A high-resolution, 800-year glaciomarine record from Russkaya Gavan', a Novaya Zemlya fjord, eastern Barents Sea

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Abstract: Sediment core ASV-987 from Russkaya Gavan', a tidewater fjord on the northwestern coast of Novaya Zemlya, provides the first multicentury record of sedimentary and hydrographic glaciomarine environments in Russian Arctic with a century-scale resolution. Age is constrained by seven ¹⁴C ages securing an especially robust control for the period between *c*. AD 1370 and 1600. Based on sediment structure, grain size, depositional rates, foraminiferal assemblages and stable isotopes in foraminiferal tests, we reconstruct the changes in fjord sedimentation and circulation in relation to the history of a tidewater glacier connected to the main Novaya Zemlya ice complex. We conclude that a noticeable glacier advance occurred *c*. AD 1400, contemporaneous with a change in North Atlantic atmospheric circulation inferred from GISP-2 ion-contents data. A major glacier retreat from Russkaya Gavan' occurred by *c*. AD 1600, succeeded by low sedimentary inputs. Intervals with depleted stable isotopic values, including the core top, may indicate intensified glacier melting. Stronger melting in the 1900s is consistent with an increase in sedimentation rates.

Key words: Last millennium, glaciomarine, sedimentary record, tidewater fjord, Novaya Zemlya, Barents Sea, late Holocene.

26 Introduction

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Dramatic changes in climate, hydrography and sea-ice con-27 ditions were observed in the Arctic over the last two decades 28 (e.g., Parkinson et al., 1999; Rigor et al., 2000). These changes 29 30 prompt detailed investigation of the Arctic natural variability to evaluate the effect of global warming. Instrumental data 31 covering the period of 125 years indicate strong variability in 32 atmospheric and oceanic processes in the Arctic on a multi-33 decadal scale (Polyakov and Johnson, 2000; Polyakov et al., 34 2002), consistent with modelled and proxy results for the 35 Northern Hemisphere, which emphasize the role of the North 36 Atlantic in shaping the multidecadal variability (Delworth and 37 Mann, 2000). However, the evaluation of long-term changes 38 and the identification of feedbacks involved is limited by a 39 short period of instrumental observations and requires multi-40 century, high-resolution proxy records. This task is compli-41 cated in the Arctic by various factors, notably the paucity of 42 biogenic remains that could be used as palaeoenvironmental 43 44 proxies, as well as logistical constraints.

An important source of long-term, high-resolution sedimentary archives constitute glaciated fjords that combine high

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sedimentation rates with sensitivity to both glacial and oceano-47 graphic histories (e.g., Gilbert, 2000, and references therein). 48 Meanwhile, fjords in Eurasian Arctic except for its western 49 fringe are virtually unexplored. Notably, the indented coasts 50 of Novaya Zemlya (Figure 1) yield extensive glacimarine 51 archives of climatic changes in the Barents Sea region that is 52 characterized by pronounced atmospheric and oceanographic 53 gradients. In this paper, we present the first detailed palaeocli-54 matic time series from the eastern Barents Sea for the past c. 55 800 years, developed on a sediment core from Russkya 56 Gavan', a glacier-influenced fjord on the northwest Novaya 57 Zemlya coast (Figure 1). 58

Physiographic and oceanographic setting

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Russkaya Gavan' is a unique study site as it provides one of 61 the few meteorological archives (>60 years) for the eastern 62 Barents Sea. Moreover, the regime of Shokal'ski Glacier, 63 which drains into Russkaya Gavan' and connects to the main 64 Novaya Zemlya ice complex, has been repeatedly studied since 65 1933 (Chizhov *et al.*, 1968; Mikhaliov and Chizhov, 1970). 66 The ELA for this > 500 km² glacier is at ~400 m a.s.l., encom-67

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Figure 1 (a) Map of the Barents Sea with 300 m and 1000 m isobaths, minimal winter sea-ice margin (dotted line) and direction of Atlantic water flows (grey arrows) and winter cyclones (black arrows). (b) Index map of Russkaya Gavan' with bathymetry in 50 m intervals. Diamond north of glacier shows location of 14 C age from the moraine (Zeeberg, 2001). Lakt. Gl. = Loktionov Glacier. Thick line along the fjord and superimposed filled circles show location of sonar transect and hydrocast stations (Figure 2).

passing the 9 km length of the 100 m thick and 3 km wide outlet 68 to Russkaya Gavan'. The outlet is rich in morainic debris and 69 the estimated ice-flow speed near the front reaches 150 m/yr. A 70 second large glacier (Laktionov Glacier) terminates close to, 71 but not reaching, the fjord coast. Approximately 80% of 72 glacier mass loss in Russkaya Gavan' is estimated to be from 73 melting and the remainder from iceberg production. Most of 74 meltwater presumably enters the fjord from subglacial 75 channels. Summer temperature has a strong control on glacier 76 melting. In turn, snow/ice accumulation is strongly connected 77 with winter temperature, as winter precipitation on Novaya 78 Zemlya occurs predominantly at the fronts of warm North 79 Atlantic cyclones (Chizhov et al., 1968; Serreze et al., 1993). 80 Observational data imply that net mass balance of Shokal'ski 81 Glacier is approximately equally dependent on winter precipi-82 tation and summer melting. This conclusion is consistent with 83 indications that most Novaya Zemlya glaciers did not experi-84 ence significant changes in ice mass or in the position of 85 margins during the last century as present warming enhances 86 both winter accumulation and summer melting (Chizhov 87 88 et al., 1968; Zeeberg and Forman, 2000). Prior glacial advances 89 are indicated by the subbottom record of fjord sediments 90 (Figure 2). A fresh-looking moraine north of the outlet 91 glacier marks its latest advance beyond the present position (Figure 1). A ¹⁴C age obtained on a transported bivalve 92 93 shell from this moraine constrains its maximal age to AD 1300-1400 (Zeeberg, 2001). Given the morainic configuration, 94

we infer that the glacier front (grounded or floating) extended 95 into the fjord by several kilometres. 96

Winter temperatures at the western Novaya Zemlya coast 97 covary with inputs of Atlantic water that are largely controlled 98 by atmospheric circulation, notably the strength of the 99 Icelandic Low (Blindheim et al., 2000; Zeeberg and Forman, 100 2000). In contrast, summer temperatures on Novaya Zemlya 101 do not show any clear relationship with the Atlantic influence, 102 reflecting a more complex climatic pattern. Atlantic inputs and 103 related sea-ice condition strongly affect the hydrographic 104 regime in Russkaya Gavan', as illustrated by a correlation of 105 sea-ice melting time in the fjord with winter air temperatures 106 (Mikhaliov and Chizhov, 1970). The fjord hydrography 107 in summer is largely controlled by meltwater discharge. 108 Hydrocast data show high sediment load in meltwater over-109 and underflows within $>5 \,\mathrm{km}$ from the glacier terminus 110 (Figure 2). This, together with an increase in glaciomarine 111 sediment thickness towards the glacier, as indicated by sub-112 bottom sonar data (Figure 2), demonstrates that sedimen-113 tation in the fjord is largely controlled by glacial inputs. 114

Materials and methods

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Geological sampling, geophysical profiling and oceanographic measurements were performed in Russkaya Gavan' 117 in September 1997 and 1998 by R/Vs *Akademik Sergei Vavilov* 118



Figure 2 Transect along Russkaya Gavan' showing light transmissivity in water-column and 8.8 kHz subbottom sonar data (R/V *Ivan Petrov*, 1998) (Figure 1 for location). Light transmissivity (%, interpolated between the hydrocast profiles) is inversely proportional to suspended sediment load. Reflector a on the sonar profile separates Holocene glacimarine sediments from older (last glacial maximum?) glacigenic deposits. The ice-proximal glacimarine sedimentary wedge consists of three units separated by reflectors b and c, which may reflect the two major ice-front readvances, possibly including the event recorded in ASV-987 (reflector c).

Lab. no.	Depth in core (cm)	Material	Reported ¹⁴ C age BP	Calibrated age AD (1σ)	Med. prob. age AD
AA34305	41-44	Thyasira sp., Yoldiella sp.	post-bomb		
AA35039	175-180	Nuculana tenuis	795 ± 40	1538-1651	1592
AA39567	304-306	Thyasira sp., shell detr.	919 ± 40	1440-1527	1488
AA35038	399-401	Macoma sp.	990 ± 45	1394-1485	1434
AA39568	474-476	Macoma sp.	1068 ± 40	1333-1420	1377
GX-24917	559-561	Macoma sp.	1260 ± 40	1184-1291	1229
AA39569	584-586	shell detr.	1301 ± 40	1133-1263	1190

Table 1 AMS (accelerator mass spectrometry) ages. ¹⁴C ages were converted to calendar years using the CALIB 4.3 program, with $\Delta R = 85$ (see text) (AA = Arizona AMS Facility; GX = Geochron Laboratories)

(ASV) and Ivan Petrov, respectively. A 6m long gravity core 119 120 ASV-987 was collected from a silled basin in the central part 121 of the fjord (water depth 170 m) (Figure 1). The core was 122 described immediately after raising and sampled at 5 cm 123 intervals. Analytical studies included measurements of density and water content, magnetic susceptibility, grain size, total 124 organic carbon and carbonate contents, foraminifers, stable 125 isotopes in foraminiferal calcite, and clay minerals. Age 126 control was provided by seven AMS ¹⁴C datings on mollusc 127 shells (Table 1). Lithological and foraminiferal analyses were 128 performed at the Shirshov Institute of Oceanology; stable 129 isotopes were measured at the Woods Hole Oceanographic 130 Institution. 131

The content of coarse fractions ($> 50 \,\mu m$) was determined in 132 all samples by washing and sieving. The distribution of finer 133 fractions was analysed at 10-20 cm intervals applying 134 combined pipette and decantation method. Fraction >1 mm 135 was semi-quantitatively examined for rock fragments and 136 macrofaunal remains. Foraminifers were counted in the size 137 fraction 0.1-1 mm. Compositions of oxygen and carbon stable 138 isotopes (δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C) were simultaneously measured on 139 a Finnigan MAT-252 mass spectrometer in tests of benthic 140 141 foraminifer Elphidium excavatum forma clavata.



Figure 3 Calibrated ¹⁴C ages plotted against depth in ASV-987 (Table 1). Bars show 1σ calibrated age ranges. Black line shows linear interpolation between dated points (median probability cal. ages), grey line shows fourth-order polynomial fit. Post-bomb age is plotted as AD 1950.

Results

Chronostratigraphy

Mollusc shells measured for ¹⁴C belong to epifaunally feeding 144 species, which implies that they are unlikely to yield an abnor-145 mally high reservoir age of 800 + years that was demonstrated 146 for an infaunal genus Portlandia in Arctic fjords (Forman and 147 Polyak, 1997). However, the reservoir effect in glaciated fjords 148 may still exceed that in the open sea due to circulation impeded 149 by meltwater and to possible inputs of old CO₂. We tentatively 150 use an apparent local reservoir correction (ΔR) of 85 years 151 obtained on an epibenthic mollusc from another northern 152 Novaya Zemlya fjord, Krestovaya Bay (Forman and Polyak, 153 1997). We note that ASV-987 may require a higher correction, 154 because of a modern presence of tidewater glacier in Russkaya 155 Gavan' as opposed to Krestovaya Bay. In this case, corrected 156 ages used in the paper should be considered as maximal. 157

Calibrated ¹⁴C ages are spaced at 50 to 350 years and yield 158 1σ ranges of c. 100 years (Table 1; Figure 3). This data pro-159 vides a broad chronological control for ASV-987 on a century 160 scale. Obtaining a time series for the entire core may require 161 fitting the age-depth model; however, in glacier proximal areas, 162 where sedimentation rates are very changeable, it may be more 163 reasonable just to use linear interpolation between the dating 164 points (Andrews et al., 1999). In Figure 3 we compare linear 165 interpolation with a fourth-order polynomial model, which 166 was shown to be appropriate for sediment cores with an 167 amount of dates similar to ASV-987 and relatively even 168 sedimentation rates (Andrews and Giraudeau, 2003). This 169 comparison shows that the two approaches give similar results 170 between 175 and 475 cm (calibrated ages c. AD 1380 to 1600), 171 but differ noticeably near the core ends. Given the high 172 probability of variable sedimentation rates in a glaciated fjord 173 with fluctuating ice-front position, we use the linear inter-174 polation model, deeming it reliable for the middle part of the 175 record, but more tentative for the younger and the older parts. 176 The largest uncertainty is with the youngest, c. 400-yr section 177 that encompasses two lithological units. Unfortunately, this 178 sediment contains very little calcareous material suitable for 179 ¹⁴C dating. The age for this section is tentatively estimated 180 by interpolation between the dating of AD 1592, a post-bomb 181 age (AD 1950 as a maximal estimate), and a year of collection 182 1997 at the top. Resulting sedimentation rate at the core top is 183 consistent with estimates based on excess ²¹⁰Pb and ¹³⁷Cs data 184 that were obtained on a hermetically sealed short core collected 185 <1 km from the ASV-987 site (Zeeberg, 2001). 186

Lithology

Sediment in ASV-987 generally consists of olive-grey clayey mud with variable amounts of black iron-monosulphide mottles and interbeds. Bioturbation (mottling and homogeneous beds) and various laminations occur throughout the core in variable proportions. Based on the degree of 192

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lamination versus bioturbation, combined with the contents of 193 194 coarse grain-size fractions, we identify four major sedimentary 195 units, I-IV (Figure 4). Unit III, between 440 and 180 cm 196 (estimated c. AD 1400-1600), is distinguished from the rest of the core by distinct to diffuse, millimetre- to centimetre-197 scale lamination due to alternating blackish and olive-grey 198 laminae and high deposition rates of $\sim 2-3 \text{ g/cm}^2/\text{yr}$. Sedi-199 ment below and above this unit may have diffuse lamination 200 partially or completely disturbed by bioturbation. The lower 201 part of unit III (440-330 cm, c. AD 1400-1470), is coarsely 202 laminated with distinct black (0.5-5 cm) and grey (1-10 cm)203 interbeds. A second-order, thin, convolute lamination resem-204 bling bacterial mats occurs further up-unit within some dark 205 interbeds, especially common between 280 and 235 cm (c. AD 206 1500-1550). 207

Fine-silt to clay sediment fractions (<0.005 mm) predomi-208 nate throughout the core, ranging between 67 and 84%, with 209 finest pelites (<0.001 mm) constituting 40-60%. Unit III gen-210 erally has somewhat lower contents of fine fractions, 67-75%, 211 and elevated contents of silts (0.005-0.05 mm). Except for 212 several levels, coarser grains (>0.05 mm) do not comprise 213 more than 2%. Their numbers are generally higher in unit III 214 between 380 and 180 cm (Figure 4). Notably, the distinctly 215 laminated sediment (380-330 cm) is relatively enriched in the 216 coarse-silt to fine-sand fractions (0.05-0.1 mm) rising to 5% 217 near its top. Another characteristic feature of this interval is 218 that coarse clasts (>1 mm) are largely represented here by clay 219 220 pellets. The overlying sediment of unit III (330-180 cm) con-221 tains layers with the highest contents of >0.1 mm fractions. 222 Coarse clasts, mostly angular to subangular rock fragments reaching 13 mm, are especially abundant in the upper part of 223 this interval. Further upcore coarse clasts are less numerous 224 and rarely exceed 2 mm size. 225

Fossils

Unit IV shows frequent occurrence of macrobenthic remains 227 (mollusc shells and chitinous polychaete tubes). Their amounts 228 are noticeably lower and more variable in unit III, whereas 229 unit II is practically devoid of them and unit I contains 230 variable, mostly low numbers. 231

Benthic foraminifera in the core are almost exclusively 232 represented by calcareous tests with variable preservation 233 and numbers mostly below 10-20 per gram. Higher abun-234 dances occur in unit IV and at some levels in unit III. Further 235 upcore foraminiferal numbers are very low in unit II and 236 somewhat increase in unit I. Foraminiferal assemblages 237 throughout the core are low-diverse, predominated by 238 Elphidium excavatum forma clavata and Cassidulina reniforme, 239 comprising together >80% in most samples. These are com-240 mon species for Arctic continental shelves, including glaciated 241 fjords (e.g., Hald and Korsun, 1997; Korsun and Hald, 1998). 242 Patterns of their relative dominance are not well understood. 243 Among other species, Nonion labradoricum and Cibicides 244 lobatulus show interesting patterns with elevated frequencies 245 in units IV and II-I, respectively (Figure 4). Planktonic 246 foraminifera occur discontinuously in low numbers, most 247 frequently in unit IV. We assume that they were mostly 248 occasionally imported from the open sea by undercurrents 249 (cf. Elverhøi et al., 1980). 250

Stable isotopes

The δ^{18} O and δ^{13} C values in *E.excavatum* f. *clavata* tests 252 closely covary throughout the core (Figure 4), which indicates 253 the likelihood of a common control. Equilibrium calcite δ^{18} O 254 composition calculated from measured September water δ^{18} O 255 and temperatures shows consistent values of 4.3‰ (versus 256 PDB) for bottom water and as low as near 1‰ at the surface 257



Figure 4 Lithology and time series of major characteristics of ASV-987, temperature anomaly based on tree-ring data from the polar Urals (Briffa *et al.*, 1995; Briffa, 2000), and reconstructed Icelandic low intensity based on GISP-2 sea-salt Na data (Meeker and Mayewski, 2002; digital data courtesy of D.L. Meeker). ASV-987 characteristics shown are: mass accumulation rates (MAR, calculated using interpolated ages, density and water contents), coarse grain-size fractions, percentage of selected foraminiferal species, and stable isotopes. MAR is shown as dashed line for the insufficiently age-constrained interval. An outlier δ^{18} O value of 2.21‰ at *c*. AD 1825 is omitted. Stratigraphic unit numbers, IV–I, are shown left of the lithology column and unit boundaries are connected to the timescale. Age interval for unit III is highlighted.

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in the fjord interior. This depletion obviously results from high 258 259 meltwater component. The δ^{13} C composition of dissolved 260 inorganic carbon in glacial meltwater is also expected to be 261 depleted (Anderson et al., 1983). Therefore, we assume that the concerted depletion in stable isotopic values in the 262 sedimentary record primarily indicates enhanced glacial water 263 inputs to the fjord. Another factor affecting benthic stable 264 isotopic signature can be the intensity of brines, which help 265 deliver surface water to the bottom. Units IV and III are dis-266 tinguished by highly variable stable isotopic values, depleted 267 in both $\delta^{18}O$ and $\delta^{13}C$ at several levels between 440 and 268 300 cm (c. AD 1400-1500). The upper units shows three dis-269 tinct depletions including the core top. 270

271 Discussion

272 Sedimentary environments

Unit IV (estimated c. AD 1170-1400) is characterized by 273 relatively low sedimentation rates, moderate bioturbation, 274 generally low contents of coarse grain-size fractions, and 275 abundant foraminifers and macrofaunal remains. Foramin-276 iferal assemblages have elevated frequencies of Nonion 277 labradoricum indicative of relatively high primary productivity 278 (e.g., Korsun and Hald, 1998). We infer that these features 279 indicate a minimal influence of the tidewater glacier on 280 sedimentation in the fjord (cf., for example, Elverhøi et al., 281 282 1980; O Cofaigh and Dowdeswell, 2001), except for the middle 283 interval that has somewhat higher contents of coarse fractions 284 including grains >1 mm.

Sedimentation rates increased at least twofold sometime 285 between c. AD 1380 and 1435. We assume that this change 286 coincided with the commencement of distinct lamination and 287 the drop in abundance of macrofaunal remains at 440 cm 288 (transition to unit III). The combination of these changes 289 probably signifies an abrupt advance of the glacier front into 290 the fjord. This interpretation is corroborated by the ¹⁴C 291 date from the lateral moraine of the Shockal'ski Glacier 292 (Figure 1), that constrains the maximal age of the last major 293 glacial expansion to AD 1300-1400. It is possible that 294 295 Laktionov Glacier also extended to the fjord, which would 296 have augmented sediment inputs. The advancing glacier typically destabilizes the underlying sediment and generates 297 gravity and turbidity flows (e.g., Powell, 1990). This process 298 may be indicated by the coarse lamination of the lower interval 299 of unit III (c. AD 1400-1470), co-occurring with common clay 300 pellets in >1 mm fractions. The approaching glacier front 301 is also reflected in the upsection increase of silt to fine-sand 302 fractions (0.05-0.1 mm) within this interval, indicating a 303 more ice-proximal sedimentation from over/underflows (e.g., 304 Elverhøi et al., 1980). The concurrent decline in macrofaunal 305 remains could be related to excessive sediment fluxes and/ 306 or to a destructive effect of near-bottom turbidity flows on 307 benthic biota (Ó Cofaigh and Dowdeswell, 2001). The coarsen-308 ing of grain size is also reported for a broadly correlative inter-309 310 val in two more sediment cores collected in Russkaya Gavan' 311 in 1998 (Zeeberg, 2001).

Overlying sediments of unit III have more diffuse, finer 312 lamination, somewhat more abundant macrofaunal remains 313 and considerable amounts of coarse grains including rock 314 fragments > 10 mm in the upper part of the unit. We infer that 315 these features indicate a stabilization of the advanced, possibly 316 floating, ice front and its subsequent retreat with significant 317 iceberg calving. The lower part of this sediment, until c. AD 318 1500, is characterized by predominantly depleted stable 319 isotopic values indicating a strong effect of glacial meltwater. 320 321 The interval between c. AD 1500 and 1550 is distinguished by bacterial-mat type lamination and an increased content of 322 *N. labradoricum.* These characteristics possibly indicate enhanced primary productivity, which may have been triggered by 324 a retreat of glacier front and/or reduced sea-ice cover. 325

The transition to unit II is marked by a weakening of lami-326 nation and a drop in coarse-fraction contents. It is reasonable 327 to assume that the major decrease in sedimentation rates also 328 occurred at this boundary, dated to c. AD 1600. The drop in 329 overall sedimentation rates and in coarse fractions probably 330 indicates a major retreat of glacier front from the fjord 331 (e.g., Elverhøi et al., 1980; Powell, 1990). Isolated coarse-grain 332 spikes in unit II may reflect temporary readvances or periods 333 of intensified iceberg calving. However, we do not see any 334 persistent grain-size change that would signify a second major 335 glacier advance into the fjord, as suggested by Zeeberg et al. 336 (unpublished data). The unit III/II transition also features a 337 decline in macrobenthic remains combined with very low 338 foraminiferal numbers. This might indicate deteriorated 339 ecologic environments, such as prolonged sea-ice coverage. 340 Alternatively, diminished abundances of faunal remains may 341 largely result from taphonomic losses (decay and dissolution), 342 which typically intensify with decreasing sedimentation rates 343 and thus enhanced oxidation. The faunal remains become 344 more abundant in unit I, consistent with the estimated raise 345 in sedimentation rates towards the core top. Starting from 346 the middle of unit II foraminiferal assemblages feature 347 elevated percentages of Cibicides lobatulus, an epibenthic 348 species characteristic for agile, well-aerated water with low 349 sediment fluxes (e.g., Hald and Korsun, 1997). This change 350 may indicate reduced sediment inputs and/or an improved 351 water exchange with the open sea. Stable isotope values are 352 depleted at three intervals in units II-I, probably reflecting 353 the intensity of glacier melting and/or formation of brines. 354 Depleted for a for a piece δ^{18} O values at the core top appear to 355 be incompatible with normal-marine $\delta^{18}O$ composition 356 measured in bottom water in September 1998. A possible 357 explanation of this discrepancy is that the formation of for-358 aminiferal calcite is affected by brines that transport surficial, 359 δ^{18} O-depleted water to the fjord floor later in the fall. We note 360 that interpretation of sedimentary environments in units II-I 361 is impeded by a lack of detailed age control. It is possible that 362 the transition to unit I occurred at the time of a pronounced 363 climatic change at the turn of the twentieth century (e.g., Briffa 364 et al., 1995; Jones et al., 2001). In this case, sedimentation rates 365 were elevated throughout unit I, thus indicating enhanced 366 glacier melting. 367

Palaeoclimatic inferences

Palaeoclimatic and palaeoceanographic records from the 369 Barents Sea and glacier fluctuations on adjacent islands appear 370 to show similarities in the timing and magnitude of changes 371 during the Holocene (e.g., Svendsen and Mangerud, 1997; 372 Forman et al., 1999; Lubinski et al., 1999). The largest recent 373 glacier advances in the Barents Sea region and in Scandinavia 374 occurred within the last millennium and broadly coincided 375 with the widespread 'Little Ice Age' (LIA) cooling between c. 376 AD 1500 and 1900 (e.g., Matthews, 1991; Lubinski et al., 377 1999). This cooling is reflected in a $2 + ^{\circ}C$ summer temperature 378 drop indicated by a tree-ring record from polar Urals south-379 east of the Barents Sea (Briffa et al., 1995) and in extreme 380 southward migrations of sea ice documented in historical 381 records (Vinje, 1997). Subsequent recession characterized 382 many Arctic glaciers including those in the Barents Sea region 383 in the twentieth century and was probably controlled by a 384 summer temperature rise (Dowdeswell et al., 1997; Zeeberg 385 and Forman, 2000; Henderson, 2002). 386

The apparently weak effect of tidewater glacier on Russkaya 387 388 Gavan' prior to c. AD 1400 is in agreement with relatively mild 389 climate in the Northern Hemisphere at this time, known as 390 the 'Mediaeval Warm Period' (e.g., Jones et al., 2001). The 391 subsequent expansion of glaciers on Novaya Zemlya could be caused by the intensification of North Atlantic winter 392 cyclones (precipitation increase) and/or cooler summers 393 (melting decrease) (Chizhov et al., 1968; Zeeberg and Forman, 394 2000). We cannot conclude on the relative importance of these 395 controls but, as there are no indications of dramatically 396 decreasing summer temperatures around AD 1400 neither 397 locally (Figure 4; Briffa et al., 1995) nor hemispherically (Jones 398 et al., 2001), we believe that winter circulation was at least par-399 tially responsible for glacier advance in Russkaya Gavan'. This 400 inference is in line with a sharp change in ion contents in 401 GISP-2 ice-core record at c. AD 1400 indicating a stronger win-402 ter Icelandic Low (Figure 4; Meeker and Mayewski, 2002). 403 Glacier advances/surges occurred at about the same time on 404 Svalbard (Hald et al., 2001), in Franz Josef Land (Lubinski 405 et al., 1999) and in Scandinavia (Matthews, 1991), evidencing 406 a wide effect of atmospheric circulation changes on glacier 407 mass balance in the region. 408

Based on our interpretation of ASV-987 data, the glacier 409 front extended into Russkaya Gavan' to a maximal position 410 by c. AD 1470 and retreated close to c. AD 1600. The timing 411 of an advanced glacier position, generally corresponding to 412 the older portion of LIA, was marked by a significant lowering 413 of summer temperatures in the region, with minimal values 414 415 between c. AD 1520 and 1630 (Figure 4; Briffa et al., 1995). 416 ASV-987 data do not bear any evidence of major glacial 417 response to the late-LIA cooling in the 1800s (Figure 4; Briffa et al., 1995). However, very low sedimentation rates and 418 meagre faunal remains in unit II may indicate severe sea-ice 419 conditions during this time. Elevated sedimentation rates and 420 depleted stable isotope signatures near the core top indicate 421 the enhanced melting of Shokal'ski Glacier in recent times. 422 423 This is consistent with data on negative glacial mass balance and elevated temperatures in the Barents Sea region in the 424 twentieth century (Dowdeswell et al., 1997; Zeeberg and 425 Forman, 2000; Henderson, 2002). 426

427 Conclusions

Core ASV-987 provides a detailed 800+-year record of 428 sedimentary environments in Russkaya Gavan' fjord on 429 the northwestern coast of Novaya Zemlya. The record has 430 a century-scale resolution, well constrained between c. AD 431 1370 and 1600 and with a more tentative age model for the 432 older and younger parts. The middle section of the core, dated 433 to c. AD 1400-1600, stands out by high sedimentation rates, 434 consistent presence of laminated structures, and elevated 435 contents of coarse-grain fractions. It is interpreted to reflect 436 an expansion of the outlet glacier that feeds the fjord, con-437 sistent with the dating of a correlative moraine on land. The 438 439 likelihood of a region-wide expansion of glaciers around AD 440 1400 is corroborated by contemporaneous multiple glacier advances around the Barents Sea. We conclude that this event 441 was at least partially caused by the intensification of winter 442 atmospheric inputs from the North Atlantic. The glacier front 443 retreated from Russkaya Gavan' interior by c. AD 1600. The 444 overlying sediment is characterized by very low sedimentation 445 rates and meagre faunal remains, possibly reflecting prolonged 446 sea-ice coverage. The post-1600 AD section of the core features 447 three intervals with depleted benthic stable isotopic signature, 448 including the core top. These events probably reflect intensified 449 450 glacier melting and/or formation of brines in the fjord.

Together with the apparent increase in sedimentation rates, 451 the topmost stable isotopic depletion possibly demonstrates the 452 enhanced modern glacier melting. Our data exemplify 453 the sensitivity of Novaya Zemlya glaciers to climatic changes 454 in the Barents Sea region located at the crossroads of 455 Arctic-Atlantic interactions, and prompt further research of 456 palaeoclimate and palaeoceanographic records along the 457 western Novaya Zemlya coast. 458

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