



Main pathways in the evolution of the Paleogene Antarctic Sphenisciformes

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ABSTRACT

The Seymour Island fossil penguins from the Cross Valley and La Meseta Formations, Seymour Island (James Ross Basin; late Paleocene, and Eocene/early Oligocene respectively) constitute the most complete stratigraphic records of the group known in the world. In addition to the geographic and stratigraphic thoroughness of the collected fossil remains, they offer a unique opportunity to the understanding of the major evolutionary patterns of the Sphenisciformes. We analyze their taxonomic diversity and abundance in La Meseta Formation, in a context of the spread patterns of the Paleogene penguins in relationship to the Antarctic Circumpolar Current incidence. Our data suggest that the highest diversity and geographical distribution (Antarctica, South America and Australasia) in the Late Eocene were linked to water-cooling events and the opening of the Drake Passage. However, the first divergence of the group is documented in the Early Eocene. This fact supports that a marine dispersion of the Weddellian penguins to other continents occurs when there was a shallow and warm ocean current circulation (Weddellian Current) flowing along the western margin of West Antarctica and South America. The phylogenetic analysis and the recent discoveries in the Eocene of Chile and Peru support the hypothesis that establishes one of the way for the dispersion of the Weddellian species from the Peninsula Antarctica was the Pacific coast during the early Eocene.

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1. Introduction

Nowadays four penguin species, *Aptenodytes forsteri* (Emperor penguin), *Pygoscelis adeliae* (Adelie penguin), *Pygoscelis antarctica* (Chinstrap penguin), and *Pygoscelis papua* (Gentoo penguin), breed on Antarctica and sub-Antarctic islands. This extant scenario with an impoverished amount of penguin species has a marked contrast with the scenario found in the Paleogene of the Antarctic Peninsula.

The last phylogenies of the Sphenisciformes reveals that important radiations of both small and large Weddellian penguins (species living in the Weddellian Province, defined by Zinsmeister, 1982) took place during the Late Paleocene/Late Eocene (between ~55 Ma and 34 Ma) in West Antarctica, so an important and significant part of the evolution of the Sphenisciformes occurred in Southern high latitudes (~65°S) as it is documented in Early Paleogene geologic units of Antarctic Peninsula, James Ross Basin, Weddell Sea (Myrcha et al., 2002; Tambussi et al., 2006; Jadwyszczak, 2006, 2008, 2009; Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007; Acosta Hospitaleche and Reguero, 2010; Acosta Hospitaleche and Di Carlo, 2010, 2012).

The Seymour Island fossil penguins from the Cross Valley and La Meseta Formations, Seymour Island (James Ross Basin; late Paleocene, and Eocene/early Oligocene respectively) constitute the most complete stratigraphic records of the group known in the world. The diversity and abundance of the remains, in addition to the geographic (Fig. 1) and stratigraphic thoroughness of the collected fossil remains (Fig. 2), offer a unique opportunity to the understanding of the major evolutionary patterns of the Sphenisciformes.

The earliest representatives of penguins appeared ~60 Ma (Slack et al., 2006; Tambussi et al., 2005). The two oldest undisputed records of the order come from New Zealand. *Waimanu manneringi* Jones, Ando and Fordyce 2006, from the early Paleocene and *Waimanu tuatahi* Ando, Jones and Fordyce 2006 from the late Paleocene suggest that the sphenisciforms diverged by the early Paleocene (Slack et al., 2006).

The primitive penguin *Crossvallia unienwillia* Tambussi et al., 2005 (found in the late Paleocene Cross Valley Formation of Seymour [= Marambio] Island) is the oldest Antarctic sphenisciform (Tambussi et al., 2005). *Crossvallia unienwillia* represents a primitive medium-sized penguin species very close to the rest of the Antarctic basal sphenisciforms. Its presence in the Late Paleocene of West Antarctica suggests the first appearance of breeding colonies in the area around 55 Ma.

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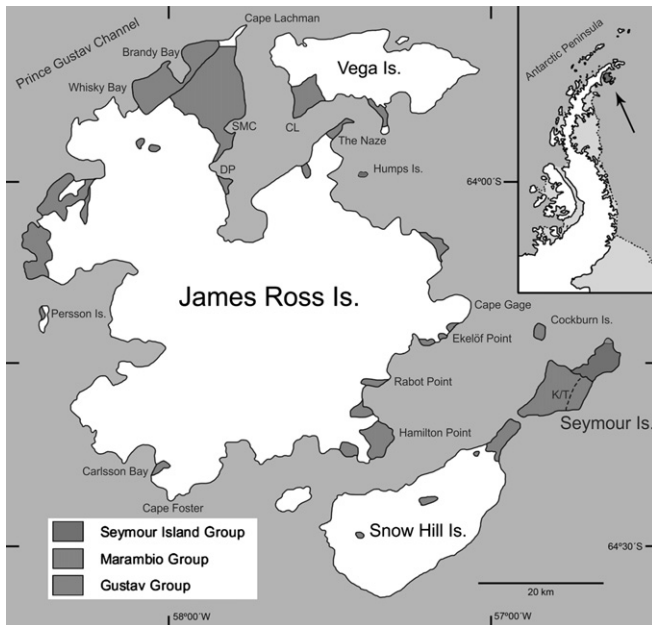


Fig. 1. Schematic geological map of the James Ross Basin, Weddell Sea, north-eastern Antarctic Peninsula. White areas are either the James Ross Volcanic Group or snow/ice cover. Locality key: DP, Drednought Point; BB, Brandy Bay; CL, Cape Lamb; SMC, Santa Marta Cove. Position of the Cretaceous-tertiary boundary on Seymour Island indicated by the symbol K/T.

Considering the significant amount of most likely co-existing (Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007; but see Jadwiszczak, 2008, 2009) species of the Eocene Antarctic penguins (Fig. 2), it is expected that Paleocene colonies were not mono-specific. These breeding colonies would have evolved into increasingly diverse fauna, resulting into fourteen species, grouped into seven genera (Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007; but see Jadwiszczak, 2008, 2009) which are represented by about 2500 isolated remains and three partially articulated specimens (Acosta Hospitaleche and Di Carlo, 2010; Acosta Hospitaleche and Reguero, 2010; Jadwiszczak, 2010, 2012).

The number of known Antarctic fossil sphenisciforms relatively varies from one in the late Paleocene Cross Valley Formation (Tambussi et al., 2005), one in the Valle de la Focas (according to Jadwiszczak, 2006), currently assigned to Ypresian Early Eocene age (although Montes et al., 2010 considered it Late Paleocene–Thanetian-); one in the Ypresian Acantilados Allomembers (Jadwiszczak, 2006; see also Jadwiszczak and Chapman, 2011), probably two in the Ypresian Campamento Allomember to eight species in the Ypresian *Cucullaea* I Allomember (Acosta Hospitaleche and Reguero, 2010; Reguero et al., 2013).

The first large-scale radiation of the sphenisciforms is documented in the Ypresian horizons of the *Cucullaea* I Allomember of Seymour Island (Early Eocene, ~49–52 Ma). The following eight species were identified: *Anthropornis nordenskjoldi* Wiman, 1905, *Anthropornis grandis* (Wiman, 1905), *Palaeudyptes gunnari* (Wiman, 1905), *Palaeudyptes klekowskii* Myrcha et al., 1990, *Delphinornis larseni* Wiman, 1905, *Mesetaornis polaris* Myrcha et al., 2002; *Marambiornis exilis* Myrcha et al., 2002, *Archaeospheniscus wimani* (Marples, 1953), whereas the presence of *Delphinornis arctowskii* Myrcha et al., 2002, and *Delphinornis gracilis* Myrcha et al., 2002 are dubiously identified (Myrcha et al., 2002; Tambussi et al., 2006; Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007).

Finally, the highest horizons of La Meseta Formation (Priabonian, Late Eocene, Submeseta Allomember, ~34–36 Ma) document the major taxonomic and body size diversity with 14 species

(Tambussi et al., 2006; see also Jadwiszczak and Mörs, 2011) co-occurring sympatrically. Discrepancies in the number of recognized species resulted from the questionable presence of *Archaeospheniscus lopdelli*, *Palaeudyptes antarctica* and two species of the genus *Tonniornis* in the Biozone of *Anthropornis nordenskjoldi* (Tambussi et al., 2006; Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007; Jadwiszczak, 2006).

This contribution analyze the taxonomic diversity and abundance of the Sphenisciformes of the La Meseta Formation, in a context of the evolutionary patterns of the group and the relationships with tectonic events, i.e. opening of the Drake Passage and the establishment of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC).

2. Material and methods

Antarctic fossil penguin specimens used in this study are housed at the División Paleontología Vertebrados, (DPV) of the Museo de La Plata (MLP), Argentina. Data published by Jadwiszczak (2006), Clarke et al. (2007, 2010), and Sallaberry et al. (2010) were also considered.

Systematic framework follows Tambussi et al., 2006, and Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007, while phylogenetic relationships are after Clarke et al. (2010), and Ksepka et al. (2006, 2012). Stratigraphic arrangement and facies analysis used here are according to Marenssi et al. (1998a, 1998b), and paleogeographic hypothesis is based on that by Eagles (2010).

The taxonomic diversity calculations utilized formulas proposed by Clarke and Warwick (1998) using past software, version 2.13 (2012) (Hammer et al., 2001). The analysis was based on a presence-absence data matrix (Appendix A).

3. Paleogeography and biogeography of the final breakup of Gondwana

The opening of the Drake Passage and the Tasman Rise diminished the main seaway that spread from eastern Australia, through western Antarctica and into southern South America (Lawver and Gahagan, 2003). Drake Passage (Fig. 3) is the narrowest part of a Cenozoic circum-Antarctic seaway and its presence is necessary for the existence of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC).

3.1. Opening of the Drake Passage and the establishment of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC)

The opening of the Drake Passage gateway is thought to have been an important event in the history of global oceanic and atmospheric circulation. It allowed for the free transfer of water masses between the Pacific and Atlantic oceans at mid to high southerly latitudes for the first time since the breakup of Gondwana. The timing and mode of the opening of the central Scotia Sea are still among the greatest uncertainties to understand the opening of the oceanic floor of the Drake Passage. Eagles et al. (2006) suggested that subsidence in the area of two small oceanic basins in the southern Scotia Sea (Dove Basin and Protector Basin) east of Drake Passage had been underway at ~50 Ma, producing a deepening of the rift that gave way to seafloor spreading in the Dove Basin by around 41 Ma. The spreading in the region of these two basins would have opened Drake Passage to shallow or intermediate depth oceanic circulation between the Pacific and Atlantic oceans for the first time.

Subsequent regional shallowing may be related to subduction-related processes that preceded back-arc extension in the East Scotia Sea. The presence of a fragment of Jurassic – Cretaceous ocean floor in the gateway implies that deep water connections through the Scotia Sea Basin complex may have been possible since

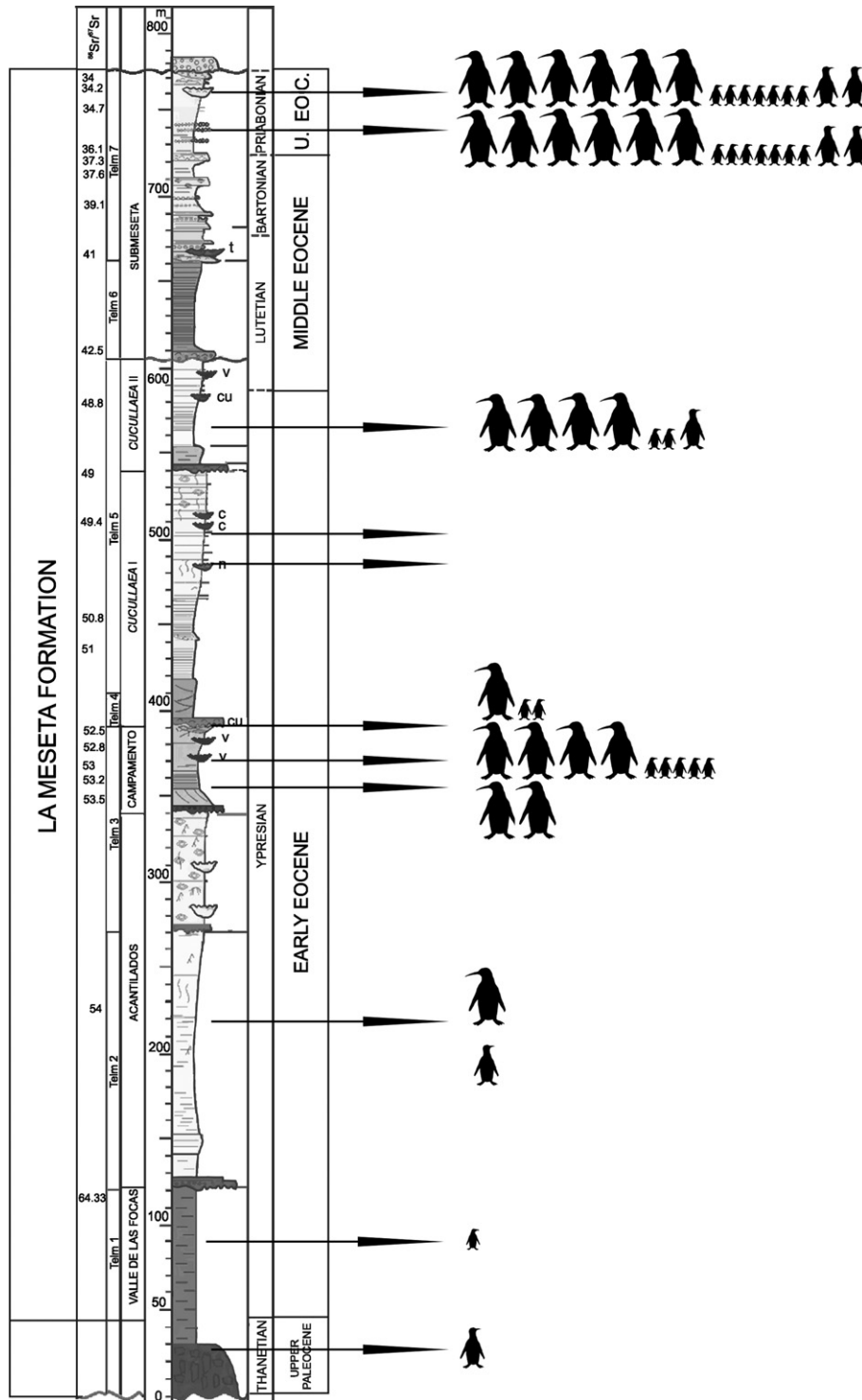


Fig. 2. Stratigraphical record of Seymour Island Sphenisciformes (Cross Valley and La Meseta Formations). Strontium date values from Dingle et al. (1998); Dutton et al., 2002; Reguero et al., 2002 and Ivany et al., 2008. Abbreviations: cu. *Cucullaea*, n. naticids, v. veneroids, and t. *Turritella*.

Eocene times when the continental tips of South America and the Antarctic Peninsula first passed each other.

The final Paleogene isolation of South America probably did not occur until a deep-water seaway developed between southern South America and the Antarctic Peninsula. This seaway was the main factor that helped to keep the ecological affinities of marine vertebrate assemblages along different areas of the Weddellian Biogeographic Province (Zinsmeister, 1979). Meanwhile, endemic

assemblages seem to be restricted to shallower waters, suggesting that these occurred as consequence of local biogeographic barriers. Opening of the Drake Passage gateway between the Pacific and Atlantic oceans has been linked in various ways to Cenozoic climate changes. All but one of the available constraints on the age of the central Scotia Sea is diagnostic of, or consistent with, a Mesozoic age. Comparison of tectonic and magnetic features on the seafloor with plate kinematic models shows that it is likely to have accreted



Fig. 3. The opening of the Drake Passage and the Scotia and Weddell Seas. AP, Antarctic Peninsula; CSS, central Scotia Sea; DP, Drake Passage; ESS, east Scotia Sea; MEB, Maurice Ewing Bank; PB, Protector Basin; Pow, Powell Basin; JB, Jane Basin; SAAR, South American–Antarctic ridge; SG, South Georgia; SST, South Sandwich Trench; TdF, Tierra del Fuego; WSR, west Scotia Ridge; WSS, west Scotia Sea.

to a mid-ocean ridge between the South American and Antarctic plates following their separation in Jurassic times.

3.2. Weddellian Biogeographic Province

By the Late Cretaceous, the Antarctic Peninsula and the remainder of West Antarctica are believed to be comprised of a number of discrete micro-continental blocks forming a single elongated landmass that extended southward from southern South America (Fig. 4). Since the early Cretaceous, the Antarctic Peninsula has been in its present position relative to South America, at almost the same paleolatitude (60–65°S) (Lawver et al., 1992), but became glaciated later: a cool but not glacial early Cenozoic Antarctic climate is widely accepted (see Dingle et al., 1998; Stilwell and Feldman, 2000; Dutton et al., 2002). Before that, the northern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula and southernmost South America (the Magellanic Region) were connected facilitating both floristic and faunal interchange (Olivero et al., 1991; Marensi et al., 1994; Shen, 1995; Reguero et al., 1998, 2002; Reguero and Marensi, 2010).

The Weddellian Zoogeographic Province, conceived by Zinsmeister (1979, 1982) on marine molluscan, echinoderm and arthropod faunas, is thought to be a cool temperate, shallow water region which extended from southern South America (the Magellanic Region in Chile, and Tierra del Fuego and Santa Cruz provinces

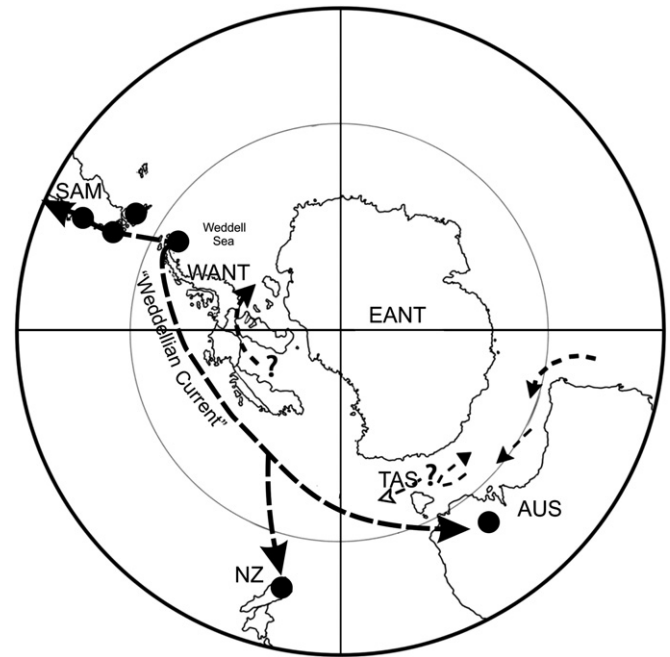


Fig. 4. Paleogeographic reconstruction of the southern continents (Gondwana) and the Weddellian province at 50 Ma (Ypresian) showing the probable dispersal of Weddellian Sphenisciformes (dotted lines and arrows). Black circles represent fossil localities discussed in the text.

in Argentina), along the Antarctic Peninsula and West Antarctica, to New Zealand, Tasmania and southeastern Australia (Fig. 4). Case (1988) expanded this concept to a “biogeographic province” with the inclusion of terrestrial plants and mammals. This province existed from the Late Cretaceous through the Eocene when Australia, Antarctica, and southernmost South America were in proximity (Zinsmeister, 1979, 1982; Woodburne and Zinsmeister, 1984).

Recent reconstructions of the Late Cretaceous palaeogeography of the southern hemisphere show a continuous landmass extending from South America to Australia (i.e., Lawver and Gahagan, 2003). During the Late Cretaceous, the western sector of Gondwana was apparently divided into a number of distinct tectonic units: South America, West Antarctica (comprised of the Antarctica Peninsula, Marie Byrd and Ellsworth lands); and Ellsworth and Whitmore mountains (Dalziel and Elliot, 1982). Woodburne and Case (1996) assumed that there may have been a terrestrial link between South America and Australia via Antarctica but it ended by 64 Ma when the South Tasman Rise submerged.

4. Geological setting and age constraints

The Paleogene succession in the James Ross Basin (del Valle et al., 1992) is part of the Paleocene to earliest Oligocene? Seymour Island Group, deposited in mid and inner-shelf settings in a back-arc basin associated with the Antarctic Peninsula magmatic arc to the west, and open to the Weddell Sea to the east (Hathway, 2000; Crame et al., 2004). The James Ross Basin was bounded to the west by coastal plains on the flanks of the Antarctic Peninsula with a shoreline trending approximately north–northeast to south–southwest. Major rivers brought sediment sourced from the Antarctic Peninsula into deltaic systems that accumulated siliciclastic deposits offshore (Zinsmeister, 1982; Pirrie, 1989; Scasso et al., 1991; Olivero et al., 1992; Hathway, 2000; Crame et al., 2004; Olivero et al., 2008).

The Paleogene section exposed mainly on Seymour Island includes the Late Paleocene unit Klb 10 of the López de Bertodano Formation, Sobral Formation, Cross Valley Formation and the richly fossiliferous early Eocene–earliest Oligocene? La Meseta Formation, all of them deposited in incised valley settings. The last two units, Cross Valley and La Meseta Formations, yield Weddellian sphenisciforms (Acosta Hospitaleche and Reguero, 2011; Reguero et al., 2013).

4.1. Cross Valley Formation

At its type section in the middle part of Seymour Island, the Cross Valley Formation (Elliot and Trautman, 1982) fills a steep-sided valley cut in the Lower Paleocene Sobral Formation and older beds. The width of the incised valley is 600 m at a maximum and the valley fill consists of more than 120 m of coarse sands and axial mass flow deposits overlain by some 40 m thick post-valley fill finer-grained beds. The base of this unit is a concave-up unconformity oriented in an NW–SE direction with steep, asymmetrical sides. The southern edge dips 45° towards the North while the northern margin plunges 35° to the South. The top of the unit is another unconformity at the base of the La Meseta Formation. The younger beds cut by the basal unconformity are dated as Danian while the oldest sediment covering these units are regarded Early Eocene. Dinoflagellates and pollen collected from the upper part of the Cross Valley Formation also suggest a Late Paleocene age for this unit (Askin, 1988; Wrenn and Hart, 1988).

The Cross Valley Formation has been divided into three informal allomembers (Marenssi et al., 2012). The Cross Valley A Allomember (lower Cerro Arañado Member) comprises coarse-grained pebbly volcanoclastic sandstones with carbonised wood (Tpcv1 and 2 of Sadler, 1988) and it is post-Danian in age due to its unconformable boundary with the underlying Sobral Formation. The medium to coarse-grained, bluff-forming volcanoclastic sandstones of the Cross Valley B Allomember (Wiman Member) transitionally covers the former and comprises Sadler's (1988) Tps5 unit, the "Wiman Formation" (Elliot and Hoffman, 1989) beds and the Tpcv 3–4, being dated as early Upper Paleocene (Askin, 1988). The upper The Cross Valley C Allomember (Bahía Pingüino Member) rests on an erosional surface draped with slide-blocks and covered with dark, homogeneous mudstones with scattered and poorly preserved marine fossil remains like shark and fish teeth, gastropods, bivalves and crinoids. The fossil penguin bones discussed in this paper were unearthed *in situ* from a single level few meters from the base of this unit. This lithofacies is in turn sharply overlain by an alternation of medium to fine-grained sandstones and mudstones containing few pieces of silicified tree trunks and well preserved plant-leaf fossils (Dusén, 1908) dated as Upper Paleocene. The lower part (Cross Valley A and B Allomembers) consisting of coarse-grained volcanoclastics are referred mainly to axial mass-flow deposits (Doktor et al., 1988; Elliot, 1995). The upper third (The Cross Valley C Allomember) made up of fine to very fine siliciclastic sandstones and mudstones represent sedimentation in very shallow marginal marine to transitional (deltaic) environments developed after most of the relief was subducted.

4.2. La Meseta Formation

The Early Eocene to earliest Oligocene? La Meseta Formation (Elliot and Trautman, 1982) in Seymour and Cockburn islands, close to the northern tip of the Antarctic Peninsula, Antarctica is an unconformity-bounded unit (La Meseta Alloformation of Marenssi et al., 1996, 1998a). This unit rests unconformably on either the Late Cretaceous López de Bertodano Formation or on the Paleocene

Sobral and Cross Valley Formations (Sadler, 1988; Porebski, 1995; Marenssi et al., 1998b).

The La Meseta Formation has a maximum composite thickness of 720 m filling up a 7 km wide valley cut down into the older sedimentary rocks of the island after the regional uplift and tilting of the Paleocene and Marambio Group beds. The La Meseta Formation comprises mostly poorly consolidated siliciclastic fine-grained sediments deposited in deltaic, estuarine and shallow marine environments as a part of a tectonically-controlled incised valley system (Marenssi, unpublished; Marenssi et al., 1998b; for an alternative interpretation see Porebski, 1995, 2000), which spans nearly all of the Eocene, and for some authors includes the Eocene–Oligocene boundary (Ivany et al., 2006). It is composed of sandstones and mudstones with interbedded shell-rich conglomerates. It was subdivided by Sadler (1988) into seven lithofacies units (Telm1–7), and posteriorly organized into six erosionally-based internal units, named from base to top Valle de Las Focas, Acantilados, Campamento, *Cucullaea* I, *Cucullaea* II and Submeseta Allomembers (Marenssi et al., 1998b). These units were deposited during the Eocene in deltaic, estuarine and shallow marine settings, mostly within a northwest–southeast trending valley (Marenssi et al., 1998a, 1998b).

5. Discussion

The evolutionary history of penguins was mostly marked by events of consecutive radiations and extinctions during the Paleogene in Antarctica, which explains the modern penguin diversity (Fig. 5).

5.1. Biogeographical implications for Weddellian Sphenisciformes distribution: evidence from stratigraphically calibrated phylogenetic analyses

Stratigraphically calibrated, specific-level phylogenies of Sphenisciformes have recently been published by Ksepka and Clarke (2010), Clarke et al. (2010) and Ksepka et al. (2012). These analyses provide a simple and straightforward directional explanation for the distribution of sphenisciformes through time, and are also highly consistent with stratigraphic ordering of the taxa. However, incompleteness of the fossil record reflected in these analyses is meaning that minimum divergence times must be established through the calculation of 'ghost lineages'.

These phylogenies reveal that important radiations of small and large Weddellian penguins took place during the Late Paleocene/Early Eocene in the Antarctic Peninsula. The Late Paleocene *Crossvallia unienwillia*, not included in the phylogenetic analyses of Ksepka and Clarke (2010), Clarke et al. (2010) or Ksepka et al. (2012), seems to have a significant role in the evolution of the Weddellian penguins. Derived features present in the crown group like 1) a more flattened humerus and 2) development of a trochlea for the tendon of *m. scapulotriceps* at the distal end of the humerus, are present in *Crossvallia* but absent in the Paleocene *Waimanu* spp. from New Zealand. Therefore *Crossvallia* would be more closely related to the crown group than the others Paleocene species. The Paleocene *Waimanu* spp. from New Zealand are placed as stem group by Ksepka and Clarke (2010), indicating that they might play an important role in the origin of the sphenisciformes clades. The most recent common ancestor of *Crossvallia* and living penguins (Spheniscidae) is thus inferred to be likely present by the late Paleocene in Antarctica.

Clarke et al. (2010) found the Weddellian *Palaeudyptes klekowskii* and *P. gunnari* to be part of an unresolved tetrachotomous clade (Clade X) that includes the New Zealand Burnside "*Palaeudyptes*" and the Peruvian *Inkayacu paracasensis* providing

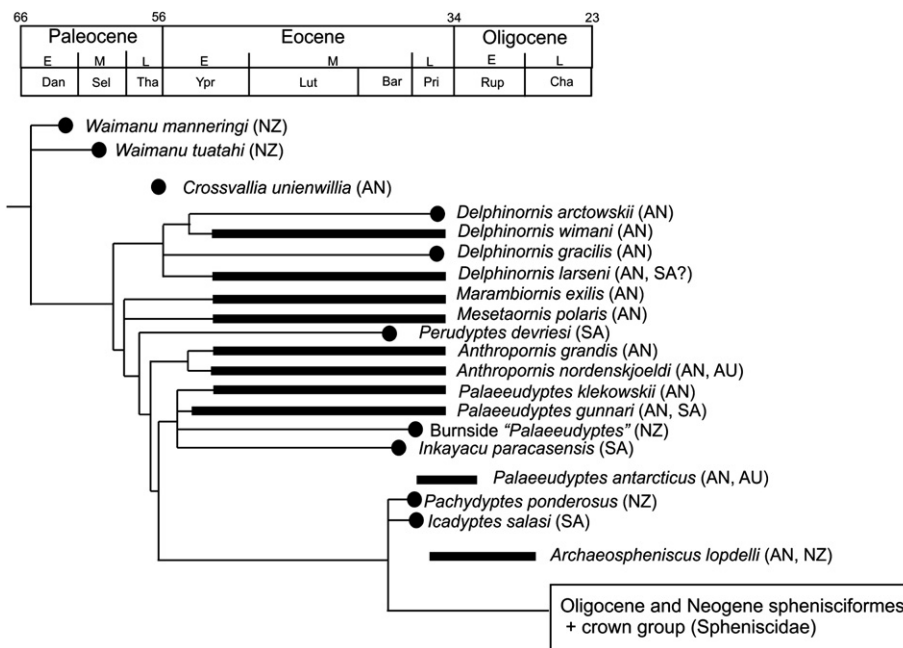


Fig. 5. Phylogeny of basal Sphenisciformes calibrated to the Paleogene stratigraphic record, Seymour Island, Antarctic Peninsula. Phylogeny redrawn and modified from Ksepka and Clarke (2010) and Clarke et al. (2010). Most penguins (14 species) from the La Meseta Formation, Seymour Island occur in Submeseta Allomember (Telm 7 of Sadler, 1988, 34.2–36.1 Ma), but a few species (8) have been reported from lower units (see Myrcha et al., 2002; Jadwyszczak, 2006), accounting for the extended ranges of *Delphinornis larseni*, *Anthropornis grandis*, and *Palaeudyptes gunnari*. Minimum estimated times that these taxa diverged from their older sister taxa are based on ghost lineages indicated by black horizontal lines. Geographical locality for fossil taxa is provided in parentheses following taxa names. Abbreviations: AN, Antarctica; AU, Australia; NZ, New Zealand and surrounding islands; SA, South America.

evidence for an Early Eocene giant penguin clade with a wide Southern Ocean distribution and for an early-stem penguin dispersal to low latitudes. Jadwyszczak (2011) opined that *Palaeudyptes gunnari* and *I. paracasensis* had been very closely related, by the possessing of (1) paired grooves meeting at the midline on the premaxilla, and (2) a distally tapering medial condyle and a tab-like process on the ventral surface on the femur.

Palaeudyptes is a key taxon with an important biogeographic significance in the group. It seems to be the most widespread Weddellian penguin genus in the Southern Hemisphere during the Eocene and probably the Oligocene. The FAD (First Appearance Datum) of *Palaeudyptes* is located within the Ypresian Campamento Allomember (52 Ma) (Tambussi and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2007; Acosta Hospitaleche and Reguero, 2010).

Early Eocene Sphenisciformes diversity supports several separate dispersals of Weddellian giant penguins from Antarctica to lower latitudes during greenhouse earth conditions: Australia (late Eocene, paleolatitude ~33°S, Jenkins, 1974), New Zealand (late Eocene/early Oligocene, paleolatitude ~45°S, Simpson, 1971), Argentina (middle Eocene, paleolatitude ~54°S, Clarke et al., 2003), Chile (middle to late Eocene, paleolatitude ~52°S, Sallaberry et al., 2010), and Peru (middle to late Eocene, paleolatitude ~14°S, Clarke et al., 2010).

By the Late Paleocene/Early Eocene at least nine Weddellian penguin species lived sympatrically in Seymour Island, Antarctic Peninsula (Fig. 1). *Palaeudyptes gunnari* and other fossil species indicate that the group attained the widest geographical distribution prior to the late Eocene (Clarke et al., 2003; Tambussi et al., 2005; Clarke et al., 2007, 2010; Sallaberry et al., 2010) indicating that a second early-stem penguin dispersal to low latitudes originated in the Antarctic Peninsula (Weddell Sea) region (Clarke et al., 2010).

Diversity analysis shows that penguin diversity peaks in the late Eocene, by which time these birds were taxonomically diverse

(Fig. 6), geographically widespread, and abundant at many localities (e.g., Marples, 1952; Myrcha et al., 2002). Currently, 14 diagnosable species are recognized from late Eocene deposits (see however Jadwyszczak, 2009), a total approaching modern global species-level diversity (16 species).

5.2. Ecological implications of the taxonomic and morphologic diversity

As far as we know, there are no cases in which 10 or 14 different seabird species coexist in the same coast (as the Eocene assemblages), or in neighboring breeding colonies. The *Anthropornis nordenskjöldi* biozone represents an ecologically interesting case (Tambussi et al., 2006). Two different ideas have been proposed in order to explain such high penguin diversity: (1) the time averaging of the deposits and (2) the overestimation in the number of species.

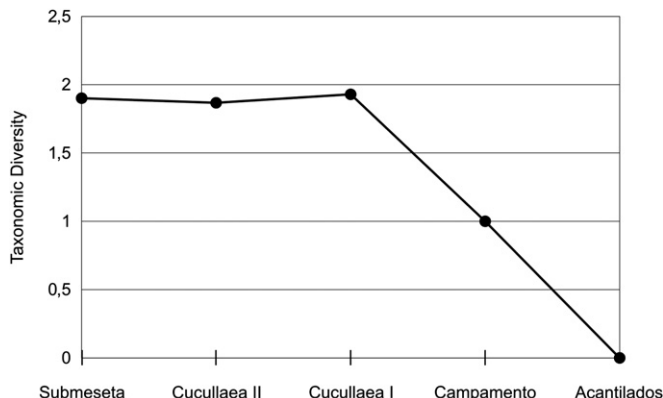


Fig. 6. Taxonomic diversity diagram.

Most if not all the remains recovered from the *Anthropornis nordenskjöldi* biozone (a part of the Submeseta Allomember) were transported at least for a short time before burial and therefore their accumulations represent paraautochthonous assemblages. However, time averaging is at a minimum and fossils are approximately contemporaneous with the entombing sediments (see Stilwell and Zinsmeister, 1992). Phosphatic inarticulate brachiopods (*Lingula* sp.) attached to some of the bones also support this idea (Tambussi et al., 2006 and references cited therein).

Regarding the overestimation in the number of species, Jadwiszczak and Mörs (2011) revised the morphological variation, and proposed a scheme that would reduce this number from fourteen to ten (still a high number of sympatric species). It is clear that the Eocene penguins of Seymour Island constitute an assemblage that has no modern analogues.

Among modern seabirds the presence of mixed-species colonies due to space limitations and the advantages in predator defense is widespread (Croxall and Prince, 1980; Frere et al., 2008). Pursuit-diving species avoid inter-specific competition that reduces foraging efficiency (Henkel, 2009) through ecological segregation. These strategies include species-specific differences in foraging areas (e.g., Croxall and Prince, 1980; Trivelpiece et al., 1987; Weimerskirch et al., 1993; Frere et al., 2008; Wilson, 2010), diving depths (e.g., Mori and Boyd, 2004; Wilson, 2010), diet choice (e.g., Baltz et al., 1979; Ridoux, 1994; Kato et al., 1996; Weiss et al., 2009), or diurnal foraging patterns (Wilson, 2010).

Another theory suggests that species foraging on the same prey could reduce competition and live sympatrically when their body sizes are different (Hutchinson, 1959) and consequently forage on preys of different sizes. It is certainly true for living assemblages (Spear and Ainley, 2007; but see also Wilson, 2010).

At least three cranium and mandible morphotypes were distinguished in the La Meseta Formation (Acosta Hospitaleche and Haidr, 2011; Haidr and Acosta Hospitaleche, 2012; see also Jadwiszczak, 2011; Ksepka and Bertelli, 2006). Besides, a wide spectrum of body sizes is present in the Biozone of *Anthropornis nordenskjöldi*, including birds smaller than the living little blue penguin *Eudyptula minor*, as well as giant penguins, largest than the Emperor penguin *Aptenodytes forsteri* (Jadwiszczak and Mörs, 2011).

Studies of living communities revealed that diving birds are flexible in their use of pelagic and benthic space according to differences in the conditions among years (Miller et al., 2009). This strategy about the variation in the use of space would support competition for resources when the number of sympatric species is not constant through the time. During Late Eocene, the number of sympatric species increases. In this sense, Masello et al., 2010 found that such flexibility is also encountered in response to small-scale habitat differences such as the presence of conspecific nearby colonies. Penguins from the same species develop strong differences in foraging areas, diving depth, time of foraging and prey choice, breeding in different colonies at the same island (Masello et al., 2010).

5.3. The opening of the Drake Passage and its implications for the dispersion of penguins

It is a common opinion that the distribution of living and fossil penguins is strongly linked to cool temperate waters. The origin of the Sphenisciformes was triggered by water-cooling resulting from the evolution of modern circulation patterns in the Southern Ocean. Presumably, temperature was an important factor driving evolutionary and ecological change at high latitudes during the Eocene, but it has not been clearly demonstrated. The northern Antarctic Peninsula experienced a very warm, wet, non-seasonal climate

during the early Eocene climatic optimum (EECO), which persisted until early Middle Eocene times (~47 Ma) (see Zachos et al., 2001). Temperatures thereafter became progressively cooler during a wet, strongly seasonal period in the middle Middle Eocene that lasted until ~42 Ma (Zachos et al., 2001).

In Seymour Island, given the uncertainty in strontium isotope age estimates within La Meseta Formation, it is likely that maximum temperatures near the base of the Campamento Allomember (= Telm 3 of Sadler, 1988) reflect the EECO. Strontium isotope ratios from Acantilados Allomember (= Telm 2 of Sadler, 1988) consistently yield age estimates of ca. 54 Ma (Ivany et al., 2008), indicating that the EECO (roughly 51–53 Ma; Zachos et al., 2001) should be encompassed within the La Meseta Formation. Maximum inferred temperatures in Campamento Allomember are ~15 °C, at least 4–5 °C warmer than earlier or later samples. The degree of warmth slightly exceeds that seen in the global deep-ocean record (Zachos et al., 2001).

Scher and Martin (2006) suggest that cooling immediately following the Middle Eocene Cooling (MECO) is coincident with the opening of the nascent Drake Passage, and that associated changes in circulation and productivity led to a drawdown of CO₂ that may have accelerated cooling and brought about the proposed transient middle Eocene glaciation. These authors utilized a rare earth element neodymium (Nd) contained in fish teeth extracted from deep sea cores taken in the south Atlantic Ocean between southern Africa and Queen Maud Land on the Antarctic craton to provide data on a deepwater opening of the Drake Passage. They suggested an influx of shallow Pacific seawater approximately at 41 Ma. Subsequent increases of values of Nd during the late Eocene most likely represent progressive widening and deepening of the gateway.

Livermore et al. (2005) proposed a shallow water opening (<1000 m deep) as early as 50 Ma based on tectonic evidence gathered from the Weddell Sea. They correlated the formation of new tectonic basins in the area that will later become the Scotia Arc and the northern Antarctic Peninsula, with a drop in southern ocean temperatures based on oxygen isotope data from benthic foraminifera to represent the initial shallow water opening between South America and Antarctica. Eagles et al. (2006) indicated that subsidence in the area of some small oceanic basins in the southern Scotia Sea east of Drake Passage, was underway at ~50 Ma, producing a deepening shallow- or intermediate-depth rift that gave way to seafloor spreading in the Dove Basin by around 41 Ma. Basin opening coincided with a sustained period of global cooling that started after the Ypresian (Early Eocene). With Drake Passage closed, the ocean transports heat southward by moving warm water poleward near the surface (Gill and Bryan, 1971). However, Mikolajewicz et al. (1993) concluded that their results offer only limited support for the idea that the opening of Drake Passage led to substantially colder conditions on and around Antarctica.

The Eocene/Oligocene transition boundary (EOB) was characterized by sharp climatic deterioration linked to the progressive separation of South America and Antarctica and the strengthening of the ACC (Kennett, 1977). The effect of these changes on the Antarctic marine fauna is unknown, but the disappearance (extinction?) of *Palaeudyptes gunnari*, together with several other Eocene Weddellian penguins, i.e., *Anthropornis nordenskjöldi*, broadly coincides with these events. The transition appears to have had ecological as well as taxonomic consequences. Aronson et al. (1997, 2007) and Aronson and Blake (2001) reported a change in the nature of predator-prey relationships at roughly the upper part of the *Cucullaea* II Allomember due to the appearance of dense populations of predation-sensitive, epifaunal suspension feeders.

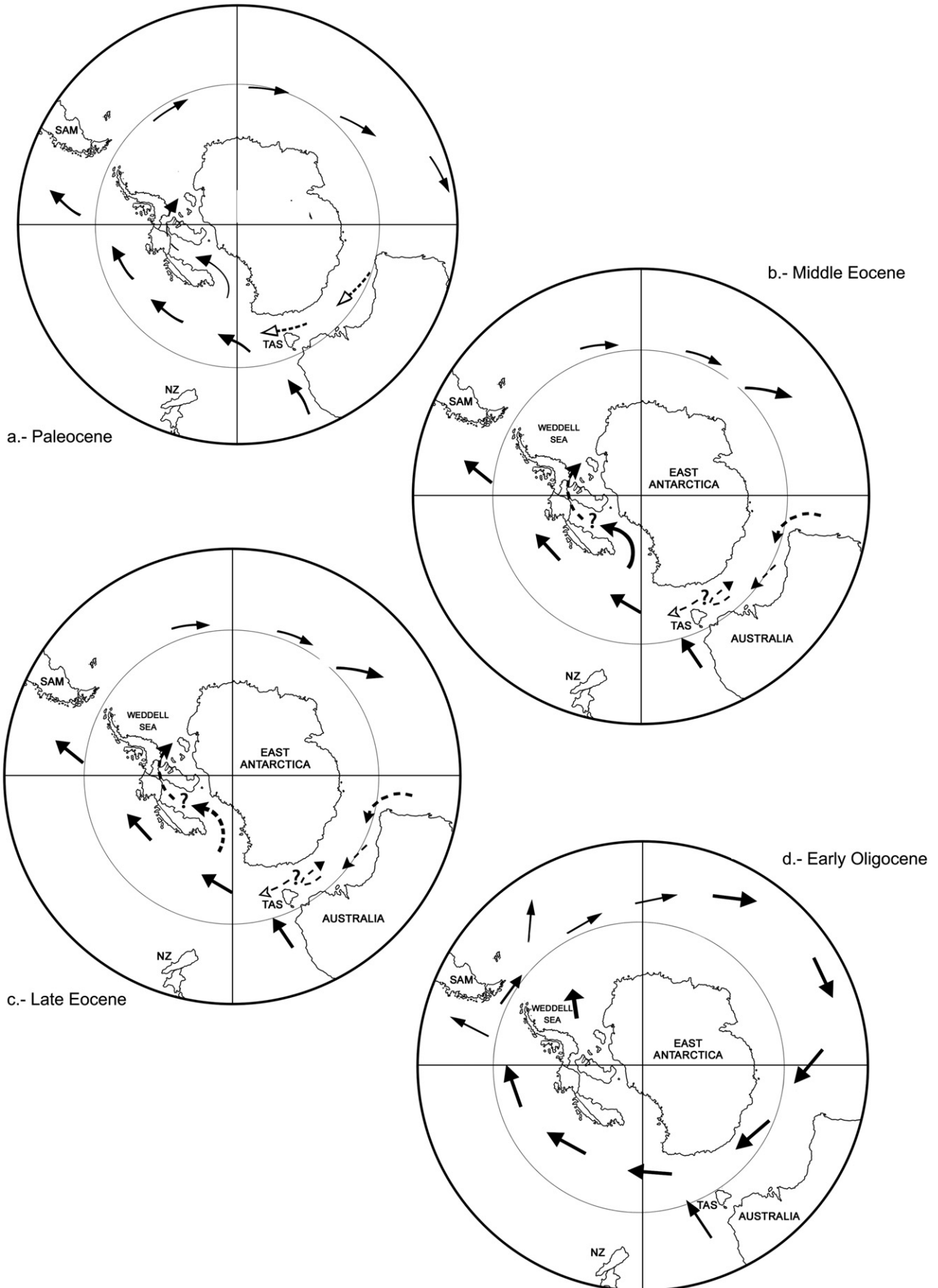


Fig. 7. Polar stereographic projection to 45°S of the southern ocean showing the Antarctic circulation in: a. Paleocene, b. Middle Eocene, c. Late Eocene, and e. Early Oligocene.

During the Eocene, notwithstanding that some circulation could exist in Drake Passage area (Wrenn and Hart, 1998), there was not a well developed Antarctic Circumpolar Current and consequently, and was never proposed the existence of the equivalent to Humboldt and Malvinas currents (Cione et al., 2007).

The Late Paleocene *Crossvallia unienwillia* predated the final break up between Antarctica and South America, the ACC had not developed. As a result of the separation of these two continents, a pronounced change in the oceanographic regime in the Southern Ocean occurred at about Middle Eocene time (Latimer and Filippelli, 2001). Models of ocean circulation help to explain the distribution of Paleogene marine vertebrate assemblages throughout the mid to high southern palaeolatitudes, and have implications for the refinement of Antarctic paleogeography at this time (Fig. 7). During the Eocene, the Pacific coast would have been located at paleo-latitude nearly equivalent present-day latitude, as there has been essentially no latitudinal translation of the area since the late Cretaceous.

Models of surface ocean currents indicate flow along the Antarctic margin from the southwestern corner of Australia into a gyre within the Weddell Sea; and this helps to explain the similarities in marine palynofloras from the Kerguelen Plateau, Maud Rise, the James Ross Basin and the South Georgia Basin. These Ocean Currents passing further north across the southern Atlantic from the Weddell Sea may have carried dinoflagellate cysts as far as the tip of South Africa (Davey, 1969, Figs. 4 and 7).

Cold-water upwelling along the western coast appears to have been in place by the Late Cretaceous or early Tertiary, and this “proto-Humboldt” current may have influenced the low-latitude penguin diversity by cycling cold, nutrient-rich water into the ecosystem (Clarke et al., 2007). Recent findings of a new sphenisciform in Peru (Clarke et al., 2010) suggest that *Palaeudyptes*, or some other closely related taxon, would have reached the coast of Peru during the Middle Eocene.

The presence of *Palaeudyptes* was reported in the Eocene of Chile (Sallaberry et al., 2010). Additionally, the discovery of a single partial skeleton of an undetermined sphenisciform from the Late Eocene of Leticia Formation, Tierra del Fuego (Clarke et al., 2003) has an important paleobiogeographic significance. Based on the content of marine invertebrates, Olivero and Malumián (1999) regarded this unit equivalent to the upper part of the La Meseta Formation, coincidentally with the *Anthropornis nordenskjöldi* Biozone (Late Eocene, Submeseta Allomember).

6. Conclusion

Our data suggest that the highest diversity (14 species) and geographical distribution (Antarctica, South America and Australasia) in the Late Eocene were linked to water-cooling events and the opening of the Drake Passage respectively (establishment of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current). However, the first divergences of the group are documented in the Early Eocene of La Meseta Formation (Jadwiszczak and Chapman, 2011; Reguero et al., 2013). This fact supports that a marine dispersion of the Weddellian penguins to other continents (South America, Australasia) occurred when there was a shallow and warm ocean current circulation (Weddellian Current) flowing along the western margin of West Antarctica and South America. The surface ocean current (Weddellian Current) gyre that is modeled flowing down the west of the Antarctic Peninsula, to New Zealand and back up to the western side of southern South America, suggests a direct oceanic link and provides a dispersal route for Weddellian sphenisciforms on the Pacific side of Antarctica (Figs. 4 and 7).

The phylogenetic analysis and the recent discoveries in the Eocene of Chile and Peru support the hypothesis that establishes one of the way for the dispersion of the Weddellian species from the Peninsula Antarctica was the Pacific coast during the early Eocene.

Appendix A. Presence-absence data matrix.

Species	Submeseta	Cucullaea		Campamento	Acanitilados
		II	I		
<i>Anthropornis nordenskjöldii</i>	1	1	1	1	0
<i>Anthropornis grandis</i>	1	1	1	1	0
<i>Palaeudyptes gunnarii</i>	1	1	1	0	1
<i>Palaeudyptes klekowskii</i>	1	1	1	0	0
<i>Palaeudyptes antarcticus</i>	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Delphinornis larsenii</i>	1	1	1	0	0
<i>Delphinornis arctowskii</i>	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Delphinornis gracilis</i>	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Mesetaornis polaris</i>	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Marambiornis exilis</i>	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Archaeospheniscus lopdelli</i>	1	1	0	0	0
<i>Archaeospheniscus wimani</i>	1	0	1	0	0
<i>Tonniornis mesetaensis</i>	1	0	0	0	0
<i>Tonniornis minimum</i>	1	0	0	0	0

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