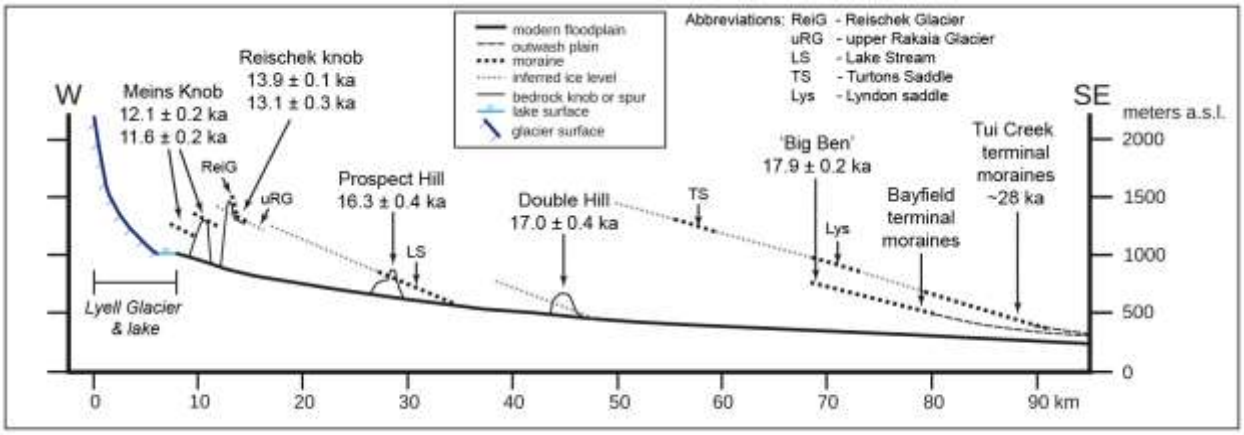


Figure 7. Glacier model results; a) Reischek knob III and IV, ΔT= -2.0 °C; b) Meins Knob I, ΔT= -1.25 °C; c) Meins Knob II, ΔT= -1.0 °C. Distance scale in c) also applies to a) and b). d) stacked results for HS 1 through HS 0, smaller scale. Color scale represents ice thickness, where green shades show ice 10 to 50 m thick. Ice less than 10 m thick is not shown. Sample locations are shown by red circles, many of which overlap on this figure.

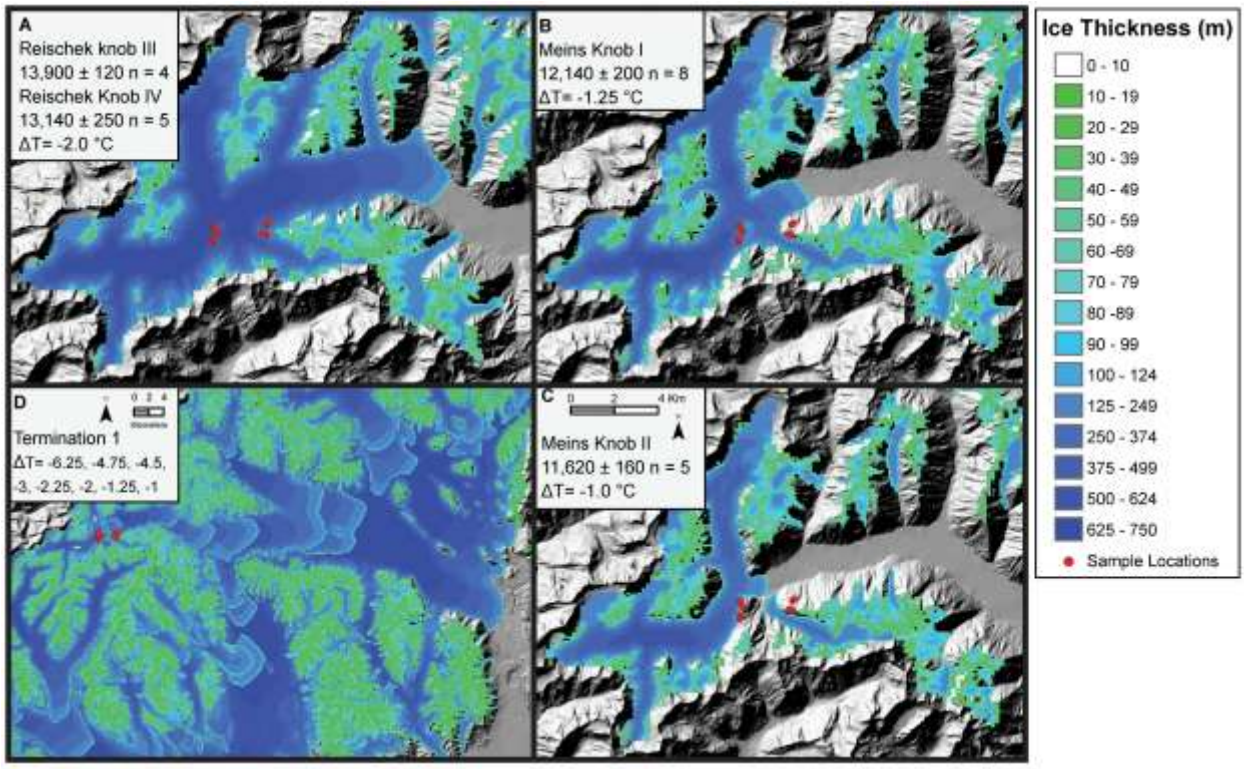
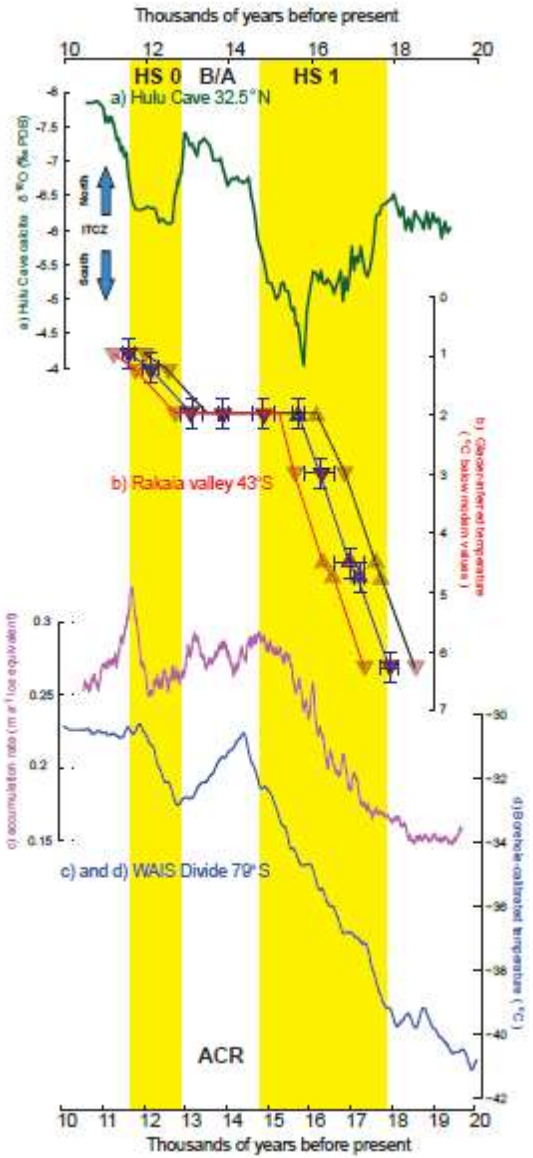


Figure 8. a) Hulu Cave oxygen-isotope record (Wang *et al.*, 2001); HS is Heinrich Stadial and B/A is Bølling/Allerød. b) Rakaia valley glacier-inferred temperature record (this study; Putnam *et al.*, 2013b). Ages are plotted as the mean ± one standard deviation of all samples from each moraine. Downward-pointing, solid red triangles represent samples from boulders embedded in moraine ridges, while upward-pointing, open triangles represent boulder samples resting on ice-sculpted bedrock surfaces. Red and black curves show the minimum and maximum ages possible for the chronology when production rate uncertainty (which shifts the ages in concert) is considered. Temperature uncertainty inferred from glacier modeling is ± 0.25 °C. c) Snow accumulation at the WAIS Divide ice core site (WAIS Divide Project Members, 2013). d) Borehole-calibrated temperature from the WAIS Divide ice core site (Cuffey *et al*., 2016).


Thousands of years before present
10
12
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18
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HS 0
B/A
HS 1
a) Hulu Cave 32.5°N
North
ITCZ
South
b) Rakaia valley 43°S
c) and d) WAIS Divide 79°S
ACR
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
Thousands of years before present

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Table 1. Rakaia valley surface-exposure sample details and ^{10}Be data. Assumed density for all samples is 2.7 gcm^{-3}

CAMS laboratory no.	Sample ID	Latitude (DD)	Longitude (DD)	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Boulder Size (L x W x H) (cm)	Sample Thickness (cm)	Shielding correction	Quartz weight (g)	Carrier Added (mg ^{9}Be)	^{10}Be/^{9}Be ± 1σ (10^{-14})[a]	[^{10}Be] ± 1σ (10^{4} atoms × g^{-1})[b]	^{9}Be Current (μA)[c]	AMS Std[d] (Procedural blank number[e])
Reischek knob III													
BE31678	RK-11-03	-43.291425	170.947971	1326	450 x 310 x 110	1.17	0.9759	15.5426	0.1894	19.47 ± 0.22	15.76 ± 0.18	7.9 (50.9)	07KNSTD (5,6)
BE31681	RK-11-07	-43.295769	170.948161	1448	155 x 120 x 50	2.08	0.9900	16.0868	0.1892	22.26 ± 0.24	17.40 ± 0.19	9.8 (63.5)	07KNSTD (5,6)
BE31682	RK-11-08	-43.295745	170.948151	1448	160 x 135 x 75	1.87	0.9888	15.4838	0.1890	21.77 ± 0.27	17.67 ± 0.22	9.4 (60.9)	07KNSTD (5,6)
BE31666	RK-11-10	-43.295343	170.947665	1443	170 x 155 x 165	2.66	0.9909	15.1403	0.1890	21.22 ±0.23	17.57 ± 0.21	15.2 (98.1)	07KNSTD (1,2)
Reischek knob IV													
BE31662	RK-11-01	-43.295310	170.945962	1426	130 x 90 x 45	2.09	0.9939	15.0612	0.1890	19.66 ± 0.21	16.35 ± 0.19	19.9 (128.4)	07KNSTD (1,2)
BE31663	RK-11-02	-43.295231	170.945857	1425	170 x 110 x 75	2.30	0.9939	15.2938	0.1882	20.48 ± 0.32	16.70 ± 0.27	17.3 (112.2)	07KNSTD (1,2)
BE31664	RK-11-04	-43.291271	170.948296	1318	260 x 90 x 85	1.56	0.9752	15.5877	0.1888	18.69 ± 0.20	15.00 ± 0.18	17.7 (114.4)	07KNSTD (1,2)
BE31679	RK-11-05	-43.290820	170.949471	1300	165 x 150 x 95	1.08	0.9837	16.0919	0.1894	18.88 ± 0.21	14.77 ± 0.17	8.5 (54.9)	07KNSTD (5,6)
BE31680	RK-11-06	-43.295374	170.946695	1433	250 x 170 x 145	1.25	0.9891	16.0972	0.1894	20.47 ± 0.24	16.01 ± 0.20	8.9 (57.8)	07KNSTD (5,6)
Mein's Knob I													
BE31670	MK-11-01	-43.298686	170.917643	1299	80 x 40 x 30	1.30	0.9902	20.5362	0.1896	22.14 ± 0.28	13.54 ± 0.19	14.8 (95.6)	07KNSTD (3,4)
BE31671	MK-11-02	-43.297112	170.918453	1266	275 x 225 x 90	1.05	0.9905	21.1158	0.1883	22.88 ± 0.35	13.52 ± 0.22	15.1 (97.7)	07KNSTD (3,4)
BE31672	MK-11-03	-43.297064	170.918452	1265	215 x 140 x 90	1.41	0.9856	19.4738	0.1899	21.21 ± 0.27	13.70 ± 0.19	16.0 (103.7)	07KNSTD (3,4)
BE31673	MK-11-04	-43.296919	170.918755	1261	205 x 95 x 70	1.68	0.9902	16.2426	0.1891	17.37 ± 0.27	13.38 ± 0.22	16.4 (106.3)	07KNSTD (3,4)
BE32801	MK-11-05	-43.296912	170.918798	1261	330 x 110 x 80	1.63	0.9889	15.8343	0.1899	16.69 ± 0.31	13.29 ± 0.25	16.4 (92.7)	07KNSTD (8)
BE32802	MK-11-06	-43.296894	170.918800	1260	210 x 180 x 60	2.17	0.9879	15.7988	0.1886	16.90 ± 0.42	13.40 ± 0.34	18.1 (102.5)	07KNSTD (8)
BE32803	MK-11-07	-43.293861	170.920314	1270	175 x 85 x 50	1.58	0.9908	15.6340	0.1901	16.30 ± 0.30	13.17 ± 0.25	17.2 (97.6)	07KNSTD (8)
BE32804	MK-11-08	-43.293649	170.920510	1274	120 x 110 x 70	2.59	0.9939	15.3610	0.1894	16.11 ± 0.33	13.20 ± 0.28	16.2 (91.5)	07KNSTD (8)
Mein's Knob II													
BE32564	MK-11-09	-43.291841	170.918501	1154	145 x 100 x 40	2.35	0.9791	18.6204	0.1896	17.24 ± 0.32	11.64 ± 0.24	13.9 (85.7)	07KNSTD (7)
BE32805	MK-11-10	-43.291227	170.918613	1153	230 x 100 x 30	2.01	0.9837	15.4433	0.1891	14.02 ± 0.26	11.41 ± 0.22	15.2 (86.0)	07KNSTD (8)
BE32806	MK-11-11	-43.291148	170.918672	1152	370 x 220 x 145	2.38	0.9817	16.4010	0.1888	14.88 ± 0.28	11.38 ± 0.22	16.2 (91.7)	07KNSTD (8)
BE31674	MK-11-12	-43.291192	170.918701	1150	270 x 190 x 95	1.21	0.9790	13.6555	0.1888	12.76 ± 0.21	11.65 ± 0.21	15.7 (101.7)	07KNSTD (3,4)
BE31675	MK-11-13	-43.291328	170.918625	1151	310 x 230 x 135	1.34	0.9826	15.2240	0.1885	14.40 ± 0.24	11.78 ± 0.21	16.3 (105.1)	07KNSTD (3,4)

[a] – Boron-corrected ^{10}Be/^{9}Be. Ratios are not corrected for background ^{10}Be detected in procedural blanks.

[b] – Reported [^{10}Be] values have been corrected for background ^{10}Be detected in procedural blanks.

[c] – ^{9}Be+3 measured after the accelerator. Reported currents are those measured during the first run of each sample. In parentheses is the ratio, given in percent, of each sample current compared with the average of all first-run AMS standard currents measured during the same CAMS session as the sample .

[d]– AMS standard to which respective ratios and concentrations are referenced. Reported ^{10}Be/^{9}Be ratio for 07KNSTD3110 is 2.85×10^{-12}.

[e]– Blank number (left column in Table 3) of the respective procedural blank(s) used to correct each sample for background ^{10}Be. Where two blank numbers appear the average of these was used to make the background correction.

Table 2. ^{10}Be surface-exposure ages (in yrs before 1950 ± 1σ internal error) from upper Rakaia valley landforms.

Sample ID	St age (yrs)			Lm age (yrs)		
Reischek knob outer moraine (RK-III)						
RK-11-03	13,890	±	260	**13,820**	±	260
RK-11-07	13,870	±	260	**13,790**	±	260
RK-11-08	14,090	±	280	**13,990**	±	270
RK-11-10	14,100	±	270	**14,010**	±	260
Reischek knob inner moraine (RK-IV)						
RK-11-01	13,200	±	250	**13,130**	±	240
RK-11-02	13,510	±	290	**13,440**	±	290
RK-11-04	13,340	±	250	**13,280**	±	250
RK-11-05	13,160	±	250	**13,100**	±	250
RK-11-06	12,840	±	250	**12,770**	±	250
Mein's Knob outer moraine (MK-I)						
MK-11-01	12,000	±	240	**11,960**	±	240
MK-11-02	12,260	±	260	**12,220**	±	260
MK-11-03	12,530	±	250	**12,490**	±	250
MK-11-04	12,240	±	270	**12,200**	±	260
MK-11-05	12,080	±	290	**12,050**	±	290
MK-11-06	12,360	±	360	**12,320**	±	360
MK-11-07	11,970	±	290	**11,930**	±	290
MK-11-08	12,000	±	310	**11,970**	±	310
Mein's Knob inner moraine (MK-II)						
MK-11-09	11,770	±	290	**11,750**	±	290
MK-11-10	11,450	±	280	**11,440**	±	280
MK-11-11	11,490	±	280	**11,480**	±	280
MK-11-12	11,700	±	260	**11,680**	±	260
MK-11-13	11,800	±	270	**11,770**	±	270

Table 3. Blank data

Blank No.	CAMS laboratory no.	Sample ID	Carrier Added (mg ^{9}Be)	^{10}Be/^{9}Be ± 1σ (10^{-16})[a]
1	BE31668	Blank_1_2011Jun02	0.1883	7.83 ± 2.03
2	BE31669	Blank_2_2011Jun02	0.1895	9.05 ± 1.71
3	BE31676	Blank_1_2011Jun15	0.1891	11.1 ± 2.20
4	BE31677	Blank_2_2011Jun15	0.1895	10.3 ± 2.17
5	BE31686	Blank_1_2011Jun30	0.1895	3.74 ± 1.04
6	BE31687	Blank_2_2011Jun30	0.1895	2.12 ± 0.815
7	BE32562	Blank_2_2011_Oct10	0.1898	3.67 ± 3.37
8	BE32800	Blank_3_2011Dec02	0.1896	0.846 ± 0.587

[a] – Boron-corrected ^{10}Be/^{9}Be.

[b] – Total ^{10}Be contamination (in atoms) determined from each procedural blank.
[c] – $^{9}Be^{+3}$ measured after the accelerator. Reported currents are those measured during the first run of each sample. In parentheses is the ratio, given in percent, of each sample current compared with the average of all first-run AMS standard currents measured during the same CAMS session as the sample .
[d] – AMS standards to which respective ratios and concentrations are referenced. Reported ^{10}Be/^{9}Be ratio for 07KNSTD3110 is 2.85×10^{-12}.

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Table 4. Glacier Model Parameters

Model domain description	
Native horizontal resolution of LINZ DEM (m)	25
Vertical resolution of LINZ DEM (m)	1
Cellsize of model domain (m)	200
Model domain grid (number of cells)	208 x 211

Glaciological parameters	
High albedo	0.74
Low albedo	0.21
Maximum slope that can hold snow (degrees)	30
Slope increment for avalanching routine (degrees)	12
Minimum new snow for avalanching to occur (m)	0.1
Deformation constant (yr^{-1} kPa^{-3})	2.1 x 10^{-7}

Climatological parameters	**Annual**	**Summer**	**Winter**
Monthly sea level temperature range (°C)	5.6–15.8	10.7–15.8	5.6–11.2
Standard deviation of temperature (°C)	2.9	3.1	2.7
Atmospheric lapse rate (°C km^{-1})	–6		
Critical temperature for snowfall (°C)	2		
NIWA rainfall maximum (mm)	8450		
NIWA rainfall minimum (mm)	645		
NIWA rainfall mean (mm)	1602		
NIWA rainfall standard deviation (mm)	1129		
Wind speed (m s^{-1})	3.2	3.6	2.8
Base wind speed elevation (m)	457		
Multiplier for wind speed increase with elevation	0.0008		
Cloudiness (fraction of sky covered)	0.7		
Relative humidity	0.77	0.75	0.79
Emissivity of snow	0.99		
Emissivity of the surrounding terrain	0.94		
Dimensionless transfer coefficient for snow	0.0015		
Ground heat flux (W m^{-2})	0.1		

Climatological variables	
Linear change in MAAT (°C)	0–6.5
Precipitation multiplier	1–4
Period for solar angles calculation (ka)	13

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Table 5.

Glacier position	Mean age	±	1s (yrs)	ΔT (°C below modern)
Big Ben	17,940	±	210	-6.25
Lake Coleridge	17,170	±	100	-4.75
Double Hill	16,970	±	360	-4.50
Prospect Hill	16,250	±	360	-3.00
Reischek Knob-I	15,720	±	150	-2.00
Reischek Knob-II	14,880	±	260	-2.00
Reischek Knob-III	13,900	±	120	-2.00
Reischek Knob-IV	13,140	±	250	-2.00
Meins Knob I	12,140	±	200	-1.25
Meins Knob II	11,620	±	160	-1.00

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