Climate change threatens archeologically significant ice patches: insights into their age, internal structure, mass balance and climate sensitivity

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Abstract

Despite numerous spectacular archaeological discoveries worldwide related to melting ice patches and the emerging field of glacial archaeology, governing processes related to ice patch development during Holocene and their sensitivity to climate change are still largely unexplored. Here we present new results from an extensive 6-year (2009-2015) field experiment at Juvfonne ice patch in Jotunheimen in central southern Norway. Our results show that the ice patch existed continuously since the late Mesolithic period. Organic-rich layers and carbonaceous aerosols embedded in clear ice shows ages spanning from modern at the surface to ca. 6200-7600 cal. years BP at the bottom. This is the oldest dating of ice in mainland Norway. Moss mats appearing along the margin of Juvfonne in 2014 were covered by the expanding ice patch. The expanding ice patch covered moss mats appearing along the margin of Juvfonne in 2014 about 2000 years ago. During the study period, the mass balance record shows a strong negative balance, and the net balance is highly
asymmetric over short distances. Snow accumulation is poorly correlated with winter precipitation and single storm events may contribute significantly to the total winter balance. Snow accumulation is approx. 20% higher in the frontal area compared to the upper central part of the ice patch. The thermal regime in Juvfonne is similar to what is found close to the equilibrium line of nearby glaciers. There is sufficient melt water to bring the permeable snowpack to an isothermal state within a few weeks in early summer. Below the seasonal snowpack, temperatures are between -2 and -4°C, similar to the surrounding permafrost terrain. Juvfonne has clear ice stratification of isochronic origin. The cumulative deformation of ice over millennia could explain the observed curved layering in the basal parts of the ice patch, which makes it difficult to relate the present thickness to previous thickness of the ice patch. Ice deformation and surface processes (i.e. wind and melt water) may have caused significant displacement of artefacts from their original position. Thus, the dating and position of artefacts cannot be used directly to reconstruct previous ice patch extent. In the perspective of surface energy and mass balance, ice patches are in the transition zone between permafrost terrain and glaciers. Future research will need to carefully address this interaction to build reliable models.

1 Introduction

The emergence of glacial archaeology is described by Andrews and Mackay (2012) and Dixon et al. (2014). In archaeology, the term ‘glacial archaeology’ or ‘snow patch archaeology’ refers to several alpine contexts in different regions of the world (Callanan, 2010). The release of Ötzi’s 5300 year old body from the ice in northern Italy marked the beginning of a number of remarkable archaeological discoveries world-wide connected to melting ice and thawing permafrost in the high mountains (Spindler, 1994). Discoveries are known from the Alps (Grosjean et al., 2007; Suter et al., 2005), mummies in Greenland (Hansen et al., 1985) and the Andes Mountains (Ceruti, 2004), and from archaeological finds at retreating ice patches in North America (Brunswig, 2014; Dixon et al., 2005; Farnell et al., 2004; Hare et al., 2012; Lee, 2012; Meulendyk et al., 2012). When analysing the number of artefacts on a global scale during the Holocene, there is a negative correlation between periods of glacial advance and the number of artefacts. This is particularly the case in the Alps and North America (Reckin, 2013), but a similar pattern is also found in Norway (Nesje et al.,
The question is if this is caused by changes in climate dependent preservation conditions or decreased human use of these areas in periods of cold climate.

In Norway, there has been an increasing focus on ice patches since the extreme melting in southern Norway in the autumn of 2006. There are about 3000 known artefact finds globally from ice patches. Most of these have melted out during the last three decades. Approximately 2000 of these archaeological finds are in central southern Norway, making it by far the most find-rich region in the world (Curry, 2014, pers.comm. Lars Pilø).

Among the most spectacular finds is a Bronze Age leather shoe that melted out in late autumn 2006 and a well-preserved tunic dated between 230-390 (Common Era) CE (Finstad and Vedeler, 2008; Vedeler and Jørgensen, 2013). The shoe was dated to be around 3400 years old (1429-1257 Before Common Era (BCE)), and is by far the oldest shoe found in Norway.

Dates are given in calibrated ages (BCE/CE) including 1 sigma errors (σ) when referencing archaeological finds. Radiocarbon dates from ice patches are referenced as calibrated years Before Present (BP=1950CE) including 1 sigma errors (σ).

The geoscience of old ice patches is still in its infancy and the geoscience literature about ice patches is sparse compared to glacial archaeology. Within the glaciological community it is commonly differentiated between glaciers and snowfields and active or inactive ice (UNESCO, 1970). Snowfields may be seasonal or perennial. Seasonal snowfields melt during the summer. Perennial snowfields exist for two years or more. Smaller ice bodies without significant movement may be remnants of a past active glacier or a perennial snowfield and are commonly referred to as glacierets. In this paper, we use ice patch for perennial snowfields and glacierets. Ice patches are, in contrast to glaciers, mostly stagnant and therefore, do not convey mass from an accumulation towards an ablation area. In fact, ice patches often do not exhibit distinct glacier facies such as a firm area. In the wet-snow zone, the transformation of snow to ice is fast by metamorphism and refreezing of melt water. (Kawasaki et al., 1993). Ice patches and surrounding terrain are generally underlain by permafrost (Haeberli et al., 2004). There are few studies related to the thermal regime, mass balance and dynamics (Eveland et al., 2013; Fukui, 2003; Fukui and Iida, 2011; Sato et al., 1984). Fujita et al. (2010) concluded that they exist below the altitude of the regional equilibrium-line altitude (ELA) of glaciers. A study by Glazirin et al. (2004) showed that they can modify the nearby wind field. The mentioned studies have documented feedbacks between ice patch size and both summer ablation and winter snow accumulation. The spatial
variability of the turbulent fluxes in an alpine terrain is of particular interest to ice patches. Ice patches are influenced by advective heat transfer in summer (Essery et al., 2006; Mott et al., 2015; Pohl et al., 2006). The sensible heat flux is reported to be twice the net radiation input for melting snow (Morris, 1989).

Despite some progress in these studies, the state of knowledge is not at a level to design reliable models of how ice patches have developed during the Holocene and to evaluate their sensitivity to future climate changes. The main objective of this study is to help fill this knowledge gap—based on a 6-year field experiment at Juvfonne ice patch, located in Jotunheimen in central southern Norway (Fig. 1 and 2, 61.676°N, 8.354°E).

The overall objective of this study is to do an exploratory data analysis of field data to better understand the governing processes of ice patch mass balance and Holocene development. The long-term objective is to design reliable models of the growth and decline of ice patches in this alpine environment. One additional dimension in this research is the cooperation with the archaeologist to help them in their interpretation of finds and give them some advice regarding future development. A multi-disciplinary approach was chosen, combining a set of new geophysical data, radiocarbon dating, mass balance measurements and visual observations from two 30-70 m tunnels that were excavated into the central parts of the ice patch in order to better understand (1) the age, (2) the mass balance, (3) the thermal regime, (4) ice layering and deformation on Holocene time scale and finally (5) the physical processes relevant to artefact displacement and preservation.

2 Field site and physical setting

The presented research is based on a 6-year field experiment at Juvfonne ice patch, located in Jotunheimen in central southern Norway (Fig. 1 and 2, 61.676°N, 8.354°E). In this area, southern Norway the archaeologists have so far identified more than 65 sites with finds related to ice patches, but many sites with potential finds have not been checked in the field. The archaeological finds are related to reindeer hunting. The snowfields are an important refuge for the reindeers during hot summer days, giving them relief from pestering insects.

The focus of this study is the ice patch Juvfonne and the surrounding terrain (Fig. 1 and 2). This site is a well-preserved Iron Age hunting ‘station’ documented by more than 600 registered wooden artefacts and 50 hunting blinds. Radiocarbon dating of artefacts shows ages in two separate time intervals, 246-534 CE and 804-898 CE (Nesje et al., 2012).
geoscience studies at Juvfonne started in 2009 (Ødegård et al., 2011). Nesje et al. (2012) gave a comprehensive presentation and discussion of archaeological finds in central southern Norway related to Late Holocene climate history.

The width of the ice patch is approx. 500 m and upslope length 350 m. Juvfonne had an area of 0.15 km² and ranged in altitude from 1839 to 1993 m a.s.l. in 2010 (Andreassen, 2011). The mean surface slope is 17 degrees and the ice patch has a north-easterly aspect.

Due to snowdrift by prevailing westerly winds during the accumulation season, Juvfonne is below the regional temperature-precipitation equilibrium-line altitude (TP-ELA). Annual surface mass balance measurements have been conducted on three glaciers (since 1949 at Storbreen and 1962 at Hellstugubreen and Gråsubreen) in the Jotunheimen mountain region (Andreassen et al., 2005; Andreassen and Winswold, 2012). The ELA increases with distance from coast from 1780 m a.s.l. at Storbreen to 2150 m a.s.l. at Gråsubreen (Kjøllmoen et al., 2011). Except for a transient mass surplus from 1989-1995 due to increased winter precipitation in this period, the glaciers have lost mass. Map surveys and inventory data show a reduction in area of the glaciers in Jotunheimen of about 10 % from the 1960s to 2003 (Andreassen et al., 2008).

Juvfonne is well within the mountain permafrost zone. Present permafrost thicknesses at elevations where we find perennial ice patches (~> 1700 m a.s.l.) can be estimated to be more than 100 m. Observations of ground thermal regimes (Farbrot et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2009), bottom temperature of snow cover (BTS) (Farbrot et al., 2011; Isaksen et al., 2002; Ødegård, 1993) and geophysical surveys to delineate the altitudinal limit of the permafrost (Hauck et al., 2004; Isaksen et al., 2011) along with spatial numerical equilibrium and transient permafrost models (Gisnås et al., 2013; Gisnås et al., 2015; Hipp et al., 2012; Westermann et al., 2013) indicate a lower limit of permafrost at 1450-1600 m a.s.l. in the area.

Juvfonne is at a distance of 750 m and at the same altitude as the permafrost boreholes (the P30 and 31 Permafrost and Climate in Europe (PACE) boreholes) and climate monitoring site at Juvvasshøe (Sollid et al., 2000)(see Fig. 2). The site has a record of ground temperatures and meteorological observations since September 1999. Mean annual air temperature for the period 2000-2015 is ~3.5 °C. At 15 m depth, the permafrost temperature ranges from a minimum of -3.1 °C in 1999 to a maximum of -2.5°C recorded in 2008. The active layer thickness has varied between 2.0 and 2.4 m and permafrost thickness is estimated to exceed
300 m (Isaksen et al., 2011). In 2008, an altitudinal transect of permafrost boreholes and adjacent air temperature sensors were installed at three sites ranging from shallow seasonal frost to permafrost (Farbrot et al. 2013).

For the period 1961-1990, the mean annual precipitation is estimated to be between 800 mm a⁻¹ and 1000 mm a⁻¹ at 1900 m a.s.l. (Norwegian Meteorological Institute, unpublished data).

Results of analysis from sediment cores in the nearby Juvvatnet was used to reconstruct the glacier activity of Kjelebrea and Vesljuvbrea (Nesje et al., 2012) following the methodology described by Bakke et al. (2010). The results indicate that the late Holocene variations of these glaciers are largely in agreement with size variations of other glaciers in the Jotunheimen area (Matthews and Dresser, 2008; Nesje, 2009). Lichenometry suggests that the margin of Juvfonne extended ~250 m from its present position during the ’Little Ice Age‘ (LIA) maximum extent in the mid-18th century (Nesje et al., 2012).

3 Methods

3.1 Georadar

The ice patch was surveyed by a RAMAC georadar 23 September 2009 and 1 March 2012, using a high frequency antenna of 250-400 MHz. The dielectric constant of ice was set to be 3.2, giving a phase velocity of 168 m μs⁻¹. Georadar data and positioning data from the Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) were manually digitized to obtain a point dataset of ice thickness and bed topography. The point datasets were interpolated to get an ice thickness map and a digital terrain model (DTM) of the ice patch bed. Obvious artefacts caused by the interpolation technique were manually removed. A total of 40 independent control points gave an estimated standard deviation of 1.1 m, and a maximum error of 2.6 m. The control points were obtained by point measurements (GNSS) in the recently exposed area.

3.2 Laser scanning

The ice patch and surrounding terrain was scanned with an air-borne laser (Leica ALS70) on 17 September 2011. The company COWI AS, on assignment from Norwegian Water
Resources and Energy Directorate, carried out the laser scanning and the processing of the data. The flight altitude was 10100-11800 feet (3078-3597 m a.s.l.). The area was scanned with 5 points m\(^2\). Quality controls and accuracy assessments revealed accuracy better than 0.1 m in surface elevation. Aerial photos were taken on the same day. These data were used to produce a high quality DTM and orthophotos of the ice patch surface and surrounding terrain. The DTM was resampled to a resolution of 1 m.

The ice patch and surrounding terrain was scanned with an airborne laser on 17 September 2011. The area was scanned with 5 points m\(^2\) with accuracy better than 0.1 m. Aerial photos were taken on the same day. These data were used to produce a high quality DTM and orthophotos of the ice patch surface and surrounding terrain. The DTM was resampled to a resolution of 1 m.

### 3.3 Mass balance and front measurements

Standard surface mass balance measurements of winter accumulation (snow depth at 20-60 sites and density at 1 site) and ablation (at 1-4 stakes) were made following standard methods for the melting seasons of 2010-2015 (Andreassen, 2011). Distance to the terminus has been measured from two points outside the ice patch (Fig. 3a) in August or early September using a laser distance meter.

The extent of the Juvfonne ice patch was surveyed by foot with GNSS with a Topcon receiver mounted on a backpack and one reference receiver mounted in a fixed base point (Fig. 3a, Table 1). The GNSS data was processed with Topcon software TTOOLS version 8. The extent of the Juvfonne ice patch has been surveyed by foot with differential GNSS mounted on a backpack (Fig 3a, Table 1). Surveys have been done annually in August or September from 2010 to 2015, but the survey from 2012 was only done along the lower part due to snow conditions. Areal extent was also determined by digitising outlines from orthophotos from 2011 and from topographical maps from the Norwegian mapping authorities in 1981 and 2004. Furthermore, outlines from Landsat inventories from 1997 and 2003 were used (Andreassen et al., 2008; Winsvold et al., 2014). The accuracy of the differential GNSS are within 1 m, the accuracy of the N50 within 5 m and the accuracy of the Landsat mapping within 30 m. The standard deviation in height of the GNSS measurements is on the range 10-20 cm giving ±2 standard deviations of 0.6 m.
3.4 Meteorological measurements

Hourly meteorological data was obtained from the automatic weather station (AWS) at Juvvasshøe (1894 m a.s.l.). It is the highest official meteorological station in Norway, and is freely exposed and representative for this study, except for wind speed. It is the highest official meteorological station in Norway and is freely exposed and highly representative for this study. The first station was set up in 1999 (Isaksen et al., 2003) and a new official weather station was established at the same site in June 2009. One additional station recording hourly snow depth was set up in autumn 2011 in front of Juvfonne (95 m from the eastern margin of the snowfield). Hourly data on snow depth is scarce in the high mountains in Scandinavia. Observed air temperature and wind speed on Juvvasshøe were compared against the 1971-2000 climatological normal based on interpolated air temperature data from seNorge (Engeset et al., 2004) and daily observations of wind speed from Fokstugu (973 m a.s.l.), 70 km NE of Juvvasshøe, which was the best nearby correlated meteorological station having long-time series.

A thermistor cable was installed in a 10 m deep borehole in 2009 to record ice temperatures. Temperatures were recorded every 3 hours until late September 2011 with an accuracy of 0.05 °C (1 standard deviation). The entire thermistor cable melted out in September 2014. Additional thermistor measurements were made in the snow and ice at the onset of thaw in spring 2010.

3.5 Radiocarbon dating

In May 2010, a 30 m long ice tunnel was excavated in the Juvfonne ice patch. During spring 2012, a new 70 metre long tunnel was excavated into the central parts of the ice patch. The tunnels were excavated with specially designed ice axes causing minimal disturbance to the surrounding ice. The tunnels gave an excellent opportunity to verify the radar data and to collect organic material for Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (AMS) radiocarbon dating. Dateable organic material is available, but there are no continuous layers of organic material. Radiocarbons dating prior to 2012 are published in (Nesje et al., 2012; Zapf et al., 2013; Ødegård et al., 2011). Conventional 14C ages were calibrated using OxCal v4.2.4 software (Bronk Ramsey and Lee, 2013) with the IntCal13 calibration curve (Reimer et al., 2013).
The organic debris has been collected from the walls and below the floor of the ice tunnels (5 samples from the tunnel excavated in 2010 and 5 samples from the tunnel excavated in 2012—Table 2) and organic debris melting out at the front of which two datings are reported in this paper. Nine additional datings were published by Nesje et al. (2012).

The recently developed method for radiocarbon dating of ice utilizes the organic carbon fraction of carbonaceous aerosols scavenged from the atmosphere during snowfall and embedded into the ice matrix (Jenk et al., 2009; Sigl et al., 2009). This method was tested with 11 samples from Juvfonne in 2011 by comparing for the first time $^{14}$C ages determined from carbonaceous particles with $^{14}$C ages conventionally obtained from organic remains found in the ice (Zapf et al., 2013). The 2011 samples are JUV1 and JUV2 adjacent to the dated organic-rich layers in the 2010 tunnel and a surface sample JUV3 (Table 2). In summer 2015 five samples of clear ice were collected adjacent to the plant fragment layer located just above the bed in the tunnel excavated in 2012 (JUV0, Table 2 and 3). All blocks of ice (~20 × 15 × 10 cm) were extracted with a pre-cleaned chainsaw and were subsequently divided into smaller pieces. All ice blocks were transported frozen to Paul Scherrer Institute (PSI, Switzerland), decontaminated in a cold room by removing the outer layer (0.3 mm) with a pre cleaned stainless steel band saw and by rinsing the ice samples with ultra-pure water in a class 100 clean room (Jenk et al., 2007).

Insoluble carbonaceous particles are filtered onto preheated quartz fibre filters (Pallflex Tissuquartz, 2500QAO-UP) and combusted with a thermo-optical organic carbon/elemental carbon (OC/EC) analyser (Model4L, Sunset Laboratory Inc., USA), using a well-established protocol (Swiss_4S) for OC/EC separation (Zhang et al., 2012). Analyses of $^{14}$C were conducted using the 200 kV compact radiocarbon system ‘MICADAS’ at the University of Bern (LARA laboratory), equipped with a gas ion source coupled to the Sunset instrument, allowing measuring $^{14}$C directly in CO$_2$ of 3-100 µg C with an uncertainty level as low as 1% (Ruff et al., 2010).

Dates are given in calibrated ages (BCE/CE)BP (BP=1950 CE) including 1 sigma errors ($\sigma$).
4 Results

4.1 Ice thickness and ice layering

The bed reflection was clearly seen in the radar plots (see example in Fig. 4). In addition the ice layering was detected on most of the plots, probably due to density differences in the ice layers (air bubbles) (Hamran et al., 2009) or organic layers. Georadar soundings from 2009 revealed a maximum ice thickness of 17-19 m (Ødegård et al., 2011). The near-surface reflection horizons are nearly parallel to the present surface. At depth, curved reflection horizons are observed. In the ice-tunnels the curved layers can be directly observed forming a distinct angular discontinuity with the surface-parallel ice layers (Fig. 5). The surface parallel layers have melted away since 2009 in the central and southern parts of the ice patch (Fig 6). The DTM obtained from laser scanning combined with the bottom topography from the georadar gave a volume of 710,000 m³ in late August 2011 (mean thickness 5.6 m). The surface of Juvfonne in September 2011 was used as the reference surface for the depth map (Fig. 3b). The maximum depth was 16 m close to the inner part of ice tunnel excavated in 2012. In this area the surface slope is about 18 degrees.

4.2 Mass balance, front changes and areal extent

Only one of the mass balance stakes (J2) existed continuously from autumn 2009 to spring 2015 (Figs. 7 and 8). Stake J2 is in the central part of the ice patch (Fig. 3a).

Snow sounding measurements (N=232) range from 0.6-4.8 m over the period 2010-2015. Mean snow depth is 2.6 m (1.2 m w.e.). Some years show a pattern where most snow accumulates on the leeward side of the prevailing wind the previous winter, but this is not consistent. Inter annual variation accounts for 66%. The accumulation was further investigated by analysing the deviation from mean each year. This dataset contains a significant trend with increased accumulation towards the front (Fig. 3c and Table 4). The difference between the upper central area and the front is 0.2 m w.e (Fig. 3c), which corresponds to approx. 20% increase in accumulation.

The total mass loss is measured to 10 m of ice at the site of the thermistor measurements (Fig. 3a). The 10-metre thermistor cable installed on the 29th of October 2009 melted out in mid-September 2014. The total mass loss at stake J2 was 10.5 m w.e. during the same period.
Elevation changes from September 2011 to September 2014 are shown in Fig. 3d. These results are based on the laser scanning in 2011 and differential GNSS-tracking in 2014. The measurements show a highly significant asymmetric pattern with close to zero surface elevation changes in the western part and surface lowering of 3-5 m in the eastern and central part of the ice patch. This strong gradient is measured over a distance of just 200 m at approximately the same altitude. The part with most negative change has more than average accumulation.

Front change measurements were initiated in 2009 at JF1 and in 2010 at JF2 (Fig. 9). The measurements revealed that Juvfonne retreated in all years except in 2012 and 2015 where the ice patch increased its size due to excessive snow that formed a thin ice and snow layer around the margin. The total retreat 2009-2014 is -52 m measured from JF1 and over 2010-2014 the mean change is 44 m (-51 m from JF1 and -38 m from JF2).

The annual extent measurements (2010-2015) show area fluctuations of the margin, varying from 0.101 km$^2$ (9 September 2014) to a maximum of 0.186 km$^2$ on 11 September 2015 (Table 1). The extent measurements show that the ice patch shrinks and grows along the whole margin. Furthermore, observations in field show that the ice is very thin along the margins. In 2015, seasonal snow covered the entire margin, and the measured area of 0.186 km$^2$ is thus only to be considered a maximum extent, not the actual ice patch area.

### 4.3 Climate parameters

Air temperature and wind speed at Juvvasshøe for the period 2000-2015 are outlined in Fig. 10 a-b over the ablation season (June-September). The mean June-September air temperature in this period is 3.2 °C (1.0 °C above the 1971-2000 mean). Air temperatures, near-ground surface temperatures and frequency of days with daily mean air temperature above 0 °C (the two latter are not shown in Fig. 10) are high in summers 2002, 2003, 2006, 2011 and 2014, and especially 2006. Observations from nearby weather stations with long climate series reported record-breaking temperatures in late summer and autumn 2006. In the investigation period 2009-2015 the coldest summer was 2012, which was the only summer below the 1971-2000 mean (Fig. 10).

Due to the sheltered setting of Juvfonne compared to the meteorological stations, strong breeze (wind speed above 10.8 ms$^{-1}$) was used as a lower limit to get sufficient high wind speeds for effective and enhanced turbulent fluxes at Juvfonne. In general there is a high

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In general there is a high frequency (35-58 days per season) of strong breeze during the period 2009-2015 (Fig. 10b). Comparing wind data from the AWS at Fokstugu indicates two to three times more frequent strong wind than 1971-2000 mean during the investigation period. Observed incoming short- and longwave radiation from Juvvasshøe (not shown) show no clear patterns related to single summers, but 2011 peaks stand out as the summer with greatest incoming longwave radiation.

For snow accumulation or abrasion on ice patches wind speed and wind direction is crucial (Dadic et al., 2010; Lehning et al., 2008). There are great variations from year to year in respect to frequency of strong gale and wind direction. During the two stormiest winters 2011-12 and 2013-14, the frequency of strong gale was 15.7 % and 17.3 %, respectively (Fig. 11). For snow accumulation or abrasion on ice patches wind speed and wind direction is crucial. Results reveal (not shown here) that strong wind is frequent during winter. There are great variations from year to year and between early and late winter in respect to frequency of strong gale and wind direction.

4.4 Snow measurements and modelling

The automatic snow depth observations in front of Juvfonne show great hourly to daily variability and there is distinct different pattern of snow accumulation between the four winter seasons (Fig. 12). The greatest increase in snow depth during early and mid-winter in all years is related to storm events. This is also the case for strong snow depth decrease events (mainly due to abrasion, wind scouring). Comparing the observed and modeled snow depths (which don't take into account redistribution of snow by wind), it is clear that much of the accumulation is not correlated with precipitation (Fig. 12). The modelled snow depth for Juvfonne was obtained from a precipitation/degree-day model operating on 1×1 km² developed for a web-based system (http://senorge.no/) for producing daily snow maps for Norway (Engeset et al., 2004; Saloranto, 2012). A similar poor correlation (r²=0.24) is also found for very small glaciers in the Alps (Huss and Fischer, 2016). The observed melt in central parts (J2) was compared with a degree-day model using typical values calculated from nearby glaciers (Fig. 7b) (Laumann and Reeh, 1993).
shows a quite good fit except the 2010 season. In this season, the summer balance was about twice the outcome of the degree-day model.

4.5 Temperature of ice and permafrost

Temperature measurements in Juvfonne reveal 10-m depth ice temperature in the range of -2 to -4 °C (Fig. 13). The ice and snow temperature results show that the Juvfonne ice patch is cold-based and underlain by permafrost (Fig. 13). The measurements at 5-10 m depth in the ice are similar to the measurements in the nearby permafrost borehole at Juvvasshøe (Fig. 13). In spring, the melt water percolates and refreezes in the snowpack until the snow is isothermal at a temperature close to 0°C (Fig. 14). There is cold ice below the level of meltwater percolation, which means that there is a heat flow into the ice gradually decreasing during the melt season. Because of this heat flow superimposed ice forms at the level of impermeable ice, generally less than 0.1 m/year. The surface melt water does not percolate through the level of the winter cold wave. The heat flow into the ice is gradually decreasing during the melt season. Superimposed ice forms at the level of impermeable ice.

4.6 Radiocarbon dating

The AMS radiocarbon dating obtained from organic-rich layers and from carbonaceous aerosols in clear ice in the Juvfonne ice patch shows ages spanning from modern at the surface to ca. 6200 BCE-7600 cal. years BP at the bottom (clear ice below the basal organic-rich layer), thus showing that Juvfonne has existed continuously during the last ~7500 years. So far, the basal ice in Juvfonne is the oldest dated ice in mainland Norway (Table 2).

In the tunnel opened in 2010 the AMS radiocarbon dating of organic matter embedded in the ice shows modern age in the top layer at the entrance, and ages ranging from 1218-1125 BCE to 945-987 CE inside the tunnel. These results were previously published in Nesje et al. (2012) and recalibrated for this study (Table 2 and Fig. 15).
In the tunnel opened in 2012 the AMS radiocarbon dating of five organic layers embedded in the ice about 70 m from the margin of the ice patch, yielded dates in chronological order from the base upwards, ranging from 4711-4606 BCE/6556-6661 cal. years BP at the base to 3 BCE – 21 CE/1971-2003 cal. years BP in the ceiling of the ice tunnel, approximately 2.85 m above the tunnel floor. The organic debris that yielded the oldest age was collected from the innermost part of the ice tunnel, about 0.43 m above the bed. The layer where the sample was retrieved could be followed close to the bed in the inner parts of the tunnel. The carbon dates on carbonaceous aerosols were sampled at the same location to the side and below the plant fragment layer (Table 3). The oldest dating is 7519-7670 BCE/6418-5988 BCE/54 CE – Poz-66166 and 5-68 CE – Poz-66167. Thus, the minimum extent of the south-eastern part of the ice patch observed in September 2014 is most likely the smallest in 2000 years.

With the exception of one identified outlier, the results from dating of carbonaceous aerosol particles in the ice could reproduce the expected ages very well (Zapf et al., 2013). This gives confidence that the age of organic debris in the ice is similar to the surrounding ice. In Fig. 16 radiocarbon datings from both ice tunnels are plotted according to vertical distance from bed.

5 Discussion

The discussion focuses on the value of this research in the context of the long-term objective to develop models of mass balance and thermal regime on Holocene time scale at ice patches and surrounding terrain.

The discussion is organised in four sections: (1) the mass balance, (2) thermal regime, (3) ice layering and deformation on Holocene time scale and (4) the environmental processes relevant to artefact displacement and preservation.
5.1 The mass balance

Perennial ice patches are, due to their existence, located at sites with close to long-term zero mass balance. The inter-annual variability in summer and winter balance could be considerable, but the long-term changes in mass must be close to zero as long as they do not disappear or develop into a glacier. The 6-year record of mass balance gives some insight into the spatial and temporal variability of the mass balance.

The snow accumulation during the 6-year period (2010-2015) shows increased accumulation towards the front of the ice patch. This is probably a response to increased melt, which will increase the snow accumulation at the leeward side of prevailing westerly winds.

Along the outer rim of Juvfonne, the surface altitude changes (negative net balance) vary between less than 1 m to nearly 5 m within a 200 m distance at same altitude over a period of 3 years (Fig. 3d). Field data is consistent with the interpretation of increased melting due to sensible and latent heat fluxes. Micro-meteorological investigations by Mott et al. (2011) of processes driving snow ablation in an alpine catchment show that advection of sensible heat cause locally increased ablation rates at the upwind edges of the snow patches.

The 2010 anomaly in the summer balance (Fig. 7a) is most likely related to increased melt during periods with strong south and southeasterly winds (unsheltered direction for Juvfonne) combined with relatively high air temperatures and high relative humidity causing enhanced turbulent fluxes. Extreme melt was observed in early-mid August. The warmest 10-day period in 2010 was 8-18 August. Median wind speed was 3.4 m/s from SE and humidity 79.5% at the meteorological station 750 m from the ice patch. This 2010 anomaly is probably the reason for the asymmetric net balance of Juvfonne (Fig. 6).

Exceptionally large melt episodes have been reported from the Central Cascade Mountains of Oregon where snow melt were enhanced by strong wind, high air temperature and high humidity (Marks et al., 1998). At higher unsheltered sites 60-90% of the energy for snowmelt came from sensible and latent heat exchanges, while it was only about 35% at more sheltered sites. Recently similar extreme melt events have been reported from the southern and western part of Greenland ice sheet in July 2012, where nonradiative energy fluxes (sensible, latent, rain, and subsurface collectively) dominated the ablation area surface energy budget during multiday episodes (Fausto et al., 2016). Exceptionally large melt episodes have recently been reported from the southern and western part of Greenland ice sheet in July 2012, where...
nonradiative energy fluxes (sensible, latent, rain, and subsurface collectively) dominated the ablation area surface energy budget during multiday episodes (Fausto et al., 2016).

The snow recording from the station in front of Juvfonne (95 m from the front) clearly illustrates the complexity of snow accumulation in this environment. In front of Juvfonne abrupt changes in snow depth within hours dominate the series, causing great day-to-day variability. These changes seem to be mainly driven by the rate of wind speed and wind direction. Some single storm events with westerly winds could account for almost 50% of the winter accumulation in less than 24 hours, like the storm February 7-8 in 2015 (Fig. 12, 2014-15). Spring snow accumulation with insignificant wind drift could also influence mass balance, like the period from early April to mid May 2012 where more than 40 cm of snow accumulated (Fig. 12, 2011-2012). Spring snow accumulation with insignificant wind drift could also influence mass balance, like the 2012 season.

5.2 Ground and ice thermal regime

The temperature measurements at Juvfonne show that there is sufficient melt water to bring the permeable snowpack to an isothermal condition within a few weeks in early summer (Fig. 13). Below the seasonal snowpack, the ice remains cold during the summer with temperatures on the range -2 to -4°C at 5-10 m depth (Fig. 13). In Norway most glaciers are considered to be temperate, although measurements are available for only a few glaciers (Andreassen and Winswold, 2012). Recent observations from nearby glaciers in Jotunheimen, reveal that at the lower parts of Storbreen the winter cold wave is removed during summer, but remained at Hellstugubreen and Gråsubreen (Sørdal, 2013; Tachon, 2015). The temperature measured close to the equilibrium line at Hellstugubreen (-1°C) and Gråsubreen (-2°C) were warmer than the temperature measured at similar depths at Juvfonne (-3°C).

Juvfonne consists of cold ice surrounded by permafrost terrain (Fig. 13). Perennial ice patches can be used as indicators of local (mountain) permafrost conditions (Imhof, 1996; Kneisel, 1998). The physical background is that their ice cannot warm above 0°C in summer, but cool down far below 0°C during the cold season. Holocene permafrost modelling (Lilleøren et al., 2012) suggest that permafrost survived the highest areas of the Scandinavian mountains during the Holocene thermal maximum (HTM), and thus permafrost ice could be of Pleistocene age. Radiocarbon dates from Juvfonne show that the deepest central part of the ice patch contains carbonaceous particles embedded in the ice 7519-7670 cal. years BP.
This is a strong indication that Juufonne has existed continuously since mid-Holocene, and the dating of the ice could offer strongly needed validation of Holocene permafrost models. Juufonne could contain older ice, and it is most likely that ice patches at higher altitude contains older ice.

The thermal regime of the ice in Juufonne is similar to what is found close to the equilibrium line of nearby glaciers (Sørdal, 2013; Tachon, 2015). The temperature measurements show that there is sufficient melt water to bring the permeable snowpack to an isothermal condition within a few weeks in early summer (Fig. 13). Below the seasonal snowpack, the ice remains cold during the summer with temperatures on the range -2 - -4°C at 5-10 m depth (Fig. 12).

### 5.3 Ice layering and deformation on Holocene time scale

The observed ice layers almost certainly represent surface of isochronic deposition. Within both ice tunnels in Juufonne there are several organic/debris layers of uncertain origin. From the appearance of these layers, it is probably wind or water transported material or reindeer droppings. The organic layers are horizontally continuous over a few meters. There is reasonable correlation between the age of the clear ice and the age of the organic layers (Zapf et al., 2013). Contamination is not likely in the clear ice samples, which gives confidence in the dating of the ice stratigraphy. This is necessarily not the case at other ice patches, where surface processes or microbial activity may contaminate organic material exposed at the surface.

The ice deformation on Holocene time scale is difficult to calculate based on the available data. In the central parts of the ice patch, a first order estimate of maximum basal shear stress is on the range of 30-405 kPa (no averaging of surface slope 17º, depth 12-16 m, laminar flow). Adding 5 m to the depth will increase the basal shear stress to 450-605 kPa for the central part. The latter is probably close to the range for the last decades. Calculation of deformation based on a Glen type flow law will be highly sensitive to the chosen stress exponent (Glen, 1955). Using a softness parameter $A=2.4*10^{-15}$ s$^{-1}$ kPa$^{-3}$ based on an ice temperature of -2 °C from Table 5.2 in Paterson (1994) and a stress exponent of $n=2$ (Duval et al., 2000) gives a surface velocity of 2.3 m/1000*years (surface slope 17º, depth 19 m, laminar flow). A likely situation for the LIA (surface slope 15º, depth 45-60 m) gives an estimate of 25-60 m/1000*years assuming a cold based glacier (Fig. 16). These calculations are uncertain, but suggest that the cumulative deformation of ice (maximum ~30-60 kPa...
basal shear stresses) over millennia could explains the observed curved layering in the basal
layer of the ice patch (Fig. 4). The possibility of cumulative ice deformation on a time scale
of several millennia makes it difficult to relate the present thickness and slope of these layers
to previous thickness of the ice patch.

The observed ice layers almost certainly represent surface of isochronic deposition. Within
both ice tunnels in Juvfonne there are several organic/debris layers of uncertain origin. From
the appearance of these layers, it is probably wind or water transported material or reindeer
droppings. In the case of Juvfonne, there is a reasonable correlation between the age of the ice
and the age of the organic layers (Zapf et al., 2013). This is necessarily not the case at other
ice patches.

The empirical relation between basal shear stress and altitude range of glaciers was
investigated by Haeberli and Hoelzle (1995) based on data from the European Alps. A basal
shear stress of 15-20 kPa is in good agreement with the values for ice bodies with elevation
ranges of 150 m as at Juvfonne.

5.4 Artefact displacement and preservation

From a cultural management perspective, there is particular interest in developing methods to
identify sites of interest (Rogers et al., 2014) and a better understanding of the environmental
threats (Callanan, 2015). The environmental threats are mainly related to sub-aerial exposure
of artefacts. Especially leather artefacts, textiles and steering feathers of arrows are exposed to
movement and decomposition short time after melt out. Wooden objects are more resistant.

The artefacts found at Juvfonne have been found in permafrost terrain surrounding the ice
patch, most of them are found in the front of the ice patch within a few tens of meters of the
ice patch. The wooden artefacts range from 250-900 CE. Even during the extreme
minimum in September 2014 (Fig. 6) there are no observations of artefacts melting out
within the ice.

The exposure time to physical processes and microbial activity is critical to artefact
decomposition. At Juvfonne, there is a gradual increase in the ground exposure time
depending on snow accumulation and melt over millennia. The oldest ice found so far is
7519-7670 cal. years BP 5988 BCE - Table 2. At the eastern edge AMS
radiocarbon dates show that the moss mats were covered (killed) by the expanding snowfield about 2000 years ago (Table 2, Poz-56952). Lichenometry indicates that the front of Juvfonne extended ~250 m from its present position during the LIA maximum in the mid-18th century (Nesje et al., 2012). A photo of Juvfonne from around 1900 shows the front close to the expected LIA extent (Fig. 16). These results constrain the extent of the ice patch since the mid-Holocene, but temporal and spatial variability need to be considered to assess the actual exposure time of artefacts.

Several radiocarbon dates of the top layer in 2010 (Fig. 4) show modern age. This means that artefacts found at Juvfonne have been sub-aerially exposed after the LIA but prior to 2009. Thus, the dating and position of artefacts cannot be used directly to reconstruct previous ice patch extent.

Juvfonne and surrounding terrain is an active environment in terms of geomorphological processes. In particular, during the extreme melting in autumn 2014 several small accumulations of organic material/debris occurred at the upper margin of the ice patch. Within a few days, melt water moved this material to the front of the ice patch. Downslope movement of artefacts by melt water is certainly possible at Juvfonne. Finds at other ice patches in Jotunheimen supports this interpretation, where different pieces of the same artefact have been found along the direction of steepest slope. Textiles and leather objects are more likely transported by wind, and preservation at its original position is less likely. There are no finds of textiles or leather objects at Juvfonne.

6 Conclusion and future perspectives

The exploratory analyses of field data from Juvfonne show for the first time the geoscience research potential of ice patches in Scandinavia. The results give new insights into their age, internal structure, mass balance and climate sensitivity, and have taken the state of knowledge to level where models can be designed.

These are the main conclusions from the analysis of field data:

- Ice stratigraphic characteristics and radiocarbon dating strongly suggest that the Juvfonne ice patch was small or absent during Holocene thermal maximum, but
existed continuously since ca. 7600 cal. years BP (the late Mesolithic period) without disappearing. This is the oldest dating of ice in mainland Norway.

- A 6-year record of mass balance measurements shows a strong negative balance. The total mass loss at one site was 10.5 m w.e. Elevation changes are highly asymmetric over short distances, from close to zero to surface lowering of several meters. There is a significant increase in snow accumulation towards the front of approx. 20% compared to the upper central area. The winter balance is poorly correlated with winter precipitation. One single storm event may contribute significantly to the winter balance.

- Temperature measurements of the ice in Juvfonne reveal colder ice than what is found at similar depths close to the equilibrium line of nearby polythermal glaciers. There is sufficient melt water to bring the permeable snowpack to an isothermal state within a few weeks in early summer. Below the seasonal snowpack, at 5-10 m depth, the ice remains cold with temperatures between -2 and -4°C. The cold ice is surrounded by permafrost terrain having similar ground temperatures.

- Geophysical investigations show a clear stratification. The observed ice layers almost certainly represent surface of isochronic deposition. At depth, curved reflection horizons are observed consistent with cumulative ice deformation over millennia.

- Ice deformation and surface processes (i.e. wind and melt water) may have caused significant displacement of artefacts from their original position.

- Since the surface ice shows modern age artefacts melted out in front of Juvfonne since 2009 have been sub-aerially exposed after the LIA but prior to 2009. Thus, the dating and position of artefacts cannot be used directly to reconstruct previous ice patch extent.

The radiocarbon datings show that Juvfonne is robust to climate change, even on a Holocene timescale. The datings indicate a slow build-up over a period of 8000 years. The survival of relatively thin ice over a long period is a good documentation of the well-known mass balance feedback mechanisms of ice patches. The datings of mass mats appearing at the southeastern edge of Juvfonne in September 2014 suggest the smallest ice patch in ~2000
years. These field data constrain the Holocene development of Juvfonne, but care should be taken in the interpretation. Radiocarbon datings only show the timing of minima in volume.

Perennial ice patches are, due to their existence, areas with close to long-term zero mass balance similar to the zone close to the ELA of glaciers. However, there are obvious differences between ice patches and glaciers. The accumulation processes are to a variable degree dependent on surrounding topography and the topography of the ice patch itself. One possible future approach is field observations in combination with numerical simulation of the wind field to obtain the necessary spatial and temporal resolution to model the snow accumulation during storm events. The wind field with high spatial and temporal resolution is also needed to calculate the turbulent fluxes.

Ice patches are in the transition zone between seasonal snow cover and perennial snow/ice. This interaction needs to be addressed since ice patches could be influenced by advective heat transfer in summer. The melt anomaly in 2010 is probably related to periods of strong southeasterly winds, high air temperatures and high relative moisture boosting the turbulent fluxes at the upwind edge. The time series of mass balance at Juvfonne is too short to study the long-term effect of melt anomalies.

Cumulative deformation of ice on a Holocene time scale in the interpretation of the ice layering and makes it difficult to relate the present thickness and slope of theses layer to previous thickness of the ice patch. Maximum ice volume was reached during LIA, when Juvfonne probably developed into a cold based glacier with significant internal deformation.

Based on a 6-year field experiment on Juvfonne ice patch in central southern Norway, the following main conclusion could be drawn:

- Ice stratigraphic characteristics and radiocarbon dating strongly suggest that the Juvfonne ice patch was small or absent during Holocene thermal maximum, but existed continuously since ca. 6200 BCE (the late Mesolithic period) without disappearing or developing into a glacier with basal sliding. The oldest radiocarbon dates show that the deepest central part of the ice patch contains carbonaceous particles embedded in the ice 6418-5988 BCE, which is the oldest dating of ice in mainland Norway.

- Radiocarbon dates show that the moss mats appearing in 2014 were covered (killed) by the expanding snowfield about 2000 years ago. The minimum extent observed in
September 2014 at the south-eastern part is most likely the smallest ice patch in ~2000 years.

- A 6-year record of mass-balance measurements shows a strong negative balance. The total mass loss at one site was 10.5 m w.e. Elevation changes are highly asymmetric over short distances, from close to zero to surface lowering of several meters. There is a significant increase in snow accumulation towards the front of approx. 20% compared to the upper central area. Assuming that this is a close to equilibrium situation, increased accumulation reflects increased melt. Locally increased ablation rates are probably caused by significant spatial variability of the sensible and latent heat fluxes. The melt anomaly in 2010 is most likely related to periods of strong south-easterly winds and high relative moisture boosting the turbulent fluxes.

- The winter balance is poorly correlated with winter precipitation. One single storm event may contribute significantly to the winter balance.

- The thermal regime of the ice in Juvfonne is similar to what is found close to the equilibrium line of nearby glaciers. Temperature measurements show that there is sufficient melt water to bring the permeable snowpack to an isothermal state within a few weeks in early summer. Below the seasonal snowpack, at 5–10 m depth, the ice remains cold with temperatures between -2 and -4°C. The cold ice is surrounded by permafrost terrain having similar ground temperatures.

- Geophysical investigations show a clear stratification. The observed ice layers almost certainly represent surfaces of isochronous deposition. At depth, curved reflection horizons are observed consistent with cumulative ice deformation over millennia. Even a thin ice patch like Juvfonne (<20 m thick) ice deformation is a critical factor in the interpretation of the ice layering and makes it difficult to relate the present thickness and slope of these layers to previous thickness of the ice patch.

- Ice deformation and surface processes (i.e. wind and melt water) may have caused significant displacement of artefacts from their original position.

- Artefacts melted out in front of Juvfonne since 2009 have been sub-aerially exposed after the LIA but prior to 2009. Thus the dating and position of artefacts cannot be used directly to reconstruct previous ice patch extent.
The exploratory analyses of field data from Juvfonne show for the first time the geoscience research potential of ice patches in Scandinavia. The results give new insights into their age, internal structure, mass balance and climate sensitivity, and have taken the state of knowledge to a level where models can be designed. The feedback mechanisms observed on Juvfonne suggest that ice patches are robust to climate change, at least on the time scale of decades. Perennial ice patches are, due to their existence, areas with close to long-term zero mass balance. However, they are probably more sensitive than glaciers to changes in the wind pattern. In the perspective of surface energy and mass balance, ice patches are in the transition zone between permafrost terrain and glaciers. Future research will need to carefully address this interaction to build reliable models of how ice patches have developed during the Holocene and their response to future climate change.

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We thank the archaeologists Lars Pilø and Espen Finstad for valuable comments and discussions related to artefact displacements and Dag Inge Bakke at Mimisbrunn Klimapark 2469 for support in the field. Professor Emeritus Wilfried Haeberli and Professor Bernd Etzelmüller gave useful comments to an earlier version of the manuscript and are gratefully acknowledged. We thank two anonymous reviewers for precise feedback, which greatly improved the manuscript.
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Table 1.
Areal extents of Juufonne derived from topographic maps, Landsat imagery, GNSS measurements by foot and digitising from orthophotos. *Seasonal snow remaining along the extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Area (km²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td></td>
<td>map</td>
<td>0.171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>10.08.1984</td>
<td>Orthophoto</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>15.08.1997</td>
<td>Landsat</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>09.08.2013</td>
<td>Landsat</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>12.08.2004</td>
<td>map</td>
<td>0.187</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>25.08.2010</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>02.08.2011</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>17.09.2011</td>
<td>Orthophoto</td>
<td>0.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>12.09.2012</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>12.08.2013</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>09.09.2014</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>11.09.2015</td>
<td>GNSS</td>
<td>0.186*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. R-AMS radiocarbon dates from the ice tunnels and ice samples from ice patch surface. Ages obtained by radiocarbon dating of clear ice and organic remains collected in the ice tunnels and from the ice patch surface. Ice samples were collected as blocks and subdivided in several sub-samples. Therefore an average value is shown for every block (JUV1, JUV2 and JUV3) except for JUV0, because JUV0 1 and JUV0 2 were taken adjacent to the plant fragment layer, dated 6600 cal BP (Poz-56955), while samples from JUV0 3 to JUV0 8 were collected at the bottom of the wall, a few cm below the plant fragment layer. Thus JUV0 A is the average of JUV0 1 and JUV0 2, while the other six samples were averaged as JUV0 B. Individual calibrated ages for ice sub-samples are not shown because derived ages were combined using the function in OxCal v4.2.4. (14C date combination). Calibrated ages are given in years before present (cal BP, with BP = 1950) as median probability and 1σ uncertainty range.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample ID</th>
<th>AMS Lab. No.</th>
<th>Type of material</th>
<th>14C age (BP)</th>
<th>cal age (cal BP)</th>
<th>median probability (cal BP)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JUV3_1 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 42845.1.1</td>
<td>Surface ice</td>
<td>-940 ± 91</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV3_2 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 42847.1.1</td>
<td>Surface ice</td>
<td>-720 ± 110</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV3_3 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 42849.1.1</td>
<td>Surface ice</td>
<td>-1160 ± 100</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV3_4 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43446.1.1</td>
<td>Surface ice</td>
<td>-1220 ± 120</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV3 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Surface ice</td>
<td>-996 ± 52</td>
<td>(45 - 42)</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV2_1 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43443.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>1020 ± 210</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV2_2 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43445.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>1870 ± 670</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV2_3 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43559.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>1120 ± 320</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV2_4 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 45109.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>1130 ± 280</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV2 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>1116 ± 146</td>
<td>(918–1237)</td>
<td>1044</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37877 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>Poz-37877</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>1095 ± 30</td>
<td>(963 - 1005)</td>
<td>1001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37879 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>Poz-37879</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>1420 ± 30</td>
<td>(1299 - 1338)</td>
<td>1322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-39788 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>Poz-39788</td>
<td>Reindeer dung</td>
<td>1480 ± 30</td>
<td>(1336 - 1393)</td>
<td>1363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37878 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>Poz-37878</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>1535 ± 30</td>
<td>(1381 - 1418)</td>
<td>1438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV1_3 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43555.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>2144 ± 300</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV1_4 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>ETH 43557.1.1</td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>2650 ± 710</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV1 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ice</td>
<td>2227 ± 277</td>
<td>(1904-2697)</td>
<td>2255</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-36460 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>Poz-36460</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>2960 ± 30</td>
<td>(3075 - 3168)</td>
<td>3121</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-56953 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>Poz-56953</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>3490 ± 35</td>
<td>(3717 - 3781)</td>
<td>3764</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-56954 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>Poz-56954</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>4595 ± 35</td>
<td>(5290 - 5326)</td>
<td>5316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lab. no.</td>
<td>Dated material</td>
<td>Radiocarbon age BP</td>
<td>Median probability</td>
<td>1 sigma (68.3%)</td>
<td>2 sigma (95.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-56955 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>Poz-56955</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>5800 ± 40</td>
<td>(6556 - 6661)</td>
<td>6600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUVO 1 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>BE 4184.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>5905 ± 248</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUVO 2 (tunnel 2010)</td>
<td>BE 4380.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>6293 ± 137</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>JUV0. A (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4185.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>6512 ± 216</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>JUV0. 4 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4381.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>6555 ± 133</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JUV0. 5 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4186.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>7296 ± 231</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>JUV0. 6 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4382.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>6626 ± 196</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>JUV0. 7 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4187.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>7285 ± 218</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>JUV0. 8 (tunnel 2012)</td>
<td>BE 4383.1.1</td>
<td>Icc</td>
<td>6396 ± 229</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Ice tunnel 1 (opened 2010)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lab. no.</th>
<th>Dated material</th>
<th>Radiocarbon age</th>
<th>Median probability</th>
<th>1 sigma (68.3%)</th>
<th>2 sigma (95.4%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37877</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>998 ± 91</td>
<td>CE 589</td>
<td>CE 552-626</td>
<td>CE 596-662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37878</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>1120 ± 30</td>
<td>CE 627</td>
<td>CE 613-641</td>
<td>CE 632-660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37879</td>
<td>Reindeer dung</td>
<td>1480 ± 30</td>
<td>CE 586</td>
<td>CE 557-614</td>
<td>CE 528-644</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37880</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>1535 ± 30</td>
<td>CE 511</td>
<td>CE 492-590</td>
<td>CE 428-599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-38460</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>2990 ± 30</td>
<td>BCE 1172</td>
<td>BCE 1218-1256</td>
<td>BCE 1262-1292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Ice tunnel 1 (opened 2010) Calibrated ages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lab. no.</th>
<th>Dated material</th>
<th>Radiocarbon age BP</th>
<th>Median probability</th>
<th>1 sigma (68.3%)</th>
<th>2 sigma (95.4%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37845</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-940 ± 95 BP</td>
<td>CE 376</td>
<td>CE 338-414</td>
<td>CE 357-435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37844</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1157 ± 102 BP</td>
<td>CE 253</td>
<td>CE 205-331</td>
<td>CE 228-352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37843</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1721 ± 116 BP</td>
<td>CE 157</td>
<td>CE 109-209</td>
<td>CE 127-239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37838</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-2144 ± 303</td>
<td>BCE 200</td>
<td>BCE 154-246</td>
<td>BCE 179-279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37837</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-3875 ± 342</td>
<td>BCE 2353</td>
<td>BCE 2776-2954</td>
<td>BCE 3148-3501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37836</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1021 ± 208</td>
<td>CE 595</td>
<td>CE 545-647</td>
<td>CE 600-699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37835</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1231 ± 321</td>
<td>CE 691</td>
<td>CE 655-733</td>
<td>CE 713-792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37834</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1424 ± 284</td>
<td>CE 792</td>
<td>CE 752-819</td>
<td>CE 812-880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37833</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1566 ± 408</td>
<td>CE 791</td>
<td>CE 750-816</td>
<td>CE 808-877</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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### Ice tunnel 1 (opened 2010) Calibrated ages

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<th>2 sigma (95.4%)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37845</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-940 ± 95 BP</td>
<td>CE 376</td>
<td>CE 338-414</td>
<td>CE 357-435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37844</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1157 ± 102 BP</td>
<td>CE 253</td>
<td>CE 205-331</td>
<td>CE 228-352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37843</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1721 ± 116 BP</td>
<td>CE 157</td>
<td>CE 109-209</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-2144 ± 303</td>
<td>BCE 200</td>
<td>BCE 154-246</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-37837</td>
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<td>-3875 ± 342</td>
<td>BCE 2353</td>
<td>BCE 2776-2954</td>
<td>BCE 3148-3501</td>
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<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1021 ± 208</td>
<td>CE 595</td>
<td>CE 545-647</td>
<td>CE 600-699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37835</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1231 ± 321</td>
<td>CE 691</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37834</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1424 ± 284</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37833</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-1566 ± 408</td>
<td>CE 791</td>
<td>CE 750-816</td>
<td>CE 808-877</td>
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### Ice tunnel 2 (opened 2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lab. no.</th>
<th>Dated material</th>
<th>Radiocarbon age BP</th>
<th>Median probability</th>
<th>1 sigma (68.3%)</th>
<th>2 sigma (95.4%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37855</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-2056 ± 30</td>
<td>BCE 28</td>
<td>BCE 27-31 BCE 31-35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37853</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-3190 ± 35</td>
<td>BCE 181</td>
<td>BCE 173-189</td>
<td>BCE 193-197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37854</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-4064 ± 35</td>
<td>BCE 2907</td>
<td>BCE 2871-2940</td>
<td>BCE 3012-3088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37852</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-6044 ± 100</td>
<td>BCE 3841</td>
<td>BCE 3804-3904</td>
<td>BCE 3964-4064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-37855</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-5800 ± 40</td>
<td>BCE 4051</td>
<td>BCE 3871-4100</td>
<td>BCE 4201-4454</td>
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</table>

### Ice tunnel 2 (opened 2012) Calibrated ages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lab. no.</th>
<th>Dated material</th>
<th>Radiocarbon age BP</th>
<th>Median probability</th>
<th>1 sigma (68.3%)</th>
<th>2 sigma (95.4%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poz-4184</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-950 ± 248</td>
<td>BCE 967</td>
<td>BCE 963-970</td>
<td>BCE 967-970</td>
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<tr>
<td>Poz-4185</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-6251 ± 217</td>
<td>BCE 5465</td>
<td>BCE 5665-5929</td>
<td>BCE 5877-6185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poz-4186</td>
<td>Organic remains</td>
<td>-6665 ± 135</td>
<td>BCE 5514</td>
<td>BCE 5628-5963</td>
<td>BCE 5730-6293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample ID</td>
<td>Age (kcal)</td>
<td>Date Range</td>
<td>2040 AD BCE</td>
<td>2060 AD BCE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4386.1.1</td>
<td>7206 ± 232</td>
<td>BCE 6178</td>
<td>BCE 6418-5988</td>
<td>BCE 6602-5726</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4386.1.1</td>
<td>6603 ± 237</td>
<td>BCE 5600</td>
<td>BCE 5813-5463</td>
<td>BCE 6040-5207</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4387.1.1</td>
<td>7202 ± 219</td>
<td>BCE 6166</td>
<td>BCE 6327-5987</td>
<td>BCE 6532-5734</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4383.1.1</td>
<td>6405 ± 230</td>
<td>BCE 5336</td>
<td>BCE 5564-5204</td>
<td>BCE 5735-4800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.438.1.1 (Mean)</td>
<td>6623 ± 210</td>
<td>BCE 5555</td>
<td>BCE 5733-5206</td>
<td>BCE 5983-5208</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample blocks</td>
<td>Sample description</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>JUV 0.1 and JUV 0.2: the side of the ice step with plant fragment layer. Clear ice divided into two subsamples.</td>
<td>Since there was no place to cut off further ice, the other samples were taken from the wall on the left side of the corner where the ice step is located.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>JUV 0.3 and JUV 0.4: divided into two subsamples. This sample broke into pieces during cutting, but it is clear ice.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>JUV 0.5 and JUV 0.6: nice and clear ice block cut at the right of sample 4. It was divided into two subsamples.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>This ice block contains a lot of dark organic material. For the moment it is stored in the cold room and has not been processed. It could be measured with the conventional radiocarbon procedure and it is possible to separate some clear ice for the carbonaceous dating approach.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>JUV 0.7 and JUV 0.8: clear ice cut inside the hole left after cutting sample 3. It was divided into two subsamples.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4

Key statistics for the first-order polynomial fit of snow accumulation (deviation from mean each year) in the period 2010-2015.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sources of variation</th>
<th>Sums of squares</th>
<th>Degrees of freedom</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First order polynomial regression</td>
<td>0.656</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>6.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deviation</td>
<td>11.847</td>
<td>232-1 (229)</td>
<td>0.052</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total variation</td>
<td>12.503</td>
<td>232-1 (231)</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1. The field site Juvfonne (marked with X) in central southern Norway. Dark blue is permafrost areas, light blue are glaciers. Permafrost extent generalized from Lilleøren et al. (2012).
Figure 2. Overview picture from September 2008 towards SSW showing of Juvfonne and the Juvflye area including Kjelen, Juvvatnet, Juvvasshytta, Vesljuvbreen-Vesljuvbrea and the P30-31 Permafrost and Climate in Europe (PACE) boreholes at Juvvasshøe. Also visible is the highest mountain of Norway, Galdhøpiggen (2469 m a.s.l.). Photo: Helge J. Standal.
Figure 3. Maps of Juvfonne with orthophoto from September 2011 as background, a) ice margins, position of front measurements (JF1 and JF2- see figure Fig. 914), position of mass balance stake J2, position of thermistor for ice temperature measurements (Fig. 132) and position of the oldest radiocarbon dating and position of snow depth measurement station, b) interpolated contours of bed topography relative to ice thickness in September 2011 (grey markers are radar points used in the interpolation) and position of the georadar track in Fig. 4 - white line, c) grey markers are snow depth measurements (2010-2015), the raster map shows a first order polynomial fit to the deviation from mean accumulation each year (see table 3 for details) d) height differences along GNSS tracks in 2014 relative to ice surface from laser data in 2011 and positions of ice tunnel excavated in 2012.
Figure 4. Example of 500–250 MHz Georadar profile. The position of the track shown in Fig. 3b. The arrow shows the approximate minimum front position in September 2014.
Ice velocity: 168 m µs⁻¹, adjustment velocity: 300 m µs⁻¹, automatic gain control, scale factor 5000.
Figure 5. Photo of angular discontinuity at the wall of the 2010 ice tunnel, as also observed on the georadar data (Fig. 4). The upper layering is parallel to the surface of Juvfonne. Radiocarbon dating of the upper part showed modern age. Width of picture is approximately 0.4 m.
Figure 6. Photos of Juvfonne 17 September 2014 (upper) and 10 September 2014 (lower) showing the pre-Little Ice Age (LIA) surface exposed in central and southern parts of the ice patch (left side). The area on Juvfonne in the north-west (right side) is interpreted to be ice of modern age. The entrance of the ice tunnel is sitting on a small ridge that might be ice cored (left side lower image). The collapsed 2010 tunnel is to the left of the entrance. Photo: Glacier Archaeology Program/Oppland County Council (upper) and L. M. Andreassen (lower).
Figure 7. Summer (a) and winter (b) balance plotted against summer temperature (positive degree-days) and precipitation as snow, respectively. For the summer balance, the black markers are calculated melt using a degree-day model with typical values calibrated from nearby glaciers (3.5 mm/°C day for snow and 7.5 mm/°C day for ice). Winter precipitation is obtained from seNorge (Engeset et al., 2004).
Figure 8. Mass balance measurements at stake J2 on Juvenile: bw – balance winter, bs – balance summer, ba – annual (net) balance. (See figure Fig. 3a for position of stake).
Figure 9. Front position of Juvfonne measured at two locations relative to the 2010-front. Minima are observed in 2011 and 2014. The front retreat 2009-2014 was measured to 69 m. For position of measurements, see figure Fig. 3a. Red - JF1, Green – JF2.
Figure 10. Meteorological data from the station at Juvvasshøe (750 m from the front of 
Juvfonne) and Fokstugu 70 km NE a) Juvvasshøe June-September mean Air Temperature. 
The black dotted line denotes the 1971-2000 mean, obtained from the interpolated seNorge 
dataset (Engeset et al. 2004). b) Number of days for the period June-September with strong 
breeze or higher (wind speed above 10.8 ms⁻¹) at Juvvasshøe (grey bars) and at Fokstugu 
(black line), the latter shown as anomaly (in %, right axes) with respect to 1971-2000 mean.
Figure 11. Relative frequency (as percentage of all hourly observations) of strong gale or more (≥ 20.8 ms⁻¹) at Juvvasshoe during winter (Oct-Apr) 2009-2015 for the wind sectors SE to NW. The values inserted show the total frequency of strong gale or more.
Figure 121. Hourly snow depth measurements (black lines) from the station 95 m from the front of Juvfonne (see Figure 3a for position). Grey lines show modelled daily snow depth from seNorge (Engeset et al. 2004).
Figure 132. Temperature for November 2009-September 2011 in a 10 m deep borehole in the Juvfonne ice patch (see Figure 3a for position). The red line is the temperature at 10 m depth in the P31 permafrost borehole 750 m north from the ice patch (see Figure 2 for location). Arrow points to the time when the sensor placed at 3 m depth in autumn 2009 melted out. The entire thermistor string melted out in mid-September 2014.
Ice and snow temperature (Celsius)

- 0 m depth
- 0.2 m depth
- 0.5 m depth
- 1 m depth

Date:
- 15-May
- 20-May
- 25-May
- 30-May
- 4-Jul
Figure 143. Plot of temperature measurements in ice and snow at the onset of thaw in May 2010 (position at the thermistor shown in Fig. figure 3a). The depth reference is the ice surface the previous autumn. The red line is the snow temperature 0.25 m from the base of the snow cover. The arrow point the first signal of surface meltwater refreezing close to the base of the snow cover.
Figure 154. Photo from the old ice tunnel excavated in 2010 showing the layering in the ice and position of two samples for radiocarbon dating. Photo: Klimapark2469 AS.
Figure 16. Plot of the samples in Table 2 except samples with modern age. In the inner parts of the 2012 tunnel the bed is partly exposed, which gives good distance to bed estimates. In the 2010 tunnel, the distance estimates depend on the radar data (the old tunnel partly melted out). The horizontal distance between the samples are up to 50 m.
Figure 17. Picture taken from Vesljuvbrea towards NNW showing Juvfonne from around 1900. The surface slope of Juvfonne is approximately 15°. Height and length estimate from map based on position in the picture. The upper and northern part of Juvfonne cannot be seen on the picture.