

1 **Environmental connotations of benthic foraminiferal assemblages from coastal West**  
2 **Antarctica**

3 Wojciech Majewski<sup>1</sup> \*, Julia S. Wellner<sup>2</sup>, John B. Anderson<sup>3</sup>

4

5 1 Institute of Paleobiology, Polish Academy of Sciences, Twarda 51/55, 00-818 Warszawa, Poland

6 2 University of Houston, Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, 312 Science and Research Building 1, Houston, TX  
7 77204-5007, USA

8 3 Rice University, Department of Earth Science, MS 126, PO Box 1892, Houston, TX 77251-1892, USA

9

10 \* [wmaj@twarda.pan.pl](mailto:wmaj@twarda.pan.pl)

11

12 **Abstract:** This paper examines the variability in foraminiferal assemblages in surface  
13 samples from coastal settings along the northwestern Antarctic Peninsula, as well as in the  
14 Pine Island Bay area. Material comes from water-depths ranging between 20 and 1257 m,  
15 latitudes between 62° and 73°S, and bottom water temperatures from -1.5 to 1.2 °C. The  
16 microfossil analysis within this broad geographical and environmental context provides a  
17 basis of paleo-environmental studies. Environmental affinities of the assemblages were  
18 interpreted based on a wide array of ecological conditions, including CTD data, as well as on  
19 faunal indices and ecological affinities of the key taxa. Six foraminiferal assemblages are  
20 dominated by calcareous taxa. Among other factors, they correspond to variable food supply,  
21 terrigenous sedimentation, and water mass properties. Another two assemblages are  
22 dominated by arenaceous foraminifera and reflect conditions corrosive to carbonate. Our  
23 findings indicate that preserved fossil assemblages in cores from these locations may not be  
24 accurate representations of living assemblages.

25

26 **Keywords:** Antarctica, foraminifera, environmental indicators, fjords, CTD.

27

## 28 **1. Introduction**

29 Fjord and inland passages are among the best archives of paleoenvironmental records  
30 because they (i) are characterized by relatively rapid sedimentation, thus providing good  
31 chronostratigraphic resolution, (ii) record processes taking place at the ice-ocean interface,  
32 and (iii), they often contain carbonate material for age determination. They were also the last  
33 areas of the Antarctic Peninsula (AP) to become free of grounded ice and experience open  
34 water conditions (e.g., Shevenell et al., 1996; Milliken et al., 2009; Michalchuk et al., 2009;  
35 Allen et al., 2010; Minzoni, in review). Indeed, the current warming trend in the Peninsula  
36 has resulted in glacier retreat that may mark the final demise of the remnants of the Antarctic  
37 Peninsula Ice Sheet. Future research in this area will focus on the following questions: 1) Is  
38 the current warming and associated glacier and ice-shelf retreat in the AP unprecedented or  
39 have similar episodes occurred in the past? and 2) What role do other factors, such as the  
40 influx of relatively warm ocean waters onto the inner continental shelf and into bays and  
41 fjords, play in glacier stability? This current manuscript lays the fundamental groundwork for  
42 such future studies by documenting current conditions and how those conditions are recorded  
43 in paleo-records.

44 The aim of this study is to analyze foraminiferal assemblages within bays and fjords  
45 from a broad (~2500 km) latitudinal transect, extending from the South Shetland Islands and  
46 Antarctic Peninsula to Ferrero Bay in the Amundsen Sea (Fig. 1). Currently, the atmospheric  
47 temperature gradient along this transect reaches ~15°C (Comiso 2000). The region is known  
48 to have experienced significant post-LGM climate variability (e.g., Michalchuk et al., 2009;  
49 Milliken et al., 2009; Minzoni et al., in press) and is currently one of the most rapidly  
50 warming regions on Earth (King et al., 2003; Turner et al., 2005). In addition, the western  
51 Antarctic Peninsula region has experienced more intense ocean warming than the global  
52 average, more than 1°C since 1950, as well as increased salinity in the upper 100 meters of the  
53 water column (Meredith and King, 2005). This study aims to provide a modern context for

54 using benthic foraminifera to improve our understanding of climate and environmental  
55 change that has occurred since these inland waters first became ice-free. It is part one of a  
56 two-part investigation that includes a similar study of diatom assemblages (Swiło et al., in  
57 prep.).

58         Recent, detailed studies of Holocene deposits in the South Shetland Islands and AP  
59 fjords have revealed a diachronous record of glacial retreat, which is believed to be due, at  
60 least in part, to oceanographic influence, especially warm ocean water masses flowing onto  
61 the continental shelf (Michalchuk et al., 2009; Barnard et al., 2014). Detailed foraminiferal  
62 assemblage work in the Firth of Tay (Majewski & Anderson, 2009) and Maxwell Bay  
63 (Majewski et al., 2012) revealed considerable downcore variability but no unambiguous  
64 indication of factors controlling that variability. Thus, there is a need to better understand  
65 modern trends in order to place past variability into context.

66

### 67 **1.1. Previous foraminiferal studies**

68         To date, foraminiferal research from sediment-surface samples in West Antarctica has  
69 been mostly fragmentary and in many cases neglected environmental affinities of different  
70 assemblages. This research was initiated in the early 20th century and resulted in key  
71 publications that are still used today (e.g., Earland, 1934; see references in Gooday et al.,  
72 2014).

73         In the South Shetland Islands, important works were carried out on foraminiferal re-  
74 population of the volcanic caldera of Deception Island by Finger and Lipps (1981) and Gray  
75 et al. (2003). Detailed investigations took place around King George Island, including in  
76 Admiralty Bay (Majewski, 2005, 2010; Majewski et al., 2007; Rodriguez et al., 2010) as well  
77 as in small bays of nearby Maxwell Bay, including Great Wall Bay (all publications in  
78 Chinese, see references in Majewski, 2010), Potter Cove (Mayer, 2000), and Marian Cove  
79 (Chang and Yoon, 1995). More recent studies followed the retreat of Larsen Ice Shelf aimed

80 at developing foraminiferal proxies for tracking past ice-shelf collapse (Ishman and Szymcek,  
81 2003; Murray and Pudsey, 2004).

82 The most comprehensive investigation of the Antarctic Peninsula region was  
83 undertaken by Ishman and Domack (1994), who investigated foraminiferal distribution  
84 patterns in Marguerite Bay, around the Palmer Archipelago, and in Bransfield Strait. Their  
85 research focused on factors controlling benthic foraminiferal distributions which turned out to  
86 be the effect of two different water masses; Upper Circumpolar Deep Water and Weddell Sea  
87 Transitional Water. Ishman and Domack (1994) did not explore the entire variability of  
88 foraminiferal assemblages, especially at locations near shore, and did not discuss their relation  
89 with various elements of local environments.

90 In the Pine Island Bay (PIB) area, early works of Pflum (1966) and Kellogg and  
91 Kellogg (1987) addressed only general aspects of foraminiferal distribution and ecology.  
92 Later work by Majewski (2013) focused on a relatively limited area of the central PIB and  
93 Ferrero Bay and showed a clear trend of decreasing calcareous foraminifera with increasing  
94 water-depth. Some of the data presented in that report are incorporated into the present study  
95 to analyze them in a much wider context.

96

## 97 **1.2. Climatic and oceanographic setting**

98 Coastal areas discussed in this study represent a wide range of Antarctic environments.  
99 The most easterly sampling locations are at the northwestern Weddell Sea, which experiences  
100 the strongest presence of sea ice, resulting from the Weddell Gyre pushing sea ice towards the  
101 AP's east coast (Venegas and Drinkwater, 2001). That area is characterized by a cold  
102 continental climate due to the AP acting as a barrier to mild atmospheric and oceanographic  
103 conditions extending across Drake Passage (King et al., 2003). Bays and fjords of the eastern  
104 tip of the AP are especially influenced by the cold Weddell Sea waters (Fig. 2). They are also  
105 characterized by a significant seasonality. In winter, a Winter Mixed Layer develops, i.e.,

106 isothermal, low salinity water mass with temperatures close to the freezing point. In summer,  
107 the upper-most 20-50 m layer of the water column is strongly freshened by meltwater and  
108 warmed by solar radiation, leading to formation of Antarctic Surface Waters, below which  
109 Winter Waters are present as a remnant of Winter Mixed Layer (Gordon et al., 1984).  
110 Because of this stratification, the northwest part of the Weddell Sea, especially the ice-  
111 marginal zone, is a region of elevated primary productivity (Kang and Fryxell, 1993; Kang et  
112 al., 1995, 2001; Cape et al., 2014).

113         The South Shetland Islands, located NW across Bransfield Strait from the AP, are the  
114 warmest region in Antarctica (King et al., 2003). They are characterized by a relatively warm  
115 and humid climate regime with relatively high snowfall and glacial melting and runoff  
116 (Reynolds, 1981). Coastal glaciers are characterized by significantly lower altitude of glacial  
117 equilibrium lines than elsewhere in Antarctica (King et al., 2003). Due to strong winds and  
118 intrusions of relatively warm water masses from Bransfield Strait, winter freezing of the bays  
119 is highly variable and quite often they remain free of ice throughout the year (Kruszewski,  
120 2002; Vaughan et al., 2003). The upper water column (to depths of ~ 250 m) of bays is  
121 characterized by homogenous temperatures and salinities, implying vertical water mixing  
122 (Szafranski and Lipski, 1982; Lipski, 1987). However, during summer a well-defined  
123 freshened layer may develop, especially in sheltered bays.

124         The climate of Graham Land and Palmer Archipelago is colder than that of South  
125 Shetlands. The Palmer Archipelago is the region of Antarctica with the greatest precipitation,  
126 while Danco Coast, which lies within the precipitation shadow of the Graham Land Plateau, is  
127 much dryer (Griffith and Anderson, 1989). The sea-ice distribution shows a strong seasonal  
128 pattern, but during summer the area is mostly ice free.

129         The hydrography of the NW coast of the AP is very complex due to presence and  
130 mixing of dense and cold surface water with much warmer and fresher water from the  
131 Bellingshausen Sea and Circumpolar Deep Waters (CDW) (Hoffman and Klinck, 1998;

132 Barcena et al., 2006), (Figs. 1 and 2). Between Palmer Archipelago and Marguerite Bay,  
133 waters are influenced predominantly by the Bellingshausen Sea component (Hofmann et al.,  
134 1996; Hoffman and Klinck, 1998). This complicated oceanography causes significant  
135 variability in physical and chemical parameters along the west AP coast. Coastal waters are  
136 characterized by relatively low temperatures and salinities caused by the inflow of glacier and  
137 sea-ice meltwater (Garibotti et al., 2003). Intrusions of Lower CDW, which is characterized  
138 by high salinity, are generally absent on the Antarctic shelf, but Upper CDW, which is  
139 characterized by varying temperature and high nutrient concentrations, does intrude onto the  
140 shelf (Orsi et al., 1995; Ducklow et al., 2007), bringing warm, salty water to the shelf. Within  
141 fjords, oceanographic circulation is dominated by mid- and deep-water, cold-water tongues  
142 generated by glaciers, intrusions of deep and saline waters from open sea, and warm and  
143 freshened surface layer development during the summer (Domack and Ishman, 1993).  
144 Decreasing influence of melt water in an offshore direction results in warmer, more saline  
145 water masses. Relatively high nutrient concentrations throughout the area allows for high  
146 phytoplankton productivity (Garibotti et al., 2003).

147 **The most polar sampling area is PIB, located in the Amundsen Sea (Fig. 1). Coastal**  
148 **areas in PIB experience high precipitation rates, especially during winter, due to**  
149 **synoptic-scale cyclones traveling around the Antarctic that come ashore in this region**  
150 **(Vaughan et al., 2001). At water depths below ~300 m, PIB is influenced by the intrusion**  
151 **of relatively warm CDW, with salinities >34.6 ppt and temperatures ~ 3.5° C above the**  
152 **freezing point. This warm water flows onto the inner continental shelf and melts the**  
153 **underside of the ice shelf, thus posing considerable threat to the stability of Pine Island**  
154 **Glacier (Jacobs et al., 2011, 2012). PIB is one of the largest drainage outlets for the West**  
155 **Antarctic Ice Sheet, and because of its unstable ice sheet configuration has been called**  
156 **the “weak underbelly” of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (Hughes, 1981). The Amundsen**

157 **and Bellingshausen seas have both experienced decreasing sea-ice during recent decades**  
158 **(Parkinson and Cavalieri, 2012).****2. Material and methods**

159 The 34 samples used in this study come from West Antarctic coastal sites of South  
160 Shetlands, the AP, and PIB area (Fig. 1). Except the sample from KC 1A taken from 2.5-4.5  
161 cm interval, most samples are from the uppermost 2 cm of Kasten cores collected during three  
162 *RV/IB Nathaniel B. Palmer* cruises: NBP0502, NBP0602A, and NBP0703 between 2005 and  
163 2007 and a single *R/V Oden* cruise OSO0910 from 2010 (Table 1). Four samples from  
164 Admiralty Bay, King George Island, were collected in early 2007 using Van Veen and Kajak  
165 samplers and represent the true sediment-water interface. Only the Admiralty Bay samples,  
166 and those from the PIB area were treated for foraminiferal analysis shortly after recovery.  
167 Samples from cores recovered during the *Palmer* cruises were obtained from the core  
168 repository at the Antarctic Research Facility at the Florida State University. The same  
169 samples used for foraminiferal analysis were also analyzed for diatoms. Results of the later  
170 investigation are presented in Świło et al. (in prep). Water temperature and salinity data were  
171 collected using a CTD profilers during the NBP0703 and Oden cruises. Processing of the  
172 CTD data was completed using Sea-Bird Electronics data processing software.

173

## 174 **2.1. Sample treatment**

175 Samples were wet-sieved with tap water through a 63  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve and dried.  
176 Foraminifera were picked from  $>63 \mu\text{m}$  fraction. Although analyzing minute foraminifera  
177 may potentially increase dissolution bias in assemblages as it is shown later, minute species  
178 are frequently the most distinctive elements of assemblages. In 20 samples, all foraminiferal  
179 specimens were picked. Thirteen samples yielding large numbers of foraminifera were  
180 divided using a dry microsampler and a fraction of residue was analyzed. No less than 250  
181 specimens were picked from each of the foram-rich samples. All foraminiferal specimens  
182 were arranged by taxa on micropaleontological slides. The investigated material is housed at

183 the Institute of Paleobiology of the Polish Academy of Sciences (Warszawa) under the  
184 catalogue number ZPAL F.65. From the residues processed for foraminifera, weights of dry  
185 sample fractions finer than 63  $\mu\text{m}$ , between 63 and 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , and coarser than 0.5 mm were  
186 noted. These crude data were used only as a granulometry background for  
187 micropaleontological analyses (Appendix 1).

188

## 189 **2.2. Foraminiferal taxonomy**

190 The classification scheme for the Order Foraminiferida used here is that of Loeblich  
191 and Tappan (1987). Species identification followed Majewski (2005, 2010, 2013) and  
192 Majewski et al. (2007). Distinction between *Globocassidulina biora* and *Globocassidulina*  
193 *subglobosa*, especially among minute specimens, is problematic (e.g., Majewski and  
194 Pawlowski, 2010). In this study, individuals of *G. biora* were identified based on slightly  
195 compressed tests and any signs of bifurcation or bending of the aperture, as well as by a  
196 markedly inclined aperture in relation to the last suture. *Globocassidulina subglobosa* was  
197 represented by rather minute forms with a straight aperture perpendicular to the last suture.  
198 Because of the very problematic discrimination of *Portatrochammina bipolaris*,  
199 *Portatrochammina antarctica* and *Portatrochammina bullata*, especially among minute  
200 specimens, they are all quantified as *Portatrochammina* spp.

201

## 202 **2.3. Dataset analyses**

203 For quantifying benthic foraminiferal assemblage diversities, for each sample, the  
204 Shannon diversity index ( $H$ ) was calculated using the following equation  $H = -\sum n_i/n \ln (n_i/n)$ ,  
205 where  $n_i$  is the number of individuals of species  $i$ . Foraminiferal plankton-to-benthos ratio was  
206 calculated as p/b ratio =  $p/(p+b)$ , where  $p$  indicates the number of planktonic and  $b$  the  
207 number of benthic forms.



208 To improve understanding of the assemblages investigated in this study, the  
209 foraminiferal frequencies were analyzed with orthogonal rotated (Varimax) principal  
210 component (PC) analysis, according to Malmgren and Haq (1982) and Mackensen et al.  
211 (1990) with a commercially distributed statistics package SYSTAT 12. This procedure was  
212 chosen to reduce the number of variables to a manageable number without a significant loss  
213 of information. Species that comprised less than 2% of the total assemblages in a single  
214 sample were not included, as they are not present in sufficient abundance to be significant  
215 statistically. This procedure left 39 taxa for statistical treatment.

216 The calculated PC scores show the contribution of the selected variables, i.e.,  
217 foraminiferal species for each PC. Taxa that favor similar environmental conditions are  
218 expected to have high scores on one PC, indicating their presence in one assemblage. PC  
219 loadings show similarities between assemblages from different sites. Those exceeding a value  
220 of 0.4 are regarded as statistically significant, following Malmgren and Haq (1982). At a  
221 single site, more than one PC may show values above the significance level, suggesting an  
222 intermediate type of assemblage.

223

### 224 **3. Results**

#### 225 **3.1. CTD data**

226 Detailed information about water mass properties and circulation within AP bays is  
227 quite sparse, so we attempted to acquire CTD profiles on an opportunistic basis (Fig. 2).  
228 While these data are limited, they show considerable variability in water mass structure  
229 between bays, especially in bays on the western side of the AP and at water depths below  
230 ~250 m. This reflects their variable bathymetry and connectivity to major ocean currents  
231 flowing along the continental margin and within deep inland passages.

232 The coldest waters (average ~ -1.6°C) occur in Hope Bay, a shallow fjord on the  
233 Weddell Sea side of the AP. Salinity is constant (~34.2 ppt) below the surface layer to a water

234 depth of 126 m (Fig. 2). This is consistent with cold, relatively fresh Weddell Sea Transitional  
235 Water that flows northwards along the eastern side of the Antarctic Peninsula (Hofmann et al.,  
236 1996; Martinson et al., 2008), (Fig. 1).

237 The Maxwell Bay water column exhibits constant temperature and salinity to a depth  
238 of 250 m, below which the water is colder and slightly more saline (Fig. 2). The presence of a  
239 cold bottom layer was an unexpected outcome and implies that cold Weddell Sea waters may  
240 be entering the bay from Bransfield Strait at depths below  $\sim 300$  m. This is in contrast to the  
241 water column profile from Lapeyrère Bay, which is the deepest fjord sampled along the  
242 western side of the AP. The CTD profile from Lapeyrère Bay shows salinity and temperature  
243 increasing throughout the 625 thick water column, with temperatures greater than  $1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the  
244 lower 100 m (Fig. 2). The bay is located within Anvers Island and connected to the open shelf  
245 via a v-shaped trough (Fig. 1). Thus, it is more subject to incursion of warm deep water that  
246 flows north along the continental margin.

247 Both Paradise Harbor and Collins Bay are shallow fjords located on the western side  
248 of the AP. A CTD collected in front of Mielke Glacier in Paradise Harbor shows relatively  
249 constant temperature and salinity with depth. Nearby in Collins Bay, a CTD profile collected  
250 just 200 m from the glacier terminus where a sediment-rich meltwater plume was observed,  
251 revealed fresher, colder water near the surface, with a gradual increase in both temperature  
252 and salinity with depth in the water column. Relatively warm water ( $0.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) was measured  
253 just below 200 meters water depth (Fig. 2), suggesting possible influence from warm  
254 impinging currents.

255 The CTD data from Ferrero Bay and central Pine Island Bay show some of the  
256 warmest water observed ( $>1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; Fig. 2) in this data set, consistent with observations of  
257 Jacobs et al. (2011, 2012) of CDW intrusion onto the continental shelf. The 2010 Oden CTD  
258 profile shows that this warm water extends into Ferrero Bay (Fig. 2).

259

### 260 3.2. Foraminiferal data

261 A total of 49 benthic foraminiferal species were quantified and listed on Appendix 1.  
262 They are accompanied by a low number of specimens belonging to unidentified species  
263 reported as “other” agglutinated and calcareous benthic foraminifera as well as by a few  
264 planktonic *Neogloboquadrina pachyderma*. Plankton-to-benthos ratios at most sites are nearly  
265 0; only at three locations it exceeded 0.1 (Fig. 3). The diversity index  $H$ , calculated for the  
266 census data presented in Appendix 1, shows values between 0.5 and almost 2.9, suggesting a  
267 weak overall trend of increasing  $H$  with increasing water depth (Fig. 4). Agglutinated forms  
268 are represented by 29 species, and calcareous by 20 species. Percent of calcareous  
269 foraminifera ranges broadly between 0 and 100%, showing the highest values in the South  
270 Shetlands and the lowest in the NW Weddell Sea sites (Fig. 4). The most abundant species  
271 that average over 5% of all specimens are *Globocassidulina biora* and *Portatrochammina*  
272 spp. (11% each), *Epistominella* spp. and *Astrononion echolsi* (both ~ 8%), and *Fursenkoina*  
273 *fusiformis*, *Globocassidulina subglobosa*, and *Miliammina arenacea* (all well over 5%). They  
274 all contribute strongly to the assemblages identified in the foraminiferal PC analysis, therefore  
275 their distribution is well reflected by foraminiferal assemblages discussed later.

276 The proposed eight-PC model explains 85.7% of the total variance of the data set  
277 (Tables 2 and 3). Seven PCs are defined by a single species with PC scores well over 5.0 that  
278 may be accompanied by accessory species with elevated (> 1.0) PC scores. One PC is defined  
279 by three species, showing scores between 2.2 and 3.7. For clarity in the upcoming discussion,  
280 the calculated PCs, which are mathematical models of real assemblages, are referred to as  
281 foraminiferal assemblages (FAs) using the names of the taxon of the highest PC score. The  
282 eight PCs are (1) the *Portatrochammina* spp. FA (15.9 % of total variance explained, with  
283 accessory *Adercotryma glomerata*), (2) the *Epistominella* spp. FA (13.9 % with no accessory  
284 species), (3) the *Globocassidulina biora* FA (13.7 %, with accessory *G. subglobosa*), (4) the  
285 *Astrononion echolsi* FA (11.6 % with accessory *S. bififormis*), (5) the *Bolivinelina*

286 *pseudopunctata* FA (10.6 % with no accessory species), (6) the *Fursenkoina fusiformis* FA  
287 (8.6 %, with accessory *M. arenacea* and *G. subglobosa*), (7) the *Miliammina arenacea* FA  
288 (6.9 %, with similarly high scores of *S. biformis* and *P. bartrami*) and finally (8) the *Bulimina*  
289 *aculeata* FA, explaining 4.5% of the total variance of dataset and with *S. biformis* showing  
290 high PC scores of opposite sign.

291         Distribution of sites with high PC loadings for each FA is shown on Fig. 1. The *G.*  
292 *biora* FA dominates most sites on King George Island along with three other locations  
293 throughout the NW shores of the AP, while the *B. pseudopunctata* FA occurs only in outer  
294 Admiralty and Maxwell bays as well as at a single site within Flandres Bay. The *F. fusiformis*  
295 FA and the *A. echolsi* FA are prominent at several sites throughout coastal waters of Graham  
296 Land, and the *B. aculeata* FA at a single site KC 49 off Beascochea Bay. The *Epistominella*  
297 spp. FA is dominant only at sites in central PIB. The *Portatrochammina* spp. FA is dominant  
298 in the NW Weddell Sea and a few sites in the PIB area, and finally the *M. arenacea* FA is  
299 dominant mostly in Gerlache Strait between Palmer Archipelago and Graham Land.

300

## 301 **4. Discussion**

### 302 **4.1. Evaluation of foraminiferal data**

303         Earlier studies in Admiralty Bay (Majewski, 2005; Majewski et al., 2007) and PIB  
304 (Majewski, 2013) support a general observation that the environmental conditions affecting  
305 benthic foraminiferal assemblages commonly change with bathymetry (e.g., Gooday et al.,  
306 2014). Frequently, the water depth is also the most precise characteristic of sampling sites,  
307 which is especially true in the case of predominantly subfossil assemblages. Therefore, for  
308 analyzing different foraminiferal indices, plotting them against water-depth (Figs. 3-5) is the  
309 most effective way to analyze their relationship to other variables.

310         It is important to keep in mind that there are significant differences between sites  
311 discussed in this study in coring and sampling methods as well as in time lag between

312 sediment recovery and sample processing. Moreover, Kasten coring, used at the sites  
313 investigated during the *Palmer* and *Oden* cruises, may fail to capture the upper-most sediment  
314 section so these sites may reflect slightly pre-Modern time slices (see also Majewski, 2013);  
315  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  dating from many of the Kasten cores suggests that very little time may be missing  
316 (Boldt et al., 2013). The four samples from Admiralty Bay represent a true sediment-water  
317 interface corresponding with the time of sampling, which was 2007.

318 Not accounting for bioturbation, the 2 cm thick slices of the sediment represent  
319 averaged records of anywhere between a few and tens of years, depending on sediment  
320 accumulation rates which may vary significantly between different locations and within a  
321 single section, especially if positioned near-shore (e.g., Griffith and Anderson, 1989; Boldt et  
322 al., 2013). For example, in core NPB0703-JTC-17 from Maxwell Bay, the time represented  
323 by 2 cm of sediment, based on  $^{210}\text{Pb}$  analysis (Majewski et al., 2012), varies between just over  
324 a year to almost 60 years. Because precise accumulation rates are not known, interpretation of  
325 any absolute data should be treated with caution. In contrast, relative data, e.g., species  
326 percentages, do not carry this potential flaw. Given these constraints, our data do not  
327 necessarily reflect “living” foraminiferal assemblages, but they do represent Modern  
328 assemblages. Therefore, the present day oceanographic conditions (Fig. 2) may provide only a  
329 general background for interpretation of our micropaleontological data.

330 The potentially sub-fossil nature of our datasets results not only in weaknesses but also  
331 in important advantages. The microfossil assemblages discussed in this study are much closer  
332 in taxonomic composition to assemblages used for paleoenvironmental reconstructions than  
333 “living” foraminiferal assemblages investigated by many workers (e.g., Finger and Lipps,  
334 1982; Ishman and Domack, 1994; Majewski, 2005). This is especially true for samples with a  
335 large proportion of agglutinated foraminifera that tend to disintegrate downcore (e.g.,  
336 Majewski and Anderson, 2009). Therefore, their present analysis is of more practical value  
337 for interpreting young geological records.

338 **4.2. Low plankton-to-benthos ratios in coastal West Antarctica**

339 Zero to very low numbers of planktonic foraminifera collected at most sites seem to  
340 reflect most of all near-shore locations of these sites, where sediment laden and freshened  
341 surface waters result from glacier melting and runoff. At deeper-water settings, in areas of  
342 high productivity, and CDW presence, dissolution may be also an issue. Thus, it is not  
343 surprising that the only p/b values substantially higher than zero are from PIB (Fig. 3),  
344 apparently representing the most open water conditions among our sites. Moreover, as for  
345 other faunal characteristics, the p/b ratios from the PIB sites show a clear trend of rapidly  
346 declining below ~700 m water depth (see also Majewski, 2013), reflecting increasing  
347 dissolution due to stronger CDW presence.

348

349 **4.3. Benthic foraminiferal diversities**

350 Although  $H$  values shows a pattern of increasing values with increasing water-depths,  
351 only in the PIB area is this trend well defined (Fig. 4). It is apparent, however, that the *F.*  
352 *fusiformis* FA, and to a lesser degree the *A. echolsi*, *M. arenacea*, and *B. pseudopunctata* Fas,  
353 show rather high and elevated  $H$  values, while the *G. bitoria* FA has the lowest  $H$ . Among our  
354 samples. The general pattern, although obscured by other factors, is that the lowest faunal  
355 diversities are reported from shallow water, near-shore, and restricted environments while the  
356 highest  $H$  values are typical for more open marine, deeper water habitats that are assumed to  
357 experience less extreme environmental variability.

358 The important exceptions from this general trend (e.g., KC 8A, KC 29 and KC 49  
359 from Firth of Tay, Flandres Bay, and off Beascochea Bay, respectively) show significantly  
360 impoverished  $H$  values, which may result from post-depositional processes, such as  
361 dissolution that could selectively remove a group of less robust taxa from the sub-fossil  
362 record. On the contrary, at sites KG 13 and KC 14 from King George Island, the  $H$  values  
363 seem to be rather higher than might be expected. This inconsistency could be explained by

364 faunal mixing, which might be supported by foraminiferal assemblages that in both cases are  
365 poorly explained by the PC analysis, or by higher sedimentation rates and lower organic  
366 content indicating less corrosive conditions.

367

#### 368 **4.4. Percentages of calcareous benthic foraminifera**

369         Patterns within the plot of percent calcareous benthic foraminifera against water-depth  
370 (Fig. 5) are especially intriguing. First of all, a clear distinction between the four sampling  
371 areas is apparent. As for the other indices, the best defined trend is exhibited by the samples  
372 from the PIB area, showing a clear decline in the percentage of calcareous forms with depth  
373 between ~600-800 mwd. Only sample KC 16 does not follow this trend, which could be  
374 due to the presumed markedly older age of this sample as compared to other samples from  
375 PIB (see also discussion in Majewski, 2013).

376         In general, samples from Admiralty and Maxwell bays show the highest percentages  
377 of calcareous forms. Even in sample KC 1A, taken from 488 mwd, calcareous foraminifera  
378 constitute 75% of the assemblage. However, sites from Admiralty Bay that were sampled in  
379 an earlier survey (Majewski, 2005) at water depths of ~500 m are characterized by relatively  
380 low proportions of calcareous forms, between 40% and 15% (Fig. 3). At sites from  
381 northwestern Weddell Sea, the percentages of calcareous forms are significantly lower than in  
382 the other areas. Instead, assemblages are strongly dominated by agglutinated forms, possibly  
383 due to conditions unfavorable for carbonate preservation, which are common throughout the  
384 Weddell Sea (Anderson, 1975b; Mackensen et al., 1990).

385         By far the greatest variability in percentage of calcareous forms versus water-depth is  
386 exhibited in sites from offshore Graham Land and Anvers Island. Most of these sites,  
387 regardless of bathymetry, show values well above 60%. At all sites dominated by the *M.*  
388 *arenacea* FA (KC 65, KC 31, and KC 55), percentages of calcareous forms are markedly

389 lower, between values 30 and 0, while both sites with significant the *B. aculeata* FA (KC 34  
390 and KC 49) show the percentages of calcareous forms being much higher than in PIB (Fig. 5).

391

#### 392 **4.5. Foraminiferal assemblages**

393 The eight FAs recognized in this work reflect large variability in foraminiferal  
394 assemblages and associated environmental conditions. The proposed PC model explains  
395 85.7% of the total variance of the benthic foraminiferal dataset. A weakness in the model is  
396 demonstrated by failing to account for site KG 14 by the proposed FAs. The ten-PC model,  
397 explaining 91.2% of the total variance, solves this problem, but the additional FAs generated  
398 within that model add complexity that hinders straightforward interpretation.

399 The interpretation of the proposed FAs is presented below according to their  
400 environmental affinities. The first six FAs are dominated by calcareous taxa, and arranged  
401 more or less according to decreasing glacial influence. The last two FAs, dominated by  
402 arenaceous taxa, indicate corrosive conditions. The names of the FAs are indicative of the  
403 strongest presence, expressed by the highest PC scores, of the index taxa in particular  
404 foraminiferal assemblages (Table 2). Typically the distribution of particular FAs closely  
405 follows the geographic distribution of index taxa.

406

##### 407 **4.5.1. *Globocassidulina biora* FA**

408 The *G. biora* FA shows elevated PC scores of *G. subglobosa* (Table 2) and a  
409 significant correlation with *P. fusca* and *Quinqueloculina* sp. (Table 4). This FA tends to be  
410 characterized by rather low *H* values (Fig. 4) and high percentages of calcareous foraminifera  
411 (Fig. 5). The *Globocassidulina biora* FA dominates at most sites in Maxwell and Admiralty  
412 bays, as well as at three other locations along the northwestern coast of the AP (Fig. 1). In  
413 Maxwell and Admiralty bays, *G. biora* along with *P. fusca* and *Quinqueloculina* sp. dominate  
414 assemblages at less than 200 m and has been shown to indicate strong glacial influence (Li et



415 al., 2000; Majewski, 2005, 2010; Majewski et al., 2012). Sites KC 48 (Beascocha Bay), KC  
416 63 (Brialmont Cove), and to a less extent KC 57 (Andvord Bay) from the western AP sector  
417 (Fig. 1) also yielded high scores of the *G. biora* FA (Table 3). These sites occur in inner bay  
418 locations but in considerably deeper water than the Maxwell Bay and Admiralty Bay sites.  
419 These locations are all consistent with greater glacier influence, which includes freshwater  
420 influx and high sedimentation rates (Majewski et al., 2012; Boldt et al., 2013). Bathymetry  
421 does not appear to be a critical factor for dominance of the *G. biora* FA.

422 In the light of other FAs occupying central and outer fjords that are discussed below,  
423 the *G. biora* FA seems to be largely depleted in typical opportunistic species that can feed on  
424 intense but short lasting phytodetritus, e.g. *F. fusiformis* and *Epistominella exigua* (Gooday  
425 1993). The relatively high modern sediment accumulation rates at these sites tend to dilute  
426 organic flux to the sea floor. The strong glacial influence may also impact primary production  
427 by elevated water turbidity, limiting thickness of the photic zone during spring and summer  
428 on one hand along with delivery of terrigenous nutrients on the other. The fact that *G. biora*  
429 FA also tends to occur at sites far within fjords further implies that this FA should be tolerant  
430 to prolonged winter sea-ice conditions that can develop during some years.

431

#### 432 **4.5.2. *Bolivinellina pseudopunctata* FA**

433 The *B. pseudopunctata* FA is characterized by relatively low PC scores and  
434 insignificant correlation coefficients with any other species. This FA is prominent only within  
435 fjords in outer Admiralty and Maxwell bays and at a single site (KC 29) within Flanders Bay  
436 (Fig. 1). It lacks planktonic foraminifera but otherwise has a high percentage of calcareous  
437 species (Fig. 5). The diversity index *H* ranges within intermediate values for this FA (Fig. 4).

438 In Admiralty Bay, the *B. pseudopunctata* FA corresponds with more sandy sediments  
439 (Appendix 2) that are associated with the glacier-proximal *G. biora* FA; it also occurs in  
440 greater water depths. This FA is also present in central Maxwell Bay (KC 1A), which at water

441 depth ~500 mwd is affected by cold Weddell Sea waters, as shown by our CTD data (Fig. 2).  
442 The *B. pseudopunctata* FA does not seem to be indicative of these cold water masses, as it is  
443 also prominent within Flanders Bay, which is under influence of much warmer CDW.  
444 Although the *B. pseudopunctata* FA is noted in Flanders Bay, it is also absent in neighboring  
445 Andvord Bay. Flanders Bay has a wide mouth connecting it with the open ocean, in contrast  
446 to Andvord Bay which has a more narrow mouth and connects to an inland passage, Gerlache  
447 Strait. Therefore, Flanders Bay is believed to experience greater marine influence, including  
448 stronger circulation and winnowing of finer sediment.

449         The minute size and thin transparent wall of *B. pseudopunctata* may suggest an  
450 opportunistic nature and a capacity for rapid growth and reproduction, similarly as *E. exigua*  
451 and *Fursenkoina* sp. (Gooday, 1993). In this respect, the *B. pseudopunctata* FA could be  
452 similar to the *F. fusiformis* FA, which is prominent in several fjords of the northwestern AP.  
453 In addition, a 4-PC model, although not employed in our interpretation, indicates that these  
454 two FAs share similar affinities, together with *A. echolsi*, which is abundant in outer  
455 Admiralty Bay (Majewski, 2005).

456

#### 457 **4.5.3. *Fursenkoina fusiformis* FA**

458         The *F. fusiformis* FA shows elevated PC positive scores for *M. arenacea* and *G.*  
459 *subglobosa* (Table 2), but no significant correlation coefficient with any taxa analyzed. This  
460 FA is prominent in several fjords throughout Graham Land and Anvers Island (Fig. 1). It  
461 shows rather high percentages of calcareous species (except at site KC 45) as well as high *H*  
462 values (Figs. 5 and 4, respectively).

463         The association of *F. fusiformis* with *G. subglobosa*, at sites dominated by the *F.*  
464 *fusiformis* FA within deep fjords (~500 m and deeper), is similar to the *Globocassidulina*  
465 spp.– *F. fusiformis* assemblage of the Firth of Tay (Majewski and Anderson, 2009). There, it  
466 represents the most glacier-proximal conditions. The latter assemblage is accompanied by

467 *Criboelphidium webbi*, a unique glacier-proximal indicator (Majewski and Tatur, 2009),  
468 which is interpreted to thrive during elevated glacier sedimentation and good preservation of  
469 carbonate.

470 Ishman and Domack (1994) associated their *Fursenkoina* spp. assemblage, which is  
471 prominent throughout Bransfield Strait and the Palmer Archipelago, with Weddell Sea  
472 Transitional Water. However, *Fursenkoina* sp. and *G. subglobosa*, both present in our FA,  
473 have been suggested to be opportunistic species (e.g., Alve, 1994) and associated with  
474 seasonal delivery of phytodetritus to the sea floor (Gooday, 1993). Sen Gupta and Machain-  
475 Castillo (1993) noted high tolerance of *F. fusiformis* to organic-rich oxygen-depleted waters.  
476 Following these arguments, Ishman and Sperling (2002) interpreted an assemblage dominated  
477 by *F. fusiformis* from the lower portion of the Palmer Deep as an opportunistic assemblage  
478 favored by intense diatom blooms and episodes of high terrigenous sedimentation. This is  
479 consistent with our interpretation.

480

#### 481 **4.5.4. *Astrononion echolsi* FA**

482 The *A. echolsi* FA shows elevated PC scores of *S. biformis* (Table 2) and a significant  
483 positive correlation coefficient with *Bolivinelina earlandii* and *Stainforthia concava* (Table  
484 4). This FA is prominent at several sites along the Graham Land Coast at locations between  
485 those dominated by the most open-water *B. aculeata* FA and the most near-shore *G. biora* FA  
486 (Fig. 1). At sites dominated by *A. echolsi* FA, percentages of calcareous species and  
487 diversities tend to reach rather high values (Fig. 5).

488 As compared with *G. biora*, *A. echolsi*, together with *B. earlandii* and *S. concava* are  
489 considered glacier-distal taxa (Majewski, 2005, 2010). *Astrononion echolsi*, being the most  
490 important species for this FA, builds thick-walled, medium-size tests, unlike most  
491 opportunistic species (Gooday, 1993). No apparent difference in sediment granulometry is  
492 noted between sites dominated by the *A. echolsi* and *F. fusiformis* FAs (Appendix 2), all are

493 fine grained with very little sand. The *A. echolsi* FA is typical for areas with less intense  
494 phytodetritus events than the *F. fusiformis* FA. *Astrononion echolsi* is also common in  
495 Admiralty Bay (Majewski, 2005), where the sediments are less organic-rich than sediments  
496 that have accumulated in bays and fjords along the Danco Coast and along Anvers Island.  
497

#### 498 **4.5.5. *Bulimina aculeata* FA**

499 The *B. aculeata* FA shows elevated negative PC scores of *S. biformis* (Table 2) and a  
500 significant positive correlation coefficient with *Pullenia sphaerica* (Table 4). This FA  
501 dominates at a single site KC 49 off Beascochea Bay, but is also prominent at site KC 34, at  
502 the mouth of Laperère Bay (Fig. 1). The location of the later, as well as slightly elevated p/b  
503 ratio at KC 49 (Fig. 3), suggests an open-water affinity for this FA. It shows intermediate *H*  
504 values (Fig. 4) and relatively high percentages of calcareous forms (Fig. 5), significantly  
505 above the trend of assemblages from PIB. This suggests a correlation of the *B. aculeata* FA  
506 with oceanographic conditions different from those that characterize the *Epistominella* spp.  
507 FA.

508 In the Weddell Sea, *B. aculeata* appears to be associated with organic-rich sediment  
509 and warm (> 0°C) moderately oxygenated waters (Mackensen et al., 1990). According to  
510 Ishman and Domack (1994), it is the key species associated with relatively warm CDW  
511 impinging onto the AP continental shelf. They also recognized *P. sphaerica*, which is also an  
512 important species in our FA, as an important species of their *B. aculeata* assemblage. In our  
513 study, the *B. aculeata* FA is restricted to two sites with the highest percentages of this index  
514 species. These sites are located farthest offshore and are potentially the most exposed to  
515 CDW.

516 Although this work has shown only limited presence of this FA (Fig. 1), it does  
517 confirm the presence of individuals of this species in Pine Island Bay, in the southern fjords  
518 of the Graham Land Coast, and near Anvers Island, but not in the South Shetland Islands or in

519 the northwestern Weddell Sea sample sites (Fig. 6). The distribution of *B. aculeata*  
520 individuals correlates well with areas where warm water was detected in CTDs collected near  
521 the sample sites (Fig. 2) and supports the presence of deep water-mass boundary stretched  
522 between Anvers Island and Graham Land (Ishman and Domack, 1994; Shevenell and  
523 Kennett, 2002), (Fig. 6).

524

#### 525 **4.5.6. *Epistominella* spp. FA**

526 This FA shows a significant positive correlation coefficient with agglutinated  
527 (*Rhabdammina* spp., *Adercotryma glomerata*, *Pseudobolivina antarctica*, and *Alterammina*  
528 *alterans*), as well as calcareous species (*Angulogerina earlandi*, *Nonionella iridea*, and  
529 *Ioanella tumidula*) (Table 4). This FA is dominant only at sites in central PIB, suggesting its  
530 open-water affinity, which is also supported by the highest p/b ratios at sites dominated by  
531 this FA (Fig. 3). It is also a minor FA at KC 1A in outer Maxwell Bay. At the sites in PIB, a  
532 clear trend of decreasing percentage of calcareous foraminifera and increasing diversity index  
533 *H* with increasing bathymetry is apparent (Figs. 5 and 4, respectively).

534 At greater water depths in the PIB area, the *Epistominella* spp. FA is replaced by the  
535 *Portatrochammina* spp. FA, which reflects increasing carbonate dissolution and association  
536 with corrosive water masses, in this case CDW (Majewski, 2013). The *Epistominella* spp. FA  
537 appears to be associated with minimal CDW influence. Two calcareous species associated  
538 with the *Epistominella* spp. FA (i.e. *N. iridea* and *I. tumidula*) are known for surrounding  
539 their tests with cocoon-like sediment capsules (Mackensen et al., 1990; Murray and Pudsey,  
540 2004) that can protect them from outside conditions. This feature, together with  
541 accompanying agglutinated species, supports the affinity of this FA with occasionally  
542 corrosive conditions. *E. exigua*, which dominates this FA, is also known to be resistant to  
543 dissolution (Anderson, 1975a; Ishman and Szymcek, 2003).

544 According to Gooday (1993), *E. exigua* in the NW Atlantic is an opportunistic species  
545 feeding on phytodetritus. Its small size and thin-walled test is indicative of rapid reproduction  
546 when food supply to the sea-floor increases. In addition, *E. exigua* from the NW Atlantic is  
547 often associated with *A. glomerata*, which is also associated with our *Epistominella* spp. FA.  
548 However, unlike *E. exigua*, *A. glomerata* is not confined strictly to areas with significant  
549 influx of phytodetritus.

550 The *Epistominella* spp. FA. from the central trough of PIB bears resemblance to the  
551 *Epistominella* through assemblage found off the Larsen-A Ice Shelf (Ishman and Szymcek,  
552 2003). Because of the presumed opportunistic character of important components of that  
553 assemblage, it was interpreted as adapted to a food-limited environment with seasonal food  
554 input. This interpretation may apply also to the *Epistominella* spp. FA. of PIB, where  
555 extended sea-ice cover allows only limited and strongly seasonal delivery of phytodetritus.

556

#### 557 **4.5.7. *Portatrochammina* spp. FA**

558 This FA is defined by high scores of the complex taxon *Portatrochammina* spp.,  
559 composed of *P. bipolaris*, *P. antarctica*, and *P. bullata* that are difficult to distinguish at  
560 immature stages. These three species appear to be distributed more or less throughout the  
561 study area. The only exceptions are *P. antarctica*, which completely dominates the  
562 *Portatrochammina* spp. assemblage in the Weddell Sea area, and the lack of *P. bullata*  
563 observed in Maxwell Bay and Admiralty Bay. The *Portatrochammina* spp. FA shows  
564 elevated PC scores of *A. glomerata* (Table 2) and also a significant positive correlation  
565 coefficient with *Reophax* cf. *R. spiculifer*, *Cystammina argentea*, and *Hormosinella* sp. (Table  
566 4).

567 This FA is dominant in the NW Weddell Sea and at a few sites in PIB (Fig. 1),  
568 showing in both areas dominance of similar taxa and low percentages of calcareous species  
569 (Fig. 5). These similarities might suggest a single major factor affecting all sites dominated by

570 this FA. The  $H$  indices; however, differ significantly showing markedly lower diversities at  
571 the three Weddell Sea sites relative to PIB sites (Fig. 4). Communities from the Weddell Sea  
572 have rather low  $H$  values, while those of PIB are among the most diverse assemblages  
573 studied. This difference suggests a presence of another factor that sets apart the  
574 *Portatrochammina* spp. FA from the two areas.

575 While the fauna from PIB is well preserved, specimens from the northwestern  
576 Weddell Sea show abundant signs of dissolution of calcareous foraminifera as well as poor  
577 preservation of the dominant arenaceous forms, suggesting it is a relict assemblage. The poor  
578 preservation of calcareous specimens is consistent with observations of Ishman and Szymcek  
579 (2003) of assemblages dominated by *Portatrochammina* spp. from offshore of Larsen-A Ice  
580 Shelf, which they interpreted as being modified by dissolution in areas lacking surface-water  
581 carbonate production expressed by lack of planktonic foraminifera. Since our northwestern  
582 Weddell Sea sites are located quite close to Larsen-A Ice Shelf, a similar interpretation seems  
583 to apply to our data. The relatively low diversity of these samples, as compared with PIB,  
584 could result from elimination of its calcareous species due to dissolution and disintegration of  
585 more fragile agglutinated species shortly after burial.

586 The *Portatrochammina* spp. FA from the northwestern Weddell Sea, which is an area  
587 influenced by Weddell Sea Water (Tokarczyk, 1987), resembles Violanti's (1996)  
588 Assemblage III from deep-water settings of the Ross Sea and the Shallow Water Arenaceous  
589 Facies of Anderson (1975a) from the southwestern Weddell Sea, which is dominated by  
590 *Portatrochammina* with a significant percentages of *M. arenacea* and *A. glomerata*. In the  
591 southwestern Weddell Sea, this assemblage is associated with a shallow CCD that results  
592 from freezing and Saline Shelf Water formation, a situation that is consistent with the  
593 northwestern Weddell Sea oceanographic setting.

594 The foraminiferal communities dominated by the *Portatrochammina* spp. FA in PIB  
595 differ from those of the Weddell Sea in that they show significantly higher  $H$  values and they

596 include well-preserved agglutinated specimens, including fragile taxa. In the PIB area, there is  
597 a gradational transition between the *Epistominella* spp. FA, dominated by calcareous forms  
598 and associated with slightly coarser glacial marine sediments (Appendix 2) and the deeper water  
599 *Portatrochammina* spp. FA, which has a low occurrence of planktonic forams (Fig. 3) and  
600 occurs in very fine sediments that are nearly 100% finer than 63- $\mu$ m fraction. It is apparent  
601 that this faunal change results from a different position with respect to the CCD, which is  
602 controlled by a less persistent CDW presence at shallower water depths dominated by the  
603 *Epistominella* spp. FA. The *Portatrochammina* spp. FA in PIB does not appear to be a relict  
604 assemblage, as we believe to be the case in the NW Weddell Sea.

605

#### 606 **4.5.8. *Miliammina arenacea* FA**

607 The *Miliammina arenacea* FA shows high PC scores of *Spiroplectammina biformis*  
608 and *Paratrochammina bartrami* (Table 2), as well as significant correlation coefficient with  
609 the same species (Table 4). This FA is dominant at a few sites in Gerlache Strait and  
610 prominent at KC 10 in Hope Bay, where it is a minor assemblage component relative to the  
611 *Portatrochammina* spp. FA (Fig. 1). At sites dominated by *M. arenacea* FA, low percentages  
612 on calcareous foraminifera, no planktonics, and intermediate *H* values were noted (Figs. 3-5).

613 The principal species of this FA, *M. arenacea*, exhibits a uniquely high preservation  
614 potential (Schmiedl et al., 1997), which may strongly influence its domination in fossil  
615 assemblages (e.g., Majewski and Anderson, 2009). Other components of this FA, are *S.*  
616 *biformis* and *P. bartrami*, the former showing only slightly lower PC scores than the dominant  
617 species (Table 2). At all three sites (KC 31, KC 55, and KC 65) dominated by this assemblage  
618 (Fig. 1), the faunas are sparse and include incomplete specimens. Moreover, *P. bartrami*  
619 appears more robust than average agglutinated forms because of its thick organic lining  
620 supporting compact agglutinated outer test layers. These features indicate that this FA is at



621 least in part a residual assemblage, similar to the *Portatrochammina* spp. FA from the NW  
622 Weddell Sea.

623         The *Miliammina arenacea* FA, dominates Gerlache Strait (Fig. 1), which is  
624 characterized by organic-rich, diatomaceous sediments. It is also the dominant species in  
625 areas where cold Saline Shelf Water occurs (Anderson, 1975a; Milam and Anderson, 1981;  
626 Murray, 1991; Ishman and Domack, 1994) and is known to tolerate broad salinity fluctuations  
627 (Ishman and Sperling 2002). It is also associated with diatom-rich sediments with elevated  
628 organic content off Wilkes Land (Milam and Anderson, 1981) and off of Laren A Ice Shelf  
629 (Ishman and Szymcek 2003). Similar association with organic-rich, low-oxygen conditions  
630 were interpreted for *S. biformis* in Norwegian fjords (Sen Gupta and Machain-Castillo, 1993).  
631 The sheltered location of the Gerlache Strait is conducive to a stable uppermost water layer,  
632 which in turn supports strong primary production and delivery of plentiful organic matter to  
633 the sea floor. The dominant presence of calcareous foraminifera at several sites located at  
634 similar water depths and locations not distant from sites dominated by the *M. arenacea* FA  
635 indicates that local factors influence this FA.

636

#### 637 **4.6. The main factors influencing foraminiferal assemblages from coastal West**

##### 638 **Antarctica**

639         Near-shore, relatively shallow (a few hundred meter of water-depth) settings are  
640 characterized by a considerable range of calcareous foraminifera. The diversity of sub-fossil  
641 assemblages generally increases offshore and with increasing water-depth (Fig. 4), reflecting  
642 decreasing turbidity and less punctuated food supply. This trend is disrupted by poor  
643 preservation of calcareous species. Of principal importance is variable preservation of  
644 calcareous tests affected by corrosive water masses and/or acidic pore waters. Thus,  
645 foraminiferal assemblages composed exclusively of agglutinated forms should be treated with  
646 caution, as they are potentially impoverished by taphonomic processes.

647           The exact cause of dissolution and depth of the dissolution boundary varies spatially in  
648 response to different oceanographic conditions and differences in pore water acidity. The  
649 *Portatrochammina* spp. FA provides a good example (see distribution of triangles indicating  
650 this FA on Fig. 4). In the PIB area, it is a highly diverse, well preserved assemblage devoid of  
651 calcareous forms because of prolonged exposure to corrosive CDW. In the Weddell Sea, this  
652 FA is poorly preserved and reduced in diversity, again depleted in calcareous species, but in  
653 this case associated with corrosive Saline Shelf Water along with possible acidic pore water.

654           The *M. arenacea* FA, which is dominated by this relatively robust agglutinated  
655 species, is regarded as a residual assemblage. It corresponds to conditions of exceptionally  
656 high primary productivity in sheltered locations with a stable upper water column. However,  
657 assemblages strongly dominated by agglutinated forms are not always impoverished, as  
658 exemplified by *Portatrochammina* spp. in PIB. In relatively deep water settings with well-  
659 ventilated bottom waters and low primary production, assemblages with very minor  
660 calcareous elements are common.

661           Off coastal West Antarctica, the most important factor influencing benthic  
662 foraminiferal assemblages is the strong seasonality of primary production. Its impact is  
663 exhibited by the common presence of opportunistic, detritus feeding foraminifera, including  
664 the index taxa of the *F. fusiformis*, *Epistominella* spp., and presumably also *B.*  
665 *pseudopunctata* FAs (Fig. 1). These assemblages are composed of species that are minute in  
666 size and have thin transparent walls. These features reflect their opportunistic nature and  
667 ability for rapid growth and reproduction (Goody, 1993). Such behavior gives them a clear  
668 advantage in habitats with seasonal food supply, which is typical for Antarctic coastal seas.  
669 The same group of opportunistic minute benthic foraminifera, which are not used for defining  
670 FAs, is also important within the remaining FAs (Appendix 1). In some cases the *B.*  
671 *pseudopunctata* and *F. fusiformis* FAs may cluster together. They seem to differ only by the  
672 former being more tolerant to coastal glaciers that increases turbidity and terrigenous input as

673 well as a less stable upper water column that slightly limits productivity. The *Epistominella*  
674 spp. FA in PIB, on the other hand, is typical for more open-water areas with strongly seasonal  
675 and reduced productivity, caused by prolonged sea-ice duration, accompanied by occasional  
676 CDW influence as an additional factor.

677         The *G. biora*, *A. echolsi*, and *B. aculeata* FAs are dominated by calcareous  
678 foraminifera and by species with more massive test walls, suggesting a less opportunistic life  
679 style and more stable conditions, at least in terms of food supply. The *G. biora* FAs is found  
680 only in areas significantly impacted by glacier sedimentation. These are areas of increased  
681 water turbidity that impacts primary production by limiting the depth of the photic zone on  
682 one side and nutrient delivery on the other. The *A. echolsi* and *B. aculeata* FAs are present in  
683 progressively more open-water habitats with less punctuated food supply and less turbid  
684 waters.

685         The distribution of *B. aculeata* individuals is of special importance. It correlates well  
686 with the boundary interpreted by Ishman and Domack (1994) and Shevenell and Kennett  
687 (2002) southeast of Anvers Island between deep water-masses influenced by Weddell Sea  
688 Transitional Water to NE and Upper Circumpolar Deep Water to SW (Fig 6). Thus, our study  
689 confirms that *B. aculeata* favors conditions associated with CDW presence. However, it is  
690 also important to note that our CTD data (Fig. 2) and the lack of *B. aculeata* in Maxwell and  
691 Admiralty bays, including a lack at site KC 1A from 488 mwd (Fig. 6), does not support  
692 CDW influence on the Bransfield Strait side of the South Shetland Islands, as interpreted by  
693 Shevenell and Kennett (2002). Our data are consistent with the presence of Weddell Sea  
694 Transitional Water as interpreted by Ishman and Domack (1994).

695         Finally, the *Epistominella* spp. and *Portatrochammina* spp. FAs occur in areas where  
696 warm CDW flows onto the continental shelf, as well, specifically in PIB (Fig. 1). These same  
697 FAs are associated with strongly seasonal and limited productivity within this area. The

698 *Portatrochammina* spp. occurs also in the northwestern Weddell Sea (Fig. 1), which is under  
699 influence of Weddell Sea Water and not CDW.

700

## 701 **5. Conclusions**

702 The eight FAs recognized in this work reflect large variability in benthic foraminiferal  
703 assemblages and associated environmental conditions. Six FAs are dominated by calcareous  
704 taxa and may be arranged more or less according to decreasing glacial influence. The last two  
705 FAs, dominated by arenaceous taxa, indicate corrosive conditions.

706 The most important factor impacting benthic foraminiferal assemblages in West  
707 Antarctic coastal settings is the variable food supply and its seasonal delivery. Significant  
708 terrigenous sedimentation may be important as well but it is also linked to the food factor as  
709 turbid water affects primary production. Temperatures and salinities of Antarctic coastal  
710 waters are not as variable as at lower latitudes, but the presence of warm deep-water water  
711 masses that are corrosive to carbonate, is also important. Three of the faunal assemblages  
712 identified in this study: *Bulimina aculeata*, *Epistominella* spp., and *Portatrochammina* spp,  
713 FAs, occur in areas where Circumpolar Deep Water is known to impinge onto the continental  
714 shelf. Thus, these assemblages may provide a paleoceanographic tool for studying this  
715 important process.

716 Our results confirm that some fossil assemblages may be poorly representative of  
717 “living” assemblages due to poor preservation in some settings. Assemblages dominated by  
718 agglutinated foraminifera reflect conditions corrosive to carbonate but may or may not be  
719 residual, i.e., depleted in number of species.

720

## 721 **Acknowledgements**

722 JSW and JBA were funded by the National Science Foundation Office of Polar Programs  
723 grant 0837925. We thank the captains, crews, and scientific parties of *R/V Nathaniel B.*

724 *Palmer* (cruises NBP0502, NBP0602A, and NBP0703) and *R/V Oden* (OSO 0910) and the  
725 Antarctic Marine Research Facility at Florida State University for their assistance. We thank  
726 Alex Orsi for providing CTD data from Ferrero Bay. We would like to thank two anonymous  
727 reviewers for their comments.

728

## 729 **References**

730 Allen, C.S., Oakes-Fretwell, L., Anderson, J.B., Hodgson, D.A., 2010. A record of Holocene  
731 glacial and oceanographic variability in Neny Fjord, Antarctic Peninsula. *Holocene*,  
732 20, 551–564.

733 Alve, E., 1994. Opportunistic features of the foraminifer *Stainforthia fusiformis* (Williamson):  
734 evidence from Frierfjord, Norway. *Journal of Micropalaeontology* 13, 24.

735 Anderson, J.B., 1975a. Ecology and distribution of foraminifera in the Weddell Sea of  
736 Antarctica. *Micropaleontology* 21, 69–96.

737 Anderson, J.B., 1975b. Factors controlling CaCO<sub>3</sub> dissolution in the Weddell Sea from  
738 foraminiferal distribution patterns. *Marine Geology* 19, 315–332.

739 Barnard, A., Wellner, J.S., Anderson, J.B., 2014. Small but significant late Holocene regional  
740 climate change documented in high-resolution sediment core from the Bransfield  
741 Strait, Antarctic Peninsula. *Polar Research* 33, 17236.

742 Bárcena, M.A., Fabrés, J., Isla, E., Flores, J.A., Sierro, F.J., Canals, M., Palanques, A., 2006.  
743 Holocene neoglacial events in the Bransfield Strait (Antarctica). *Palaeoceanographic*  
744 *and palaeoclimatic significance*. *Scientia Marina* 70, 607–619.

745 Boldt, K., Nittrouer, C., Hallet, B., Koppes, M., Forrest, B., Wellner, J., Anderson, J., 2013.  
746 Modern rates of glacial sediment accumulation along a 15° S-N transect: in fjords of  
747 the Antarctic Peninsula and southern Chile. *Journal of Geophysical Research-Earth*  
748 *Surface* 118, 1–17.

749 Cape, M., Vernet, M., Kahru, M., Preen, G., 2014. Polynya dynamics drive primary  
750 production in the Larsen A and B embayments following ice shelf collapse, *Journal of*  
751 *Geophysical Research-Oceans* 119, 572–594.

752 Chang, S.-K., Yoon, H.I., 1995. Foraminiferal assemblages from bottom sediments at Marian  
753 Cove, South Shetland Islands, West Antarctica. *Marine Micropaleontology* 26, 223–  
754 232.

755 Comiso, J., 2000. Variability and trends in Antarctic surface temperatures from in situ and  
756 satellite infrared measurements. *Journal of Climate* 13, 1674–1696.

757 Domack, E.W., Ishman, S., 1993. Oceanographic and physiographic controls on modern  
758 sedimentation within Antarctic fjords. *Geological Society of America Bulletin* 105,  
759 1175–1189.

760 Ducklow, H.W., Baker, K., Martinson, D.G., Quetin, L.B., Ross, R.M., Smith, R.C.,  
761 Stammerjohn, S.E., Vernet, M., Fraser, W., 2007. Marine pelagic ecosystems: the  
762 West Antarctic Peninsula, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society: Biological*  
763 *Sciences* 362, 67–94.

764 Earland, A., 1934. Foraminifera. Part III. The Falklands sector of the Antarctic (excluding  
765 South Georgia). *Discovery Reports* 10, 1–208.

766 Finger, K.L., Lipps, J.H., 1981. Foraminiferal decimation and repopulation in an active  
767 volcanic caldera, Deception Island, Antarctica. *Micropaleontology* 27, 111–139.

768 Garibotti, I.A., Vernet, M., Ferrario, M.E., Smith, R.C., Ross, R.M., Quetin, L.B., 2003.  
769 Phytoplankton spatial distribution patterns along the western Antarctic Peninsula  
770 (Southern Ocean). *Marine Ecology Progress Series* 261, 21–39

771 Gooday, A.J., 1993. Deep-sea benthic foraminiferal species which exploit phytodetritus:  
772 characteristic features and controls on distribution. *Marine Micropaleontology* 22,  
773 187–205.

774 Gooday, A.J., Rothe, N., Bowser, S.S., Pawlowski J. 2014. Benthic Foraminifera. In: De  
775 Broyer, C., Koubbi, P., Griffiths, H.J., et al. (eds.). Biogeographic Atlas of the Southern  
776 Ocean. Scientific Committee on Antarctic Research, Cambridge, pp 74–82

777 Gordon, A.L., Chen, C.T.A., Metcalf, W.G., 1984. Winter mixed layer entrainment of  
778 Weddell Deep Water. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans* 89(C1), 637–640.

779 Gray, S.C., Sturz, A., Bruns, M.D., Marzan, R.L., Dougherty, D., Law, H.B., Brackett, J.E.,  
780 Marcou, M., 2003. Composition and distribution of sediments and benthic foraminifera  
781 in a submerged caldera after 30 years of volcanic quiescence. *Deep-Sea Research II* 50,  
782 1727–1751.

783 Griffith, T.W., Anderson, J.B., 1989. Climatic control of sedimentation in bays and fjords of  
784 the northern Antarctic Peninsula. *Marine Geology* 85, 181–204.

785 Hofmann, E.E., Klinck, J.M., 1998. Hydrography and circulation of the Antarctic continental  
786 shelf: 150E to the Greenwich meridian. In: Robinson A. R., and Kenneth H. Brink  
787 (Ed.) *The Sea*, vol 11. John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 997–1042.

788 Hofmann, E.E., Klinck, J.M., Lascara, C.M., Smith, D.A., 1996. Water mass distribution and  
789 circulation west of the Antarctic Peninsula and including Bransfield Strait. In: Ross  
790 R.M., Hofmann E.E. and Quetin L.B. (eds), *Foundations for Ecological Research*  
791 *West of the Antarctic Peninsula*. Antarctic Research Series 70, 81–104.

792 Hughes, T., 1981. The weak underbelly of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet. *Journal of*  
793 *Glaciology* 27, 518–525.

794 Ishman, S.E., Domack, E.W., 1994. Oceanographic controls on benthic foraminifers from the  
795 Bellingshausen margin of the Antarctic Peninsula. *Marine Micropaleontology* 24,  
796 119–155.

797 Ishman, S.E., Sperling, M.R., 2002. Benthic foraminiferal record of Holocene deep-water  
798 evolution in the Palmer Deep, western Antarctic Peninsula. *Geology* 30, 435–438.

799 Ishman, S.E., Szymcek, P., 2003. Foraminiferal distributions in the former Larsen-A Ice Shelf  
800 and Prince Gustav Channel region, eastern Antarctic Peninsula margin: A baseline for  
801 Holocene paleoenvironmental interpretation. *Antarctic Research Series* 79, 239–260.

802 Jacobs, S.S., Jenkins, A., Giulivi, C.F., Dutrieux, P., 2011. Stronger ocean circulation and  
803 increased melting under Pine Island Glacier ice shelf. *Nature Geoscience* 4, 519–523.

804 Jacobs, S., Jenkins, A., Hellmer, H., Giulivi, C., Nitsche, F., Huber, B., Guerrero, R., 2012.  
805 The Amundsen Sea and the Antarctic Ice Sheet. *Oceanography* 25, 154–163.

806 Kang, S.-H., Fryxell, G.A., 1993. Phytoplankton in the Weddell Sea, Antarctica.  
807 Composition, abundance and distribution in the water-column assemblages of the  
808 marginal ice-edge zone during austral summer. *Marine Biology* 116, 335–348.

809 Kang, S.-H., Kim, D.Y., Kang, J.S., Lee, M.Y., Lee, S.H., 1995 Antarctic phytoplankton in  
810 the eastern Bransfield region and in the northwestern Weddell Sea marginal ice zone  
811 during austral summer. *Korean Journal of Polar Research* 6, 1–30.

812 Kang, S.-H., Kang, J.S., Lee, S., Chung, K.H., Kim, D., Park, M.G., 2001 Antarctic  
813 phytoplankton assemblages in the marginal ice zone of the northwestern Weddell Sea.  
814 *Journal of Plankton Research* 23, 333–352.

815 Kellogg, D.E., Kellogg, T.B., 1987. Microfossil distribution in modern Amundsen Sea  
816 sediments. *Marine Micropaleontology* 12, 203–222.

817 King, J.C., Turner, J., Marshall, G.J., Connolley, W.M., Lachlan-Cope, T.A., 2003. Antarctic  
818 Peninsula climate variability and its causes as revealed by instrumental records.  
819 *Antarctic Research Series* 79, 17–30.

820 Kruszewski, G., 2002. Zlodzenie Zatoki Admiralicji – przebieg i uwarunkowania.  
821 Wydawnictwo Uczelniane Akademii Morskiej, Gdynia. 123 pp. (in Polish)

822 Lipski, M., 1987. Variations of physical conditions, nutrient and chlorophyll a contents in  
823 Admiralty Bay (King George Island, South Shetland Islands, 1979). *Polish Polar*  
824 *Research* 8, 307–332.



825 Loeblich, A.R., Tappan, H., 1987. Foraminiferal Genera and their Classification. Van  
826 Nostrand Reinhold Company, New York: 970 pp.

827 Mackensen, A., Grobe, H., Kuhn, G., Fütterer, D.K., 1990. Benthic foraminiferal assemblages  
828 from the eastern Weddell Sea between 68 and 73°S: Distribution, ecology and  
829 fossilization potential. *Marine Micropaleontology* 16, 241–283.

830 Majewski, W., 2005. Benthic foraminiferal communities: distribution and ecology in  
831 Admiralty Bay, King George Island, West Antarctica. *Polish Polar Research* 26, 159–  
832 214.

833 Majewski, W., 2010. Benthic foraminifera from West Antarctic fiord environments: An  
834 overview. *Polish Polar Research* 31, 61–82.

835 Majewski, W., 2013. Benthic foraminifera from Pine Island and Ferrero bays, Amundsen Sea.  
836 *Polish Polar Research* 34 (2): 169–200.

837 Majewski, W., Anderson, J.B., 2009. Holocene foraminiferal assemblages from Firth of Tay,  
838 Antarctic Peninsula: Paleoclimate implications. *Marine Micropaleontology* 73, 135–  
839 247.

840 Majewski, W., Pawłowski, J., 2010. Morphologic and molecular diversity of the foraminiferal  
841 genus *Globocassidulina* in Admiralty Bay, West Antarctica. *Antarctic Science* 22,  
842 271–281.

843 Majewski, W., Tatur, A., 2009. A new Antarctic foraminiferal species for detecting climate  
844 change in sub-Recent glacier-proximal sediments. *Antarctic Science* 5, 439–448.

845 Majewski, W., Lecroq, B., Sinniger, F., Pawłowski, J., 2007. Monothalamous foraminifera  
846 from Admiralty Bay, King George Island, West Antarctica. *Polish Polar Research* 28,  
847 187–210.

848 Majewski, W., Wellner, J.S., Szczuciński, W., Anderson, J.B., 2012. Holocene oceanographic  
849 and glacial changes recorded in Maxwell Bay, West Antarctica. *Marine Geology* 326–  
850 328, 67–79.

851 Malmgren, B.A., Haq, B.U., 1982, Assessment of quantitative techniques in  
852 paleobiogeography. *Marine Micropaleontology* 7, 213–236.

853 Martinson, D.G., Stammerjohn, S.E., Iannuzzi, R.A., Smith, R.C., Vernet, M., 2008. Western  
854 Antarctic Peninsula physical oceanography and spatio-temporal variability. *Deep Sea*  
855 *Research Part II: Topical Studies in Oceanography* 55, 1964–1987.

856 Mayer, M., 2000. Zur Ökologie der Benthos–Foraminiferen der Potter Cove (King George  
857 Island, Antarktis). *Berichte zur Polarforschung* 353, 1–126.

858 Meredith, M.P., King, J.C., 2005. Climate change in the ocean to the west of the Antarctic  
859 Peninsula during the second half of the 20th century. *Geophysical Research Letters* 32,  
860 L19604.

861 Michalchuk, B., Anderson, J.B., Wellner, J.S., Manley, P.L., Bohaty, S., Majewski, W., 2009.  
862 Holocene climate and glacial history of the northeastern Antarctic Peninsula: the  
863 marine sedimentary record from a long SHALDRIL core. *Quaternary Science*  
864 *Reviews* 28, 3049–3065.

865 Milam, R.W., Anderson, J.B., 1981. Distribution and ecology of recent benthonic  
866 foraminifera of the Adelie-George V continental shelf and slope, Antarctica. *Marine*  
867 *Micropaleontology* 6, 297–325.

868 Milliken, K.T., Anderson, J.B., Wellner, J.S., Bohaty, S., Manley, P. 2009 High-resolution  
869 Holocene climate record from Maxwell Bay, South Shetland Islands, Antarctica.  
870 *Geological Society of America Bulletin* 121, 1711–1725.

871 Minzoni, R., Anderson, J.B., Fernandez, R., Wellner J.S., in press, Holocene climate, ocean,  
872 and cryosphere interactions in the eastern Antarctic Peninsula: High-resolution, multi-  
873 proxy investigation of Herbert-Croft Fjord, James Ross Island, *Quaternary Science*  
874 *Reviews*.

875 Murray, J.W., Pudsey, C.J., 2004. Living (stained) and dead foraminifera from the newly ice-  
876 free Larsen Ice Shelf, Weddell Sea, Antarctica: ecology and taphonomy. *Marine*  
877 *Micropaleontology* 53, 67–81.

878 Murray, J.W., 1991. Ecology and palaeoecology of benthic foraminifera. Longman Scientific  
879 and Technical. 397 pp.

880 Orsi, A.H., Whitworth, III T., Nowlin, Jr. W.D., 1995. On the meridional extent and fronts of  
881 the Antarctic circumpolar current. *Deep Sea Research* 42(5), 641–673.

882 Parkinson, C.L., Cavalieri, D.J., 2012. Antarctic sea ice variability and trends, 1979–2010.  
883 *The Cryosphere* 6, 871–880.

884 Pflum, C.E., 1966. The distribution of the foraminifera of the eastern Ross Sea, Amundsen  
885 Sea and Bellingshausen Sea, Antarctica. *Bulletins of American Paleontology* 50 (226),  
886 151–209.

887 Reynolds, J.M., 1981. The distribution of mean annual temperatures in the Antarctic  
888 Peninsula. *British Antarctic Survey Bulletin* 54, 122–33.

889 Rodrigues, A.R., Maluf, J.C.C., Braga, E.D.S., Eichler, B.B., 2010. Recent benthic  
890 foraminiferal distribution and related environmental factors in Ezcurra Inlet, King  
891 George Island, Antarctica. *Antarctic Science* 22, 343–360.

892 Schmiedl, G., Mackensen, A., Müller, P.J., 1997. Recent benthic foraminifera from the  
893 eastern South Atlantic Ocean: Dependence on food supply and water masses. *Marine*  
894 *Micropaleontology* 32, 249–287.

895 Sen Gupta, B.K., Machain-Castillo, M.L., 1993. Benthic foraminifera in oxygen-poor  
896 habitats. *Marine Micropaleontology* 20, 183–201.

897 Shevenell, A.W., Kennett, J.P., 2002. Antarctic Holocene climate change: A benthic  
898 foraminiferal stable isotope record from Palmer Deep. *Paleoceanography* 17, 1–13.

899 Świło, M., Majewski, W., Anderson, J.B., Minzoni, R., In prep. Diatom assemblages from  
900 coastal settings of West Antarctica.

- 901 Szafranski, Z., Lipski, M., 1982. Characteristics of water temperature and salinity at  
902 Admiralty Bay (King George Island, South Shetland Islands, Antarctic) during the  
903 austral summer 1978/1979. *Polish Polar Research* 3, 7–24.
- 904 Tokaczyk, R., 1987. Classification of water masses in the Bransfield Strait and southern part  
905 of the Drake Passage using a method of statistical multidimensional analysis. *Polish*  
906 *Polar Research* 8, 333–366.
- 907 Turner, J., Colwell, S.R., Marshall, G.J., Lachlan-Cope, T.A., Carelton, A.M., Jones, P.D.,  
908 Lagun, V., Reid, P.A., Iagovkina, S., 2005. Antarctic climate change during the last 50  
909 years. *International Journal of Climatology* 25, 279–294.
- 910 Vaughan, D.G., Marshall, G.J., Connolley, W.M., King, J.C., Mulvaney, R., 2001. Climate  
911 Change: Devil in the Detail. *Science* 293, 1777–1779.
- 912 Vaughan, D.G., Marshall, G.J., Connolley, W.M., Parkinson, C.L., Mulvaney, R., Hodgson,  
913 D.A., King, J.C., Pudsey, C.J., Turner, J., 2003, Recent rapid regional climate  
914 warming on the Antarctic Peninsula. *Climatic Change* 60, 243–274.
- 915 Venegas, S.A., Drinkwater, M.R., 2001. Sea ice, atmosphere and upper ocean variability in  
916 the Weddell Sea, Antarctica. *Journal of Geophysical Research* 106 (C8), 16747–  
917 16766.
- 918 Violanti, D., 1996. Taxonomy and distribution of recent benthic foraminifers from Terra  
919 Nova Bay (Ross Sea, Antarctica), Oceanographic Campaign 1987/1988.  
920 *Palaeontographia Italica* 83, 25–71.
- 921
- 922 Table 1. Sampling sites.
- 923 Table 2. Foraminiferal PC scores. Taxa important for particular FAs are in bold.
- 924 Table 3. Foraminiferal PC loadings. FA values important for particular sites are in bold.
- 925 Table 4. Pearson's correlation coefficients between various foraminiferal indices. Significant  
926 correlation coefficients highlighted in bold.

927 Fig. 1. Map of the Antarctic Peninsula showing the location of sediment samples and the  
928 distribution distribution of foraminiferal assemblages (FAs). Schematic oceanic circulation  
929 after Shevenell and Kennett (2002). Abbreviated location names: AdB – Admiralty Bay, AnB  
930 – Andvord Bay, BB – Beascochea Bay, BC – Brialmont Cove, FIB – Flandres Bay, FB –  
931 Ferrero Bay, GS – Gerlache Strait, LB – Laperère Bay, MB – Maxwell Bay.

932 Fig. 2. CTD data collected during NBP0703 and Oden cruises highlighting the basic water  
933 mass structure in each area of this study.

934 Fig. 3. Foraminiferal p/b ratios. Outlined assemblages are from the same regions. Note  
935 explanation of foraminiferal assemblage (FA) symbols.

936 Fig. 4. Foraminiferal Shannon diversity index plotted against bathymetry of sampling sites.  
937 Outlined assemblages are from the same regions. For explanation of FA symbols, see Fig. 1  
938 or Fig. 3.

939 Fig. 5. Percent calcareous benthic foraminifera. Outlined assemblages are from the same  
940 regions. For explanation of FA symbols, see Fig. 1 or Fig. 3.

941 Fig. 6. Distribution of *Bulimina aculeata*, which according to Ishman and Domack (1994)  
942 indicate presence of CDW. For complete schematic circulation after Shevenell and Kennett  
943 (2002) see Fig. 1.

944

945 Appendix 1. Foraminiferal census data.

946 Appendix 2. Foraminiferal assemblages (FAs) with granulometric data.

947

948

949

Figure(s)

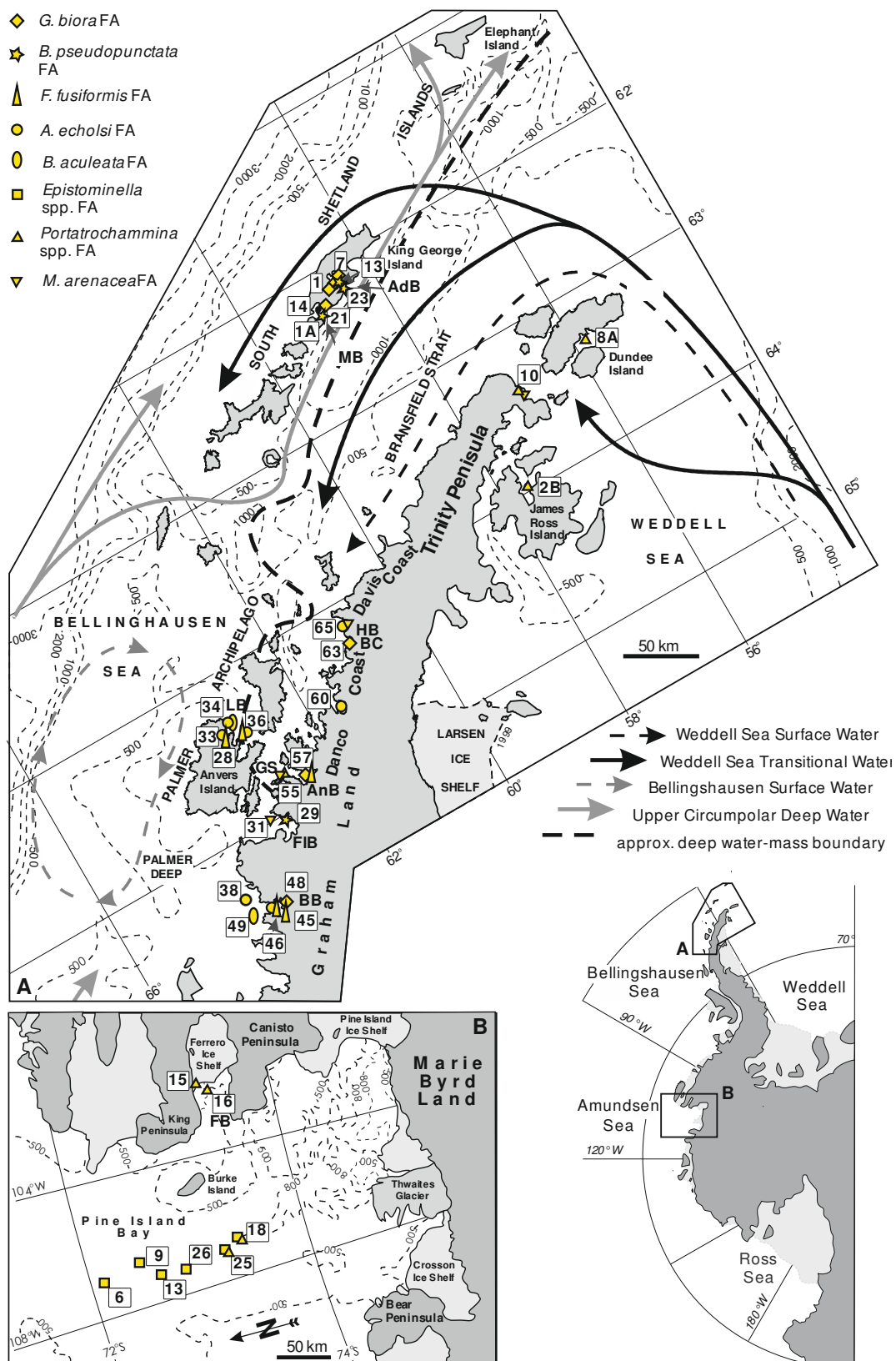


Fig. 1. Map of the Antarctic Peninsula showing the location of sediment samples and the distribution of foraminiferal assemblages (FAs). Schematic oceanic circulation after Shevenell and Kennett (2002). Abbreviated location names: AdB – Admiralty Bay, AnB – Andvord Bay, BB – Beascochea Bay, BC – Brialmont Cove, FIB – Flandres Bay, FB – Ferrero Bay, GS – Gerlache Strait, LB – Laperère Bay, MB – Maxwell Bay.

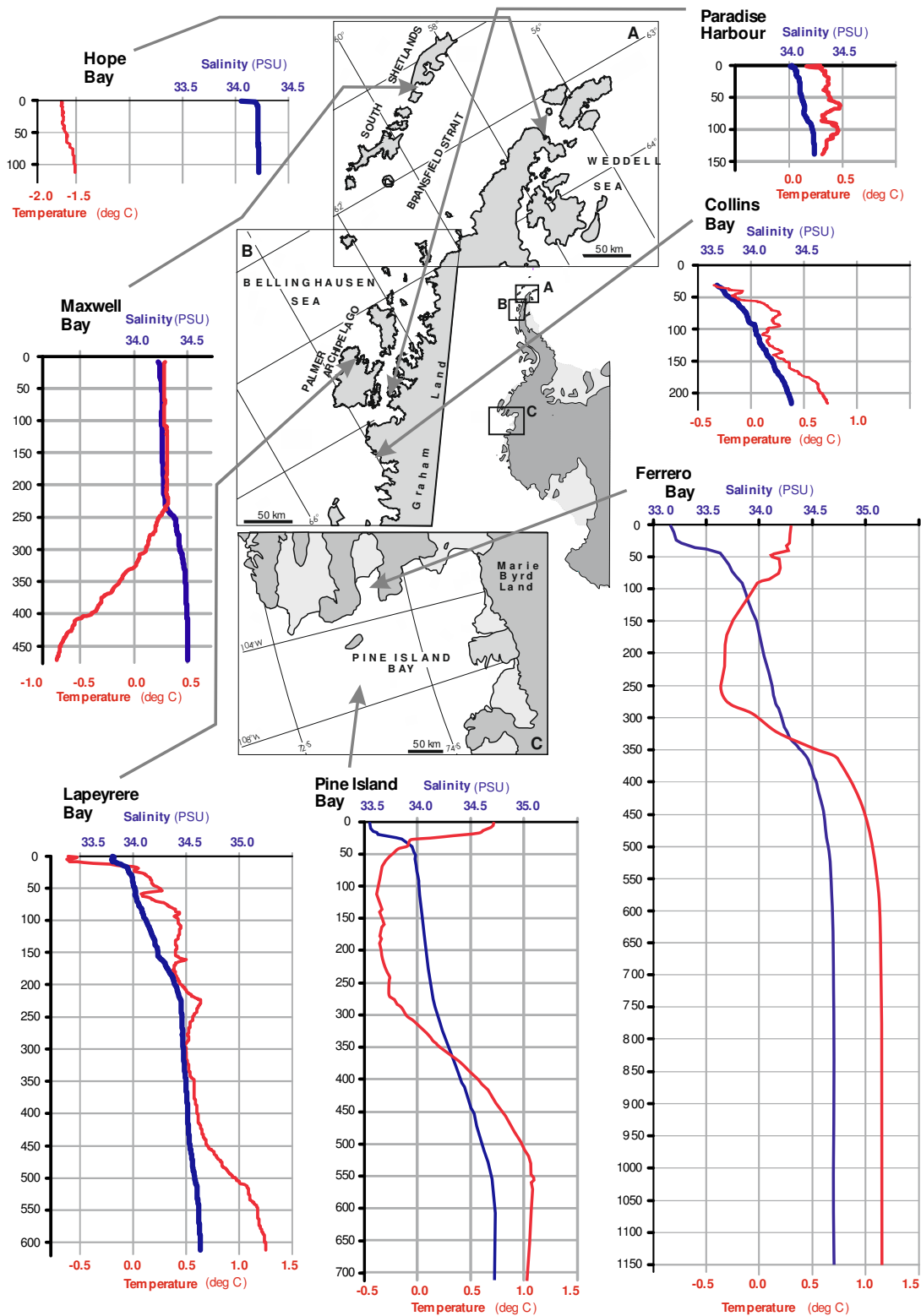


Fig. 2. CTD data collected during NBP0703 and Oden cruises highlighting the basic water mass structure in each area of this study.

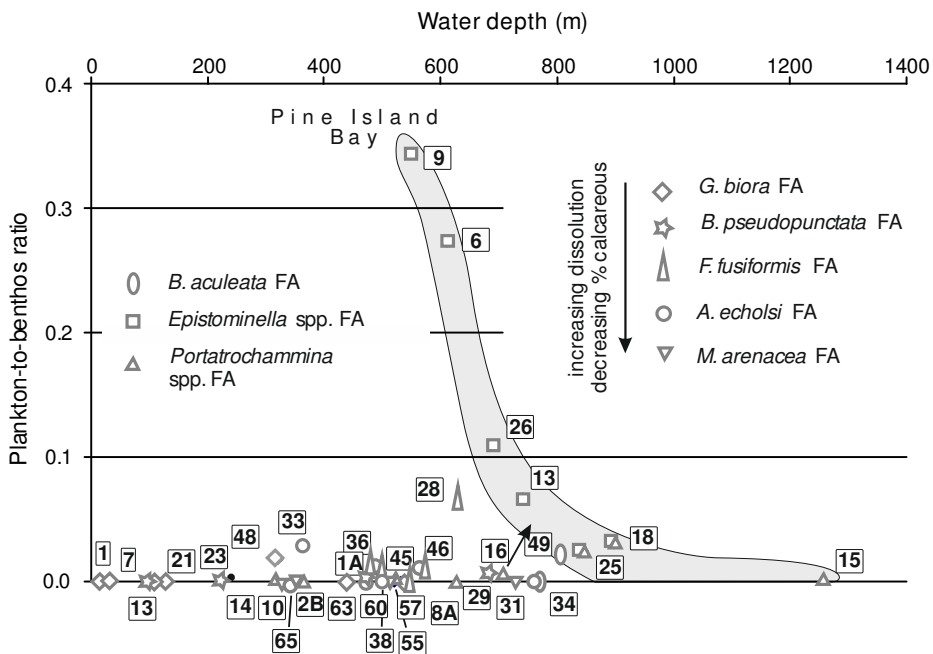


Fig. 3. Foraminiferal p/b ratios. Outlined assemblages are from the same regions. Note explanation of foraminiferal assemblage (FA) symbols.

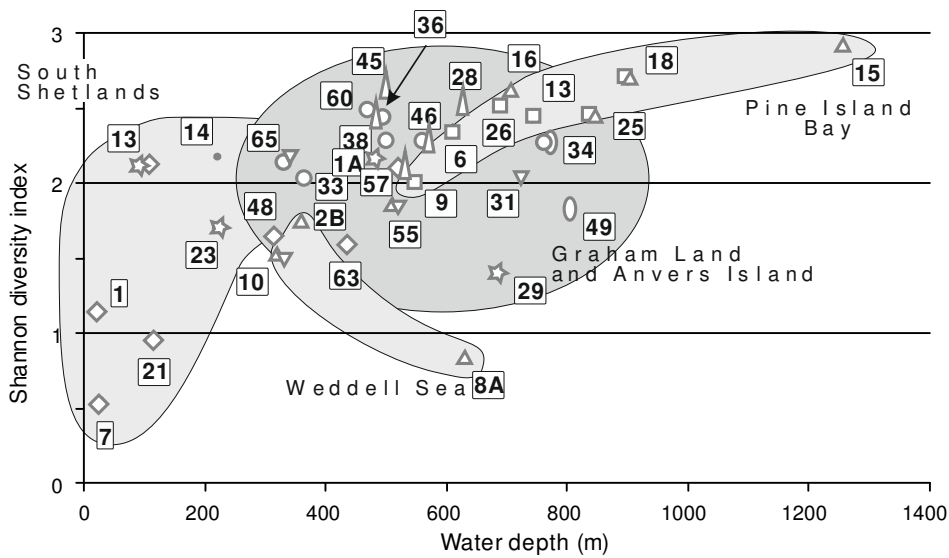


Fig. 4. Foraminiferal Shannon diversity index plotted against bathymetry of sampling sites. Outlined assemblages are from the same regions. For explanation of FA symbols, see Fig. 1 or Fig. 3.



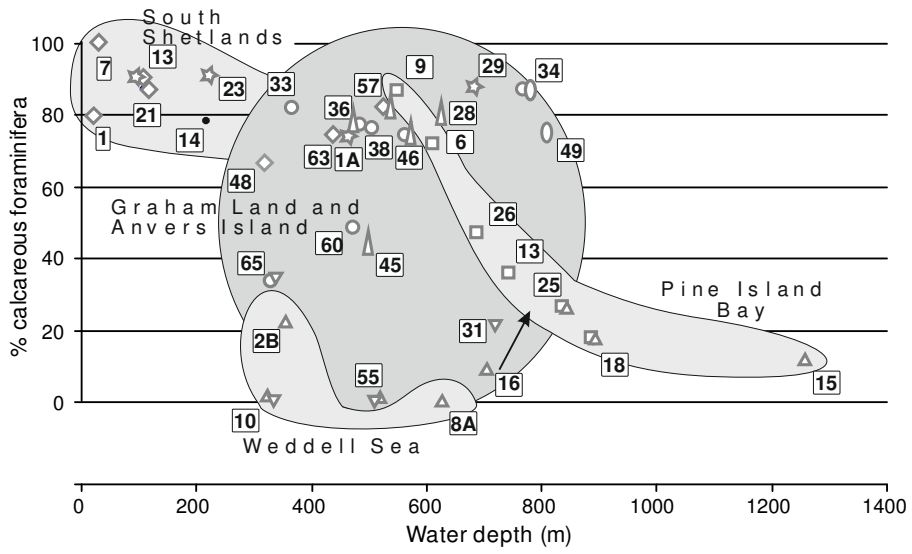


Fig. 5. Percent calcareous benthic foraminifera. Outlined assemblages are from the same regions. For explanation of FA symbols, see Fig. 1 or Fig. 3.

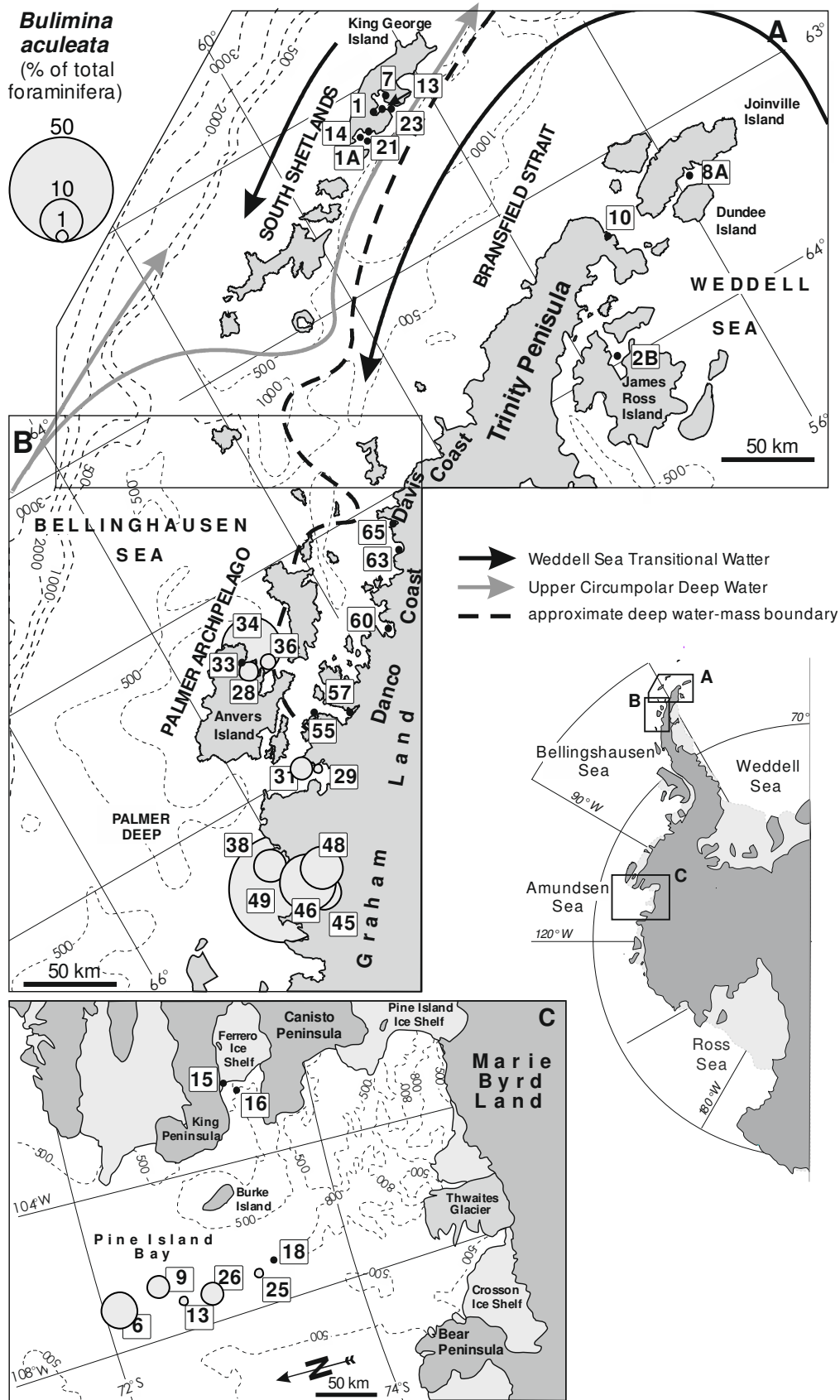


Fig. 6. Distribution of *Bulimina aculeata*, which according to Ishman and Domack (1994) indicate presence of CDW. For complete schematic circulation after Shevenell and Kennett (2002) see Fig. 1.

Table 1. Sampling sites.

Sample	Water depth (m)	Latitude	Longitude	Location
KG-1	20	62°11.00' S	58°37.31' W	Admiralty Bay
KG-7	30	62°06.22' S	58°19.68' W	Admiralty Bay
KG-13	108	62°09.46' S	58°29.74' W	Admiralty Bay
KG-23	223	62°13.36' S	58°22.89' W	Admiralty Bay
NBP0502-KC-1A	488	62° 16.93' S	58° 45.23' W	Maxwell Bay
NBP0502-KC-2B	359	63° 58.26' S	57° 45.51' W	Herbert Sound
NBP0602A-KC-8A	629	63° 20.57' S	55° 53.20' W	Firth of Tay
NBP0703-KC-10	323	63° 23.14' S	57° 00.58' W	Hope Bay
NBP0703-KC-14	220	63° 11.79' S	58° 50.81' W	Maxwell Bay, Colin Harbour
NBP0703-KC-21	112	62° 12.32' S	58° 44.31' W	Maxwell Bay, Marian Cove
NBP0703-KC-28	627	64° 24.10' S	63° 15.14' W	Anvers Island, Lapeyrière Bay
NBP0703-KC-29	684	65° 03.09' S	63° 06.19' W	Flandres Bay
NBP0703-KC-31	723	65° 00.17' S	63° 18.86' W	Flandres Bay
NBP0703-KC-33	363	64° 22.40' S	63° 17.32' W	Anvers Island, Lapeyrière Bay
NBP0703-KC-34	767	64° 20.11' S	63° 05.88' W	Anvers Island, Lapeyrière Bay
NBP0703-KC-36	486	64° 26.22' S	63° 00.82' W	Anvers Island, Lapeyrière Bay
NBP0703-KC-38	501	65° 20.64' S	64° 17.19' W	Collins Bay
NBP0703-KC-45	499	65° 35.32' S	63° 49.70' W	Beascochea Bay
NBP0703-KC-46	567	65° 31.79' S	63° 54.63' W	Beascochea Bay
NBP0703-KC-48	318	65° 30.57' S	63° 42.50' W	Beascochea Bay
NBP0703-KC-49	807	65° 28.79' S	64° 18.29' W	Beascochea Bay
NBP0703-KC-55	519	64° 46.86' S	62° 52.17' W	Andrord Bay
NBP0703-KC-57	532	64° 52.35' S	62° 25.50' W	Andrord Bay
NBP0703-KC-60	470	64° 37.93' S	62° 31.16' W	Charlotte Bay
NBP0703-KC-63	438	64° 17.42' S	60° 58.91' W	Hughes Bay
NBP0703-KC-65	340	64° 09.43' S	60° 51.77' W	Hughes Bay
OSO0910-KC-6	612	72° 07.95' S	106° 54.60' W	central Pine Island Bay
OSO0910-KC-9	548	72° 29.20' S	106° 38.34' W	central Pine Island Bay
OSO0910-KC-13	742	72° 38.44' S	107° 10.12' W	central Pine Island Bay
OSO0910-KC-15	1257	73° 21.62' S	101° 50.17' W	Ferrero Bay
OSO0910-KC-16	706	73° 27.24' S	102° 04.75' W	Ferrero Bay
OSO0910-KC-18	894	73° 23.01' S	106° 52.26' W	central Pine Island Bay
OSO0910-KC-25	838	73° 15.42' S	107° 06.34' W	central Pine Island Bay
OSO0910-KC-26	689	72° 51.87' S	107° 13.34' W	central Pine Island Bay

Table 2. Foraminiferal PC scores. Taxa important for particular FAs are in bold.

	<i>Portatroch</i>	<i>Epistomin</i>	<i>A.</i>	<i>B.</i>	<i>F.</i>	<i>M.</i>	<i>B.</i>	
	<i>ammina</i>	<i>ella</i> spp.	<i>G. biora</i>	<i>echolsi</i>	<i>pseudopun</i>	<i>fusifor</i>	<i>arenacea</i>	<i>aculeata</i>
	spp. FA	FA	FA	FA	ctata FA	mis FA	FA	FA
<b>Percent of total variance explained</b>	15.87	13.94	13.74	11.55	10.64	8.60	6.86	4.47
<i>Rhabdammina</i> spp.	0.078	0.843	-0.187	0.597	-0.677	-0.638	-0.136	-0.969
<i>Psammospaera fusca</i>	-0.188	-0.380	0.272	-0.361	-0.184	-0.374	-0.297	-0.129
<i>Lagenammina arenulata</i>	-0.507	-0.321	-0.313	-0.003	-0.009	-0.224	0.711	0.248
<i>Reophax subdentaliniformis</i>	-0.270	-0.255	0.407	0.085	-0.460	-0.312	0.472	0.361
<i>Reophax scorpiurus</i>	-0.394	-0.350	-0.298	-0.161	-0.223	-0.278	-0.239	0.007
<i>Reophax</i> cf. <i>R. spiculifer</i>	-0.204	-0.296	-0.299	-0.292	-0.210	-0.352	-0.291	-0.296
<i>Nodulina</i> cf. <i>N. dentaliniformis</i>	-0.361	-0.362	-0.266	-0.189	-0.178	-0.329	-0.019	-0.395
<i>Hormosinella</i> spp.	0.420	0.025	-0.324	-0.142	-0.272	-0.575	-0.475	-0.569
<i>Cystammina argentea</i>	-0.222	-0.278	-0.297	-0.315	-0.212	-0.330	-0.277	-0.263
<b><i>Miliammina arenacea</i></b>	0.298	-0.025	-0.225	-0.949	-0.017	<b>1.352</b>	<b>3.796</b>	0.539
<b><i>Adercotryma glomerata</i></b>	<b>1.293</b>	0.847	-0.335	-0.129	-0.402	-0.049	-0.700	-0.039
<i>Pseudobolivina antarctica</i>	0.442	0.755	-0.307	-0.222	-0.383	-0.383	-0.536	0.034
<b><i>Spiroplectammina bififormis</i></b>	-0.261	0.355	0.573	<b>1.148</b>	-0.982	-0.937	<b>3.174</b>	<b>-2.129</b>
<i>Labrospira jeffreysii</i>	-0.255	-0.341	-0.276	-0.400	-0.050	-0.263	-0.134	-0.083
<i>Labrospira</i> sp.	-0.153	-0.362	-0.280	-0.273	-0.173	-0.379	-0.294	-0.289
<i>Eratidus foliaceus</i>	-0.187	-0.179	-0.298	-0.360	-0.216	-0.292	-0.305	-0.234
<b><i>Paratrochammina bartrami</i></b>	0.730	-0.639	-0.225	<b>-1.023</b>	0.327	0.004	<b>2.225</b>	0.948
<i>Recurvoides contortus</i>	-0.198	-0.325	-0.301	-0.280	-0.213	-0.360	-0.293	-0.321
<b><i>Portatrochammina</i> spp.</b>	<b>5.534</b>	-0.008	-0.149	0.514	0.082	0.073	0.031	0.276
<i>Thalmanammina parkerae</i>	-0.099	-0.349	-0.407	-0.251	-0.334	0.579	-0.570	0.432
<i>Alterammina alterans</i>	0.246	0.125	-0.321	-0.145	-0.279	-0.558	-0.455	-0.574
<i>Quinqueloculina</i> sp.	-0.372	-0.349	0.513	-0.404	-0.215	-0.408	-0.207	-0.011
<b><i>Bolivinellina pseudopunctata</i></b>	-0.350	-0.403	-0.179	-0.329	<b>5.715</b>	0.059	0.426	-0.107
<i>Bolivinellina earlandi</i>	-0.307	-0.325	-0.354	0.036	0.104	-0.234	-0.340	-0.065
<b><i>Bulimina aculeata</i></b>	-0.501	0.171	0.097	0.163	-0.601	0.120	-0.072	<b>5.249</b>
<i>Angulogerina earlandi</i>	-0.645	0.513	-0.242	-0.381	-0.296	-0.329	-0.028	0.076
<b><i>Astrononion echolsi</i></b>	-0.543	-0.277	-0.279	<b>5.592</b>	0.539	-0.280	0.207	0.463
<i>Pullenia sphaerica</i>	-0.477	-0.319	-0.238	0.144	-0.173	-0.671	-0.195	0.616
<i>Nonionella iridea</i>	-0.371	-0.201	-0.298	-0.365	-0.164	-0.067	-0.291	-0.182
<i>Rosalina globularis</i>	-0.399	-0.344	-0.242	-0.356	-0.200	-0.266	-0.211	-0.206
<i>Cibicides</i> spp.	-0.403	-0.258	-0.237	-0.367	-0.163	-0.131	-0.260	-0.252
<i>Ioanella tumidula</i>	-0.542	0.167	-0.266	-0.399	-0.242	-0.278	-0.128	-0.062
<b><i>Epistominella</i> spp.</b>	-0.450	<b>5.642</b>	-0.006	-0.177	0.655	0.586	-0.187	-0.007
<i>Stainforthia concava</i>	-0.349	-0.388	-0.332	-0.091	-0.177	-0.103	-0.349	-0.147
<b><i>Fursenkoina fusiformis</i></b>	-0.571	-0.545	-0.474	0.426	-0.725	<b>5.452</b>	-0.242	-0.856
<b><i>Cassidulinoides parkerianus</i></b>	0.316	-0.756	-0.218	-0.416	0.714	0.192	<b>-1.415</b>	-0.736
<i>Cassidulinoides porrectus</i>	-0.359	-0.373	-0.283	-0.281	-0.149	-0.304	-0.311	-0.119
<b><i>Globocassidulina biora</i></b>	-0.103	-0.156	<b>5.770</b>	-0.205	0.009	0.121	-0.134	-0.044
<b><i>Globocassidulina subglobosa</i></b>	0.684	-0.283	<b>1.128</b>	0.560	0.434	<b>1.166</b>	<b>-1.651</b>	-0.164

Table 3. Foraminiferal PC loadings. FA values important for particular sites are in bold.

Site	<i>Portatroc Epistomi</i>		<i>G. biora</i>	<i>A. echolsi</i>	<i>B. pseudopu</i>		<i>F. fusiformi</i>	<i>M. arenacea</i>	<i>B. aculeata</i>
	<i>hammina nella spp.</i>	FA			FA	FA			
KG 1	-0.031	-0.059	<b>0.911</b>	-0.068	-0.019	-0.021	-0.044	-0.011	
KG 7	-0.032	-0.039	<b>0.945</b>	-0.049	-0.007	0.003	-0.030	-0.007	
KG 13	-0.023	0.248	<b>0.504</b>	0.323	<b>0.687</b>	0.150	-0.104	-0.005	
KG 23	-0.062	-0.089	-0.054	0.024	<b>0.938</b>	0.129	0.032	-0.051	
KC 1A	-0.048	<b>0.469</b>	-0.066	0.106	<b>0.812</b>	0.157	0.207	0.031	
KC 2B	<b>0.940</b>	-0.023	0.117	0.033	0.026	0.108	0.039	0.076	
KC 8A	<b>0.884</b>	-0.048	-0.042	-0.011	0.036	0.031	0.220	0.118	
KC 10	<b>0.663</b>	-0.016	-0.052	-0.095	-0.001	0.187	<b>0.531</b>	0.122	
KC 14	0.387	-0.013	0.118	0.112	0.309	0.168	-0.295	-0.095	
KC 21	0.034	-0.057	<b>0.928</b>	0.004	0.030	0.099	-0.160	-0.023	
KC 28	0.041	0.306	0.018	0.362	<b>0.410</b>	<b>0.727</b>	0.139	0.034	
KC 29	-0.020	-0.070	-0.031	0.156	<b>0.945</b>	0.006	0.092	0.011	
KC 31	0.295	-0.132	-0.092	-0.010	0.195	0.121	<b>0.630</b>	0.254	
KC 33	-0.041	-0.049	-0.060	<b>0.918</b>	0.122	0.156	0.020	0.046	
KC 34	-0.152	-0.070	-0.041	<b>0.806</b>	0.193	0.062	0.050	<b>0.457</b>	
KC 36	-0.002	0.047	-0.039	<b>0.590</b>	0.186	<b>0.733</b>	-0.015	-0.011	
KC 38	0.291	0.009	-0.036	<b>0.794</b>	0.292	0.314	-0.028	0.166	
KC 45	0.357	0.215	-0.048	0.363	-0.013	<b>0.424</b>	-0.112	0.234	
KC 46	0.028	-0.019	-0.050	<b>0.432</b>	-0.085	<b>0.792</b>	0.066	0.343	
KC 48	-0.035	-0.013	<b>0.874</b>	0.006	-0.039	0.042	0.006	0.183	
KC 49	-0.003	0.014	-0.013	0.170	-0.058	0.070	0.018	<b>0.874</b>	
KC 55	<b>0.416</b>	0.011	0.033	0.058	-0.117	-0.031	<b>0.793</b>	-0.166	
KC 57	-0.021	-0.025	<b>0.404</b>	0.014	0.203	<b>0.810</b>	0.135	-0.161	
KC 60	0.192	0.022	0.189	<b>0.784</b>	-0.062	0.225	0.268	-0.201	
KC 63	-0.017	0.050	<b>0.887</b>	0.086	0.025	0.044	0.147	-0.208	
KC 65	0.022	-0.072	-0.028	<b>0.404</b>	0.368	0.123	<b>0.769</b>	-0.077	
KC 6	-0.039	<b>0.905</b>	0.001	-0.021	0.018	0.026	-0.012	0.083	
KC 9	-0.068	<b>0.931</b>	0.003	-0.035	0.092	0.085	-0.038	0.032	
KC13	0.281	<b>0.906</b>	-0.034	-0.006	0.022	0.006	-0.085	-0.076	
KC 15	<b>0.787</b>	0.218	-0.074	0.091	-0.106	-0.123	0.087	-0.177	
KC 16	<b>0.919</b>	0.088	-0.058	0.089	-0.072	-0.055	0.173	-0.032	
KC 18	<b>0.748</b>	<b>0.514</b>	-0.055	0.003	-0.068	0.007	0.058	-0.066	
KC 25	<b>0.673</b>	<b>0.700</b>	-0.074	0.028	-0.013	0.007	-0.057	-0.067	
KC 26	0.175	<b>0.968</b>	-0.028	0.012	0.017	0.038	-0.010	-0.029	

Table 4. *Pearson's* correlation coefficients between various foraminiferal indices. Significant correlation coefficients highlighted in bold.

	Water	Shan. <i>Portatro</i>					<i>B.</i>						
	depth	%	p/b	Taxa	diver	<i>chammin</i>	<i>Epistom</i>	<i>G.</i>	<i>A.</i>	<i>pseudop</i>	<i>F.</i>	<i>M.</i>	<i>B.</i>
	(m)	calc	ratio	numb	sity	<i>a spp.</i>	<i>inella</i>	<i>biora</i>	<i>echolsi</i>	<i>unctata</i>	<i>fusiform</i>	<i>arenace</i>	<i>aculeata</i>
				er	index	FA	spp. FA	FA	FA	FA	is FA	a FA	FA
% calc	<b>-0.45</b>												
p/b ratio	0.16	0.16											
Taxa_S	<b>0.57</b>	-0.03	<b>0.50</b>										
Shannon diversity index	<b>0.61</b>	-0.21	0.17	<b>0.79</b>									
<i>Portatrochammina</i> spp. FA	0.39	<b>-0.85</b>	-0.21	0.04	0.17								
<i>Epistominella</i> spp. FA	0.37	-0.07	<b>0.73</b>	<b>0.70</b>	0.44	0.03							
<i>G. biora</i> FA	<b>-0.63</b>	0.41	-0.17	<b>-0.56</b>	<b>-0.60</b>	-0.34	-0.26						
<i>A. echolsi</i> FA	0.02	0.28	-0.20	0.08	0.34	-0.27	-0.28	-0.26					
<i>B. pseudopunctata</i> FA	-0.22	0.45	-0.12	0.04	-0.06	-0.39	-0.12	-0.15	0.11				
<i>F. fusiformis</i> FA	-0.10	0.30	-0.09	0.04	0.26	-0.28	-0.17	-0.12	0.38	0.12			
<i>M. arenacea</i> FA	0.12	<b>-0.55</b>	-0.19	-0.27	-0.03	0.15	-0.28	-0.25	-0.03	-0.03	-0.06		
<i>B. aculeata</i> FA	0.15	0.15	0.01	-0.09	-0.08	-0.17	-0.17	-0.20	0.18	-0.09	0.09	-0.09	
<i>Rhabdammina</i> spp.	0.38	-0.31	0.28	<b>0.54</b>	0.45	0.26	<b>0.60</b>	-0.21	-0.01	-0.33	-0.23	-0.10	-0.30
<i>Psammospaera fusca</i>	-0.35	0.13	-0.13	-0.38	-0.43	-0.10	-0.19	<b>0.57</b>	-0.26	-0.16	-0.19	-0.18	-0.09
<i>Lagenammina arenulata</i>	0.09	-0.04	-0.11	-0.07	0.14	-0.18	-0.27	-0.27	0.34	0.12	0.08	0.44	0.23
<i>Reophax subdentaliniformis</i>	-0.12	-0.10	-0.10	-0.17	-0.02	-0.08	-0.16	0.26	0.02	-0.20	-0.05	0.12	0.13
<i>Reophax scorpiurus</i>	0.15	0.09	0.03	0.19	0.18	-0.17	-0.08	-0.30	0.45	-0.10	0.06	-0.06	0.45
<i>Reophax</i> cf. <i>R. spiculifer</i>	<b>0.67</b>	-0.44	0.02	<b>0.52</b>	0.47	<b>0.50</b>	0.37	-0.24	-0.20	-0.29	-0.35	-0.10	-0.28
<i>Nodulina</i> cf. <i>N. dentaliniformis</i>	-0.11	-0.14	-0.15	0.09	0.06	0.04	-0.19	-0.11	0.10	0.11	-0.07	0.28	-0.27
<i>Hormosinella</i> spp.	<b>0.65</b>	-0.47	0.04	<b>0.53</b>	0.49	<b>0.56</b>	0.43	-0.25	-0.23	-0.29	-0.36	-0.13	-0.28
<i>Cystammina argentea</i>	<b>0.63</b>	-0.44	0.04	<b>0.58</b>	0.48	<b>0.50</b>	0.47	-0.25	-0.22	-0.29	-0.34	-0.12	-0.27
<i>Miliammina arenacea</i>	0.03	<b>-0.54</b>	-0.19	-0.24	-0.02	0.27	-0.20	-0.28	-0.14	-0.08	0.13	<b>0.77</b>	0.05
<i>Adercotryma glomerata</i>	0.46	<b>-0.56</b>	0.01	0.48	0.47	<b>0.62</b>	<b>0.50</b>	-0.37	-0.24	-0.33	-0.16	-0.13	-0.08
<i>Pseudobolivina antarctica</i>	0.49	-0.38	0.18	0.60	0.45	0.39	<b>0.60</b>	-0.30	-0.23	-0.33	-0.26	-0.21	-0.01
<i>Spiroplectammina bififormis</i>	0.08	-0.34	-0.11	-0.11	0.10	0.06	-0.06	0.08	0.00	-0.23	-0.19	<b>0.58</b>	-0.41
<i>Labrospira jeffreysii</i>	-0.13	-0.24	0.03	-0.09	0.03	0.32	-0.03	-0.23	-0.18	0.06	-0.09	0.15	0.05
<i>Labrospira</i> sp.	0.40	-0.33	-0.10	0.41	0.37	0.45	0.04	-0.14	-0.11	-0.09	-0.29	-0.03	-0.22
<i>Eratidus foliaceus</i>	0.39	-0.31	0.02	0.33	0.31	0.37	0.37	-0.17	-0.18	-0.20	-0.19	-0.10	-0.16
<i>Paratrochammina bartrami</i>	0.12	<b>-0.55</b>	-0.15	-0.36	-0.26	0.43	-0.26	-0.24	-0.21	-0.05	-0.11	<b>0.55</b>	0.10
<i>Recurvoides contortus</i>	<b>0.60</b>	-0.35	-0.06	0.34	0.37	0.42	0.15	-0.17	-0.12	-0.22	-0.26	-0.05	-0.23
<i>Portatrochammina</i> spp.	0.23	<b>-0.75</b>	-0.17	-0.16	-0.09	<b>0.87</b>	-0.09	-0.35	-0.21	-0.28	-0.18	0.21	-0.01
<i>Thalmanammina parkerae</i>	0.06	-0.04	-0.10	0.03	0.21	0.00	-0.09	-0.19	0.20	-0.03	0.32	-0.08	0.26
<i>Alterammina alterans</i>	<b>0.64</b>	-0.39	0.10	0.49	0.44	0.42	<b>0.50</b>	-0.23	-0.22	-0.27	-0.32	-0.16	-0.27
<i>Quinqueloculina</i> sp.	-0.47	0.26	-0.10	-0.39	<b>-0.52</b>	-0.19	-0.17	<b>0.57</b>	-0.22	-0.15	-0.18	-0.15	-0.07
<i>Bolivinellina pseudopunctata</i>	-0.12	0.38	-0.17	0.07	-0.10	-0.34	-0.20	-0.16	0.04	<b>0.92</b>	0.04	0.02	-0.08
<i>Bolivinellina earlandi</i>	0.10	0.25	-0.18	0.18	0.26	-0.15	-0.13	-0.34	<b>0.55</b>	0.43	0.19	-0.10	0.16
<i>Bulimina aculeata</i>	0.25	0.19	0.04	0.02	0.03	-0.24	-0.08	-0.12	0.15	-0.18	0.06	-0.12	<b>0.88</b>
<i>Angulogerina earlandi</i>	0.10	0.13	<b>0.83</b>	0.39	0.15	-0.18	<b>0.59</b>	-0.12	-0.18	-0.09	-0.13	-0.14	0.00
<i>Astrononion echolsi</i>	-0.03	0.36	-0.17	0.06	0.21	-0.37	-0.31	-0.28	<b>0.92</b>	0.27	0.28	-0.02	0.26
<i>Pullenia sphaerica</i>	0.23	0.19	-0.07	0.00	0.05	-0.23	-0.15	-0.12	0.36	-0.02	-0.09	-0.06	<b>0.56</b>
<i>Nonionella iridea</i>	0.16	0.19	<b>0.62</b>	0.48	0.37	-0.10	<b>0.61</b>	-0.20	-0.07	0.11	0.29	-0.28	-0.10
<i>Rosalina globularis</i>	-0.08	0.18	0.02	-0.15	-0.11	-0.22	-0.04	0.44	-0.08	-0.03	0.03	0.00	-0.15
<i>Cibicides</i> spp.	-0.11	0.33	<b>0.53</b>	0.17	0.04	-0.25	0.23	0.07	0.03	-0.01	0.13	-0.20	-0.22
<i>Ioanella tumidula</i>	0.12	0.13	<b>0.98</b>	0.48	0.13	-0.20	<b>0.74</b>	-0.14	-0.24	-0.12	-0.16	-0.18	-0.03
<i>Epistominella</i> spp.	0.22	0.12	<b>0.86</b>	<b>0.64</b>	0.35	-0.16	<b>0.93</b>	-0.22	-0.22	0.02	-0.08	-0.29	-0.14
<i>Stainforthia concava</i>	0.02	0.27	-0.01	0.07	0.15	-0.15	-0.11	-0.18	<b>0.56</b>	0.10	0.39	-0.15	0.18
<i>Fursenkoina fusiformis</i>	-0.02	0.32	-0.15	0.10	0.28	-0.30	-0.26	-0.13	0.46	0.09	<b>0.93</b>	-0.04	0.05
<i>Cassidulinoides parkerianus</i>	-0.24	0.22	-0.11	0.00	0.04	-0.01	-0.15	-0.02	-0.04	0.25	0.07	-0.28	-0.18

<i>Cassidulinoides porrectus</i>	-0.04	0.23	-0.11	0.00	0.07	-0.10	-0.18	-0.09	0.23	0.15	-0.06	-0.24	0.16
<i>Globocassidulina bora</i>	<b>-0.61</b>	0.41	-0.17	<b>-0.56</b>	<b>-0.66</b>	-0.32	-0.26	<b>0.96</b>	-0.28	-0.17	-0.15	-0.25	-0.17
<i>Globocassidulina subglobosa</i>	-0.40	0.33	-0.16	-0.27	-0.12	-0.10	-0.17	0.47	0.11	0.03	0.22	-0.42	-0.10