Title: Genomic evidence for West Antarctic Ice Sheet collapse during the Last Interglacial Period

Authors: Sally C. Y. Lau[1,2*], Nerida G. Wilson[3,4,5], Nicholas R. Golledge[6], Tim R. Naish[6], Phillip C. Watts[7], Catarina N. S. Silva[1,8], Ira R. Cooke[9], A. Louise Allcock[10], Felix C. Mark[11], Katrin Linse[12], Jan M. Strugnell[1,2]

Affiliations:

[1]Centre for Sustainable Tropical Fisheries and Aquaculture and College of Science and Engineering, James Cook University; Townsville, Qld, Australia

[2]Securing Antarctica's Environmental Future, James Cook University, Townsville, Qld, Australia

[3]Collections & Research, Western Australian Museum; Welshpool, WA, Australia

[4]School of Biological Sciences, University of Western Australia; Perth, WA, Australia

[5]Securing Antarctica's Environmental Future, Western Australian Museum; Welshpool, WA, Australia

[6]Antarctic Research Centre, Victoria University of Wellington; Wellington, New Zealand

[7]Department of Biological and Environmental Science, University of Jyväskylä; Jyväskylä, Finland

[8]Nature Research Centre; Vilnius, Lithuania

[9]Centre for Tropical Bioinformatics and Molecular Biology, James Cook University; Townsville, Qld, Australia

[10]School of Natural Sciences and Ryan Institute, National University of Ireland Galway; Galway, Ireland

[11]Alfred Wegener Institute, Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research; Bremerhaven, Germany

[12]British Antarctic Survey; Cambridge, United Kingdom

*Corresponding author. Email: cheukying.lau@jcu.edu.au

Abstract:

The marine-based West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) is considered vulnerable to collapse under future climate trajectories and may even lie within the mitigated warming scenarios of 1.5–2 °C of the United Nations Paris Agreement. Knowledge of ice loss during similarly warm past climates, including the Last Interglacial period, when global sea levels were 5–10 m higher than today, and global average temperatures of 0.5–1.5 °C warmer, could resolve this uncertainty. Here we show, using a panel of genome-wide, single nucleotide polymorphisms of a circum-Antarctic octopus, persistent, historic signals of gene flow only possible with complete WAIS collapse. Our results provide the first empirical evidence that the tipping point of WAIS loss could be reached even under stringent climate mitigation scenarios.

One-Sentence Summary:

Historical gene flow in marine animals indicate the West Antarctic ice sheet collapsed during the Last Interglacial period.

41   Climate change continues to cause unprecedented warming to the Earth system (*1*). The

42   consequences of warming are leading to rapid changes in Antarctica, including Antarctic Ice

43   Sheet mass loss, with global impacts (*1*). A major uncertainty in global mean sea level (GMSL)

44   rise projections lies in the stability of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) (*2*). The marine-

45   based WAIS has lost 159 ± 8 gigatons of ice mass per year between 1979–2017 (*3*), and will

46   continue to be a major contributor to GMSL rise under all CO_2 emission scenarios (*4*). It is

47   unclear whether the WAIS is vulnerable to rapid ice loss or even full collapse, because of a poor

48   understanding of future changes and processes that influence ice sheet dynamics (*2*). A complete

49   WAIS collapse could raise global sea level by ~3.3–5 m (*5, 6*), with direct consequences that

50   include human displacement and global loss of ecosystems in coastal areas (*1*).

51

52   It is well understood from geological reconstructions that there were interglacial peaks (i.e.

53   super-interglacials) in periods of the Pleistocene that experienced warmer temperatures (+~0.5–

54   5.0 °C) and higher GMSL (+~5–20 m) than present (*4*). These super-interglacials include Marine

55   Isotope Stages (MIS) 31, 11 and 5e, which occurred at approximately ~1.08–1.05 Ma, ~424–395

56   ka and ~129–116 ka, respectively (*4*). During MIS 31, the average surface sea temperature (SST)

57   was $+5 \pm 1.2$ °C with GMSL ~20 m higher than present (*7*). During MIS 11, global mean surface

58   temperature (GMST) was 0.5 ± 1.6°C with GMSL 6–13 m higher than present, and similarly,

59   during MIS 5e (the Last Interglacial period), GMST was +0.5–1.5°C with GMSL 5–10 m higher

60   than present (*4*). To date, there is no empirical evidence to indicate if the WAIS has completely

61   collapsed at any time in the three million years since the Pliocene (*8*). Inferring WAIS

62   configurations during late Pleistocene super-interglacial periods could therefore inform the

63   sensitivity of Antarctic ice-sheet response to climate change. So far, analyses of ice proximal

64   marine drill core records show evidence of WAIS retreat during the late Pleistocene interglacials,

65   but the exact timing (*9*) and extent (*10*, *11*) of any WAIS collapse remain ambiguous. Existing

66   ice sheet models have yielded conflicting WAIS reconstructions during these periods, ranging

67   from no collapse (*12*), to partial (*13*) or full collapse (*14*, *15*). Knowledge about how the WAIS

68   was configured during super-interglacials in the geological past is urgently needed to constrain

69   future sea level rise projections (*2*). Novel approaches, such as population genomics, can serve as

70   empirical proxies of past changes to the Antarctic ice sheets, detected via signals of historic gene

71   flow among currently separated populations of marine organisms (*16*).

72

73   A complete past collapse of the WAIS would have opened the trans-West Antarctic seaways

74   linking the present-day Weddell Sea (WS), Amundsen Sea (AS) and Ross Sea (RS) (*16*). Such

75   seaways would have allowed marine benthic organisms to occupy and disperse across the opened

76   straits, thus leaving genetic signatures of this past connectivity in the genomes of their

77   descendent, extant populations (*16*) (hereafter seaway populations). As the WAIS reformed,

78   these organisms would be isolated again within the WS, AS and RS basins, with any subsequent

79   connectivity only possible around the continental margin. Although there is some support for

80   existence of trans-Antarctic seaways based on species assemblage data at macro-evolutionary

81   scales (*17–20*) or low-resolution genetic data (*21–24*), all these studies lack power and/or spatial

82   coverage to distinguish between past dispersal via trans-West Antarctic seaways or from

83   contemporary circumpolar ocean currents. Importantly, these previous studies cannot be used for

84   accurate demographic modelling to identify the likely timing of any collapse in the WAIS.

85

86   Collection of benthic species from the Southern Ocean is logistically challenging and regions

87   such as AS and East Antarctica (EA) are difficult to access. Existing samples are typically

88   characterised by DNA degradation due to long term storage in collections at room temperature.

4

89   Here, we used a target capture approach that sequenced genome-wide, single nucleotide

90   polymorphism (SNP) data in the circum-Antarctic benthic octopus, *Pareledone turqueti*,

91   incorporating rare samples from AS and EA, collected over 32 years. Our approach enabled a

92   comprehensive sampling strategy to robustly date and test for the presence of past trans-West

93   Antarctic seaways using biological data as proxies.

94

95   We sequenced genome-wide SNPs derived from double-digest restriction site-associated DNA

96   (ddRAD) (*25*) loci from 96 *P. turqueti* individuals collected from around the Southern Ocean

97   (Fig. 1A). The dataset presents a circum-Antarctic overview of the species genetic patterns,

98   which record the contemporary connectivity driven by oceanic currents, mainly the Antarctic

99   circumpolar current (ACC; clockwise) and the Antarctic Slope Current (ASC; counter-

100   clockwise) (Fig. 1A, B), as well as any historical connectivity that would be associated with past

101   trans-West Antarctic seaways. We used a reduced single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)

102   dataset (one SNP per locus) to analyse population structure, which included 5,188 unlinked

103   SNPs. The population genomic variation of *P. turqueti* is characterised by geographically-

104   structured populations across the Southern Ocean (Fig. 1C, fig. S1-S2), as expected for a marine

105   species with benthic crawling hatchlings. This makes it an appropriate species to test for the

106   presence of trans-West Antarctic seaways. Long-distance connectivity linking East and West

107   Antarctica, across the Antarctic continental shelf and Antarctic islands, is detected, likely

108   indicating dispersal that reflects contemporary circumpolar currents, as found in other Southern

109   Ocean benthic taxa (*26*). However, admixture is also observed between individuals from RS and

110   AS with some individuals from WS (Fig. 1C, fig. S1), indicating a potential signature of trans-

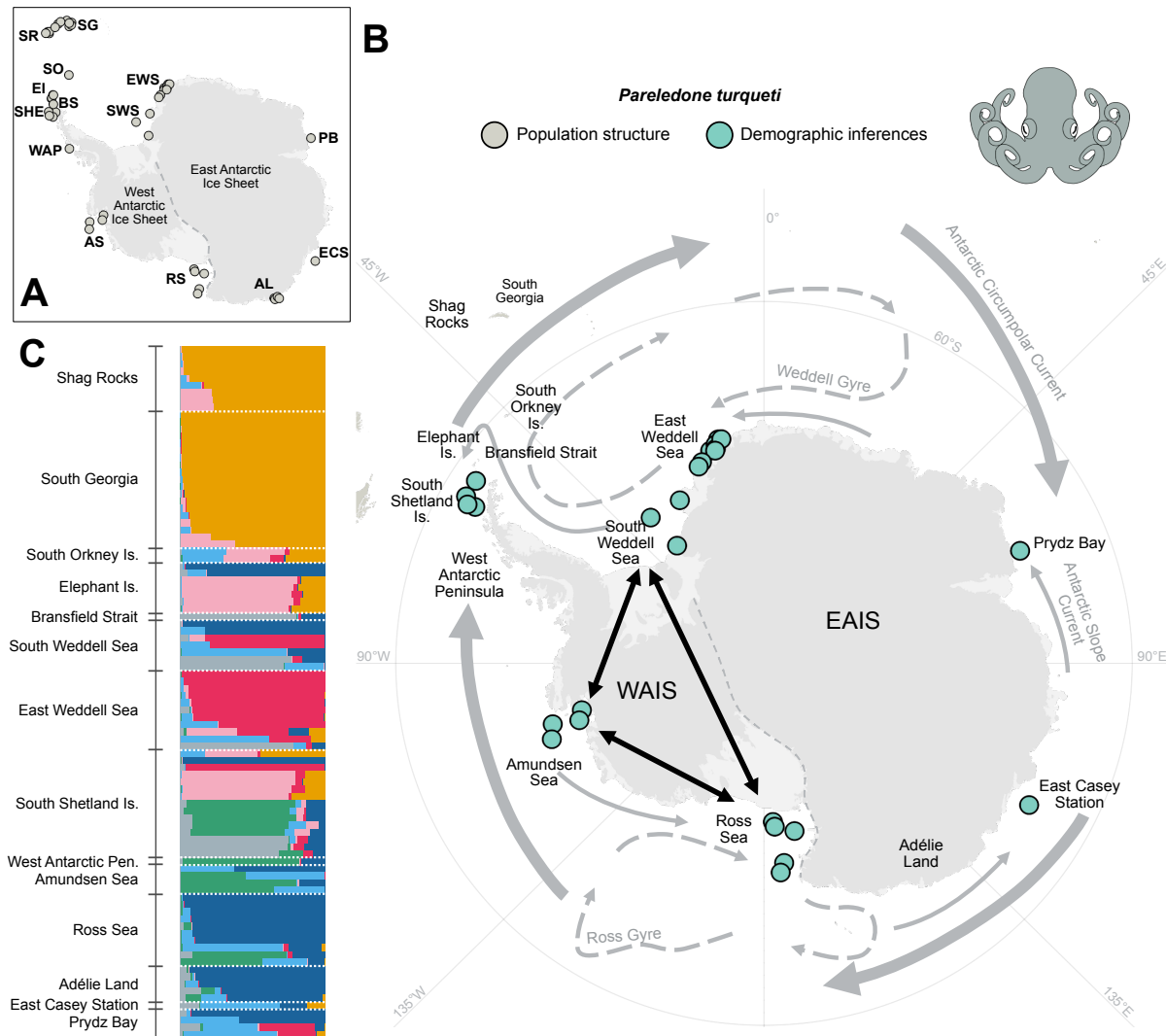111   West Antarctic seaways.

112

5

Fig. 1 Sample locations of *Pareledone turqueti* with *Structure* analyses. (**A**) Samples used for analyses of population structure. Abbreviations: Shag Rocks, SR; South Georgia, SG; South Orkney Is., SOI; Elephant Is., EI; Bransfield Strait, BS; South Shetland Is., SHE; West Antarctic Peninsula, WAP; South- and East- Weddell Sea, S-, E-WS; Amundsen Sea, AS; Ross Sea, RS; Adélie Land, AL; East Casey Station, ECS; Prydz Bay, PB; West Antarctic Ice Sheet, WAIS; East Antarctic Ice Sheet, EAIS. (**B**) Samples used for admixture analyses and demographic modelling (collectively demographic inferences) to test for the existence of trans-West Antarctic seaways. Map include the directionalities of the major contemporary circumpolar currents and regional currents in the Southern Ocean. Black arrows indicate connectivity pathways through trans-West Antarctic seaways that would result from WAIS collapse. Direct connectivity between WS-AS or AS-RS would indicate partial WAIS collapse, and direct connectivity between WS-AS-RS or WS-RS would indicate complete WAIS collapse. (**C**) Clustering analysis using *Structure* inferred $K = 7$ for *P. turqueti*. Each horizontal bar represents an individual sample, bars are grouped by geographical locations, colours within each bar correspond to the proportion of each genetic cluster in the individual.

130   Focusing on populations most informative of whether WAIS collapsed in the past, we first

131   examined whether there was distinct admixture between WS-AS-RS with respect to South

132   Shetland Islands (SHE) and East Antarctica (EA; including Prydz Bay and East Casey Station)

133   samples using 120,857 linked sites (i.e. all SNPs retained across loci) (Fig. 1B). SHE and EA are

134   known to be influenced by both the ACC and ASC (27), but are peripheral to the putative

135   historical trans-West Antarctic connectivity; thus these are ideal locations that can separate

136   patterns of present-day connectivity around the WAIS and East Antarctic Ice Sheet (EAIS) from

137   persistent, historical signals of gene flow.

138

139   We examined allele frequency correlations across WS, AS and RS with respect to SHE and EA.

140   The D-statistic (28) explores the patterns of alleles sharing across four populations to test for

141   evidence of admixture between populations of interest. The outgroup-f_3-statistic (29) explores

142   the amount of derived allele frequency that is shared between pairs of populations relative to an

143   outgroup population. The presence of admixture linked to trans-West Antarctic connectivity

144   would result in high f_3 values, and evidence of excess allele sharing ($D>0$), between WS-AS-RS.

145   In $P.\ turqueti$, the highest f_3 values are detected between AS–RS, followed by RS–EA and RS–

146   WS (Fig. 2A); indicating recent common ancestry across seaway populations, as well as between

147   RS and EA populations that are adjacent to each other. When SHE is treated as the sister lineage

148   to AS/RS and WS (D(AS/RS, SHE, WS, outgroup)), there is excess allele sharing between

149   AS/RS and WS (Fig. 2B). When EA is treated as sister lineage to AS/RS and WS (D(AS/RA,

150   EA, WS, outgroup)), excess allele sharing is also observed between AS/RS and WS (Fig. 2B).

151   These results confirm that, in $P.\ turqueti$, there are unexpected, and significant, allele frequency

152   correlations among AS-RS-WS, despite also considering the locations situated between them

153   around the WAIS (SHE) and EAIS (EA). Such observed admixture patterns are congruent with

7

154   historical seaway connectivity in a species that is characterised by geographically-structured
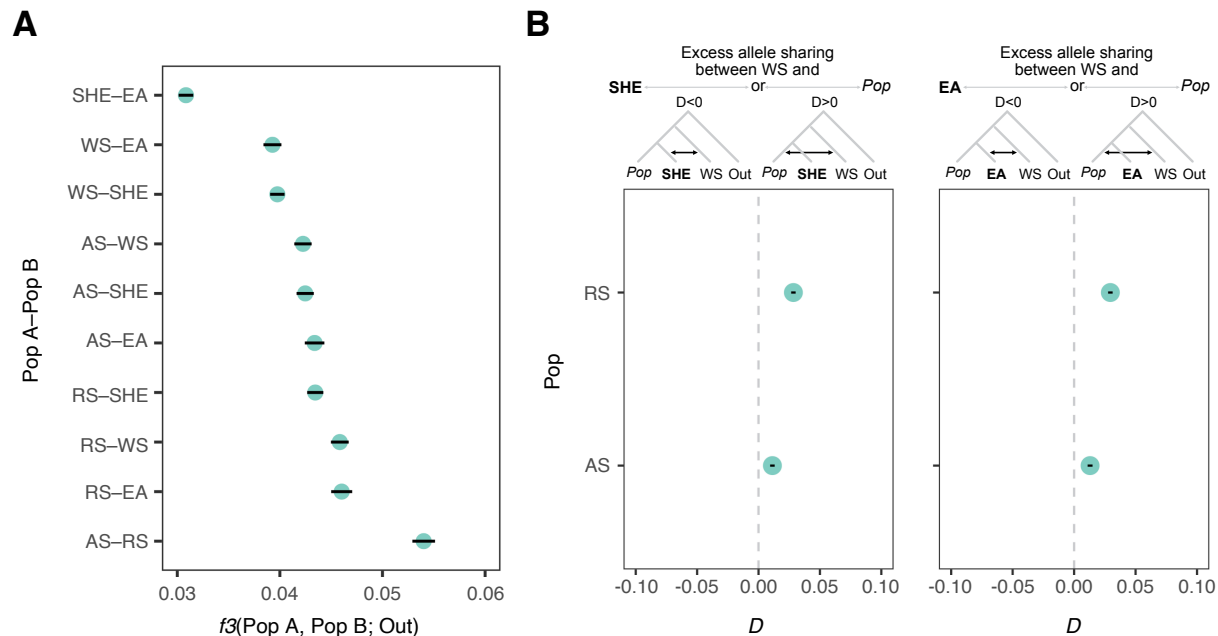
155   populations.

156

157

Fig. 2 Evidence of distinct allele frequency correlations between Amundsen Sea, Weddell Sea and Ross Sea, as well as contemporary gene flow in *Pareledone turqueti*. Error bars (black horizonal lines) = standard errors, filled circles = significant (Z-score values > 3 or < -3), Out = outgroup population, which includes Shag Rocks and South Georgia (samples combined). Abbreviations: Weddell Sea (WS), South Shetland Islands (SHE), Amundsen Sea (AS), Ross Sea (RS), East Antarctica (EA). (**A**) Outgroup-f_3-statistics between pairs of populations. As f_3 value increases, more derived allele frequency is shared between the pairs of population. (**B**) D-statistic (in the form of BABA-ABBA) examines patterns of alleles sharing across four populations, and indicates whether there is excess allele sharing between distinct populations. Left panel: D-statistic is presented in the form of D(Pop, SHE, WS, Out), which examines whether there is excess allele sharing between SHE and WS ($D<0$; ABBA) or Pop and WS ($D>0$; BABA). Right panel: D-statistic is presented in the form of D(Pop, EA, WS, Out), which examines whether there is excess allele sharing between EA and WS ($D<0$; ABBA) or Pop and WS ($D>0$; BABA).

8

172   A site-frequency-spectrum (SFS)-based, coalescent demographic modelling framework

173   (*fastsimcoal* (*30*)) was used to test the hypothesis of whether historical trans-Antarctic seaways

174   existed, with populations subsequently influenced by contemporary circumpolar gene flow. For

175   demographic modelling, we included samples from WS, AS, RS and EA with 189,248 linkage

176   disequilibrium (LD)-pruned sites across loci in *P. turqueti*. We employed a hierarchical approach

177   to test for WAIS collapse scenarios while incorporating modern circumpolar gene flow in the

178   models (fig. S3-S4). Step 1 compared contrasting scenarios of past WAIS configurations with

179   circumpolar gene flow following the directionality of the ACC (clockwise). The models

180   incorporated WS, EA, RS and AS experiencing continuous circumpolar gene flow since

181   population divergence. Under these scenarios, after population divergence, WS, AS, RS

182   experienced no, partial, or complete connectivity, followed by modern ACC gene flow linking

183   between WS, EA, RS and AS. In, step 2, model complexity was increased, with circumpolar

184   gene flow following both directionalities of the ACC and ASC (counter-clockwise) for all

185   scenarios.

186

187   The observed SFSs were statistically best explained by the scenario of a complete historical

188   WAIS collapse (Fig. 3A), followed by modern circumpolar gene flow linked to ACC and ASC.

189   The ancestral lineage of WS, AS, RS and EA populations experienced an expansion at 1.8 Mya

190   (95% confidence interval [CI] between 1.9–6.0 Mya) (Fig. 3A, table S1). Such CI range,

191   measured within one parameter that captures signals of ancestral demographic changes, likely

192   reflects noise from multiple scenarios that happened in the past. For example, based on

193   mitochondrial data (*23*), lower CI (1.9 Mya) corresponds to the previous estimated timing of the

194   diversification of the continental shelf clades, whereas the upper CI (6.0 Mya) corresponds to the

195   timing of species divergence. The signal of ancestral population growth detected in the

196   demographic model, as well as the evolutionary scenarios proposed, support demographic

197   change linked to range expansion across the Antarctic continental shelf. Then, at 70 ka (95% CI

198   between 68 and 265 ka), the best model supports WS, AS, RS and EA locations splitting into

199   four populations with direct asymmetric gene flow detected. Direct gene flow was detected from

200   RS to WS (n=3.76e^{-3} migrants per generation; 95% CI between 3.37e^{-5}–2) and WS to RS

201   (=1.58e^{-3} migrants per generation; 95% CI between 3.67e^{-6}–1); a direct historical connection was

202   detected between WS and RS. This suggests that an ancient seaway was likely once opened

203   across the WAIS, which directly linked the present day WS and RS. This could only be

204   facilitated by a complete WAIS collapse during an interglacial period, which we infer to have

205   occurred approximately between 68 and 265 ka (based on 95% CI; Fig. 3A), and which is in

206   accordance with MIS 5e, the most recent or Last Interglacial.

207

208   The time lag between the direct connectivity between RS and WS at 70 ka (value at maximum

209   likelihood) and the time of MIS 5e (129–116 ka) likely reflects the time it takes for complete

210   trans-West Antarctic migration to influence allele frequencies in a benthic direct developing

211   octopus. Finally, contemporary circumpolar gene flow began at 22 ka (95% CI between 28–196

212   ka), following the opposite directions as the ACC and ASC, which reflects how modern gene

213   flow in benthic taxa is influenced by ongoing circumpolar currents, in particular the ACC (*26*);

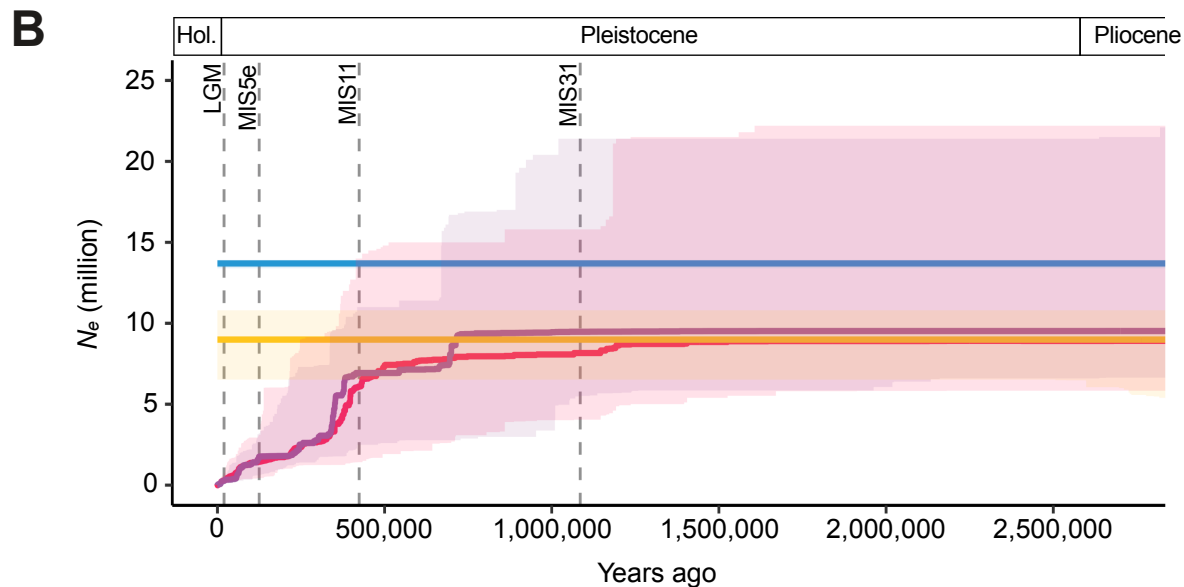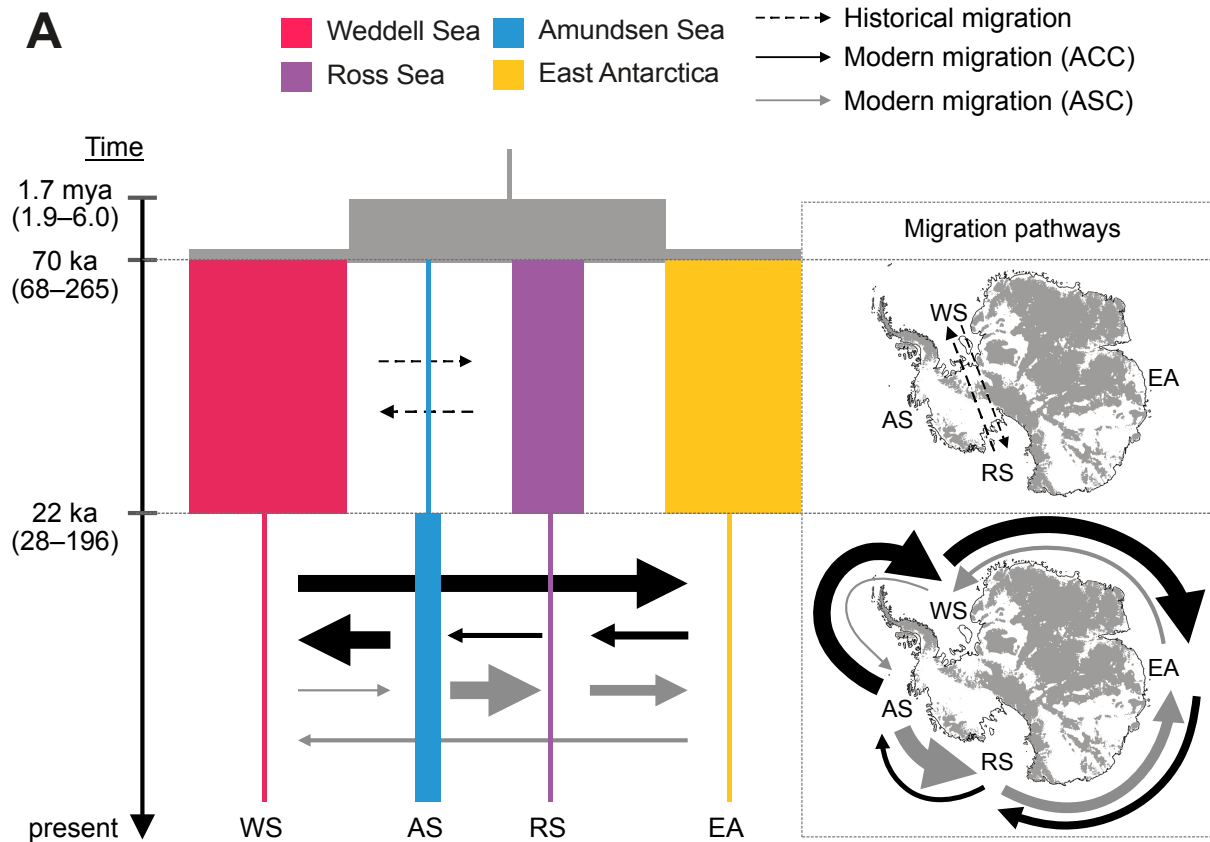214   which has been stable since the LGM (20 ka) (*31*).

215

Fig. 3 The best-supported demographic model for *Pareledone turqueti* indicated a complete historical West Antarctic Ice Sheet collapse scenario at Marine Isotope Stage (MIS) 5e, supplemented by a *StairwayPlot* which indicated past changes in population size. (A) Maximum likelihood model for *P. turqueti* including Amundsen Sea (AS), Ross Sea (RS), Weddell Sea (WS) and East Antarctica (EA) populations, shows direct historical gene flow (70–22 ka) between WS and RS, and modern gene flow (22–0 ka) following the directionality of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC; clockwise) and Antarctic Slope Current (ASC; counter-

11

224 clockwise). Maximised parameter estimates are visualised. The associated 95% confidence

225 intervals (CI) are in brackets and reported in Table S1. Time of the events modelled are shown

226 on the left. The width of the bars is proportional to the effective population size of the

227 population. Arrows indicate immigration (forward in time), with the width of the arrows

228 proportional to the number of immigrants received (2Nm). The migration pathways, based on

229 modelled migration directions (forward in time), are also visualised on a map of Antarctica. Map

230 shows sub-glacial bed elevation >0 m above present-day sea level and is extracted from

231 Bedmap2 (*32*). (**B**) *StairwayPlot* reconstruction of past changes in effective population size over

232 time in *P. turqueti* since species divergence. Dashed vertical lines represent timing of the Last

233 Glacial Maximum (LGM; ~20 ka), Marine Isotope Stage 5e (MIS 5e; ~125 ka), Marine Isotope

234 Stage 11 (MIS 11; ~424 ka) and Marine Isotope Stage 31 (MIS 31; ~1.08 mya). Abbreviation:

235 Holocene, Hol.

236

237 One of the biggest challenges of inferring demographic events in the late Pleistocene include

238 whether the species experienced a severe bottleneck (i.e. sharp reduction in N_e) in the recent past

239 that eroded genomic history. For example, if the WAIS had collapsed in the late Pleistocene,

240 large areas of newly ice-free habitats (where the WAIS existed previously) would have become

241 available for benthic fauna to disperse and colonise. During the subsequent glacial maximum, as

242 the AIS expanded across the Antarctic continental shelf, the marine shelf habitats would likely

243 be reduced to small, isolated pockets of *in situ* ice-free refugia (*33*). Such changes in habitat

244 availability would likely lead to severe population bottlenecks and subsequent genetic drift (*33*).

245 As a result, the presence of a severe recent bottleneck could lead to a loss of alleles and

246 potentially confound parameter scaling in demographic models (*30*).

247

248 We searched for signals of population size fluctuation prior to the LGM in *P. turqueti* using

249 *StairwayPlot* (*34*), an SFS-based model-free method. We found that the demographic changes

250 dated by *StairwayPlot* correspond with the dating of gene flow changes by *fastsimcoal*.

251 Throughout *P. turqueti*'s evolutionary history, pronounced demographic changes (in the form of

252 population size decline) were detected in the RS and WS populations at ~418–335 ka, ~125–55

12

ka, and ~20–0 ka. These timings coincide with MIS 11, MIS 5e and LGM, respectively. The

sharp population decline detected in RS and WS around MIS 11 and MIS 5e corresponds to the

hypothesised scenario that N_e would experience a dramatic bottleneck had the WAIS collapsed,

then reformed and expanded across the Antarctic continental shelf following the end of a super-

interglacial. The population decline detected in RS and WS around LGM also corresponds to the

widely-accepted hypothesis that there would be limited *in situ* ice-free refugia on the Antarctic

continental shelf during this period, leading to population bottlenecks in benthic species that only

survived on the shelf (*33*) (i.e. the case for *P. turqueti* (*23*)). Sharp bottlenecks also represent a

signal of fluctuations in population size at that time interval (*34*). These patterns suggest that

recent super-interglacials and the LGM likely strongly influenced species demography,

particularly in populations associated with the signatures of WAIS collapse.

Since the demographic modelling used in this study is based on the backward-facing coalescent

process, the best-supported demographic model was able to characterise major demographic

changes during the LGM and MIS 5e (the most recent timepoints). Estimation of past changes in

population size indicated AS and EA populations experienced stable populations over time,

while *fastsimcoal* indicated population size changes; such discordances are likely due to method-

specific sensitivity in populations with low sample size in regions that are challenging to collect

biological samples (n≤5 in AS and EA). Low sample size in AS also likely reduced the power of

demographic models to detect historical trans-West Antarctic connectivity between AS and

WS/RS, despite the apparent distinct allele frequency correlations detected between them.

Overall, the timing of demographic events detected by independent inferences corroborates the

timings of major glacial-interglacial fluctuations in the late Pleistocene, as well as events dated

using independent markers (mitochondrial data) (*23*). Therefore, the dating of WAIS collapse

13

277 during MIS 5e as seen through the genomic data of *P. turqueti* appears to be robust and

278 unconfounded by noise.

279

280 Our demographic modelling approach was specifically designed to test whether trans-West

281 Antarctic seaways existed in the past that could be detected with simple contrasting models. The

282 evolutionary history of *P. turqueti* is highly complex and populations would have experienced

283 unique demographic changes associated with each glacial-interglacial cycle throughout the

284 Quaternary. We utilised a target capture approach that can sequence reduced representation

285 genomic data in samples with DNA degradation. We did not sequentially reconstruct their past

286 changes in population size and connectivity patterns to avoid over-parameterisation in limited

287 SNP datasets. Regardless of the overall challenge of demographic modelling for Southern Ocean

288 species, signatures of a complete WAIS collapse, likely during the MIS 5e, were clearly

289 detectable in *P. turqueti*.

290

291 Here we provide empirical evidence indicating the WAIS collapsed during the Last Interglacial

292 period (MIS 5e), when global mean surface temperature was 0.5–1.5 °C warmer than the pre-

293 industrial. Currently, future WAIS collapse on centennial timescales is considered as a low

294 likelihood process (*4*). In recent trajectories estimated for temperature rise, such as for the most

295 optimistic emission scenario Shared Socio-economic Pathway (SSP) 1-1.9, the air temperature is

296 projected to reach +1.2–1.7 °C by 2100 (very likely range) (*4*), which is potentially within the

297 tipping point of future WAIS collapse. Future global sea level rise projections should consider

298 the potential feedbacks caused by collapse of the WAIS, which could lead to catastrophic GMSL

299 rise in the range of 3.3–5 m (*5, 6*) under relevant SSP scenarios (SSP1–5) (*35*). Accurate

14

300   predictions are necessary to ensure that better decisions are made regarding the socioeconomic,

301   demographic, institutional, and political policies of global coastal communities.

302

303   **References**

304 1.   IPCC, *Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to*
305   *the Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (Cambridge
306   University Press, Cambridge and New York, 2021).

307 2.   F. Pattyn, M. Morlighem, The uncertain future of the Antarctic Ice Sheet. *Science*. **367**, 1331–
308   1335 (2020).

309 3.   E. Rignot *et al.*, Four decades of Antarctic Ice Sheet mass balance from 1979–2017. *Proc. Natl.*
310   *Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **115**, 1095–1103 (2019).

311 4.   B. Fox-Kemper *et al.*, "Chapter 9: Ocean, cryosphere, and sea level change" in *Climate Change*
312   *2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Sixth Assessment*
313   *Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (Cambridge University Press,
314   Cambridge and New York, 2021).

315 5.   D. G. Vaughan, West Antarctic Ice Sheet collapse – the fall and rise of a paradigm. *Clim.*
316   *Change*. **91**, 65–79 (2008).

317 6.   J. L. Bamber, R. E. M. Riva, B. L. A. Vermeersen, A. M. Lebrocq, Reassessment of the potential
318   sea-level rise from a collapse of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet. *Science*. **324**, 901–903 (2009).

319 7.   C. Beltran *et al.*, Southern Ocean temperature records and ice-sheet models demonstrate rapid
320   Antarctic ice sheet retreat under low atmospheric CO2 during Marine Isotope Stage 31. *Quat.*
321   *Sci. Rev.* **228**, 106069 (2020).

322 8.   G. R. Grant *et al.*, The amplitude and origin of sea-level variability during the Pliocene epoch.
323   *Nature*. **574**, 237–241 (2019).

15

324 9.   R. P. Scherer *et al.*, Antarctic records of precession-paced insolation-driven warming during

325   early Pleistocene Marine Isotope Stage 31. *Geophys. Res. Lett*. **35**, L03505 (2008).

326 10.   R. McKay *et al.*, Pleistocene variability of Antarctic Ice Sheet extent in the Ross Embayment.

327   *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **34**, 93–112 (2012).

328 11.   T. Naish *et al.*, Obliquity-paced Pliocene West Antarctic ice sheet oscillations. *Nature*. **458**, 322–

329   328 (2009).

330 12.   M. D. Holloway *et al.*, Antarctic last interglacial isotope peak in response to sea ice retreat not

331   ice-sheet collapse. *Nature Communications*. **7**, 12293 (2016).

332 13.   N. R. Golledge *et al.*, Retreat of the Antarctic Ice Sheet During the Last Interglaciation and

333   Implications for Future Change. *Geophys. Res. Lett*. **48**, e2021GL094513 (2021).

334 14.   E. J. Steig *et al.*, Influence of West Antarctic Ice Sheet collapse on Antarctic surface climate.

335   *Geophys. Res. Lett*. **42**, 4862–4868 (2015).

336 15.   R. M. DeConto, D. Pollard, Contribution of Antarctica to past and future sea-level rise. *Nature*.

337   **531**, 591–597 (2016).

338 16.   J. M. Strugnell, J. B. Pedro, N. G. Wilson, Dating Antarctic ice sheet collapse: Proposing a

339   molecular genetic approach. *Quat. Sci. Rev*. **179**, 153–157 (2018).

340 17.   K. Linse, H. J. Griffiths, D. K. A. Barnes, A. Clarke, Biodiversity and biogeography of Antarctic

341   and sub-Antarctic Mollusca. *Deep-Sea Res. II: Top. Stud. Oceanogr*. **53**, 985–1008 (2006).

342 18.   D. K. A. Barnes, C. D. Hillenbrand, Faunal evidence for a late quaternary trans-Antarctic

343   seaway. *Glob. Chang. Biol*. **16**, 3297–3303 (2010).

344 19.   D. G. Vaughan, D. K. A. Barnes, P. T. Fretwell, R. G. Bingham, Potential seaways across West

345   Antarctica. *Geochemistry, Geophys. Geosystems*. **12**, Q10004 (2011).

346 20.   C. Moreau *et al.*, Is reproductive strategy a key factor in understanding the evolutionary history

347   of Southern Ocean Asteroidea (Echinodermata)? *Ecology and Evolution*. **9**, 8465–8478 (2019).

348 21. C. Held, J. W. Wägele, Cryptic speciation in the giant Antarctic isopod *Glyptonotus antarcticus*

349 (Isopoda, Valvifera, Chaetiliidae). *Sci. Mar*. **69**, 175–181 (2005).

350 22. K. Linse, T. Cope, A.-N. Lörz, C. Sands, Is the Scotia Sea a centre of Antarctic marine

351 diversification? Some evidence of cryptic speciation in the circum-Antarctic bivalve *Lissarca*

352 *notorcadensis* (Arcoidea: Philobryidae). *Pol. Biol*. **30**, 1059–1068 (2007).

353 23. J. M. Strugnell, P. C. Watts, P. J. Smith, A. L. Allcock, Persistent genetic signatures of historic

354 climatic events in an Antarctic octopus. *Mol. Ecol*. **21**, 2775–2787 (2012).

355 24. G. E. Collins *et al.*, Genetic diversity of soil invertebrates corroborates timing estimates for past

356 collapses of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A*. **36**, 22293–22302 (2020).

357 25. B. K. Peterson, J. N. Weber, E. H. Kay, H. S. Fisher, H. E. Hoekstra, Double Digest RADseq:

358 An Inexpensive Method for De Novo SNP Discovery and Genotyping in Model and Non-Model

359 Species. *PLoS One*. **7**, e37135 (2012).

360 26. A. Riesgo, S. Taboada, C. Avila, Evolutionary patterns in Antarctic marine invertebrates: An

361 update on molecular studies. *Mar. Genomics*. **23**, 1–13 (2015).

362 27. A. F. Thompson, A. L. Stewart, P. Spence, K. J. Heywood, The Antarctic Slope Current in a

363 Changing Climate. *Rev. Geophys*. **56**, 741–770 (2018).

364 28. E. Y. Durand, N. Patterson, D. Reich, M. Slatkin, Testing for ancient admixture between closely

365 related populations. *Mol. Biol. Evol*. **28**, 2239–2252 (2011).

366 29. M. Raghavan *et al.*, Upper Palaeolithic Siberian genome reveals dual ancestry of Native

367 Americans. *Nature*. **505**, 87–91 (2014).

368 30. L. Excoffier, I. Dupanloup, E. Huerta-Sánchez, V. C. Sousa, M. Foll, Robust Demographic

369 Inference from Genomic and SNP Data. *PLoS Genet*. **9**, e1003905 (2013).

17

370 31.   I. N. McCave, S. J. Crowhurst, G. Kuhn, C.-D. Hillenbrand, M. P. Meredith, Minimal change in

371   Antarctic Circumpolar Current flow speed between the last glacial and Holocene. *Nat. Geosci.* **7**,

372   113–116 (2014).

373 32.   P. Fretwell *et al.*, Bedmap2: improved ice bed, surface and thickness datasets for Antarctica. *The*

374   *Cryosphere*. **7**, 375–393 (2013).

375 33.   A. L. Allcock, J. M. Strugnell, Southern Ocean diversity: new paradigms from molecular

376   ecology. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* **27**, 520–528 (2012).

377 34.   X. Liu, Y.-X. Fu, Exploring Population Size Changes Using SNP Frequency Spectra. *Nat. Genet.*

378   **47**, 555–559 (2015).

379 35.   M. Meinshausen *et al.*, The shared socio-economic pathway (SSP) greenhouse gas

380   concentrations and their extensions to 2500. *Geosci. Model Dev.* **13**, 3571–3605 (2020).

381 36.   J. M. Strugnell, A. L. Allcock, P. C. Watts, Closely related octopus species show different spatial

382   genetic structures in response to the Antarctic seascape. *Ecol. Evol.* **7**, 8087–8099 (2017).

383 37.   J. M. Catchen, A. Amores, P. Hohenlohe, W. Cresko, J. H. Postlethwait, Stacks: Building and

384   Genotyping Loci De Novo From Short-Read Sequences. *G3: Genes Genomes Genet.* **1**, 171–182

385   (2011).

386 38.   S. Chen, Y. Zhou, Y. Chen, J. Gu, fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor. *Bioinform.*

387   **34**, i884–i890 (2018).

388 39.   D. E. Wood, S. L. Salzberg, Kraken: ultrafast metagenomic sequence classification using exact

389   alignments. *Genome Biol.* **15**, R46 (2014).

390 40.   S. Andrews, FastQC: A Quality Control tool for High Throughput Sequence Data. *Babraham*

391   *Institute* (2019).

392 41.   H. Li, R. Durbin, Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler transform.

393   *Bioinform.* **25**, 1754–1760 (2009).

18

394 42.   H. Li *et al.*, The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinform.* **25**, 2078–2079

395   (2009).

396 43.   Broad Institute, Picard Toolkit. *GitHub repository* (2019).

397 44.   H. Li, A statistical framework for SNP calling, mutation discovery, association mapping and

398   population genetical parameter estimation from sequencing data. *Bioinform.* **27**, 2987–2993

399   (2011).

400 45.   P. Danecek *et al.*, The variant call format and VCFtools. *Bioinform.* **27**, 2156–2158 (2011).

401 46.   J. K. Pritchard, M. Stephens, P. Donnelly, Inference of population structure using multilocus

402   genotype data. *Genetics*. **155**, 945–959 (2000).

403 47.   J. K. Pickrell, J. K. Pritchard, Inference of Population Splits and Mixtures from Genome-Wide

404   Allele Frequency Data. *PLoS Genetics*. **8**, e1002967 (2012).

405 48.   P. A. Hohenlohe, S. J. Amish, J. M. Catchen, F. W. Allendorf, G. Luikart, Next-generation RAD

406   sequencing identifies thousands of SNPs for assessing hybridization between rainbow and

407   westslope cutthroat trout. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **11**, 117–122 (2011).

408 49.   R. Gargiulo, T. Kull, M. F. Fay, Effective double-digest RAD sequencing and genotyping

409   despite large genome size. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **21**, 1037–1055 (2020).

410 50.   T. Jombart, I. Ahmed, adegenet 1.3-1: new tools for the analysis of genome-wide SNP data.

411   *Bioinform.* **27**, 3070–3071 (2011).

412 51.   N. Patterson *et al.*, Ancient Admixture in Human History. *Genetics*. **192**, 1065–1093 (2012).

413 52.   D. A. Marques, K. Lucek, V. C. Sousa, L. Excoffier, O. Seehausen, Admixture between old

414   lineages facilitated contemporary ecological speciation in Lake Constance stickleback. *Nat.*

415   *Commun.* **10**, 4240 (2019).

416 53.   X. Liu, Y.-X. Fu, Stairway Plot 2: demographic history inference with folded SNP frequency

417   spectra. *Genome Biol.* **21**, 280 (2020).

19

418 54. F. Pina-Martins, D. N. Silva, J. Fino, O. S. Paulo, Structure_threader: An improved method for

419   automation and parallelization of programs structure, fastStructure and MavericK on multicore

420   CPU systems. *Mol. Ecol. Resour.* **17**, e268–e274 (2017).

421 55. D. A. Earl, B. M. VonHoldt, STRUCTURE HARVESTER: a website and program for

422   visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. *Conserv. Genet.*

423   *Resour.* **4**, 359–361 (2012).

424 56. M. Petr, B. Vernot, J. Kelso, admixr-R package for reproducible analyses using ADMIXTOOLS.

425   *Bioinform.* **35**, 3194–3195 (2019).

426 57. R. Schwarz, U. Piatkowski, H. J. T. Hoving, Impact of environmental temperature on the

427   lifespan of octopods. *Mar. Ecol. Prog. Ser.* **605**, 151–164 (2018).

428 58. R. Schwarz, H.-J. Hoving, C. Noever, U. Piatkowski, Life histories of Antarctic incirrate

429   octopods (Cephalopoda: Octopoda). *PLoS One.* **14**, e0219694 (2019).

430 59. B. Robison, B. Seibel, J. Drazen, Deep-Sea Octopus (*Graneledone boreopacifica*) Conducts the

431   Longest-Known Egg-Brooding Period of Any Animal. *PLoS One.* **9**, e103437 (2014).

432 60. B. L. Whitelaw *et al.*, Adaptive venom evolution and toxicity in octopods is driven by extensive

433   novel gene formation, expansion, and loss. *Gigascience.* **9**, giaa120 (2020).

434 61. A. H. Patton *et al.*, Contemporary Demographic Reconstruction Methods Are Robust to Genome

435   Assembly Quality: A Case Study in Tasmanian Devils. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **36**, 2906–2921 (2019).

436 62. R. K. Bagley, V. C. Sousa, M. L. Niemiller, C. R. Linnen, History, geography and host use shape

437   genomewide patterns of genetic variation in the redheaded pine sawfly (*Neodiprion lecontei*).

438   *Mol. Ecol.* **26**, 1022–1044 (2017).

439 63. N. Marchi, F. Schlichta, L. Excoffier, Demographic inference. *Curr. Biol.* **31**, R276–R279

440   (2021).

441 64. P. Momigliano, A. B. Florin, J. Merilä, Biases in Demographic Modeling Affect Our

442 Understanding of Recent Divergence. *Mol. Biol. Evol*. **38**, 2967–2985 (2021).

443 65. J. Choin *et al.*, Genomic insights into population history and biological adaptation in Oceania.

444 *Nature*. **592**, 583–589 (2021).

445 66. T. R. Ranallo-Benavidez, K. S. Jaron, M. C. Schatz, GenomeScope 2.0 and Smudgeplot for

446 reference-free profiling of polyploid genomes. *Nat. Commun*. **11**, 1432 (2020).

447 67. M. Kolmogorov, J. Yuan, Y. Lin, P. A. Pevzner, Assembly of long, error-prone reads using

448 repeat graphs. *Nat. Biotechnol*. **37**, 540–546 (2019).

449 68. B. J. Walker *et al.*, Pilon: An Integrated Tool for Comprehensive Microbial Variant Detection

450 and Genome Assembly Improvement. *PLoS One*. **9**, e112963 (2014).

451 69. B. Langmead, S. L. Salzberg, Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat. Methods*. **9**, 357–

452 359 (2012).

453 70. C. A. Souza *et al.*, Efficiency of ddRAD target enriched sequencing across spiny rock lobster

454 species (Palinuridae: *Jasus*). *Sci. Rep*. **7**, 6781 (2017).

455 71. J. Catchen, P. A. Hohenlohe, S. Bassham, A. Amores, W. A. Cresko, Stacks: an analysis tool set

456 for population genomics. *Mol. Ecol.*. **22**, 3124–3140 (2013).

457 72. T. Andermann *et al.*, A Guide to Carrying Out a Phylogenomic Target Sequence Capture Project.

458 *Front. Genet.* **10**, 1407 (2020).

459 73. A. F. A. Smit, R. Hubley, P. Green, RepeatMasker Open-4.0 (2015) (available at

460 http://www.repeatmasker.org).

461 74. I. Zarrella *et al.*, The survey and reference assisted assembly of the Octopus vulgaris genome.

462 *Sci. Data.* **6**, 13 (2019).

22

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: NGW, NRG, TRN, JMS

Methodology: SCYL, NGW, CNSS, JMS

Investigation: SCYL

Formal Analysis: SCYL, IRC

Visualization: SCYL

Funding acquisition: SCYL, NGW, NRG, TRN, PCW, JMS

Resources: PCW, ALA, FCM, KL

Supervision: NGW, CNSS, JMS

Writing – original draft: SCYL

Writing – review & editing: SCYL, NGW, NRG, TRN, PCW, CNSS, IRC, ALA, FCM, KL, JMS

Competing interests:

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability:

The ddRADseq data of Southern Ocean octopus generated for target capture bait design is deposited on National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) under the BioProject PRJNA853080, with Sequence Read Archive (SRA) accessions SRR19893055–SRR19893494. The target capture of ddRAD loci data in *Pareledone turqueti* is deposited under the BioProject

23

505   PRJNA853871, with SRA accessions SRR19892485–SRR19892582. The draft partial genome

506   of *P. turqueti* is available for download from https://www.marine-omics.net/resources/. All

507   software used for data analyses in this study is publicly available. Detailed methods including

508   scripts and command used to perform all analyses are provided at

509   https://github.com/sallycylau/WAIS_turqueti.

510

511   **Supplementary Materials:**

512   Materials and Methods

513   Supplementary Text

514   Figs. S1 to S10

515   Tables S1 to S5

516   Data S1 to S2

517   References (*36–74*)