

large single crystals; polycrystalline arrays may be brittle. Such composites may be of use as high-performance damping materials, since the figure of merit²⁶ in the present results exceeds that of commonly used materials ($E \tan \delta \approx 0.6 \text{ GPa}$) by a factor of more than 20. For that purpose, sensitivity to temperature could be reduced via matching inclusion and matrix stiffness. Moreover, pre-stressed or pre-buckled²⁴ elements with minimal temperature sensitivity may be used as inclusions. Bounds on properties of complex heterogeneous materials are generally derived assuming positive phase properties¹⁸. These bounds can be exceeded if negative stiffness is allowed, permitting extreme properties not previously anticipated. As in thermoelastic and piezoelectric materials, elasticity is coupled with temperature and electric field respectively, these composites may find use in high-performance sensors and actuators. These composites may also occur naturally in rocks and in biological materials (in which anomalies were reported²⁷); they may be considered in the context of deep-focus earthquakes and attenuation of seismic waves. □

Received 25 July 2000; accepted 2 February 2001.

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Acknowledgements

We thank W. Drugan and R. Cooper for supportive comments and discussions. This work was supported by the NSF.

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Climate variability 50,000 years ago in mid-latitude Chile as reconstructed from tree rings

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High-resolution proxies of past climate are essential for a better understanding of the climate system¹. Tree rings are routinely used to reconstruct Holocene climate variations at high temporal resolution², but only rarely have they offered insight into climate variability during earlier periods³. *Fitzroya cupressoides*—a South American conifer which attains ages up to 3,600 years—has been shown to record summer temperatures in northern Patagonia during the past few millennia⁴. Here we report a floating 1,229-year chronology developed from subfossil stumps of *F. cupressoides* in southern Chile that dates back to approximately 50,000 ¹⁴C years before present. We use this chronology to calculate the spectral characteristics of climate variability in this time, which was probably an interstadial (relatively warm) period. Growth oscillations at periods of 150–250, 87–94, 45.5, 24.1, 17.8, 9.3 and 2.7–5.3 years are identified in the annual subfossil record. A comparison with the power spectra of chronologies derived from living *F. cupressoides* trees shows strong similarities with the 50,000-year-old chronology, indicating that similar growth forcing factors operated in this glacial interstadial phase as in the current interglacial conditions.

With the exception of polar and tropical ice cores and some ocean-sediment cores, palaeoclimate records with annual resolution based on studies of tree rings, coral, and varved sediments have been recovered only for the late Holocene⁵. Here we report annually resolved proxies of palaeoclimate data for southern South America for an interstadial period thought to correspond to marine oxygen isotope stage 3 (OIS 3; ref. 6). Our analysis is based on subfossil tree remnants found at Seno Reloncaví in the southern Lake District of Chile (40° 00' to 42° 30' S, 71° 30' to 74° 00' W). Here we use the term 'subfossil' to mean wood preserved since the late Pleistocene epoch that still contains carbon material. Supported by glacial geology and palynology studies, the southern Lake District represents an area where late Quaternary climate fluctuations have been best established for the entire Andes^{7–10}. Although the Lake District was affected repeatedly by large ice lobes descending from the Andes at times > 14 kyr before present (BP), long-term full-glacial stratigraphic pollen records show that the forests did not completely disappear during the periods of ice advance and rapidly re-expanded afterwards^{8,9}. After ice recession, evergreen forest, mainly dominated by broad-leaved and conifer elements, expanded across the Lake District with a wide ecological amplitude, from lowland floodplains to near the modern, upper tree line.

Annually resolved records in the region based on the characteristic

tree of the north Patagonian evergreen forest, *F. cupressoides* (alerce)—which attains ages of 3,600 years¹¹—were available previously only for the past few millennia. *Fitzroya*, a monotypic conifer restricted to wet environments, is a sensitive indicator of climate; both the width and the density of the annual rings respond primarily to variations of summer (December to March) temperatures^{11–13}. In southern Chile, present seasonal climates are regulated by the annual cycle of latitudinal migration of the South Pacific Subtropical High coupled with the cold off-shore Humboldt ocean current and the orographic effects of the Andes¹⁴. The prevailing westerly storm tracks are related to equatorward shifts of the polar front. These low-pressure storms, which are most frequent during winter, are responsible for the humid and equable climate that supports the temperate rain forests.

In the forested landscape of southern Chile and Argentina, acidic soils and climate are conducive to the preservation of tree remnants suitable for radiocarbon dating and dendrochronological research^{6,15}. After the 1960 earthquake¹⁶ that affected the southern Lake District, an intertidal area alongside the north shore of Seno Reloncaví became subject to marine erosion. Well preserved subfossil *F. cupressoides* stumps were exposed; the trees had been originally buried *in situ* by a lahar¹⁷ (a debris flow composed chiefly of volcanoclastic materials). Particularly at the Pelluco site (6 km east of Puerto Montt, 41.5° S, 72.9° W), these stumps attain diameters of up to 1–1.5 m. Few stumps recovered from Pelluco belong to *Pilgerodendron uviferum*. This is evocative of the present-day *Fitzroya*–*Pilgerodendron* community on marshy, low-drainage soils¹³. Because the outermost rings have been eroded from most of the cross-sections, it was impossible to ascertain if the trees were killed and buried simultaneously in sediment. However, the position and orientation of the stumps suggest that this forest was affected by a catastrophic single event. Tephra deposition, flooding and abrupt changes of the ground level—caused, for example, by earthquakes—today affect the stability of *F. cupressoides* forests¹⁸; these factors must have operated similarly in the past.

The AMS (accelerator mass spectrometry) ¹⁴C ages of three wood samples containing the five innermost rings are 49,780 ± 2,040 ¹⁴C yr BP, 49,770 ± 2,040 ¹⁴C yr BP, and 49,370 ± 2,000 ¹⁴C yr BP (CAMS 46534, 46535, and 46536 respectively). Previous radiocarbon dating showed similar results^{17,19}. Because these dates are close to or higher than the limit for ¹⁴C dating, they should be

regarded as minimum ages for the subfossil wood. According to the chronological and stratigraphic glacial record proposed for the area⁷, the wood samples pre-date the Last Glacial Maximum, and broadly correspond to the early portions of middle Llanquihue time (correlated with the Middle Wisconsinan/Weichselian glacial stages in the Northern Hemisphere). Furthermore, the longer pollen records available for the region^{8,9} document the existence of an arboreal taxa association with a significant presence of *Fitzroya*-related pollen types (*Pilgerodendron* type) in the early phases of middle Llanquihue time (that is, about 47,000 ¹⁴C yr BP). This implies that tracts of interstadial forest immediately adapted to growth under the cool temperate, humid, climate regime in the mid-latitudes of southern Chile at the early stages of OIS 3. The simplest explanation, pending more precise dates, is that the subfossil *Fitzroya* stand became established during an interval of humid and cool climate, broadly corresponding to the onset of OIS 3.

Subfossil wood samples from Pelluco were collected by different workers from Chile, Sweden and Argentina, and processed according to standard dendrochronological techniques²⁰. 51 polished transverse cross-sectional surfaces from 30 trees were measured (with a precision of ± 0.01 mm), and the resulting individual ring-width series were subjected to extensive cross-dating comparisons to identify missing rings and eliminate other possible errors at the measuring stage. After this procedure, 47 radii from 28 trees were selected and used to construct a floating mean tree-ring chronology 1,229 years long (the range of specimen length was 185–1,154 years). Tree-ring standardization²⁰ was performed to remove the inherent long-term growth trend associated with tree age and forest dynamics. Individual series were detrended using a smoothing spline with a fixed 50% frequency response of 200 years, resulting in dimensionless indices, before averaging them into the chronology. This standardization procedure preserves most of the century-timescale tree growth variations²¹. The final chronology, with the corresponding internal sample replication, is shown in Fig. 1. To our knowledge, this is the oldest known floating (that is, not absolutely dated) tree-ring chronology developed to date.

To identify cycles contained in our Pelluco chronology, spectral analysis was performed using two different methods as defined in Fig. 2. Fourier analysis (using the Blackman-Tukey technique) showed that long-term cyclic components exceeding the *a priori*

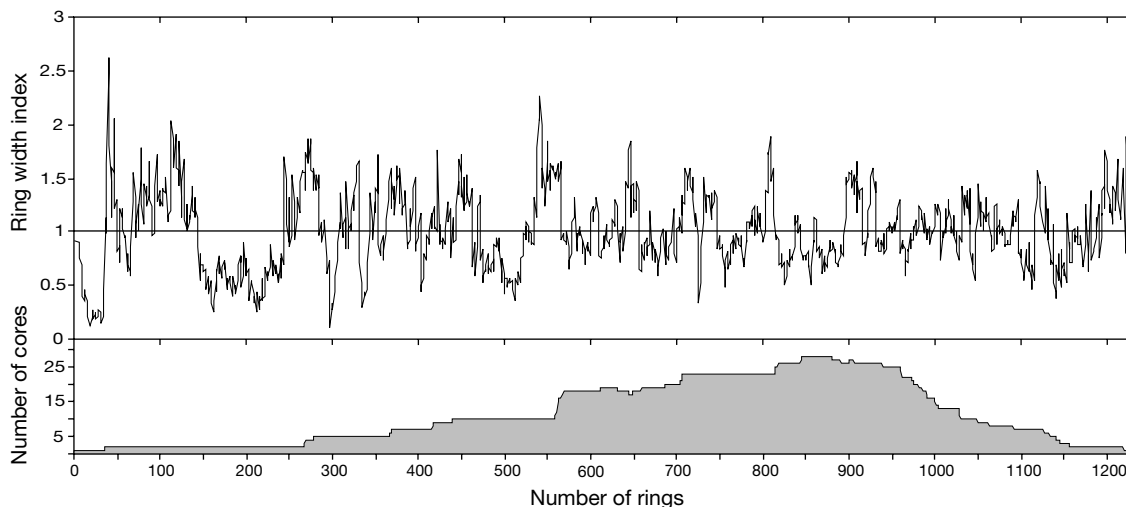


Figure 1 The 1,229-year-long floating tree-ring chronology from Pelluco, southern Chile. A cross-dated set of 47 ring-width radii obtained from 28 subfossil trees make up the ARSTAN (AutoRegressive STANdardization) chronology, whose best replicated section (more than 5 series) exists between relative rings 278 and 1,139. The subfossil chronology shows notable year-by-year changes in ring widths. Those periods with very narrow rings (two cells wide) make measurement and cross-dating rather difficult.

Missing rings were infrequent. The overall series mean ring-width is 0.42 mm and the cross-correlation average between all series is 0.53, with a mean series length of 430 years. The signal-to-noise ratio is relatively high at 5.25, and the variance explained by the first eigenvector is 32.27%. The first-order autocorrelation is 0.85 and the mean sensitivity is 0.15. These values are similar to the statistics of living *Fitzroya* chronologies^{4,27}.

95% significance level occur at periods of 153–245 and 87–94 years, which respectively account for 21.38% and 19.71% of the variance in the power spectrum. Other significant peaks in the spectrum, which account for the 13% of total variance, fall within the higher frequency band (periodicities in the range of 2–7 years; Fig. 2a inset). The same cycles are reproduced in the maximum entropy power spectrum (not shown here).

The Blackman-Tukey and maximum-entropy spectral properties of the chronologies derived from living *Fitzroya* trees are broadly

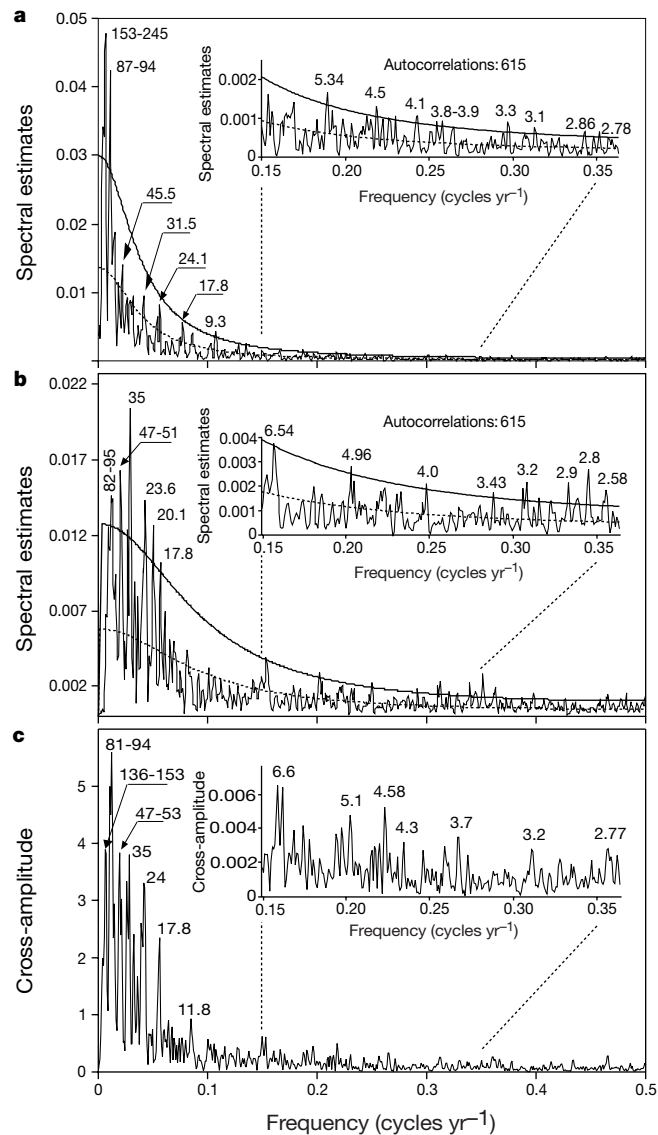


Figure 2 The spectral and cross-spectral characteristics of the subfossil (a) and living (b) *F. cupressoides* woods. We determined that 615 lags of the autocorrelation function (~50% the series length) were adequate to resolve the frequency spectrum with high resolution and moderate stability. The 95% confidence limits of the Blackman-Tukey²⁸ (BT) spectrum were estimated from a “red noise” null continuum based on the lag-1 autocorrelation coefficient. The periods are given in years for each individual peak. The (Hamming) bandwidth that we used was equal to 5. The maximum entropy²⁹ (ME) spectrum (not shown) was estimated from a 123-term prediction error filter (10% of the series length) using Burg’s³⁰ algorithm. For comparison, the same analyses were performed for a similar time span (1,229-years) on a set of three millennium-long living *Fitzroya* chronologies (Lenca¹¹, Cisne²⁷ and Costa³¹ chronologies, respectively) standardized in a similar way as the subfossil chronology. In this case we choose the amplitudes of the first eigenvector to develop our spectral estimates. The spectra are shown over the frequency range 0–0.50. **c**, The cross-spectral relationships between subfossil and modern chronologies. Expanded details of each power spectrum are shown in the insets.

similar to those identified in the subfossil series (that is, the peaks at 82–95, 23.6 and 17.8 years in the living trees are close to peaks at 87–94, 24.1 and 17.8 years detected in the subfossil chronology; Fig. 2a, b). In the low-frequency band of 80–254 years, the subfossil chronology shows a high concentration of variance (41.09%) but only 12.49% is reached in the modern chronology. Peaks at 47–51, 35, 23.6, 20.1 and 17.8 years are statistically significant in the modern chronology but do not exceed the *a priori* 95% confidence level in the Blackman-Tukey spectrum from the subfossil series. Association between the spectra of the living and subfossil records is also observed through a cross-spectra comparison in the frequency domain (Fig. 2c). The variances in the cross-amplitude spectra show relatively strong correspondence over the resolved frequency range equivalent to periods centred at 136–153, 81–94, 47–53, 35, 24, 17.8 years and other peaks over the higher-frequency range between 6.6 and 2.14 years (Fig. 2c inset). The broad correspondence between spectra suggest the possibility that similar processes have influenced the radial growth of both subfossil and modern *Fitzroya* trees.

Focusing on longer timescales, it is evident from the spectral density distribution that the ~150–250-year waveform is a characteristic of the Pelluco chronology, and may reflect low-frequency variations of climate during the late Pleistocene. Oscillations of the order of ~200 years have been found in late Pleistocene–Holocene records from marine cores from the west side of the Antarctic peninsula²². Solar modulation may be a possible forcing mechanism at this frequency because there is evidence of a near 220-year ¹⁴C cycle as a result of sunspots²³. Other cyclic fluctuations in the Pelluco chronology on a decadal to centennial timescale may also be attributed to varying solar activity. Atmospheric Δ¹⁴C oscillations derived from tree-ring chronologies covering almost the entire Holocene (a 9,600-yr record)²³ show changes with periodicities close to 22 and 90 years, cycles related respectively to Hale and Gleissberg global solar changes. In a similar way, the oscillatory modes detected in the subfossil tree-ring chronology at the 87–94-year and the 24.1-year periods may correspond to periodicities related to both Hale and Gleissberg solar cycles contained in the ‘modern’ (Holocene) tree-ring records.

Determining the forcing mechanisms that produced the short-term cycles in our record is less straightforward. The El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO) appears to be the largest single source of present-day global inter-annual climate variability. ENSO has operated for most of the Holocene, and strong climate shifts associated with El Niño events have been documented by, among other proxies, South American tree rings^{4,12,13}. But for earlier times, data from marine cores imply that during glacial sea-level low-stands, the ocean/atmosphere conditions in the inter-tropical Pacific prevented or dramatically reduced the functioning of the ENSO system^{24,25}. Furthermore, there are indications that the ENSO system probably operated during middle–late Pleistocene interglacials and warm interstadial periods, although overall climate and boundary conditions at these stages may have been too different to permit the characteristic ENSO climate variability in terms of frequency, intensity and recurrence²⁶. Thus, some of the high-frequency oscillations at timescales of 2–7 years observed in our subfossil chronology still remain to be assessed in relation to other ancient high-resolution records.

F. cupressoides tree-rings are known to correlate well with summer temperatures^{4,11,13}. This relationship permits reconstruction of Late Holocene climate fluctuations in the northern Patagonian Andes, at least during the past two millennia⁴. Uniformitarianism suggests that most of the tree-growth oscillations observed in our subfossil tree-ring Pelluco chronology may be attributed to summer temperature variability during Pleistocene interstadials at early stages of OIS 3. Hence, the oscillations of the order of 150–250 years detected in this chronology may have the same forcing as century-scale oscillations observed in temperature reconstructions of the Late

Holocene derived from tree-ring data⁴.

Our study suggests that comparable cycles in tree growth occurred between interstadials of the last glaciation and today, and hence that similar factors have affected the radial growth of *Fitzroya* since the Late Pleistocene. Considering that the Earth's atmosphere—and the ocean/atmosphere system—were significantly disturbed during the glacial cycles of the Late Pleistocene, the notable similarity in the spectral properties of the Pelluco subfossil and modern *F. cupressoides* chronologies suggests that the forcing mechanisms of climate during the interstadials have not changed dramatically. The potential for developing very long tree-ring chronologies—from the present day back several millennia—is one of the most promising results in southern South America dendrochronology^{15,27}. Our Pelluco tree-ring chronology represents a high-resolution window that allows us the possibility of analysing fluctuations in tree growth and climate during warmer events of the last glacial stage in southern Chile, where other very old palaeorecords (>50,000 yr) are rare. □

Received 17 October 2000; accepted 18 January 2001.

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Acknowledgements

We thank J. Betancourt, D. Stahle, V. Markgraf and J. Pilcher for comments on the manuscript. AMS dates were provided in part through funding by NSF (Earth System History) and the Inter-American Institute (IAI).

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Simulating the amplification of orbital forcing by ocean feedbacks in the last glaciation

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According to Milankovitch theory, the lower summer insolation at high latitudes about 115,000 years ago allowed winter snow to persist throughout summer, leading to ice-sheet build-up and glaciation¹. But attempts to simulate the last glaciation using global atmospheric models have failed to produce this outcome when forced by insolation changes only^{2–5}. These results point towards the importance of feedback effects—for example, through changes in vegetation or the ocean circulation—for the amplification of solar forcing^{6–9}. Here we present a fully coupled ocean–atmosphere model of the last glaciation that produces a build-up of perennial snow cover at known locations of ice sheets during this period. We show that ocean feedbacks lead to a cooling of the high northern latitudes, along with an increase in atmospheric moisture transport from the Equator to the poles. These changes agree with available geological data^{10–15} and, together, they lead to an increased delivery of snow to high northern latitudes. The mechanism we present explains the onset of glaciation—which would be amplified by changes in vegetation—in response to weak orbital forcing.

Previous simulations using atmosphere general circulation models have shown that the atmosphere alone is unable to produce perennial snow, which is required to start a glaciation^{2–7,16}: several studies^{3,16} related this failure to model resolution and snow parametrization. However, a major drawback of these simulations was that the ocean surface temperature and vegetation cover were prescribed to their modern values^{2–9}. A previous study showed that biosphere–atmosphere interactions help to create favourable conditions for ice-sheet growth⁹, but did not succeed in simulating perennial snow cover. For the period of the onset of the last glaciation, studies of planktonic and benthic foraminifera from the North Atlantic Ocean led to the conclusion that the meridional gradient of sea surface temperature (SST) was enhanced before glacial inception—with very cold SST at high latitudes¹⁰ (a cooling of around 4 °C from present-day values) while low latitudes were slightly warmer^{10,12} than at present. These studies^{10,14,17–19} assumed that the changes in SST pattern were probably due to a shift of deep-water formation from the Norwegian Sea to the North Atlantic. Therefore changes in ocean circulation must have had a large effect on the high-latitude heat budget. These hypotheses remain untested by coupled ocean–atmosphere general circulation models. We tested this possible mechanism for glacial inception using the IPSL-CM2²⁰ ocean–atmosphere coupled model (see Methods section).

We performed a 100-year-long sensitivity experiment, called here the '115 kyr BP' run, which only differs from the 120-year control experiment in the Earth's orbital parameters, which are set for 115,000 years before present (BP)²¹ (Table 1). The concentration of