

1 **Can we retrieve a paleoclimatic signal from the deeper part**
2 **of the EPICA Dome C ice core?**

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44 **Abstract**

45 An important share of paleoclimatic information is buried within the lowermost layers of
46 deep ice cores. Because improving our records further back in time is one of the main
47 challenges in the near future, it is essential to judge how deep these records remain
48 unaltered, since the proximity of the bedrock is likely to interfere both with the recorded
49 temporal sequence and the ice properties. In this paper, we present a multiparametric
50 study (δD - $\delta^{18}O_{ice}$, $\delta^{18}O_{atm}$, total air content, CO_2 , CH_4 , N_2O , dust, high resolution
51 chemistry, ice texture) of the bottom 60 meters of the EPICA Dome C ice core from
52 central Antarctica. These bottom layers were subdivided in two distinct facies: the lower
53 12 meters showing visible solid inclusions (basal dispersed ice facies) and the 48
54 meters above, which we will refer to as the “basal clean ice facies”. Some of the data
55 are consistent with a pristine paleoclimatic signal, others show clear anomalies. It is
56 demonstrated that neither large scale bottom refreezing of subglacial water, nor mixing
57 (be it internal or with a local basal end-term from a previous/initial ice sheet
58 configuration) can explain the observed bottom ice properties. We focus on the high-
59 resolution chemical profiles and on the available remote sensing data on the subglacial
60 topography of the site to propose a mechanism by which relative stretching of the
61 bottom ice sheet layers is made possible, due to the progressively confining effect of
62 subglacial valley sides. This stress field change, combined with bottom ice temperature
63 close to the pressure melting point, induces accelerated migration recrystallization,
64 which results in spatial chemical sorting of the impurities, depending on their state
65 (dissolved vs. solid) and if they are involved or not in salt formation. This chemical
66 sorting effect is responsible for the progressive build-up of the visible solid aggregates

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67 that therefore mainly originate “from within”, and not from incorporation processes of
68 debris from the ice sheet’s substrate. We further discuss how the proposed mechanism
69 is compatible with the other ice properties described. We conclude that the
70 paleoclimatic signal is only marginally affected in terms of global ice properties at the
71 bottom of EPICA Dome C, but that the time scale was considerably distorted by
72 mechanical stretching of MIS20 due to the increasing influence of the subglacial
73 topography, a process that might have started well above the bottom ice. A clear
74 paleoclimatic signal can therefore not be inferred from the deeper part of the EPICA
75 Dome C ice core. Our work suggests that the existence of a flat monotonic ice-bedrock
76 interface, extending for several times the ice thickness, would be a crucial factor in
77 choosing a future “oldest ice” drilling location in Antarctica.

78 **Keywords**

79 Antarctica; EPICA Dome C; ice core; Bottom ice; Paleoclimate; Multiparametric
80 analyses

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81 **1. Introduction: Paleoclimatic signals in basal layers of deep ice cores**

82 Deep ice cores retrieved from the two present-day major ice sheets on Earth,
83 Greenland in the North and Antarctica in the South, delivered a wealth of unique
84 paleoclimatic archives over the last decades. These allowed reconstruction of global
85 climatic and environmental conditions over the last 800.000 years, including
86 unprecedented records of cyclic changes in the composition of greenhouse gases (CO₂,
87 CH₄, N₂O). An important share of those paleoclimatic information is buried within the
88 lowermost sections of those deep ice cores, due to the mechanical thinning of annual
89 accumulation layers with depth. Improving the records further back in time is therefore
90 one of the main challenges of ice core science in the near future (IPICS, 2009). A major
91 concern in this regard is to judge how far down we can trust the paleoclimatic signals
92 stored within the ice, since the proximity of the bedrock is likely to interfere both with the
93 recorded temporal sequence and with the ice properties. This in turn is closely linked to
94 the thermal and hydrological regime at the bottom of the ice sheet, as shown previously
95 in the literature describing basal layers of deep ice cores (e.g. Goodwin, 1993, Gow et
96 al., 1979, Gow and Meese, 1996, Herron and Langway, 1979, Jouzel et al., 1999,
97 Koerner and Fisher, 1979, Souchez, 1997, Souchez et al., 1998, Souchez et al., 1995a,
98 Souchez et al., 2006, Souchez et al., 1995b, Souchez et al., 1993b, Souchez et al.,
99 2003, Souchez et al., 2002b, Souchez et al., 2000a, Souchez et al., 1994, Tison et al.,
100 1998, Tison et al., 1994, Weis et al., 1997). In some cases, where the ice-bedrock
101 interface is clearly below the pressure-melting point (pmp) as, for example, at the GRIP
102 (-9°C) or the Dye-3 (-12°C) ice coring sites in Greenland, single or multiple mixing
103 events between the present-day ice sheet ice and local ice remnants of previous (or

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104 even initial) ice sheet configurations are encountered (Souchez, 1997, Souchez et al.,
105 1998, Souchez et al., 1994, Souchez et al., 2000b, Verbeke et al., 2002). Where the
106 ice-bedrock interface is at the pmp, the meteoric ice has the potential to melt at a rate
107 that will depend on the heat budget at the ice-bedrock interface (geothermal heat flux,
108 internal friction and conduction through the overlying ice). In some cases, where the
109 subglacial topography allows it, like at the Antarctic Vostok site, a subglacial lake will
110 exist. Again, depending on the heat budget but also on the subglacial lake water
111 circulation pattern, lake ice will form at the ice-water interface in substantial amounts
112 (e.g. Jouzel et al., 1999, Souchez et al., 2002a, Souchez et al., 2003, Souchez et al.,
113 2000a). This ice, evidently, does not carry paleoclimatic information. Furthermore, in the
114 case of large subglacial lakes (such as Lake Vostok) where the ice column above can
115 be considered in full hydrostatic equilibrium buoyancy, re-grounding of the ice sheet on
116 the lee side of the lake will induce dynamical perturbations (such as folds), even in the
117 meteoric ice above, as demonstrated for MIS11 (Raynaud D., 2005) and for the ice just
118 above the accreted lake ice (Souchez et al., 2002a, Souchez et al., 2003, Souchez et
119 al., 2002b). A less well documented case however, is the one where no significant water
120 body exists at the ice-bedrock interface. If only melting occurs at the interface, with no
121 water accumulation and no refreezing (as, for example at the NGRIP site in Greenland),
122 can we then rely on the paleoclimatic information gathered in the basal layers? The
123 EPICA Dome C ice core potentially provides us with an opportunity to investigate that
124 specific case. In this paper, we are using a multiparametric approach, combining new
125 and existing low resolution (50cm) data for the bottom 60 meters of ice from the EDC
126 ice core with a new high resolution (1.5 to 8 cm) chemical data set in order to better

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127 understand the processes at work and evaluate how these might have altered the
128 environmental archive.

129 **2. The EPICA Dome C ice core**

130 The Dome C deep ice core (EDC) is one of the two ice cores drilled in the framework of
131 the European Project for Ice Coring in Antarctica (EPICA). It is located at Concordia
132 Station (Dome C - 75°06'04"S; 123°20'52" E), about 1200 km south of the French
133 coastal station of Dumont d'Urville, and 720 km north east of the Russian Vostok
134 Station. Detailed GPS surface topography and airborne radar surveys were conducted
135 in 1994-1995 in order to optimize the choice for the drilling location (Rémy and
136 Tabacco, 2000; Tabacco et al., 1998). These provided clear features of the bedrock and
137 surface topography, showing a set of north-south-trending parallel valleys around 20 km
138 wide and 200-400 meters deep in the bedrock, corresponding to smooth elongated
139 undulations a few meters high at the surface.

140 A final drilling depth of 3259.72m was reached in December 2004, about 15 meters
141 above the ice-bedrock interface (to prevent from eventually making contact with
142 subglacial meltwaters). The ice temperature was -3°C at 3235m and a simple
143 extrapolation to the bottom indicates that the melting point should be reached at the
144 interface (Lefebvre et al., 2008). The top ca. 3200m of the EDC ice core have already
145 been extensively studied and provided a full suite of climatic and environmental data
146 over the last 8 climatic cycles (e.g. Delmonte et al., 2008, Durand et al., 2008, EPICA
147 Community members, 2004, Jouzel et al., 2007, Lambert et al., 2008, Loulergue et al.,
148 2008, Lüthi et al., 2008, Wolff et al., 2006). Raisbeck et al. (2006) confirmed the old age

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149 of the deep EDC ice by presenting evidence for enhanced ^{10}Be deposition in the ice at
150 3160-3170m (corresponding to the 775-786 kyr interval in the EDC2 time scale)
151 consistent with the age and duration of the Matuyama-Brunhes geomagnetic reversal. A
152 coherent interpretation of CO_2 and CH_4 profiles (Lüthi et al., 2008, Loulergue et al.,
153 2008) also established the presence of Marine Ice Stages (MIS) 18 (ca. 739-767 kyr
154 BP) and 19 (ca. 767-790 kyr BP). However, a detailed study of the isotopic composition
155 of O_2 and its relationship to daily northern hemisphere summer insolation and
156 comparison to marine sediment records showed potentially anomalous flow in the
157 lowermost 500m of the core with associated distortion of the EDC2 time scale by a
158 factor of up to 2. This led to the construction of the new, currently used, EDC3 timescale
159 (Parrenin et al., 2007). Note that efforts are still ongoing to refine this timescale,
160 combining multi-site data sets and using $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ and O_2/N_2 as proxies for orbital tuning (
161 Landais et al., 2012; Bazin et al., 2013).

162 As described below, the bottom 60 meters of the available core acquired distinctive
163 properties, as a result of processes driven by the proximity of the ice-bedrock interface.
164 We will therefore, in accordance with the previous literature (e.g. Knight, 1077; Hubbard
165 et al., 2009) refer to it as “basal ice”. The last 12 meters of the available core show
166 visible solid inclusions (Fig. 1a), which are traditionally interpreted as a sign of
167 interactions with the bedrock. These inclusions are spherical in shape, brownish to
168 reddish in color, and generally increase both in size and density with increasing depth.
169 They however remain evenly distributed within the ice, therefore qualifying as a “basal
170 dispersed facies” in existing classifications (e.g. Hubbard et al., 2007). Between
171 3248.30 m (first occurrence of inclusion visible by eye) and 3252.15m the inclusions are

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172 only sparse (0 to 10 inclusions per 55 cm ice core length) and less than 1mm in
173 diameter. In the lower 8 meters, inclusions get bigger (up to 3 mm in the last 50 cm
174 sample) and reach more than 20 individual inclusions per 50 cm ice core length. In
175 several cases, especially for the bigger inclusions, these are “enclosed” in a whitish
176 ovoid bubble-like feature (e.g. upper left corner of Fig. 1a). Careful visual examination of
177 the texture of each individual inclusion suggests that these generally consist of a large
178 number of smaller aggregates although individual particles also occur. In most cases,
179 these inclusions appear to be located at crystal boundaries. A detailed study of the
180 morphology, mineralogy and chemistry of some of these individual inclusions is
181 described elsewhere (de Angelis et al., 2013). Finally, it should be kept in mind that
182 these characteristics are valid for ice collected between 6 and 15 meters above the
183 actual ice-bedrock interface. We do not, unfortunately, have any information on the
184 properties of the ice below, the thickness of which was estimated using a downhole
185 seismometer (J. Schwander, pers. comm., 2011). The upper 48 meters of the basal ice
186 sequence will be referred to as the “basal clean ice facies” (i.e. devoid of visible
187 inclusions), also in line with previous work (Hubbard et al., 2007).

188 **3. Material and Methods**

189 The dispersed facies of the basal ice of the EDC core shows a relatively low debris
190 content, compared to the other deep ice coring sites described in previous studies
191 (Camp Century, GRIP, Dye-3, Vostok), and could therefore be processed in continuity
192 with the cutting scheme used for the EDC ice above. The multi-parametric data set
193 discussed in this paper was therefore obtained applying analytical techniques described

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194 in full in previous studies focusing on single parameters. We are summarizing those in
195 the “supplementary material”, referring to the appropriate previous literature for full
196 details.

197 **4. The basal ice properties: a multiparametric approach**

198 Figure 1 b and c plot the full δD profile of the EPICA ice core, vs. depth and age
199 respectively (EDC3 time scale, Parrenin et al., 2007). As stated above, we will use the
200 “dispersed ice facies” terminology for the lower 12 meters (red open triangles) and
201 qualify the 48 meters above as the “clean ice facies” (blue open squares); “basal ice”
202 will refer to the whole 60 meters sequence. A combined Vostok-EDC $\delta^{18}O_{atm}$ profile
203 (isotopic composition of atmospheric oxygen in ice) vs. EDC3 time scale is shown in
204 Figure 1d (adapted from Dreyfus et al., 2007, Petit et al., 1999 for the ice above
205 3200m). The $\delta^{18}O$ benthic record stack of Lisiecki and Raymo (2005) is also plotted as a
206 reference in Figure 1e. The co-isotopic properties of the EPICA Dome C bottom ice
207 (open squares for clean ice facies, open triangles for dispersed ice facies) are described
208 in Figure 2a (δD vs. $\delta^{18}O$) and 2b (d_{excess} vs. δD) and compared to those of the ice from
209 the last 140 ky (Stenni et al., 2010). Work in progress on the co-isotopic properties of
210 the older ice (down to 3189.45m) shows that the latter do not differ from the trends seen
211 in Figure 2 (B. Stenni et al., unpublished data).

212 Figure 3 and Table S1 summarize the available low resolution gas and insoluble dust
213 concentrations data. CH_4 , CO_2 and N_2O are covered for both the clean (squares in Fig.
214 3a) and dispersed (triangles in Fig. 3a) facies while total gas content (grey dots in Fig.
215 3a) is only available for the clean ice facies. The full concentrations ranges observed for

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216 CH₄ (Loulergue et al., 2008), CO₂ (Lüthi et al., 2008), N₂O (Schilt et al. 2010) and total
217 gas content (Raynaud et al., 2007) during the preceding climatic cycles are also shown
218 for reference, as white, black, light grey and dark grey vertical bars respectively. The
219 limited number of dust concentration measurements available is shown in Figure 3b
220 (same symbols as above) and also compared to the full range of values observed
221 during the previous climatic cycles (black vertical bar, Delmonte et al., 2008)).
222 Clean and dispersed basal ice facies concentrations of selected chemical species
223 (MSA, SO₄, Ca, Mg, Na, K, Cl, NO₃) are presented in two complementary ways, in
224 Figures 4 and 5. In Figure 4 high-resolution (1.5 to 5 cm) profiles of discrete sections in
225 the clean (open squares) and dispersed (open triangles) facies are shown, along with
226 the 5-8 cm resolution profile in the ice above 3200m (black dots, courtesy of the EPICA
227 Chemistry Consortium). In Figure 5, the same data set is re-arranged as a simple
228 frequency distribution within bins of 5 or 1 ngg⁻¹ depending on the species. Clean facies
229 is plotted as open squares on thick solid line and dispersed facies as open triangles on
230 thick dotted line. All data from preceding “full glacial” intervals (i.e. excluding
231 interglacials and complete transitions) are plotted as a background in thin grey lines with
232 incremented symbols (see caption in upper left graph for MSA). Table 1 summarizes the
233 data set used in Figure 5 in terms of concentration means and 1σ values, with the depth
234 and isotopic ranges associated to each time interval chosen. The “full glacial” intervals
235 were selected on careful analysis of the δD data set, keeping for each glacial period the
236 samples with the lowest values and using the location of increasing isotopic gradient
237 with depth as a cutting point on both sides. We discuss in the supplementary material
238 section why we believe we can compare the results from these various groups of

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239 samples shown in Figure 5 and Table 1, despite the fact that they cover different time
240 windows.

241 Finally, Figure 6 plots the mean equivalent crystal radii for the deep and basal ice, as
242 obtained from preliminary measurements in the field, and compare those to
243 measurements using Automatic Ice Texture Analyzers as described in Durand et al.
244 (2009). Reliable measurement of crystals radii in the bottom ice using automatic
245 techniques is hampered by the very large increase of crystal sizes, often spanning
246 several individual thin sections. Only “unconventional” measurements such as e.g. sonic
247 logging (still in development) might allow us to document these properties further in the
248 future.

249 **5. Discussion**

250 5.1. Indicators of an “undisturbed” paleoclimatic record

251 In this first section of the discussion, we will demonstrate that some of the clean and
252 dispersed basal ice facies properties appear coherent with a climatic signature
253 unmodified by large scale refreezing processes. As shown in Figure 1b,c both the clean
254 and dispersed ice facies display δD values typical of a mild to cold glacial period, with
255 respective ranges of -427.7 to -442.5 ‰ and -436.7 to -443.2 ‰ (Table 1), as would be
256 expected for MIS 20 based on more recent glacials. In the co-isotopic δD - $\delta^{18}O$ diagram
257 of Figure 2a, all samples align well with those from the previous climatic cycles, with a
258 slope of 8.5, close to the value of 8.2 for the samples above 3200m, i.e. in accordance
259 with a meteoric Water Line. This is very different from the refrozen Vostok lake ice,
260 where the samples were shown to be clearly located on a freezing slope of 4.9, only

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261 slightly higher than the theoretical slope calculated from the estimated lake water
262 isotopic value (Souchez et al., 2002a). Also, the d_{excess} values shown in Figure 2b are
263 within the range of those observed in the more recent glacials, while refreezing
264 processes are known to lower the deuterium excess values (Souchez et al., 2002a,
265 Souchez and Lorrain, 1991). These are first arguments to preclude large scale
266 refreezing as a plausible process for the bottom ice formation.

267 The gas properties of the bottom ice are probably even more indicative of a true climatic
268 signature (Fig. 3a). The total gas content is very stable with a mean value at 0.088
269 $\text{ml}_{\text{air}}\text{g}^{-1}_{\text{ice}}$, which is identical to the one obtained for the whole 0-400 ky interval further up
270 in the core (Raynaud et al., 2007). CH_4 , N_2O and CO_2 concentrations are also quite
271 stable and typical of mild to full glacial conditions (mean values of respectively 417
272 ppbv, 247 ppbv and 193 ppmv). $\delta\text{O}_2/\text{N}_2$ (Table S1) are also typical of meteoric ice with
273 values similar to those described in Landais et al. (2012, their Figure 1, -25°C values).
274 They show no sign of alteration from potential solubility fractionation, as would be
275 expected in the case of significant melting-refreezing processes. Although they show
276 much larger variations, most of insoluble dust concentrations also typically lie within the
277 boundaries of a full glacial state (Fig. 3b).

278 Table 1 gives the mean concentration values of the considered suite of chemical
279 species. A systematic comparison of the mean clean and dispersed ice facies values to
280 those of each of the previous full glacial episodes (with similar δD ranges) shows a very
281 close compatibility, further suggesting that the mean paleoclimatic signal was not
282 modified in the vicinity of the ice-bedrock interface. Indeed, any large-scale regelation
283 process of meteoric ice meltwater would induce significant departure of the chemical

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284 composition (both in terms of total impurity content and of chemical speciation) of the
285 refrozen ice from the initial values present in the meteoric ice. De Angelis et al. (2005,
286 2004) showed that, in the case of refreezing of the Lake Vostok water, away from any
287 sediment source (their ice type 2), the concentrations were significantly lower than
288 those in meteoric ice, in accordance with the efficient rejection of impurities during
289 freezing at very low rates. Conversely, the upper part of the Vostok lake ice, that is
290 thought to have accreted in a shallow bay upstream of Vostok (ice type 1), shows a total
291 ionic content 5 to 50 times higher than meteoric ice, with a specific signature suggesting
292 contamination from salts originating from deeper sedimentary strata, close to evaporites
293 in composition. Neither of these two signatures are seen in the EDC bottom ice
294 samples.

295 5.2. Indicators of a “disturbed” paleoclimatic record

296 There are however some features of the bottom ice that raise questions about its
297 paleoclimatic significance. First of all, as stated above, the presence of visible solid
298 inclusions aggregates in the lower 12 meters could be the result of incorporation
299 processes of sedimentary material at the ice-bedrock interface (Boulton, 1979, , 1996,
300 Cuffey et al., 2000, Gow et al., 1979, Gow and Meese, 1996, Herron and Langway,
301 1979, Holdsworth, 1974, Iverson, 1993, Iverson and Semmens, 1995, Knight, 1997,
302 Koerner and Fisher, 1979, Souchez et al., 1988, Souchez et al., 2000b, Tison and
303 Lorrain, 1987, Tison et al., 1993, Tison et al., 1989). Then, comparison of Figure 1c and
304 1e reveals a strong discrepancy between the EDC δD record and the benthic record
305 stack of Lisiecki and Raimo (2005) prior to 800 ky, with the lack of MIS21 in the EDC

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306 profile which, instead, displays an unusually long glacial period. Furthermore, the
307 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ profile of Figure 1d is also somewhat peculiar, in two ways: first it is extremely
308 stable in the bottom ice despite known large fluctuations in the precession and ice
309 volume at the time, to which the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ was shown to be very sensitive (Bender, 2002,
310 Dreyfus et al., 2007, Landais et al., 2010), and, second, it displays values continuously
311 close to 0‰, which is generally (but not strictly) more typical of full interglacial rather
312 than full glacial conditions.

313 Finally, although generally coherent with the previous climatic cycles in terms of mean
314 concentration values, individual chemical species can be considered as two groups with
315 specific and contrasted chemical distribution (Figure 4 and 5, Table 1). MSA, SO_4 , Ca
316 and Mg, on the one hand, clearly show increased variability, both in the clean and
317 dispersed ice facies (see left column of Fig. 4 and 1σ values in Table 1), a trend that
318 seems to initiate in MIS18 already. The frequency distributions in Figure 5 confirm this
319 variability as compared to previous glacials, with a tendency of both skewing towards
320 lower values for MSA, SO_4 or Mg and showing outliers at higher concentration,
321 especially in the clean ice facies. On the other hand, Na, K, Cl, and NO_3 behave
322 noticeably differently in the clean ice and in the dispersed ice facies (right column in
323 Figure 4). The clean ice facies (solid line) shows very low variability and narrow
324 frequency peaks in the graphs of Figure 5, while the dispersed ice facies (dotted line)
325 behaves similarly to the previous glacial, but with a tendency of skewing towards the
326 higher range of concentrations.

327 5.3. Distribution and relocation of dissolved and solid impurities within ice cores

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328 Ohno et al. (2005) discussed the location and chemical forms of water-soluble salts in
329 ice cores. Initially entrapped in-between the snow grains that will evolve into firn and
330 then ice under increasing metamorphism, these impurities could therefore be found
331 either within the ice crystals themselves, or within the unfrozen liquid that separates the
332 grain boundaries as a result of “premelting” (Rempel et al., 2001, Rempel et al., 2002,
333 Wettlaufer, 1999), be it veins, nodes or triple junctions. A common view amongst
334 glaciologists is that because those impurities produce strain-energy within ice grains
335 and because trace acids must exist as acid solutions given their very low eutectic point,
336 they will progressively be forced into grain boundaries as grain growth and
337 recrystallization occur (Glen et al., 1977, Rempel, 2003, Rempel et al., 2001, Rempel et
338 al., 2002, Wettlaufer, 1999). Although most of the sulfur atoms present as sulfuric acid
339 in Antarctic ice samples were observed at triple junctions of grain boundaries in the
340 early days of scanning electron measurements in ice (Mulvaney et al., 1988), there has
341 been growing evidence that sulfur compounds also exist as sulfate trapped as
342 inclusions within grains (e.g. Baker and Cullen, 2003). Ohno et al. (2005), using micro-
343 Raman spectroscopy, underline that at shallow depth (185m) in the Dome Fuji ice core,
344 the fraction of SO_4^{2-} existing as salts within the micro-inclusions exceeded 50% of the
345 total SO_4^{2-} . Similar fraction values between 30% and 60% were found for Na^+ , Ca^{2+} and
346 Mg^{2+} in discrete samples spanning the 5.6 to 87.8 ky BP interval.

347 Relocation of impurities under increasing recrystallization, is likely to become important
348 in the deeper part of meteoric ice cores, where the ice temperature gets closer to the
349 pressure melting point (pmp) and the temperature gradient generally increases. One of
350 those relocation processes, that has been intensively discussed in the recent years, is

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351 the mechanism often referred to as “anomalous diffusion” (Rempel, 2003, Rempel et al.,
352 2001, Rempel et al., 2002). In this process, it is surmised that, as grains slowly grow
353 and recrystallize within ice sheets, most of the impurity molecules are preferentially
354 excluded from the solid grains and enriched in the melt. As the polycrystalline mixture of
355 ice and premelt liquid solution flows downwards under gravity at a velocity “ v ”, it
356 encounters gradual variations in temperature leading to gradients in intergranular
357 concentrations which, in turn, drive molecular diffusion of solutes relative to the porous
358 ice matrix. The net result is that the bulk impurity profile will move downwards at a rate
359 that differs by a finite “anomalous velocity” v_c from the downwards velocity “ v ” of the ice
360 itself. A typical modeling case study for the conditions at the location of the GRIP ice
361 core predicts separation of the bulk-impurity profile from the contemporaneous ice by a
362 maximum amount of about 90 cm in the bottom layers (3028m). However, Barnes and
363 Wolff (2004) suggested that the anomalous velocity calculated in Rempel’s model is
364 largely overestimated, since the latter mainly surmises that all impurities are located at
365 triple junctions. As underlined by these authors, if impurities transit at two-grain
366 boundaries, then v_c would be much lower. Also, Ohno et al. (2005), as discussed above,
367 demonstrated that much of these impurities are distributed within the crystal itself,
368 further potentially hampering the “anomalous diffusion” process, as recognized by
369 Rempel (2003). Another important feature of this migration process is that the amplitude
370 of the concentration changes should not be altered, even in the case of asynchronous
371 initial deposition of different species with contrasted concentration levels (Rempel,
372 2003) . It is therefore difficult to invoke anomalous diffusion to explain the contrasts in

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373 species concentration variability observed in our bottom ice at EPICA Dome C (see
374 4.2.).

375 Another interesting process discussed by Rempel (2005), is the one in which the
376 density difference between intercrystalline interstitial water (premelt) and ice produces a
377 hydraulic gradient that drives a downwards liquid flow. When the temperature rises
378 towards the glacier bed, the associated permeability increase leads to more rapid fluid
379 transport, internal melting supplying the changing flow. Although the author shows that,
380 in the specific case where the lower region of the glacier floats on a subglacial reservoir,
381 a reduction in the hydraulic gradient results from surface energy effects and causes a
382 decreasing transport rate in the lower few tens of centimeters, the process mentioned
383 above provides a potential mechanism for downwards migration of the chemical
384 compounds accumulated in the premelt layer as recrystallization at high temperature
385 proceeds.

386 Finally, it is also worth looking at the few detailed studies on impurity distribution within
387 the accreted lake ice of Lake Vostok (de Angelis et al., 2005, de Angelis et al., 2004).

388 Although the form (solid vs. dissolved) and origin of these impurities might differ from
389 those found in meteoric ice above, both ice types (bottom meteoric ice at EDC and
390 accreted ice at Vostok) were submitted to intense recrystallization at high temperatures
391 ($> -5^{\circ}\text{C}$), potentially involving impurity relocation. Indeed, a strong 10-fold increase of
392 grain size is observed in the EDC bottom ice - Figure 6, and huge - several tens of cm
393 in size- crystals are reported at Vostok (Montagnat et al., 2001). It is interesting to note
394 that the high-resolution spatial distribution of impurities in both EDC (bottom) and
395 Vostok (lake) ice present striking similarities. Indeed, fine-scale (1 cm) analyses of ion

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396 concentration in accreted ice samples at Vostok (e.g. Fig. 5 in de Angelis et al., 2004)
397 show that Cl, Na, F and NO₃ have a uniform distribution throughout the samples, while
398 SO₄, Ca and Mg are much more heterogeneous. This is clearly the behavior we
399 underlined in our EDC bottom ice (Figures 4 and 5): much higher variability in the basal
400 ice than in the meteoric ice above, and much higher variability for SO₄, Ca, Mg and
401 MSA (ion absent in Vostok refrozen ice due to lake water concentration) than for Na, K,
402 Cl and NO₃ in both the clean and dispersed basal ice facies. In the case of the Vostok
403 accreted ice, de Angelis et al. (2005) observed that Cl, Na and K are incorporated within
404 bubble shaped structures, very likely brine micro-pockets refrozen during the core
405 extraction, while SO₄, Ca and Mg are present in aggregates of insoluble material
406 (initially suspended in the lake water), all impurities being originally randomly distributed
407 within the unconsolidated frazil ice lattice. These authors then surmise that, as
408 consolidation, grain growth and recrystallization occur at high temperature (-3°C), brine
409 micro droplets containing soluble salt ionic species like Cl⁻, Na⁺ or K⁺ are not relocated
410 and remain homogeneously distributed throughout the ice lattice, while ions associated
411 to fine solid salt particles, are excluded and gathered with other mineral particles in
412 inclusions of increasing sizes, leading to a greater heterogeneity. Although SO₄ salts
413 and associated species clearly could not initially exist as a suspension in lake water in
414 the EDC case (where refreezing of a water body is inconsistent with the isotopic and
415 gas data sets (see 4.1. above)), they may be formed through in situ chemical reactions
416 and a similar relocation process of atmospheric inputs under recrystallization could
417 have been at work (see 5.4. below).

418 5.4. Scenarios for the build-up and evolution of the EPICA deep and basal ice

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419 5.4.1. *Mixing?*

420

421 We saw in the previous sections that some of the properties of the EDC bottom ice are
422 consistent with a pristine paleoclimatic record, while others raise some suspicion. We
423 also demonstrated that significant net refreezing of a water body at the bottom of the ice
424 sheet can be discarded. Another set of processes that were shown to alter the basal ice
425 properties is mixing or folding under enhanced deformation close to the ice-bedrock
426 interface (Souchez, 1997, Souchez et al., 1998, Souchez et al., 1995b, Souchez et al.,
427 2003). Among the anomalies in EDC bottom ice properties, the stability of the δD profile
428 for an unusual period of time, if we trust the EDC time scale and compare our data to
429 the Lisiecki and Raymo benthic record (Fig.1c, e), is probably the most prominent.
430 Homogenization through mixing is a process that was invoked by Souchez et al.
431 (2002a, 2002b) to explain the isotopic properties of the 3400-3538m Vostok depth
432 interval, just above the meteoric-lake ice interface. They indeed show that the δD values
433 are there bracketed in a tight range corresponding to mean values between glacial and
434 interglacial, and that the deuterium excess variability is also strongly reduced. This was
435 supported by the ionic signature showing a narrow range of concentrations
436 corresponding to ice formed under mild glacial conditions. If this was the case for the
437 EDC bottom ice, we should expect, from the comparison of Figures 1c and 1e, that the
438 bottom ice shows mean isotopic values between those of MIS20 and MIS21 in Figure
439 2b. However, the bottom ice is truly of glacial signature. Also, samples from the basal
440 ice span the whole glacial deuterium excess range.

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441 Mixing with a local isotopic end-member inherited from a previous or initial ice sheet
442 configuration is also unlikely. It was only described for basal ice condition largely below
443 the pmp (see section 1) and generally showed contrasting properties between the
444 present-day ice sheet ice and the local end-member, with a whole range of intermediate
445 values in the mixing zone.

446

447 *5.4.2. Stretching?*

448

449 If mixing is therefore improbable at EDC, another mechanical way of explaining the
450 abnormal length of MIS20 is relative vertical stretching under changing stress
451 conditions, i.e. alteration of the stratigraphic time scale. Although, given the location
452 chosen for the EPICA Dome C drilling, stress conditions should be (and are) essentially
453 those of vertical uniaxial compression, Durand et al. (2008) indicate that the fabrics in
454 layers of larger mean crystal sizes (about 6 mm) below 2850 meters show signs of
455 dispersion of the strong single maximum (which is the rule below 1500m depth) along a
456 weak vertical girdle. These changes might be the sign of evolving stress conditions near
457 the bottom of the ice sheet, and were recently interpreted so, to explain anomalous flow
458 below 2700m (Dreyfus et al., 2007) and reworking of sulphate spikes below 2800m
459 under increased recrystallization (Traversi et al., 2006; Traversi et al., 2009).

460 As seen on the large scale map of the bedrock elevation in the vicinity of the EDC
461 drilling site (Remy and Tobacco, 2000, their Figure 4), the ice core bottom location sits
462 at ca. 70 m above sea level, on the eastern flank (200-400 m a.s.l. ridge) of a major S-N
463 trending subglacial valley, with a 400 m a.s.l. ridge 15 km across, on the western flank

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464 of the valley. The bottom of the central part of the valley is at ca. 50 meters below sea
465 level. The next 400 meters deep subglacial valley lies about 20 km further to the East.
466 In Figure 7, we schematically show what might be the impact of a confining bedrock
467 topography consisting of elongated valleys about 20 km wide and 200-400 meters deep
468 (Rémy and Tabacco, 2000) on the stress field and the ice fabric in the bottom ice of
469 EPICA DC. As the ice sinks passed the crests of the subglacial valleys, lateral
470 compression on the sides of the valley will progressively combine with the vertical
471 uniaxial compression. The resulting stress field, will therefore transition from uniaxial
472 vertical compression to longitudinal extension, as illustrated by the 3D-arrows in the
473 central part of the drawing of Figure 7. The associated change in fabrics will be from a
474 vertical single maximum to a vertical girdle fabric, in a plane parallel to the subglacial
475 valley sides. This new pattern might be the one already suggested in the discretely
476 changing fabrics described by Durand et al. (2008) below 2800 meters. Because the
477 principal stress transverse to the subglacial valley slowly shifts from extensional to
478 compressive, the result could be a *relative* vertical stretching of individual accumulation
479 layers, depending on the intensity of the principal extension along the valley axis. It is
480 however not possible, with the data at hand, to demonstrate whether this relative vertical
481 stretching results in an absolute increase of annual layer thickness (as shown in Figure
482 7) or if it only results in a decrease of the thinning rate. In this configuration, one must of
483 course consider a 3-D geometry, in which the vertically stretched ice can be moved
484 away from the drill location. Part of it can be melted at the ice-bedrock interface where
485 the ice is at the pressure-melting point, and the over-deepening of the longitudinal

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486 valleys seen in Figure 3 of Rémy and Tobacco (2000) could also provide an escape
487 route for the ice.

488 *5.4.3. Enhanced recrystallization and small scale chemical sorting*

489
490 In the dynamic context described above (5.4.2), and relying on our multiparametric
491 results, we can now propose a plausible scenario for the evolution of the properties of
492 our clean and dispersed basal ice facies at EPICA Dome C, as illustrated in Figure 8. A
493 changing stress field and the high temperatures, close to the pmp, will trigger sustained
494 migration recrystallization within the bottom layers. Mean crystal size values (up to more
495 than 10 cm) plotted in Figure 6 are undisputable proof that recrystallization is indeed
496 very active there. This process will tend to relocate the impurities at grain boundaries
497 and contribute to the build-up of aggregates. Note that Raisbeck et al. (2006) already
498 invoked the formation of aggregates to explain abnormal spikes in ^{10}Be in the basal ice.
499 Increasing water content in the premelt layer might also slowly initiate downwards
500 density-driven migration of the water and of some of the associated impurities. This
501 however, as our data set shows, will only be revealed in a high resolution chemistry
502 approach, since it will not significantly affect the mean concentration values for a given
503 climatic period, but more the frequency distribution within the observed concentration
504 range. It will also behave differently, depending on the species. Detailed SEM and XRF
505 micro-probe elemental analyses of individual aggregates inside the EDC dispersed
506 basal ice facies are described elsewhere and provide further insights in the potential
507 processes at work and environmental implications (de Angelis et al., 2013). They reveal
508 that CaCO_3 and CaSO_4 are common within these aggregates. These compounds could

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509 then be either newly precipitated salts (as observed concentrations are compatible with
510 saturation for e.g. CaSO_4 given estimated vein sizes at those ambient temperatures) or
511 pre-existing solid particles, that were initially present inside the crystals (Ohno et al.,
512 2005). SO_4 , Ca, Mg and MSA (which can also be associated with salts, Ohno et al.,
513 2005) mean concentrations in the clean and the dispersed basal ice facies will therefore
514 remain within the range of other glacials, but their spatial distribution at the high-
515 resolution scale of sampling, will show much greater variability than in meteoric ice
516 above (Figures 4, 5 and 8-right column).

517 As discussed above, the other group of species (Na, Cl, K, NO_3) shows two important
518 features in the frequency distribution of Figure 5 (right column): a) although the whole
519 data set is spanning the range of the previous glacials, the concentration mode is lower
520 for the clean ice facies and higher for the dispersed ice facies and b) the frequency
521 distribution in the basal ice facies is generally single-modal and narrow, while it is bi-
522 modal in the dispersed ice facies with the first mode in the basal ice facies range and
523 the second mode skewed towards the high side of the range observed in other glacials.
524 The contrast in concentration level between the clean ice facies and the dispersed ice
525 facies could simply reflect the slightly colder conditions (thus higher impurity content) at
526 the time the ice of the dispersed basal facies was formed at the surface of the ice sheet,
527 as suggested by the lower δD values compared to the clean ice facies (Fig. 1b).

528 Although this contrast is less obvious for the first group of chemical compounds, it might
529 have been there over-written by the invoked aggregation and new in-situ precipitation
530 processes. Alternatively, the observed contrast in behavior of Na, Cl, K, NO_3 between
531 the clean and dispersed ice facies might reflect the signature of the premelt migration

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532 process as theoretically put forward by Rempel (2005). These species would indeed
533 remain in the dissolved state within the premelt layer, and eventually partly and more
534 easily migrate downwards, resulting in the left skewing mode in the clean ice facies and
535 the bimodal distribution in the dispersed ice facies (low concentration mode
536 corresponding to the remaining fraction in crystals as salts micro-inclusions and high
537 concentration mode to the fraction that migrated in the premelt). Note that the process
538 of upwards pulling of liquid from the underlying reservoir discussed by Rempel (2005), if
539 it exists, provides a means to prevent expulsion of the premelt from the basal ice, and
540 therefore preservation of this bi-modal frequency distribution. Basal melting would
541 potentially counteract this effect but the two basal ice facies would then migrate
542 upwards into the ice column. Unfortunately, as underlined before, the available data set
543 is missing the lower 6-15 meters of the basal ice section to the ice-bedrock interface,
544 where further arguments might have been found to (in-) validate this premelt migration
545 hypothesis.

546 The large inclusions visible in the bottom 12 meters of basal ice are principally located
547 at grain boundaries. Theoretical considerations from Alley et al. (1986, eq. 21) suggest
548 a high velocity ice grain boundary migration regime, with decoupling of the grain
549 boundaries from the particle aggregates, because of their relatively large sizes and very
550 low volume fraction. However, as underlined by these authors, this is probably no more
551 valid for the "warm" (EDC bottom) ice, in a full migration recrystallization process, where
552 the increased water content in the vein network will favor Ostwald ripening as the
553 temperature of the ice-impurity system rises above the melting point of the impure grain
554 boundaries. Another feature to consider here is that the particle aggregates might also

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555 behave very differently from single particles in terms of drag force on the grain
556 boundaries. Also, as discussed in de Angelis et al. (2013), the significant contribution of
557 organic compounds (such as exopolymeric substances - EPS) to the impurity load might
558 also strongly affect the inclusion/grain boundary geometrical relationships.

559

560 *5.4.4. Water isotopes, gases and dust*

561

562 We focused until now on a plausible explanation for the peculiarities of the chemical
563 signature of our two basal ice facies at EDC. How do the water isotopes signature, gas
564 and dust properties fit into the proposed mechanism? Although the water co-isotopic
565 signature of our basal ice facies does not show large scale signs of modification, the
566 recent work of Pol et al. (2010) suggests that it might not be the case at the crystal size
567 scale, thereby providing some independent support to the interpretation of our chemical
568 data set. These authors indeed used high-resolution (cm scale) δD measurements to
569 depict abnormal isotopic diffusion which they attributed to water circulation at grain
570 boundaries (premelt) for large crystals which spent more than 200.000 years at
571 temperatures $> -10^{\circ}C$. The diffusion length diagnosed from the data is about twice larger
572 (40 cm) than expected from solid state diffusion in ice, and it is also suggested that the
573 process might start as early as in MIS 11 (Pol et al., 2011).

574 Why would the relocation process invoked for the chemical impurities not show up in the
575 total air content or the CH_4 and CO_2 concentrations? First of all, it should be noted that
576 the resolution of our gas data sets is much lower than the one we achieved for the
577 chemical species. Also, one should remember that the gas molecules are exclusively

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578 present as clathrates at these depths and little is known on the behavior of those during
579 small-scale phase changes under large overburden pressures. If the glacial MIS20
580 “stretching” hypothesis is valid, it is not surprising to observe a stable $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ signal.
581 Landais and Dreyfus (2010) provide an in depth analysis of the potential drivers for the
582 millennial and orbital variations of $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ and show the strong impact of Northern
583 Hemisphere monsoon activity on the observed values, in response to precessional and
584 millennial shifts of the Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ). Intervals where $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ is
585 close to 0‰ correspond in that context to episodes where precession favors warm
586 northern hemisphere summers with a strong East-Asian monsoon. In Figure 1f, we
587 plotted the values for the integrated summer insolation at 30°N, for various thresholds τ ,
588 as calculated by Huybers (2006). This integrated summer insolation can be defined as
589 the sum of the diurnal average insolation on days exceeding a specified flux threshold
590 (τ). As can be seen from the comparison between Figures 1f and 1d, high values of
591 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ concur with high integrated summer insolation associated with very high diurnal
592 average insolation thresholds (e.g. for $\tau = 450$ (green curve) to 500 (red curve) Wattm^{-2}
593 in Figure 1f), which is the case for our basal ice sequence. This relationship is enlarged
594 in Figure 9a, where one can clearly see that maxima in $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ are well coupled to
595 maxima in integrated summer insolation, to the exception of a missing peak around 750
596 ky. It can also be suggested that larger $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ amplitudes correspond to larger summer
597 insolation values and vice versa, with a threshold around roughly 2 GJ. In Figure 9a we
598 attempted to use the synchronicity of small scale oscillations of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ signal
599 (however well above the precision of measurements - 0.015‰), to the summer

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600 insolation one (tie points 1 and 2 in Fig. 9a) to derive the amount of stretching of the
601 basal ice sequence. This gives a factor of about 2, which allowed us to reconstruct a
602 new time scale for the basal ice, assuming linear stretching also applying to the bottom
603 ice, for which $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ are not available. Unfortunately, this does not resolve the
604 discrepancy with the Lisiecki and Raymo curve (Figure 9b), and suggests that the
605 amount of stretching is probably much larger, with an initial time frame for the basal ice
606 of only about 10.000 years. To build our 60 meters of basal ice sequence in ca. 10000
607 years would require an “in situ” annual layer thickness of 6 mm, which is 10 times the
608 value observed during the previous glacial, following the recently published AICC2012
609 climate record (Bazin et al., 2012, supplementary material). This seems too extreme,
610 and suggests stretching might have been supplemented by other processes such as
611 dynamical thickening in the lee of bedrock obstacles or stacking up of several glacials,
612 with missing interglacials. The latter is however unlikely, since interglacial ice is usually
613 harder to deform due to lower impurity content and larger crystal size (Dahl-Jensen et
614 al., 2013). Finally, as demonstrated in de Angelis et al. (2013), the detailed analysis of
615 individual inclusions supports the occurrence of in-situ bacterial activity. To our
616 knowledge, it is not known so far if these might have potential impact on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ of
617 the neighbouring gas phase. It is however unlikely that it might be significant given the
618 observed low CO_2 mixing ratio (Fig. 3a), in line with atmospheric values at glacial times.
619 Despite the very poor resolution of the dust record in our bottom ice the large variability
620 of the data within the glacial range could also result from our increased relocation
621 scheme. Moreover, below 2900m, a significant shift of particle size towards large
622 diameters is in agreement with the formation of aggregates.

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623 6. Conclusions

624 We used a multiparametric approach to discuss the plausibility of recovering an
625 unaltered paleoclimatic signature from the basal ice of the EDC ice core. We showed
626 that some of the data (δD values, total air content, gas composition, dust content, mean
627 chemical species concentrations) suggest a pristine meteoric glacial signature while
628 others (length of the glacial, $\delta^{18}O_{atm}$, visible inclusions, variability of the chemical species
629 distribution) suggest mechanical and compositional alteration of the bottom ice. Ice
630 stable isotopes and total air content rule out large scale refreezing processes of a water
631 reservoir as the origin for the bottom ice. Mixing, be it internally (as in Vostok MIS11) or
632 with a local ice remnant of previous or initial ice sheet configuration (as in GRIP and
633 Dye-3) can be equally discarded.

634 Using a new high resolution data set for selected chemical species in the basal EDC ice
635 and remote sensing information on the general setting of the Dome C area, we propose
636 a mechanism in which the confining bedrock topography contributes to a downwards
637 change in the stress field from uniaxial vertical compression to longitudinal extension
638 along the valley axis. This stress configuration change results in a potential relative
639 vertical stretching of the ice layers, which explains the abnormal length of MIS20.

640 Combined with an ice temperature close to the pmp it also favors rapid migration
641 recrystallization, as witnessed by the large increase in grain size. This, in turn, induces
642 relocation of impurities, with accumulation of newly formed salts and already existing
643 solid particles in the premelt layer, forming aggregates. Those become visible about 12
644 meters above the bottom of the core and increase in size and number downwards. The
645 basal inclusions thus mainly consist of reworked existing material, rather than

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646 representing incorporation of allocthonous material from the ice-bedrock interface.
647 However some potential candidates for the latter (large, single, mineral inclusions) were
648 detected in the last meter layer (de Angelis et al., 2013). Although the mean
649 concentration values were not significantly different from those observed in the previous
650 full glacial periods, some chemical sorting is apparent, especially for those species that
651 are not involved in salt formation. We suggest this might result from a slow process of
652 downwards migration of the premelt layer under the hydraulic gradient resulting from the
653 density difference between ice and interstitial water, although the lack of data from the
654 last 6-15 meters to the ice-bedrock interface prevents us from further validating this
655 hypothesis. The ice isotopic and gas properties are apparently not affected by these
656 small scale processes that however only become detectable at high-resolution sampling
657 (sub-crystal size), where they are involved in smoothing processes. The apparent
658 discrepancy in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ signal is resolved if one considers potential stretching of a
659 glacial time span during which precession favors warm northern hemisphere summers,
660 as happened temporarily in each of the previous glacial isotopic stages.
661 We conclude that the paleoclimatic signal is only marginally affected in terms of global
662 ice properties at the bottom of EPICA Dome C, but that the time scale was considerably
663 distorted by mechanical stretching due to the increasing influence of the subglacial
664 topography. It is interesting to note that MIS18 already shows signs of isotopic
665 smoothing, chemical relocation and increased variability for the species involved in salt
666 formation (MSA, SO_4 , Mg and, in a lesser extent Ca), before the timescale (EDC3) got
667 significantly distorted. Along the same line the anomalous flow detected below 2700m,
668 that led to the change from the EDC2 to the EDC3 time scale, might already find its

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669 roots in this subglacial topography distortion, although possible changes in the Dome
670 position with time need also to be considered (e.g. Urbini et al., 2008). Many interior ice
671 divides are indeed migrating today and this could also be the case for the EDC location.
672 Given the rough bed topography, it takes a migration of only a few ice thicknesses to
673 change the bedrock elevation by ca. 200 meters. The basal ice may therefore have
674 experienced vertical stretching due to flow from the bedrock ridge to the current valley
675 position, with recent migration of the divide at the top. Today, lively discussions exist
676 and preliminary actions are undertaken within the ice core community to select a
677 suitable location for a new deep drilling targeting the “oldest ice” (above 1 million years
678 old, IPICS, 2009). Our work shows that the location of the EDC ice core on the flank of
679 a valley-type subglacial topography has considerably affected the inference of deep
680 timescales. We conclude that the retrieving of reliable paleoclimatic signals down to a
681 few meters from the ice-bedrock interface would probably be thinkable on a flat
682 monotonic bedrock, for distances several times the local ice thickness, although small
683 scale reworking of some of the proxies should be expected. It is however not clear yet
684 why the gas content and composition is so well preserved at EDC, and not at other
685 deep basal ice location. The presence of a liquid water layer at the interface might partly
686 explain that discrepancy, although this could not be verified here.

687 Future work on the EPICA DC bottom ice will involve high resolution gas measurements
688 in selected areas and an in-depth analysis of the crystallographic properties below 3200
689 meters. Hopefully, these will allow us to validate and refine the general mechanism
690 discussed here.

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Glacial	Depth range (m)		Isotopic range (δD ‰)		MSA (ngg^{-1})		SO ₄ (ngg^{-1})		Ca (ngg^{-1})		Mg (ngg^{-1})	
			min	max	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>
MIS 2	507.7	583.5	-449.3	-432.8	18.24	7.00	213.78	85.15	43.27	14.89	19.31	4.08
MIS 4	1007.6	1042.2	-446.4	-430.5	20.94	4.00	194.80	52.52	30.85	10.96	14.28	3.84
MIS 6	1801.8	1997.0	-447.1	-419.8	18.60	5.00	170.01	51.73	23.60	12.25	13.54	4.04
MIS 8	2320.0	2398.6	-444.5	-421.5	27.90	6.13	192.05	50.92	23.37	12.98	14.92	4.28
MIS 10	2599.9	2650.0	-445.0	-425.1	26.77	7.88	183.55	43.56	22.92	9.84	14.92	3.86
MIS 12	2783.2	2794.9	-440.9	-422.5	23.44	5.04	187.36	45.54	43.47	19.09	19.82	5.50
MIS 14.2	2915.7	2919.9	-436.4	-429.3	23.75	6.37	162.06	21.72	20.46	6.19	15.80	2.75
MIS 16	3037.6	3039.8	-441.0	-412.3	32.61	6.95	167.86	39.55	36.09	17.21	16.37	5.84
MIS 18	3137.8	3153.1	-441.4	-423.7	36.40	23.47	195.35	139.18	31.26	19.76	20.03	25.47
Clean Facies	3201.0	3248.0	-442.5	-427.7	21.50	20.32	150.39	107.98	29.53	16.87	11.49	12.48
Dispersed Facies	3248.0	3259.3	-443.2	-436.7	25.27	18.43	139.58	91.46	42.10	29.44	16.25	11.23

Glacial	Depth range (m)		Isotopic range (δD ‰)		Na (ngg^{-1})		Cl (ngg^{-1})		NO ₃ (ngg^{-1})		K (ngg^{-1})	
			min	max	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>	mean	<i>s</i>
MIS 2	507.7	583.5	-449.3	-432.8	97.37	17.54	160.68	48.64	40.93	16.01	7.45	1.89
MIS 4	1007.6	1042.2	-446.4	-430.5	79.81	17.75	129.89	25.25	29.38	12.41	4.91	2.34
MIS 6	1801.8	1997.0	-447.1	-419.8	71.57	16.65	107.56	40.45	24.72	12.63	3.74	2.36
MIS 8	2320.0	2398.6	-444.5	-421.5	76.76	35.00	112.06	38.05	26.24	17.20	3.84	5.24
MIS 10	2599.9	2650.0	-445.0	-425.1	77.80	32.30	112.76	61.56	30.21	19.92	5.77	9.76
MIS 12	2783.2	2794.9	-440.9	-422.5	72.70	19.82	138.46	34.04	48.69	22.43	3.93	3.32
MIS 14.2	2915.7	2919.9	-436.4	-429.3	70.88	15.13	110.46	21.66	34.33	17.31	3.16	5.70
MIS 16	3037.6	3039.8	-441.0	-412.3	78.23	12.32	111.67	21.46	32.89	11.94	3.07	4.96
MIS 18	3137.8	3153.1	-441.4	-423.7	80.44	13.94	114.44	31.38	26.28	13.95	3.26	3.98
Clean Facies	3201.0	3248.0	-442.5	-427.7	71.78	3.79	99.91	13.39	29.03	2.42	1.94	2.40
Dispersed Facies	3248.0	3259.3	-443.2	-436.7	93.16	15.43	141.68	30.42	46.26	15.37	2.68	4.17

988

989 **Table 1:** Mean concentration and 1σ values (ngg^{-1} or ppb) for selected chemical species in the Clean and Dispersed
990 Basal ice facies of the EPICA Dome C ice core, as compared to those of the previous full glacial periods (see text for
991 details). Depth (meters) and δD (‰) ranges are given for each time interval considered.

992 **Figure Captions**

993 **Figure 1:** a) visual appearance of the EDC basal ice in the lower meters of the core (photo: D.
994 Dahl-Jensen), b) EDC δD_{ice} vs. depth, c) EDC δD_{ice} vs. age (EDC3 time scale extended to the
995 basal ice layers), d) Combined Vostok and EDC $\delta^{18}O_{atm}$ vs. age (adapted from Dreyfus et al.,
996 2007), e) $\delta^{18}O$ vs. age for the benthic record stack of Lisiecki and Raymo (2005), and f)
997 Integrated summer insolation for various thresholds (τ) at 30°N vs. age, as calculated by
998 Huybers (2006). For reasons described in the text, ice below 3189.45m depth is referred to as
999 « clean ice facies » (blue squares) and « dispersed ice facies » (red triangles) describes the ice
1000 below 3248.30m, where solid inclusions are visible.

1001 **Figure 2:** a) δD_{ice} (‰) vs. $\delta^{18}O_{ice}$ (‰) and b) d (deuterium excess ‰) vs. δD_{ice} (‰) for the clean
1002 (open squares) and dispersed (open triangles) basal ice facies at EPICA Dome C, as compared
1003 to the ice from the 0-140 ky interval (black dots, Stenni et al., 2010). See text for details.

1004 **Figure 3:** Gas and dust properties of the clean (squares) and dispersed (triangles) basal ice
1005 facies at EPICA Dome C: a) total gas content ($ml_{air}g_{ice}^{-1}$, dark grey), methane (ppbV, white),
1006 nitrous oxide (ppbV, light grey) and carbon dioxide (ppmV, black) - vertical bars of equivalent
1007 shading cover the full concentrations range observed for CH_4 , CO_2 , N_2O and total gas content
1008 during the preceding climatic cycles, b) dust concentrations (ppb) -black vertical bar covers the
1009 full concentration range during the previous climatic cycles.

1010 **Figure 4:** Concentrations (in ppb or ngg^{-1}) of selected chemical species in the clean (open
1011 squares) and dispersed (open triangles) basal ice facies of the EPICA Dome C core, as
1012 compared to those of the preceding climatic cycles (black dots, courtesy of the EPICA chemical
1013 consortium). Resolution is between 5 and 8 cm above 3200m depth and between 1.5 and 5 cm
1014 in the basal ice below 3200 m. Note the change of depth scale below 3200m.

1015 **Figure 5:** Frequency distribution of concentrations (in bins of 1 or 5 ngg^{-1} or ppb) of selected
1016 chemical species in the clean (open squares - thick black solid line) and dispersed (open
1017 triangles - thick black dotted line) basal ice facies of the EPICA Dome C core, as compared to
1018 those for the preceding full glacial periods (incremented symbols and thin grey lines - courtesy
1019 of EPICA Chemistry Consortium). See text for definition of « full glacials ».

1020 **Figure 6:** Mean equivalent crystals radii in the basal ice layers of the EPICA Dome C ice core,
1021 as compared to measurements in ice above 3200m depth from Durand et al. (2007). Basal ice
1022 measurements are preliminary results obtained using the linear intercept technique « on site»,
1023 while the data from above 3200m were obtained using Automatic Ice Texture Analyzers (AITAs -
1024 Wang and Azuma, 1999; Russell-Head and Wilson, 2001; Wilen et al., 2003).

1025 **Figure 7:** Schematic illustration of the hypothesized impact of the confining bedrock topography
1026 (bedrock valleys about 20 km wide and 200-400 meters deep - from Remy and Tabacco, 2000)
1027 on the stress regime, layer thickness and ice fabric patterns in the bottom ice of EPICA Dome C.
1028 Vertical stretching is accommodated by basal melting and/or along sub-glacial valley flow. For

Can we retrieve a clear paleoclimatic signal from the deeper part of the EPICA Dome C ice core?

1029 clarity, this illustration enhances the process so that absolute annual layer thickness increases
1030 downwards. A milder effect would only result in a decrease of the thinning rate (see text for
1031 details).

1032 **Figure 8:** Sketch of potential chemical sorting effects during enhanced migration
1033 recrystallization processes under a changing stress field, close to the pressure melting point, in
1034 the clean and dispersed basal ice facies of EPICA Dome C. Processes in italic/dotted arrows
1035 are hypothetical (see text for details).

1036 **Figure 9:** Attempting to reconstruct the time scale for the basal ice sequence: a) Zoom on the
1037 $\delta^{18}\text{O}_{\text{atm}}$ curve vs. Integrated summer insolation at 30°N (see Fig. 1e) and b) Comparison of the
1038 benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ curve (open circles) to the EPICA $\delta\text{D}_{\text{ice}}$ profile (black dots), where the basal ice
1039 time scale was linearly « compressed » using tie points 1 and 2 in a) (see text for details)

1040 **Figure S1:** Plot of the mean (a) and 1σ (b) values for the various chemical elements measured
1041 in each of the glacial periods considered in this study and for the Clean (open squares) and
1042 Dispersed (open triangles) basal ice samples as a function of the duration (in thousand years) of
1043 the « full glacial period » selected on the basis of the δD -values. Isotopic Stage 18, which is
1044 already thought to show increased variability for some of the elements, is shown as an open
1045 star. Duration is estimated from the EDC-3 time scale (Parrenin, 2007).

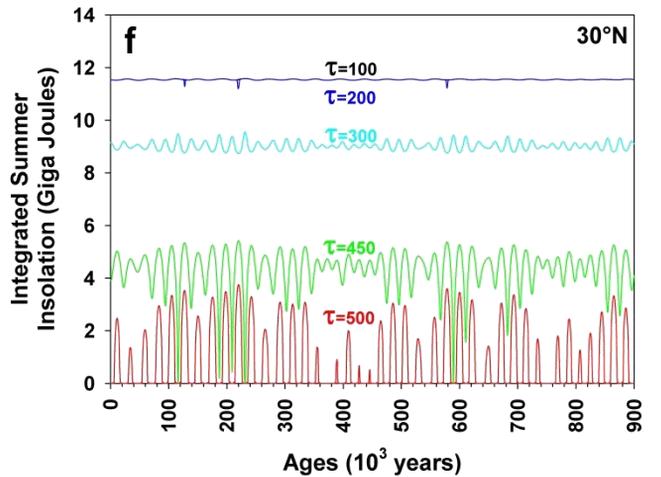
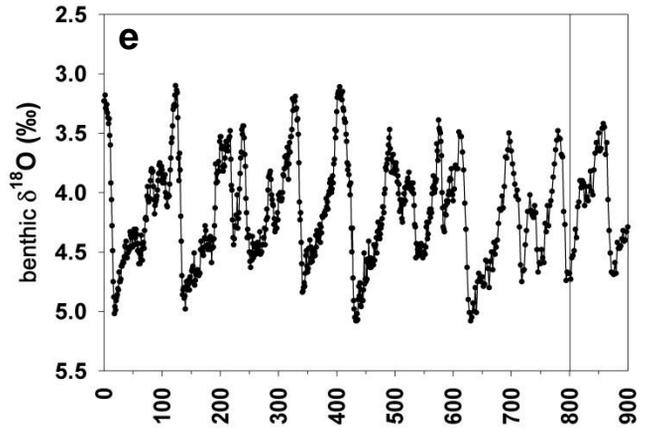
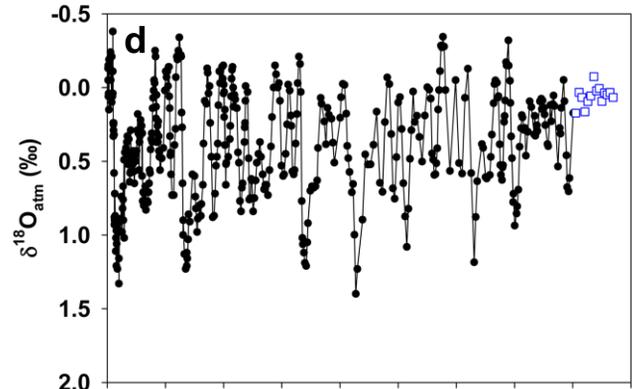
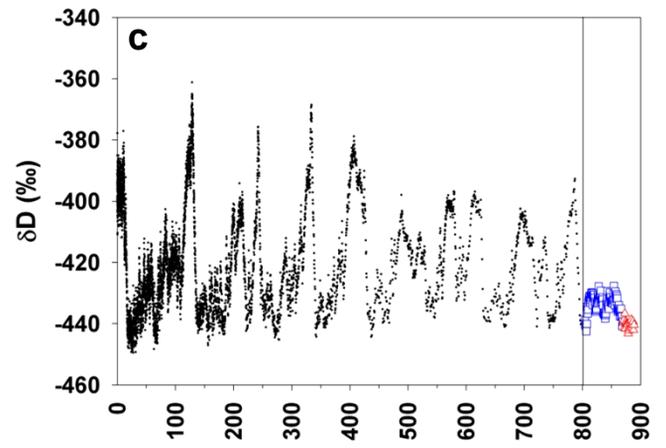
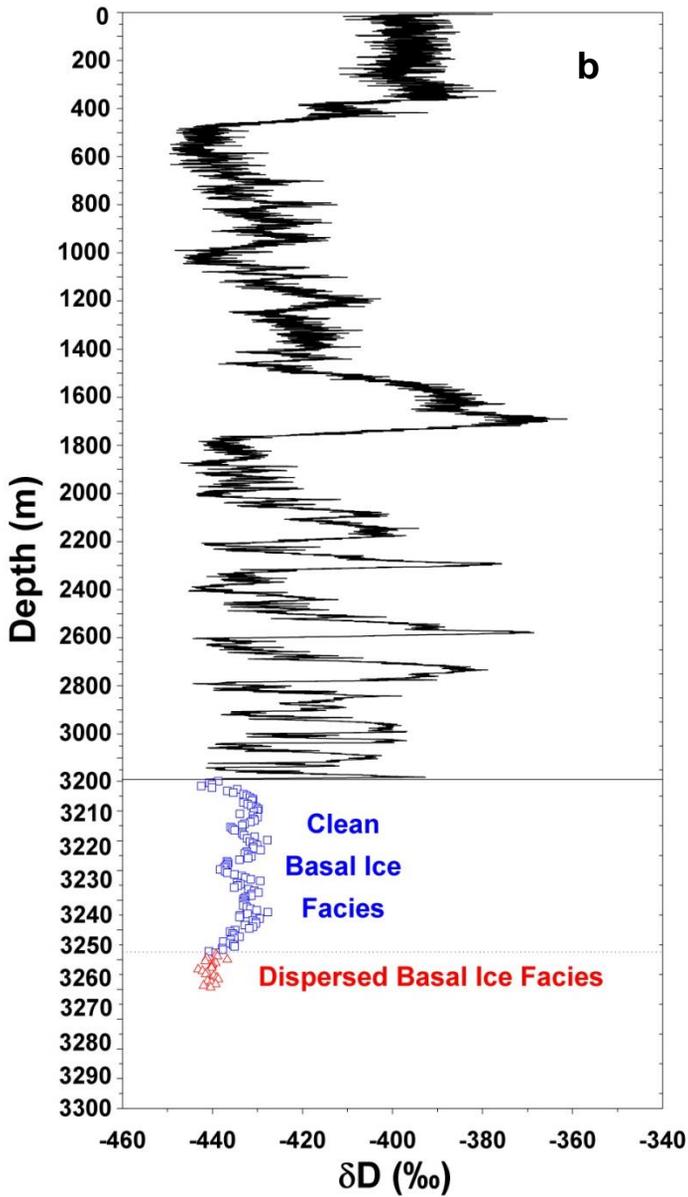
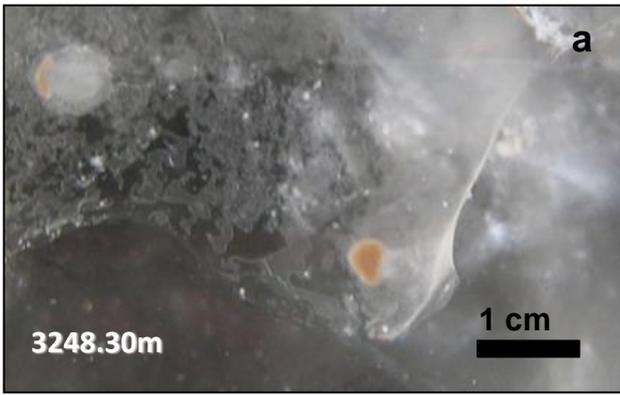


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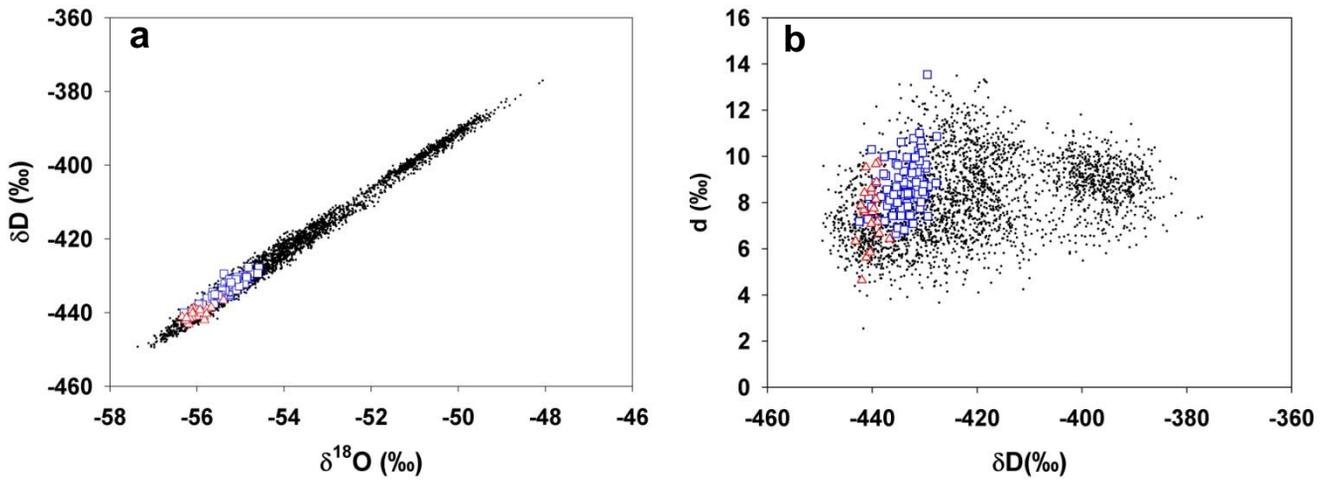


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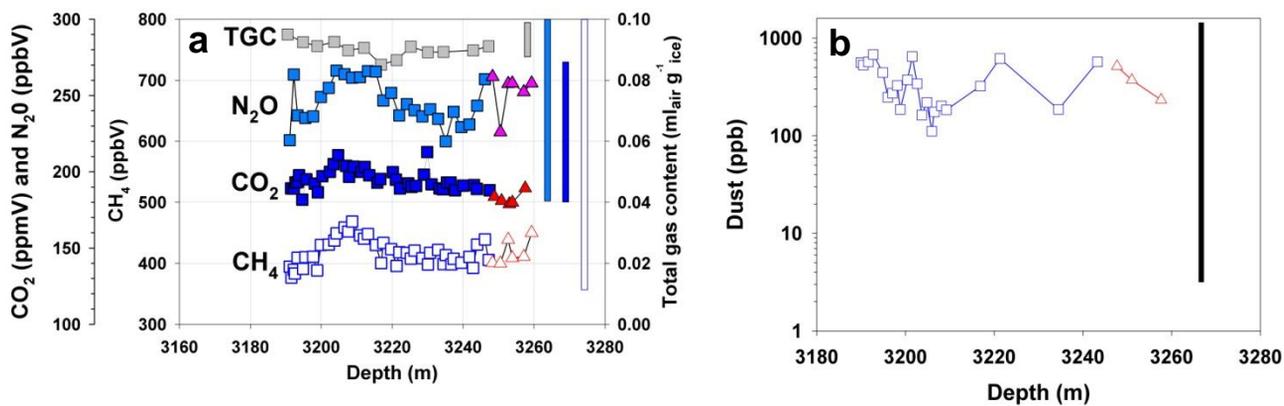


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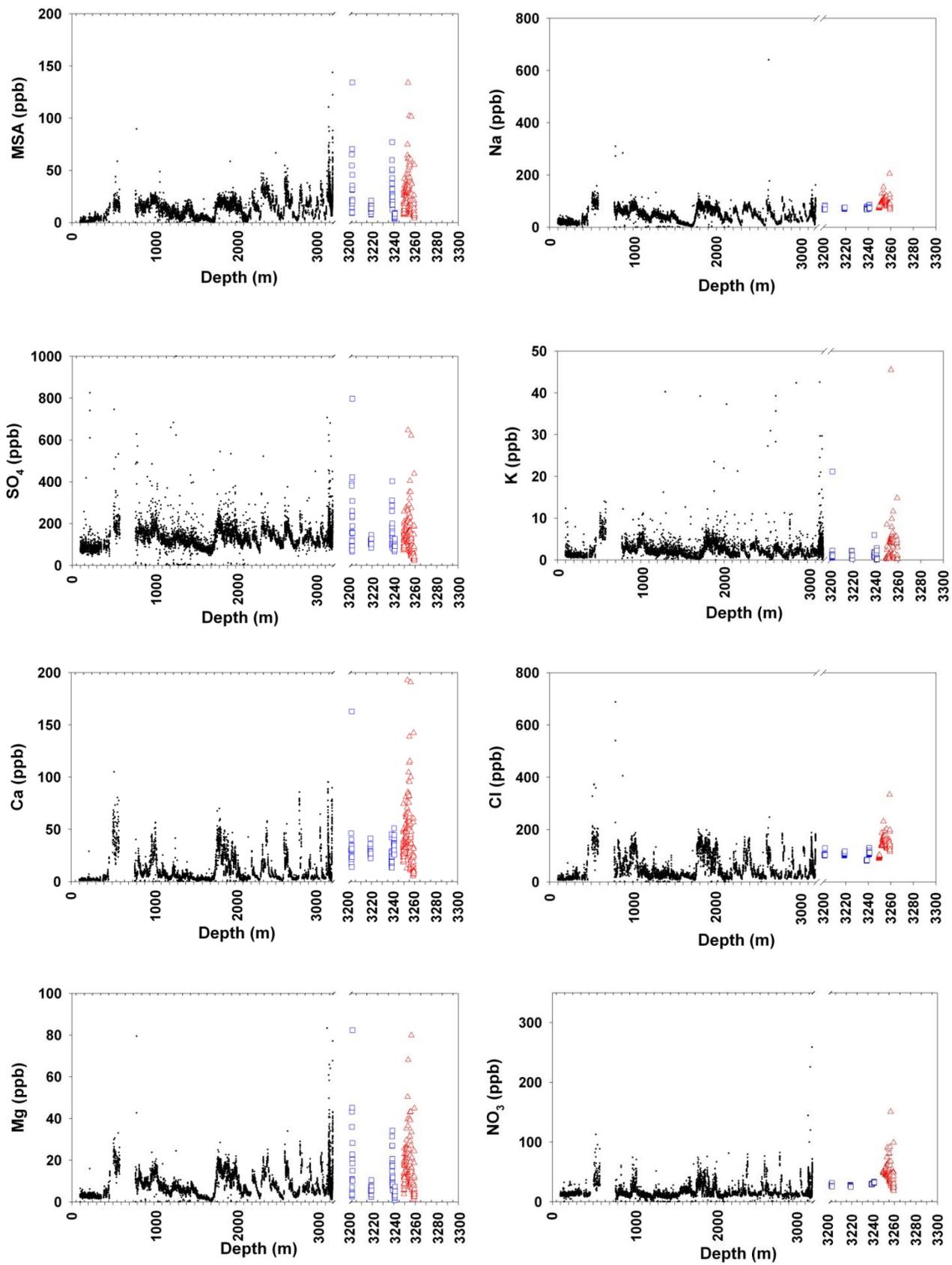


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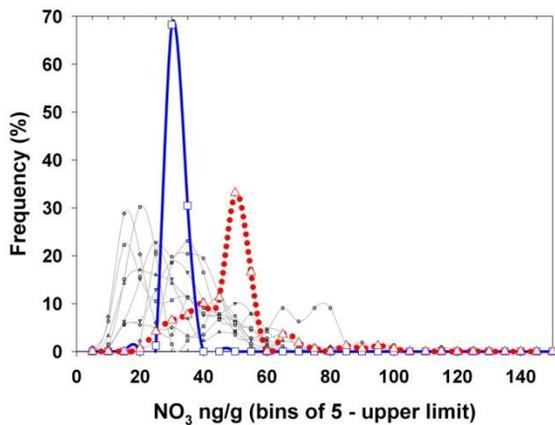
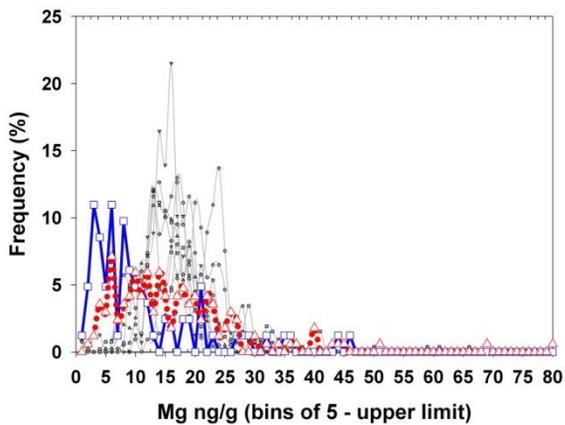
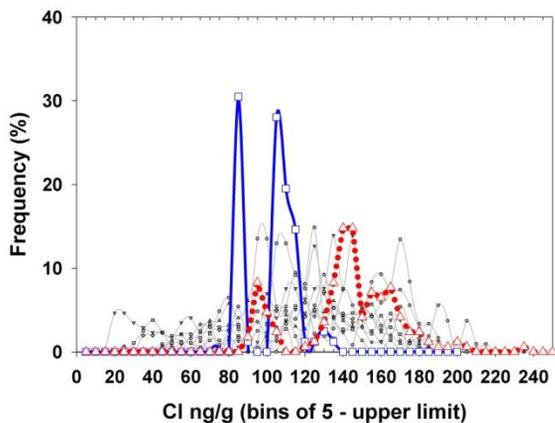
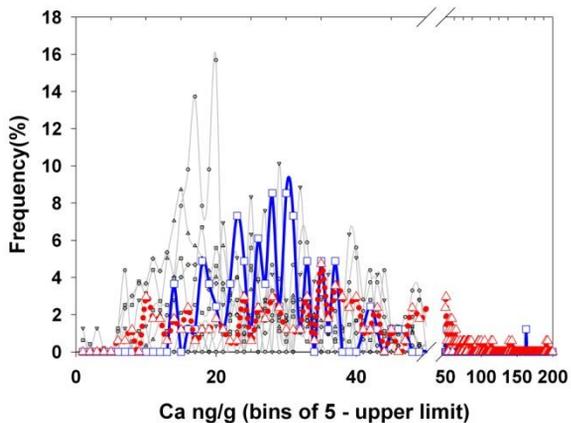
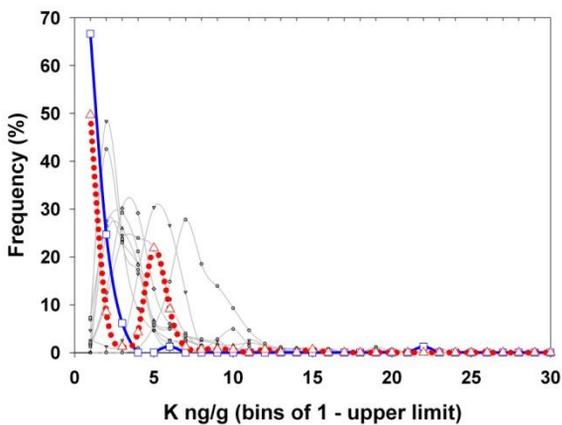
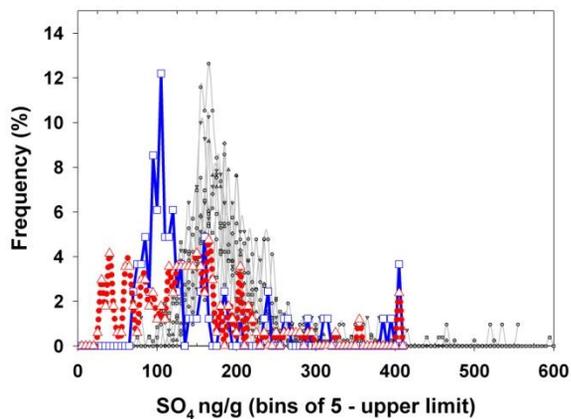
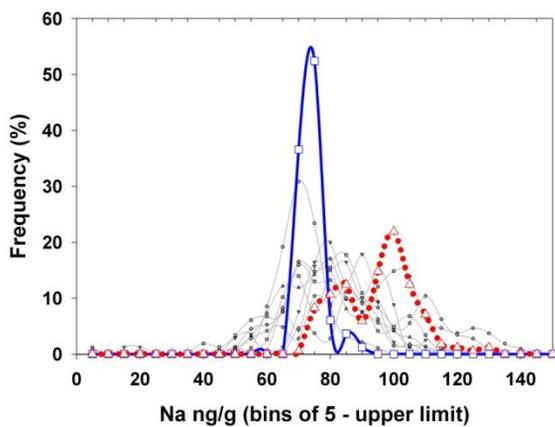
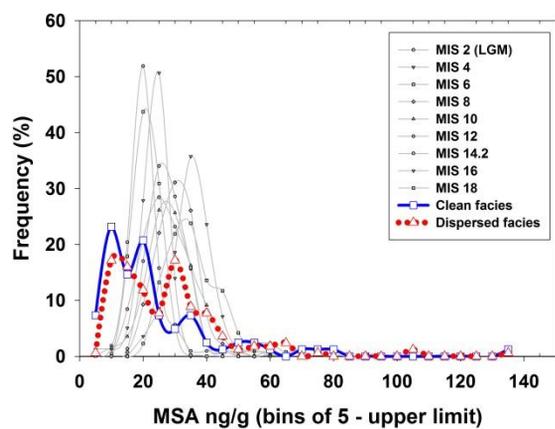


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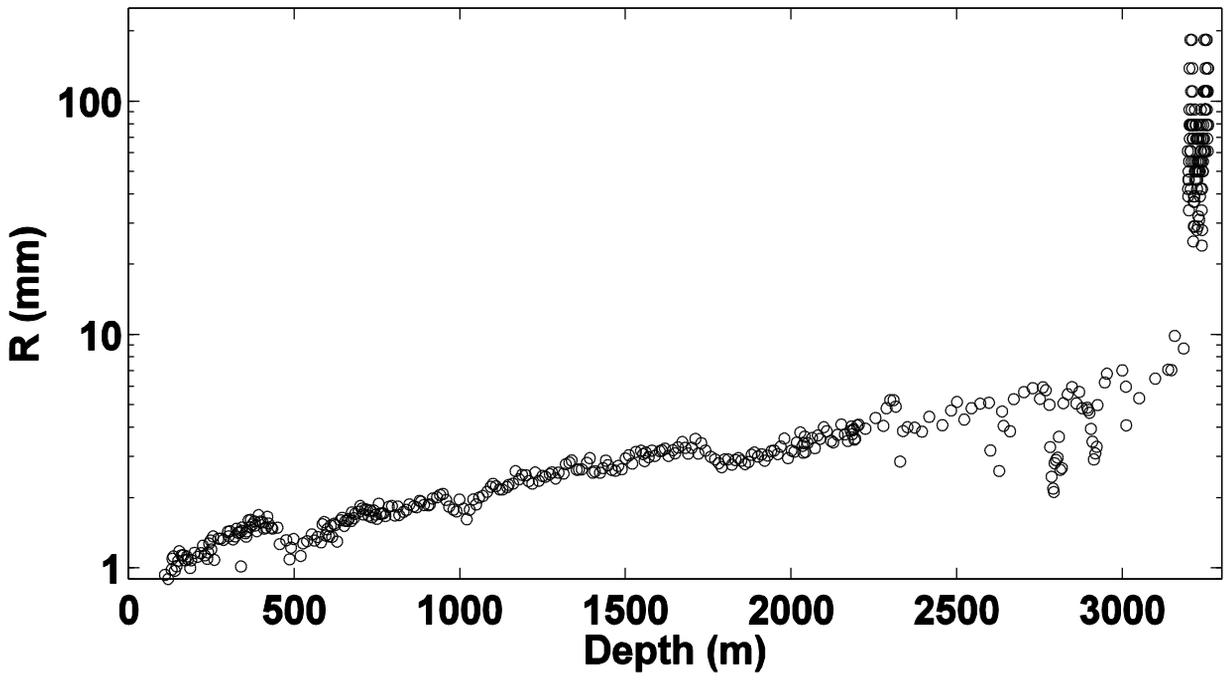


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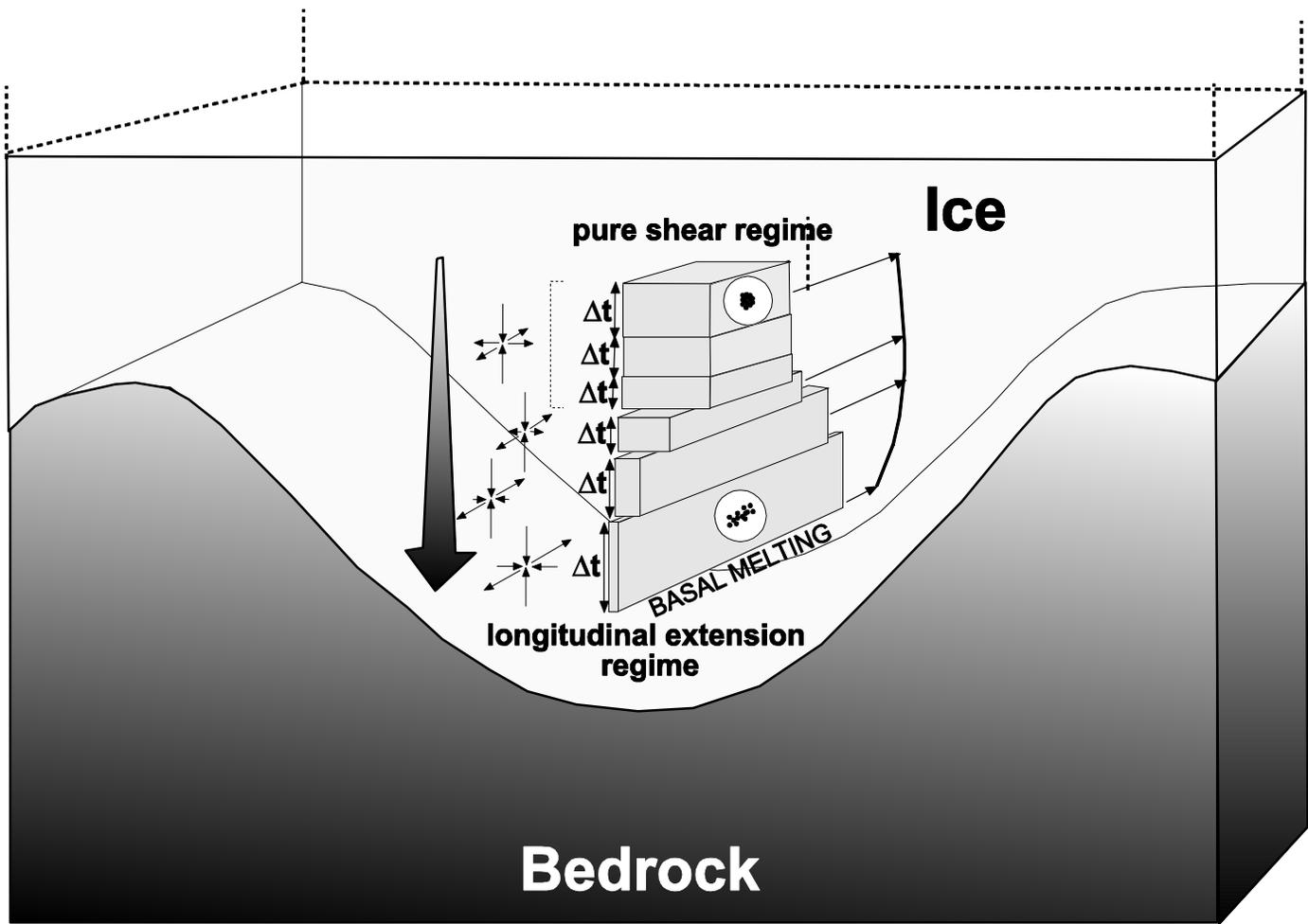


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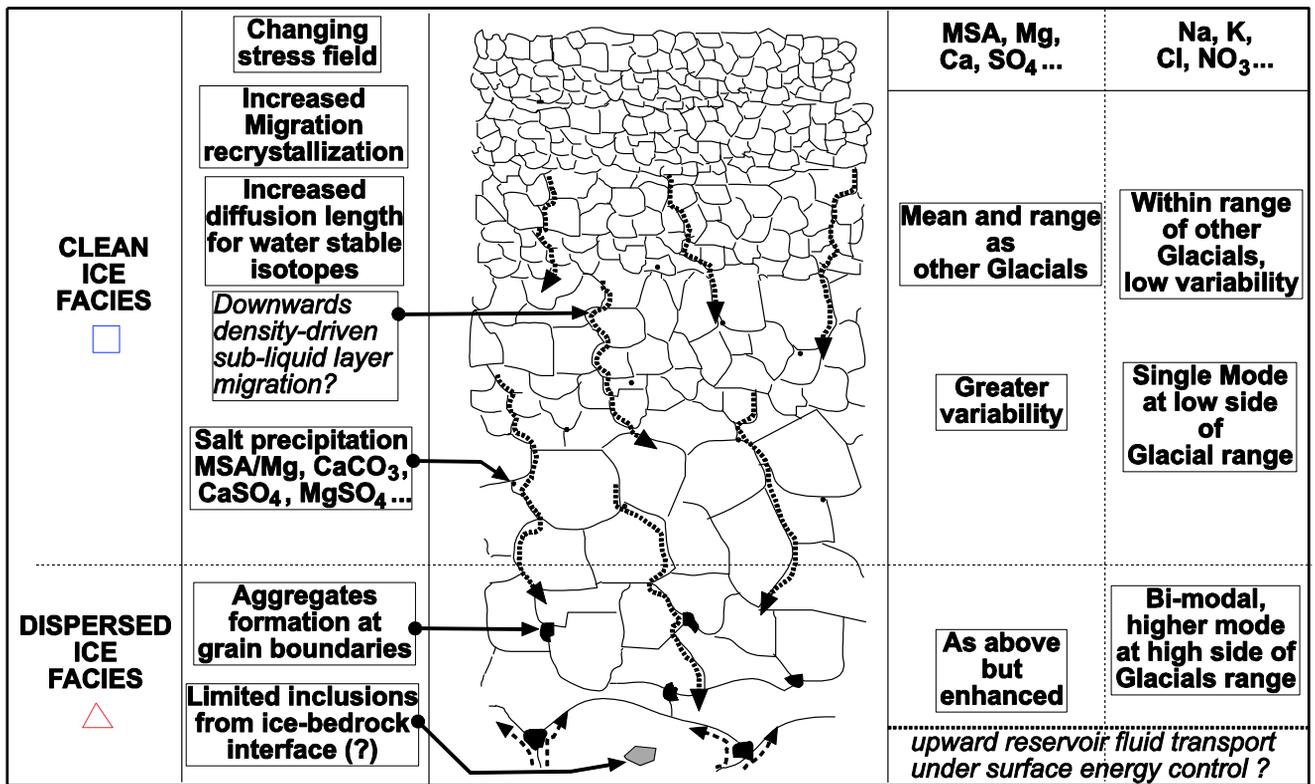


Figure 8

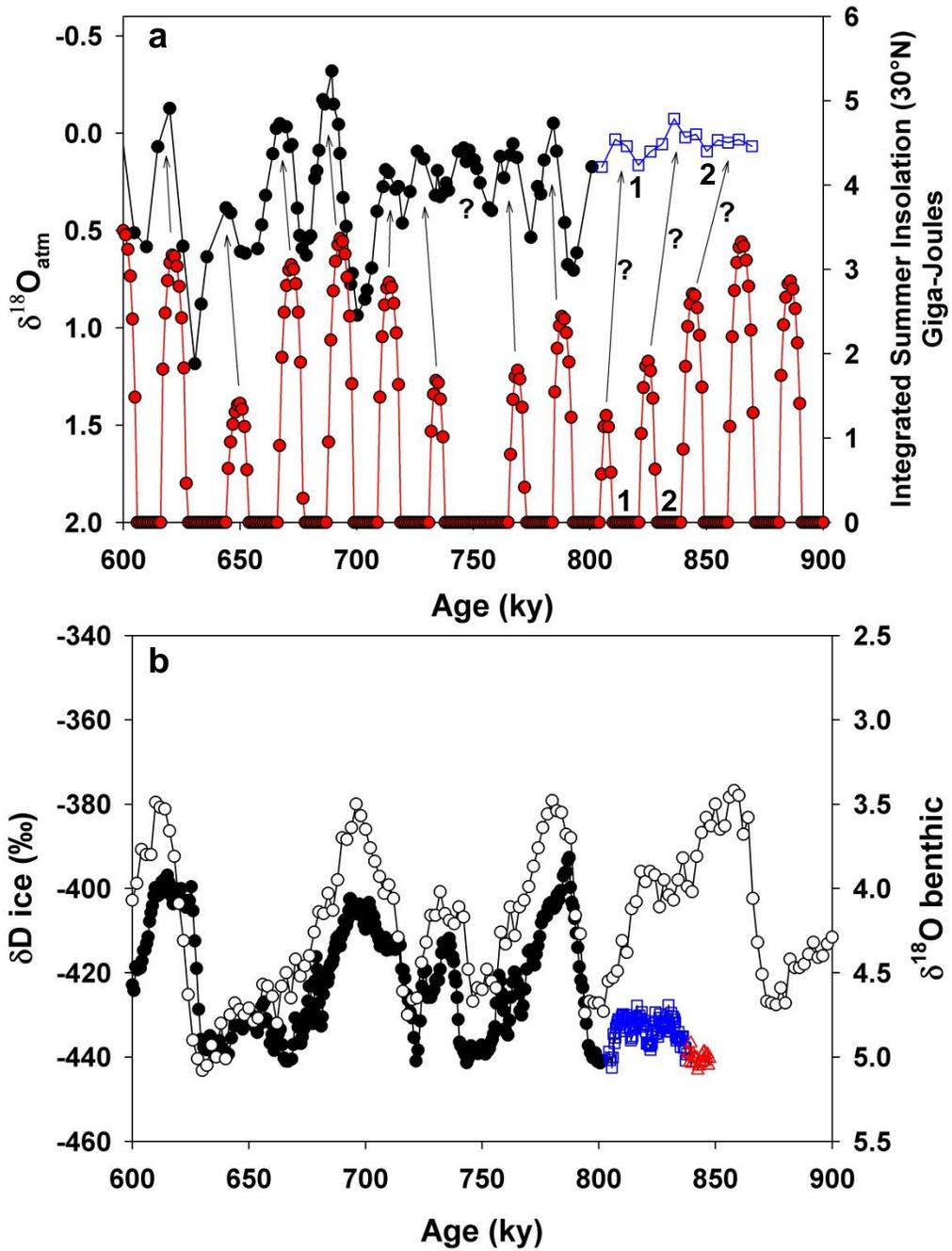


Figure 9