Late Quaternary sedimentation in Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and the continental margin of East Greenland

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Abstract: The marine sedimentary record in Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and on the East Greenland continental margin contains a history of Late Quaternary glaciation and sedimentation. Evidence suggests that a middle-shelf moraine represents the maximum shelfward extent of the Greenland Ice Sheet during the last glacial maximum. On the upper slope, coarse-grained sediments are derived from the release of significant quantities of iceberg-rafted debris (IRD) and subsequent remobilization by subaqueous mass-flows. The middle–lower slope is characterized by hemipelagic sedimentation with lower quantities of IRD (dropstone mud and sandy mud), punctuated episodically by deposition of diamicton and graded sand/gravel facies by subaqueous debris flows and turbidity currents derived from the mass failure of upper slope sediments. The downslope decrease of IRD reflects either the action of the East Greenland Current (EGC) confining icebergs to the upper slope, or to the more ice-proximal setting of the upper slope relative to the LGM ice margin. Sediment gravity flows on the slope are likely to have fed into the East Greenland channel system, contributing to its formation in conjunction with the cascade of dense brines down the slope following sea-ice formation across the shelf.

Deglaciation commenced after 15 300 ^14C years BP, as indicated by meltwater-derived light oxygen isotope ratios. An abrupt decrease in both IRD deposition and delivery of coarse-grained debris to the slope at this time supports ice recession, with icebergs confined to the shelf by the EGC. Glacier ice had abandoned the middle shelf before 13 000 ^14C years BP with ice loss through iceberg calving and deposition of diamicton. Continued retreat of glacier-ice from the inner shelf and through the fjord is marked by a transition from subglacial till/bedrock in acoustic records, to ice-proximal meltwater-derived laminated mud to ice-distal bioturbated mud. Ice abandoned the inner shelf before 9100 ^14C years BP and probably stabilized in Posters Bugi at 10 000 ^14C years BP. Distinct oxygen isotope minima on the inner shelf indicate meltwater production during ice retreat. The outer fjord was free of ice before 7440 ^14C years BP. Glacier retreat through the mid–outer fjord was punctuated by topographically-controlled stillstands where ice-proximal sediment was fed into fjord basins. The dominance of fine-grained, commonly laminated facies during deglaciation supports a blation-controlled, ice-mass loss.

Glacimarine sedimentation within the Holocene middle–outer fjord system is dominated by sediment gravity flow and suspension settling from meltwater plumes. Suspension sediments comprise mainly mud facies indicating significant meltwater-deposition that overwashes debris release from icebergs in this East Greenland fjord system. The relatively widespread occurrence of fine-grained lithofacies in East Greenland fjords suggests that meltwater sedimentation can be significant in polar glacimarine environments. The ice-distal continental margin is characterized by meltwater sedimentation in the inner shelf deep, iceberg scouring over shallow shelf regions, winnowing and erosion by the East Greenland Current on the middle–outer shelf, and hemipelagic sedimentation on the continental slope.

Marine sediments in the fjords and on the continental margin of East Greenland record a history of sedimentation associated with Quaternary glacier-fluctuations and climate change. Investigations of marine sediments in East Greenland have been augmented by detailed studies from the Scoresby Sund fjord system (Marienfeld 1991, 1992a, b; Dowdeswell et al. 1993, 1994a, b; Œ Cofaigh et al. 2001), Kangerdlugssuaq Fjord (Svyitsky et al. 1996a; Andrews et al. 1994, 1996) and the adjacent continental margin (Mienert et al. 1992; Dowdeswell et al. 1997b; Næs et al. 1995; Stein et al. 1996; Nam 1996). Correlation of the marine and terrestrial sedimentary records has provided a comprehensive reconstruction of glacial history and climatic events in East Greenland (e.g. Funder et al. 1998).

These geological investigations indicate that glacier fluctuations in East Greenland have been relatively minor during Late Quaternary glacial–interglacial periods (Funder 1989; Funder & Hansen 1996; Funder et al. 1998) in comparison to major variations elsewhere in the Polar North Atlantic (e.g. Elverhøi et al. 1998). However, Late Quaternary sedimentation and glacial history in the more northerly fjords and continental margin of East Greenland is poorly constrained. Our understanding of the glacial history in this region has been based on only a few terrestrial geological and lake studies (Hjort 1979, 1981; Funder 1989; Wagner et al. 2000; Cremer et al. 2001). Therefore, the aim of our work is to investigate the marine sedimentary record from the northern part of East Greenland (Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and the adjacent continental margin) in order to: (1) characterize glaciomarine sedimentation along a transect from the middle–outer fjord to the continental slope; (2) to reconstruct the Late Quaternary glacial history and sedimentation for this region; and (3) to place the study within the context of sedimentation and glacier fluctuations in East Greenland and the Polar North Atlantic.

Study area

Physiography and bathymetry

Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord is located in East Greenland at 73°N, covering an area of 2200 km² and extending 220 km from fjord head to mouth (Fig. 1). Nordfjord, Geologfjord and Isfjord form tributary fjords. A prominent shallow sill characterizes the intersection of Nordfjord and Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord (Fig. 1b). The middle–outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord is 10–20 km wide and has water depths of up to 550 m, with the outer fjord basin subdivided into three sub-basins (Fig. 1b). Fosters Bugt forms a wide embayment at the fjord mouth with maximum water depths of 340 m. The inner continental shelf is characterized by a bathymetric deep with maximum water depths reaching 520 m. A prominent bathymetric high is located across the inner–middle shelf with water depths of 235 m (Fig. 1b). The remaining shelf is 280 to 340 m deep and extends 110 km to the shelf break.

The hinterland of the middle–outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and Fosters Bugt comprises a mountainous inland that slopes down to coastal lowlands, and contrasts physiographically with the steep-walled fjord interior. Glacially abandoned valleys and cirques incise the hinterland. Glaciﬂuvial and fluvial systems fed by melting glacier-ice or snow and precipitation dissect these coastal plains (e.g. Badlandal and Parallelldal discharging into Fosters Bugt and the outer fjord, respectively; Fig. 1c). These systems produce fjord-margin outwash deltas or alluvial fans, and surface meltwater plumes that extend to shore-distal locations. Subaerial rock-falls form talus cones along steep fjord margins.

Glaciology and oceanography

The Greenland Ice Sheet drains through the inner coastal mountain zone via Walterhausen, Adolf Hoels, Jætte, Gerrard de Geer and Nordenskjold Glaciers that terminate at the head of Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and its tributary fjords (Fig. 1). Walterhausen Glacier is the largest of these glaciers, with a terminus width of 10.2 km. The total glacier drainage-basin area exceeds 8400 km² compared to 50 000 km² for the inner Scoresby Sund fjord system (Dowdeswell et al. 1994b).

Approximately 8 km³ of ice is calved into the fjord system each year (compared to 18 km³ in Scoresby Sund and 7 km³ in Dove Bugt), accounting for 3% of total iceberg production in Greenland (Reeh 1985). Observations indicate that icebergs in Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord are highly variable both in size and shape and their net drift is towards the fjord mouth. Shorefast sea ice prevents drift between October and June. Icebergs escaping the fjord system drift south along the continental shelf parallel to the coast within the East Greenland Current (Wadhams 1981). Multi-year sea-ice across the continental margin retreats to NE Greenland during mild summers and remains in East Greenland during moderate summers.
Fig. 1. (a) Location map of East Greenland. The inset box outlines the main study area of Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord (K.F.J. Fjord) and adjacent continental margin discussed in this paper. The fjord is fed by several tributary fjords that include: Nordfjord (NF), Geologfjord (GF) and Isfjord (IF). White areas correspond to ice-covered landscape with outlet glaciers terminating at the head of the fjord system indicated: Walterhausen Gletscher (WHG), Adolf Hoels Gletscher (AH), Jaette Gletscher (JG), Gerrard de Geer Gletscher (GdG) and Nordenskjold Gletscher (NG). Black arrows mark the southward flowing East Greenland Current. (b) Detailed bathymetric map of the study area with arrows denoting the influx of meltwater to the outer fjord and Fosters Bugt. Two major fluvial systems are marked: P – Parallel; B – Badlandal. (c) Map showing cruise tracks along which Parasound acoustic data were acquired and the locations of sediment cores. Locations of Parasound records shown in this paper are illustrated.
Table 1. Acoustic facies identified from Parasound records from Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and the adjacent East Greenland continental margin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acoustic facies</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>Acoustically stratified sediment that infills fjord basins. Smooth and continuous sea floor reflector with multiple, parallel, continuous to semi-continuous sub-sea floor reflectors that can pinch out laterally. Basin fill can be down-fjord in direction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1b</td>
<td>Acoustically stratified sediment comprising a smooth continuous sea floor reflector with parallel, distinct, semi-continuous to continuous reflectors that can pinch-out laterally. Facies is confined to the continental shelf and slope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Acoustically transparent lens-shaped sediment bodies that are up to 20 m thick and up to 750 m wide, although widths of several km are present in fjord basins. Distinct and well-defined reflectors enclose sediment lenses. Hummocky sea floor where sediment lenses are located close to the sea floor on the upper slope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Acoustically homogeneous sediment with a highly irregular sea floor reflector comprising paired ridges and an intervening trough. Crest-trough amplitude reaches 15 m and crest-to-crest width metres to tens of metres. Occurs down to water depths of 400 m. Sea floor reflector is discontinuous and diffuse, and displays high intensity irregularities with sharp ridge crests above 300 m water depths. Ridge crests are more rounded and sea floor reflector more distinct and continuous with some areas of flat sea floor in water depths between 200 and 300 m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Acoustically transparent to stratified sediment (can exceed 25 m thick) with multiple, parallel continuous to semi-continuous sea floor and sub-sea floor reflectors draping underlying topography. Sea floor reflector can be slightly irregular, comprising small-scale, low intensity irregularities separated by extensive regions of smooth sea floor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Acoustically semi-transparent to crudely stratified sediment with a distinct and irregular (small-scale &lt;5m wide) top-surface reflector. Facies thickness is highly variable but generally &lt;10 m thick. The facies is confined to the mid–outer shelf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Acoustically homogeneous sediment on the upper slope. Low acoustic penetration. Sea floor reflector is continuous, semi-prolonged and generally smooth and planar, but can be hummocky in association with facies 2.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The East Greenland Current (EGC) flows south along the continental margin (Fig. 1a). It comprises cold (−1 °C), polar water to a depth of 250 m, and warm, saline return Atlantic intermediate water (RAIW) below this (Hopkins 1991). Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord comprises three water masses (Vogt et al. 1995), similar to other East Greenland fjords (Marienfeld 1991, 1992b; Syvitski et al. 1996a; Ö Cofaigh et al. 2001): (1) warm (>0 °C), low saline (<31 per mil) surface water (<25 m thick) that extends onto the inner shelf; (2) very cold (<0 °C), high salinity polar waters to depths of 200–300 m derived from the inflow of the EGC; and (3) warm (0–3 °C), high salinity (>34 per mil) RAIW intruding into the fjord below 300 m.

Data acquisition and methods

Geological and geophysical data were collected during the 1994 cruise of RV Polarstern to Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and the East Greenland continental margin (Hubberten 1995; Fig. 1). The regional distribution of sediments was analysed using a Krupp-Atlas Parasound system (Grant & Schreiber 1990). The Parasound system adopts the parametric principle where the profiling beam is generated from non-linear interaction of two primary signals of different frequencies. The resultant profiling beam produces a footprint diameter of 7% of water depth and a width of 4°. This enables up to 100 m of sediment penetration with a vertical resolution of 0.3 m leading to better spatial resolution than with conventional 3.5 kHz systems (Kuhn & Weber 1993; Dowdeswell et al. 1997a). Six acoustic facies are identified from Parasound records collected along all ship tracks (Fig. 1c; Table 1) on the basis of sea floor and sub-sea floor reflectors and associated lateral continuity, morphology and geometry (e.g. Damuth 1978).

Eight gravity cores were recovered along the fjord–shelf–slope transect (Fig. 1e; Table 2). Cores were described both visually and with X-ray radiographs, and lithofacies were identified using the nomenclature of Eyles et al. (1983)
Table 2. Location, water depth and recovery length of gravity cores from Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and the adjacent continental margin of East Greenland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Latitude</th>
<th>Longitude</th>
<th>Water depth (m)</th>
<th>Recovery (m)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PS2633</td>
<td>73° 28.8 S</td>
<td>24° 36.8 W</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>5.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2632</td>
<td>73° 24.4 S</td>
<td>23° 38.0 W</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2631</td>
<td>73° 10.7 S</td>
<td>22° 11.0 W</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>7.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2641</td>
<td>73° 09.3 S</td>
<td>19° 28.9 W</td>
<td>469</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2630</td>
<td>73° 09.5 S</td>
<td>18° 04.1 W</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2629</td>
<td>73° 09.5 S</td>
<td>16° 29.0 W</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>2.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2628</td>
<td>73° 09.8 S</td>
<td>15° 58.0 W</td>
<td>1694</td>
<td>2.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2627</td>
<td>73° 07.4 S</td>
<td>15° 40.9 W</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Lithofacies in cores from middle–outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and adjacent continental margin (after Eyles et al. 1983)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lithofacies</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diamicton</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dmm</td>
<td>Diamicton, matrix-supported and massive. Dispersed to clustered clasts. Can form a rare sandy gravel-rich lag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dmm(r)</td>
<td>Diamicton, matrix-supported and massive with dispersed clasts to locally imbricated clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gravelly sand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5ng</td>
<td>Gravelly sand, normally graded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sm</td>
<td>Sand, massive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sm(d)</td>
<td>Sand, massive with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muddy sand</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F5ng</td>
<td>Muddy sand, normally graded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sandy mud</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S5ng</td>
<td>Sandy mud, normally graded</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFm</td>
<td>Sandy mud, massive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFm(d)</td>
<td>Sandy mud, massive with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFbd</td>
<td>Sandy mud, bioturbated with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SFc(m-l)</td>
<td>Sandy mud, rhythmic couplets comprising sand/silt rich and clay rich units with a massive to planar parallel to cross-laminated structure, water escape structures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mud</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fm</td>
<td>Mud, massive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fm(d)</td>
<td>Mud, massive with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fm(d-sl)</td>
<td>Mud, massive with dispersed clasts and lenses of poorly-sorted sand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fb</td>
<td>Mud, bioturbated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fbd</td>
<td>Mud, bioturbated with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fl</td>
<td>Mud, laminated with dispersed clasts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fl(d)</td>
<td>Mud, laminated with dispersed to layered clasts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Table 3). Grain size distribution was determined using wet and dry sieving and Sedigraph. Mean grain size and sorting were calculated using the statistical graphical method of Folk & Ward (1957). The number of particles coarser than 2 mm were point-counted using X-radiographs, and the percentage sand and gravel >500 μm determined, as an index of ice-rafted debris (IRD) (cf. Grobe 1987; Elverhøi et al. 1995).

The chronology of the sediments was established by radiocarbon dating of carbonate shells using the accelerator mass spectrometer (AMS) at the University of Århus. AMS radiocarbon ages were determined for specific horizons using 2000–3000 shells of the planktonic foraminifera.
Table 4. Radiocarbon dates for cores PS2631, PS2641, PS2630, PS2629, PS2628 and PS2627. Ages are shown in uncorrected and corrected form. The corrected ages assume a reservoir age of 550 years in East Greenland. Ages were determined on planktonic foraminifera (N. pachyderma), gastropoda (Buccinum hydrophanum) and bivalvia (Thyasira gouldi, Bathymyra glacialis or Portlandia fraterna) species.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core</th>
<th>Core Depth (cm)</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Uncorrected age $^{14}$C years BP</th>
<th>Corrected age $^{14}$C years BP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PS2631</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>Buccinum hydrophanum</td>
<td>1695 +/- 55</td>
<td>1145 +/- 55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>390</td>
<td>Thyasira gouldi</td>
<td>7990 +/- 210</td>
<td>7440 +/- 210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2641</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>Bathymyra glacialis</td>
<td>6980 +/- 130</td>
<td>6430 +/- 130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>413</td>
<td>Bathymyra glacialis</td>
<td>7600 +/- 70</td>
<td>7050 +/- 70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>535</td>
<td>Bathymyra glacialis</td>
<td>8700 +/- 75</td>
<td>8150 +/- 75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>554</td>
<td>Bathymyra glacialis</td>
<td>9130 +/- 80</td>
<td>8580 +/- 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>565</td>
<td>Portlandia fraterna</td>
<td>9280 +/- 80</td>
<td>8730 +/- 80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>585</td>
<td>Portlandia fraterna</td>
<td>9560 +/- 120</td>
<td>9010 +/- 120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2630</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>13 560 +/- 130</td>
<td>13 010 +/- 130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2629</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>17 510 +/- 160</td>
<td>16 960 +/- 160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>19 500 +/- 210</td>
<td>18 950 +/- 210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2628</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>13 570 +/- 120</td>
<td>13 020 +/- 120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>15 910 +/- 160</td>
<td>15 360 +/- 160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>210</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>19 390 +/- 190</td>
<td>18 840 +/- 190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PS2627</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>9 300 +/- 100</td>
<td>8 750 +/- 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>220</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>15 880 +/- 120</td>
<td>15 330 +/- 120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>19 040 +/- 230</td>
<td>18 490 +/- 230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>330</td>
<td>N. pachyderma</td>
<td>26 350 +/- 380</td>
<td>25 800 +/- 380</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Neogloboquadrina pachyderma sin.**, obtained from the 125–250 μm sand fraction in PS2641, PS2630, PS2629, PS2628 and PS2627, and gastropoda and bivalvia shells in PS2631 and PS2641 (Table 4). The ocean reservoir effect for East Greenland is 550 years (Hjort 1973) and is subtracted from the raw age to obtain the reservoir corrected radiocarbon age ($^{14}$C years BP). There were no ash layers within the cores to corroborate radiocarbon ages independently.

**Chronology**

**Radiocarbon ages and sediment flux**

Radiocarbon ages are presented in uncorrected and marine reservoir corrected form in Table 4. Ages indicate that core sediments extend back to the Late Weichselian glaciation. An age of 10 000 $^{14}$C years BP is estimated for the surface of PS2630, as this is the last time that significant quantities of icebergs influenced the shelf to produce diamicton (see below). This interpretation is supported by an absence of Holocene diamicton on the inner shelf and in the fjords of E/NE Greenland (Stein et al. 1993; Nam 1996). An age of 13 000 $^{14}$C years BP is assumed for the top of the sand-mud couplet facies in PS2627 as this correlates with an identical, stratigraphic position in PS2628 that is dated to this time.

Radiocarbon ages allow calculation of linear sedimentation rates (cm ka$^{-1}$) and bulk accumulation rates (g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$) for the cores (Fig. 2). Sediment flux decreases eastward, from a point depending on the position of the ice margin through time. Sediment delivery is generally greatest on the continental margin under full Late Weichselian glacial and deglacial conditions in response to the Greenland Ice Sheet being located on the continental shelf. Sediment flux during the Late Weichselian glaciation is 30 cm ka$^{-1}$ and 29 to 65 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$ on the upper slope decreasing to 16 cm ka$^{-1}$ and 16–24 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$ on the mid-lower slope (Fig. 2). Sedimentation rates of 51–79 cm ka$^{-1}$ and 47–98 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$ are reached between 13 000 and 15 300 $^{14}$C years BP on the mid-lower slope, decreasing to <4 cm ka$^{-1}$ and <3 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$ after 13 020 $^{14}$C years BP (Fig. 2). Holocene sediment flux is highest in the fjord and on the inner shelf (up to 111 cm ka$^{-1}$ and 117 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$) reflecting greater proximity to the ice margin during and after retreat to its present day position (Fig. 2).

**Stable isotope stratigraphy**

The stable isotope stratigraphy of three cores (PS2627, PS2630 and PS2641) is presented in Figure 3. Isotope stage 2 (LGM) in PS2627 is characterized by heavy δ$^{18}$O isotopes (>4 %), and isotope stage 1 by lighter δ$^{18}$O values (<3.5 %) (Fig. 3). Intense bioturbation of
Holocene mud in PS2641 (see below) has smoothed any short-term isotopic variations that may have been present. A distinct shift of 1.67 ‰ in δ18O in PS2627 occurs at the Stage 2/1 transition between 13 020 and 15 300 14C years BP (Fig. 3). Similarly, δ18O minima (as low as 0.91 ‰) characterize the base of PS2641 (pre-dating 9010 14C years BP), corresponding to meltwater-derived laminated mud (Fig. 3). PS2630 is characterized by light δ18O values.
The distinct shift in δ¹⁸O values between Stage 2 and the δ¹⁸O minima exceed the 1.1–1.3 %e associated with the glacial-interglacial ice-volume effect (e.g. Chappell & Shackleton 1986; Shackleton 1987). The excess shift in δ¹⁸O is unlikely to be a result of temperature change because the East Greenland Current is at present −1°C, and additional cooling is unlikely during glacial periods. Instead, the δ¹⁸O minima are attributed to a decrease in surface water salinity associated with a major pulse of isotopically light meltwater during the last deglaciation (cf. Jones & Keigwin 1988; Sarnthein et al. 1992; Stein et al. 1994 a& b; Elverhøi et al. 1995; Nam et al. 1995; Hald et al. 1996). This meltwater event influenced the slope between 15 300 and 13 020 ¹⁴C years BP, the shelf after 13 020 ¹⁴C years BP and terminated on the inner shelf before 9010 ¹⁴C years BP. The meltwater signal in PS2627 corresponds to a sequence of thinly interbedded turbidites and hemipelagic muds (see below), but the signal is in-sequence (i.e. between Stages 2 and 1) and its timing is consistent with meltwater production in
Fig. 4. Detailed map of the study area showing the distribution of acoustic facies defined from Parasound records. Locations of Parasound records shown in this paper are illustrated.
Fig. 5. Parasound records of acoustic facies within middle–outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord. (a) Ponded sediment within a deep middle fjord basin bounded by steep sills and comprising stratified sediment (facies 1a) and discontinuous sediment lobes (facies 2) that fill the basin in a down-fjord direction. Horizontal and vertical scales are shown. (b) Ponded sediment fill within deep outer fjord basins, consisting of acoustically homogeneous sediment lobes (facies 2), stratified sediment (facies 1a) and a thin surface sediment drape (facies 4). Note that facies 2 overspills a sill separating the basins.
Fig. 6. Sedimentological logs of cores PS2633, PS2632, PS2631 and PS2641, middle–outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and inner continental shelf. Core locations are shown in Figure 1c. AMS radiocarbon dates (\(^{14}C\) years BP) obtained from PS2631 and PS2641 are marked. Explanation of lithofacies codes is given in Table 3.
high-latitude regions. Therefore, it is likely that the reworking of foram shells by turbidity currents is minimal and immediately succeeds primary deposition.

Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and Fosters Bugt

Sediment thickness and acoustic facies distribution

The mid-fjord basin comprises well-stratified sediment (facies 1a) interbedded with lens-shaped sediment bodies (facies 2) that fill the basin in a down-fjord direction (Figs 4 & 5a). Marginal fjord regions are draped by stratified sediment (facies 4). A prominent sill separating the mid- and outer fjord comprises a thin sediment cover with an irregular sea floor (facies 3).

The innermost sub-basin of the outer fjord comprises a sequence (>60 m thick) of stacked sediment lenses (facies 2) extending the length of the basin (several kilometres) overlain by well-stratified sediment (facies 1a) with isolated lenses of acoustically transparent sediment (<750 m wide, less than 20 m thick; facies 2) (Figs 4 & 5b). In the intermediate sub-basin

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**Fig. 7.** Coarse-particle counts (particles >0.2 cm/10 cm³) from cores PS2633, PS2632, PS2631 and PS2641. Core locations are shown in Figure 1c.
Fig. 8. Down-core grain size distribution, mean grain size, sorting and particles over 500 μm from (a) PS2631, (b) PS2641, (c) PS2630, (d) PS2629, (e) PS2628 and (f) PS2627, outer Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and inner continental shelf. Core locations are shown in Figure 1c. Lithofacies codes are explained in Table 3.

Sediment is <30 m thick and comprises acoustically opaque sediment or bedrock overlain by a drape of stratified sediment (facies 4) and a basin-length acoustically transparent sediment unit (facies 2) (Figs 4 & 5b). Transparent to stratified sediment (facies 1a, 2) is present in the outermost sub-basin (>60 m thick), with a less than 12 m thick drape of stratified sediment (facies 4) along more down-fjord marginal regions of the basin. A thin drape of sediment (<2 m) (facies 4) characterizes recent sedimentation in the outer fjord (Fig. 5b).
c. PS2630

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D. PS2629

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F. PS2627

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Fig. 8. continued.
Fig. 9. Core X-radiographs of representative lithofacies in this study. (a) Bioturbated mud (Fh) from PS2641. (b) Laminated mud (Fl) and massive diamicton (Dmm) from PS2641. (c) Resedimented massive diamicton (Dmmr) from PS2630. (d) Massive diamicton (Dmm) from PS2629. (e) Mud-sand couplets (SFc) from PS2627 and PS2628. (f) Interbedded dropstone mud/sandy mud (Fmd/SFmd) and massive diamicton (Dmm) in PS2627.
Sediment within the deeper part of Fosters Bugt to the north of Bontekoe Island is up to 15 m thick and comprises a drape of stratified sediment with rare sea floor irregularities (facies 4), and rare ponded stratified sediment within some basins (facies 1a) (Fig. 4). The shallower regions of Fosters Bugt (<300 m) comprise a highly irregular sea floor (facies 3) (Fig. 4).

Core sedimentology

Core PS2631 was recovered from a stratified sediment drape in the outermost sub-basin of the outer fjord, and core PS2632 from the surface drape of the innermost sub-basin (facies 4) (Fig. 4). Both cores are dominated by bioturbated clay-rich mud (Fb) with only a few clasts (Figs 6, 7 & 8a). Bioturbation is characterized by pyritized Chondrites and rare Planolites burrows (Fig. 9a). The lowermost unit in PS2631 comprises laminated clay-rich mud (F1) with diffuse and planar parallel-to-wavy laminae disturbed by bioturbation, and rare clasts (Figs 6, 7 & 8a).

Core PS2633 was recovered from stratified sediments draping the flanks of the mid-fjord basin (facies 4) (Fig. 4). The top half of the core consists of massive clay-rich mud (Fm) and small lenses of poorly sorted sand (<10 mm) (Fig. 6). The core-top comprises massive sandy mud with abundant clasts (SFmd) (Fig. 6). Laminated mud (F1) characterizes the lower half of the core comprising fine-to-crude scale, diffuse to well-defined, wavy-to-wispy-to-planar parallel laminae, with thin units of massive mud (<5 cm). Clasts, although rare, are relatively more abundant throughout PS2633 than in PS2631 and PS2632 (Fig. 7).

Interpretation of acoustic and core sedimentology

The ponded stratified sediments (facies 1a) within the basins of the fjord and Fosters Bugt are the result of deposition from sediment gravity flows and suspension settling (Syvitski 1989; Niessen & Whittington 1997). Acoustically transparent sediment lenses of facies 2 are consistent with debris flow deposits derived from failure of sediment outside the basin (Laberg & Vorren 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 1997b; Niessen & Whittington 1997; King et al. 1998). The depositional processes, producing facies 1a and 2, dominate sedimentation in the middle–outer fjord basins. Down-fjord progradation of sediment in the mid-fjord basin represents ice-proximal sedimentation derived from a temporarily stable ice-margin (cf. Ó Coiréigh et al. 2001). The drape of stratified sediment (facies 4) in the outer fjord and Fosters Bugt is derived from iceberg rafting and suspension settling (Syvitski 1989; Niessen & Whittington 1997), and directly overlies acoustically opaque till or bedrock in the outermost fjord.

Cores PS2632, PS2633 and PS2631 recovered from the drape of glacimarine sediments in the middle–outer fjord (facies 4) indicate that deposition of fine-grained muds by meltwater processes greatly overwhelms the supply and release of debris by icebergs. Massive and bioturbated muds support sedimentation from meltwater under ice- or fjord margin-distal conditions (Elverhøi et al. 1983; Elverhøi & Solheim 1983; Cowan et al. 1997). In contrast, the laminated muds indicate deposition from turbid meltwater plumes under comparatively more ice-proximal conditions (Powell 1983; Mackiewicz et al. 1984; Cowan & Powell 1990; Cowan et al. 1997, 1999). Debris release from iceberg rafting is supported by the presence of small amounts of dispersed clasts (PS2631, PS2632 and PS2633), and sandy mud with clasts and lenses of poorly sorted sand (PS2633). An increase in IRD content up-fjord reflects the increasing proximity to tidewater glaciers in the inner fjords (Fig. 7). The highly irregular sea floor and acoustically homogeneous sediment (facies 3) in water depths of less than 300 m indicate that icebergs scoured the sea floor as they drifted through the fjord (cf. Dowdeswell et al. 1993, 1994a).

Continental shelf

Sediment thickness and acoustic facies distribution

The inner–middle shelf and the shelf break comprises a highly irregular sea floor and acoustically homogeneous sediment (facies 3) (Figs 4, 10a & 11). A drape of stratified sediment (<10 m thick; facies 4) overlies acoustically opaque sediment or bedrock in the inner shelf bathymetric deep (Figs 4 & 10b). A drape of surface sediment (up to 4 m thick; facies 4) extends across an irregular topography from a prominent bathymetric high on the mid-shelf (see below) to the outer shelf. The surface drape is underlain by stratified sediment (facies 1b) in the region extending 2 km from the mid-shelf bathymetric high, and acoustically transparent to crudely stratified sediment of variable extent and thickness (<10 m; facies 5) across the remaining shelf (Figs 4 & 11).
Middle shelf ridge

A wedge-shaped bathymetric high composed of acoustically homogeneous sediment (facies 3) is located on the inner-middle shelf (Figs 4 & 11). The surface of this ridge is highly irregular. The ridge is c. 50-60 m in height and is bounded by a low gradient inner-shelf facing slope that merges with the eastern flank of the inner-shelf bathymetric deep, and a steeper outer-shelf facing margin (3°) (Fig. 11). The lower part of the steep outer-shelf facing margin is covered by a thin drape of sediment (facies 4).

Core sedimentology

Core PS2641 was recovered from the drape of sediment in the inner shelf deep (facies 4) (Figs 4 & 10b). The core is dominated by bioturbated mud facies (Fb) comprising pyritized Chondrites and Planolites burrows, and rare clasts (Figs 6, 8b & 9a). This facies is underlain by laminated mud (F1) with cyclically intercalated, millimetrescale, planar-parallel, silty mud and clayey mud laminae, and contains only rare clasts (Figs 6 & 9b). The base of the core comprises massive, matrix supported diamicton (Dmm) with a sharp and irregular upper contact (Figs 6, 8b & 9b).

Core PS2630 was recovered from stratified sediment (facies 1b, 4) 1 km in front of the midshelf ridge (Figs 4 & 11b). The top 30 cm of the core comprises massive sandy gravelly diamicton (13% gravel, 63% sand), separated via an indistinct contact from a massive muddy diamicton with dispersed to clustered clasts (Figs 8c & 12a). A sharp and irregular contact separates the muddy diamicton from a thin unit of bioturbated mud (Fb) which, in turn, is underlain by massive mud (Fm) (Figs 9c & 12a). The core base comprises massive, muddy diamicton (Dmmm), with a fabric of inclined and aligned clasts in the top 10 cm of the unit, which become dispersed below (Figs 8c, 9c & 12a).

Interpretation of the acoustic record and core sedimentology

Middle-shelf ridge: The prominent wedge-shaped morphology and acoustically homogeneous internal structure of the mid-shelf ridge are consistent with an origin as an ice-contact

Fig. 10. Parasound records of acoustic facies from the inner continental shelf. (a) Highly irregular sea floor with no sub-sea floor sedimentary structure (facies 3). (b) Thin glaciomarine sediment drape (facies 4) overlying acoustically impenetrable sediment or bedrock within the inner shelf basin.
Fig. 11. Parasound record of the moraine and acoustic facies on the middle continental shelf. (a) Wide perspective of the moraine and glacimarine sediments. (b) Close-up of the eastern margin of the moraine and glacimarine sediments.
Fig. 12. Sedimentological logs and coarse-particle counts (particles > 0.2 cm/10 cm³) of (a) PS2630, (b) PS2629, (c) PS2628 and (d) PS2627, middle continental shelf and continental slope. Core locations are shown in Figure 1c. AMS radiocarbon dates (14C years BP) obtained from all cores are marked. Lithofacies codes are explained in Table 3.
moraine (e.g. Syvitski et al. 1996b; Maclean 1997) (Fig. 11). The moraine is located directly east of the inner shelf deep, indicating that sediment may have been glacially excavated and redeposited from this region during the advance of grounded glacier-ice. Equally, the moraine may have formed by continual bulldozing of ice-proximal glaciogenic sediments forming a morainal bank (Powell & Molnia 1989).

Acoustic and core sedimentology: The highly irregular sea floor and acoustically structureless sediment (facies 3) across the inner-middle shelf and shelf break indicates significant scouring by icebergs (Dowdeswell et al. 1993, 1994a). Core PS2641 reveals that glaciomarine sediments draping acoustically opaque, till or bedrock in the inner shelf deep comprise, in part, bioturbated mud deposited under ice- or fjord-distal conditions by meltwater escaping the East Greenland fjords (Elverhøi et al. 1983; Elverhøi & Solheim 1983), and/or from the settling of bottom current remobilized shelf debris. The laminated mud facies (F1) indicates deposition from turbid-meltwater plumes with variable discharge under comparatively more ice-proximal conditions (Mackiewicz et al. 1984; Powell & Molnia 1989; Cowan & Powell 1990). Rare clasts indicate that iceberg rafting is relatively insignificant across the inner shelf. The basal massive muddy diamict is glaciomarine in origin rather than a till on account of its unconsolidated nature and meltwater-derived δ18O isotope minima (see above).

The acoustically stratified sediment (facies 1b, 4) deposited in front of the mid-shelf moraine is derived from ice-proximal sediment gravity flows, and rain-out/suspension settling. The upper massive diamicton in PS2630 corresponds to the drape of surface sediment (facies 4) extending from the moraine to the outer shelf, and is interpreted to result from the release of iceberg-raftered debris. Intense winnowing by the East Greenland Current has modified this sediment, producing a surface unit of sandy gravelly diamicton (cf. Mienert et al. 1992). The upper part of the underlying sequence of stratified sediment (facies 1b) comprises diamicton (PS2630), and the inclined and aligned clast fabric, sharp upper contact and fine-grained matrix supports an origin from cohesive debris flow (Walker 1992). The pinching out of reflectors in this sequence indicates the presence of a number of stacked massflow deposits. The origin of the acoustically transparent to crudely stratified sediment (facies 5) on the middle–outer shelf is uncertain on account of the spatially restrictive data coverage and absence of cores, but the crudely stratified nature suggests formation by ice-distal glaciomarine sedimentation.

Continental slope
Acoustic facies distribution
The uppermost continental slope down to about 1200 m is dominated by acoustically structureless sediment (facies 6; Figs 4 & 13a). Below 1200 m the mid–lower slope is characterized by stratified sediment (facies 1b) with isolated sediment lenses (facies 2) (Figs 13b & c). Sediment lenses up to 7 m thick and orientated in a downslope direction (facies 2) are present close to the sea floor at 800–1300 m between the upper slope sediment and mid/lower slope stratified sediment resulting in a hummocky sea floor (Figs 4 & 13b).

Core sedimentology
Core PS2629 was recovered from acoustically structureless sediment (facies 6) on the upper slope (Figs 4 & 13a). The core-top comprises bioturbated clay-rich mud (Fb) and rare clasts, which are most abundant above the underlying diamicton (Figs 8d, 12b). A massive, poorly sorted diamicton facies (Dmm) underlies the core and comprises dispersed to clustered clasts (10%) and more than 30% sand (Figs 8d, 9d & 12b). The diamicton is separated into two units via gradational contacts by a biogenic-rich (>50%) bioturbated sandy mud (SFbd) with dispersed clasts (4%), and up to 15% poorly sorted sand (Figs 8d & 12b).

Cores PS2628 and PS2627 were recovered from stratified sediment (facies 1b) and sediment lenses (facies 2) on the middle–lower slope (Figs 4 & 13c). Surface facies consist of biogenic-rich (>30%) bioturbated clay-rich mud (Fb) (Fig. 12). The facies is underlain by a thick sequence of rhythmically-intercalated, sand–mud couplets (Sfc). The couplets comprise a lower layer or lenses (<8 mm thick) of massive or planar/wavy parallel-to-cross laminated sandy or silty mud, and an upper layer (<20 mm thick) of massive to weakly parallel laminated clayey mud (Figs 9e, 12c & d). Climbing ripples and dewatering structures are rare. Contacts are sharp and well defined, with the basal contact of the couplet flat to undulating and in some cases erosive (Fig. 9e). A succession of thinly interbedded, massive muddy diamicton, massive to bioturbated sandy mud and massive mud dominate the lower half of both cores (Figs 9f, 12c & d). The muddy diamicton (Dmm)
contains dispersed clasts and is bounded by sharp contacts. Sandy mud facies (SFmb) contain up to 20% dispersed clasts and poorly sorted sand (Figs 8e & f, 12c & d). The base of PS2627 comprises normally graded gravelly sand and muddy sand facies (GSng/SFng) and a thick, massive muddy diamicton (Dmm), all separated by sharp contacts (Figs 12c & d).

**Interpretation of acoustic and core sedimentological data:** Acoustically structureless sediment (facies 6) on the upper slope is interpreted to
reflect both a coarse-grained sediment texture, and a steep slope gradient (cf. Kuhn & Weber 1993; Melles & Kuhn 1993). Massive muddy diamicton with large numbers of clustered to dispersed clasts, interbedded with bioturbated sandy mud via gradational contacts in PS2629 indicates that iceberg rafting is an important depositional mechanism on the upper slope (cf. Dowdeswell et al. 1994a). Sandy mud facies supports a period of reduced IRD supply coupled to an increase in hemipelagic sedimentation. Down-slope orientated sediment lenses (facies 2) on the upper-mid slope transitional region are consistent with debris flow deposits (Laberg & Vorren 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 1997b; King et al. 1998), supporting sediment failure and mass-flow on the upper slope. Recent sedimentation on the upper slope comprises thin hemipelagic bioturbated mud (Fb) (PS2629). A gradual decrease in the number of clasts from the diamicton through the surface mud represents a gradual cessation in IRD delivery to the upper slope (Fig. 8).

Stratified and lens-shaped sediment (facies 1a, 2) on the middle-lower slope indicates deposition from sediment gravity flow, iceberg rafting and suspension settling producing interbedded fine- and coarse-grained facies (PS2628 and PS2627). Surface bioturbated muds represent recent hemipelagic sedimentation with only limited deposition of IRD. The sedimentary characteristics of the sand–mud couplet facies are consistent with down-slope currents (distal turbidites) and intervening periods of hemipelagic sedimentation (Piper 1978; Stow & Shinnugam 1980; Hill 1984; Yoon et al. 1991; Anderson et al. 1996). The lower sections of PS2628 and PS2627 are sedimentologically more variable. Bioturbated mud and sandy muds contain a high biogenic content and rare to common clasts, indicating hemipelagic sedimentation and the release of low but variable amounts of IRD. Hemipelagic sedimentation is punctuated by episodic deposition of massive diamicton by cohesive debris flows (Hampton 1972; Middleton & Hampton 1976; Laberg & Vorren 1995; King et al. 1998). Normally graded sandy/gravelly facies indicate further deposition by turbidity currents (Bouma 1962; Walker 1992). A debris flow origin for the diamicton is confirmed by the correspondence of thicker units to sediment lenses (facies 2) within acoustic records.

Discussion: Late Quaternary sedimentary record

Late Weichselian ice-sheet extent (LGM)

A thin veneer of Holocene and Late Weichselian glaciomarine sediment overlying acoustically impenetrable till or bedrock on the inner shelf, Fosters Bugt and outer Kejsers Franz Joseph Fjord indicates that active, grounded glacier-ice of the Greenland Ice Sheet occupied the fjord and extended onto the inner shelf during the LGM, removing pre-existing sediment cover (Fig. 14). The existence of a floating ice shelf within the Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord and across the inner shelf can therefore be ruled out, as this would be incapable of eroding sediment. However, our data are inconclusive in terms of whether the ice-sheet margin was floating or grounded on the middle continental shelf, although Funder et al. (1998) suggest that East Greenland ice masses formed ice shelves.

The prominent mid-shelf moraine consisting of un lithified sediment marks the margin of the grounded palaeo-Greenland ice sheet on the shelf. This moraine is directly overlain by a thin iceberg-rafted diamict unit that dates 13 000 14C years BP (PS2630; Figs 11 & 12a), indicating that the moraine is probably Late Weichselian in age. The moraine therefore represents either the maximum ice-sheet extent during the LGM or marks a recessional position during Late Weichselian deglaciation. Although it is conceivable that the moraine could mark a recessional position of an ice margin retreating from the shelf break, current evidence indicates that the moraine is more likely to represent the outermost limit of the LGM ice sheet for the following related reasons. (1) Terrestrial geological evidence indicates that the Greenland Ice Sheet reached the inner-middle shelf during the LGM in this region (Hjort 1981; Funder 1989; Funder & Hansen 1996; Funder et al. 1998). (2) There is an apparent absence of ice-contact features on acoustic records from the outer shelf, suggesting glacier-ice probably terminated inshore of the shelf break. (3) There is an apparent absence of major debris flows, trough mouth fans and large-scale sliding in this region of the East Greenland continental slope (Mienert et al. 1993, 1995). Such features are characteristic of regions around the Polar North Atlantic where ice sheets extended to the shelf break during glacial maxima (Laberg & Vorren 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 1996, 1998, 2002; Vorren et al. 1998).

Glacier extent during the LGM in East and NE Greenland appears to have been more
restricted (Hjort 1981; Funder 1989; Funder & Hansen 1996) when compared to the region south of Scoresby Sund where glacier-ice extended to the shelf break during the LGM (e.g. Mienert et al. 1992; Andrews et al. 1996). This contrast probably reflects an increase in aridity north of Scoresby Sund in response to cyclonic drift tracks delivering precipitation to SE Greenland prior to moving out into the Polar North Atlantic away from the East Greenland coast (Funder & Hansen 1996; Funder et al. 1998).

**Continental slope sedimentation during the Late Weichselian glaciation**

The continental slope is characterized by significant sediment flux and deposition of coarse-grained lithofacies in response to the advance of the Greenland Ice Sheet onto the continental margin (Fig. 2). Sediment flux is highest on the upper slope (29–65 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$; 30 cm ka$^{-1}$), reflecting the more proximal location relative to the palaeo-ice sheet margin on the continental shelf, and decreases on the middle–lower slope (16–24 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$; 16–17 cm ka$^{-1}$). The upper slope is characterized by coarse-grained sediment, and core PS2629 indicates that this sediment is composed, in part, of iceberg-rafted diamicton with high concentrations of IRD. This suggests that sedimentation on the upper slope during the Late Weichselian was dominated by the release of debris from a significant number of icebergs calved from the Greenland Ice Sheet with a further contribution from marine sources and distal meltwater. The coarse-grained content of the diamicton exceeds 30% suggesting modification by bottom currents associated with the East Greenland Current (Mienert et al. 1992). The presence of dropstone sandy mud and mud-rich facies with low amounts of IRD on the mid to lower slope (PS2628 and PS2627) indicates that the release of IRD is greatly reduced and hemipelagic sedimentation dominates. This spatial difference in the amount of IRD between the upper slope and the middle–lower slope reflects either: (1) a downslope gradient in the number of icebergs traversing the slope, possibly in response to the southward flowing EGC confining most of the icebergs to the upper slope, or (2) the more ice-proximal setting of the upper slope relative to the LGM ice margin where a large amount of debris is deposited from icebergs.

Sediment gravity flows redistribute sediment down the East Greenland slope. The acoustically impenetrable sediment characterizing the upper slope reflects the coarse grain size of ice-rafted diamicts and subaqueous mass-flow deposits in this region (cf. Kuhn & Weber 1993; Melles & Kuhn 1993). Debris flow lobes on the upper–mid slope region indicate that mass-flows were derived from upper slope sediment instability and failure of rapidly accumulating, iceberg rafted sediment. Debris flows transport sediment over variable distances down the slope where it can cross from the upper slope region of acoustically impenetrable sediment into the area of acoustically stratified sediment on the mid- to lower-slope. On the mid- to lower slope, episodic debris flow activity punctuated intervals of more quiescent, hemipelagic sedimentation, resulting in a sequence of diamicts (cm- to metre-scale thickness) interbedded with dropstone sandy mud and laminated, massive or stratified mud facies. Turbidites are also present on the mid–lower slope, forming graded sand and gravel facies produced from episodic turbidity currents that are triggered by debris flow activity further up slope (cf. Hampton 1972).

**Large-scale sedimentation on the East Greenland continental margin**

Spatial differences in the style of large-scale sedimentation around the margins of the Polar North Atlantic have been attributed to contrasts in ice-sheet dynamics, notably with respect to ice-sheet extent and the rate at which sediment is delivered to the continental slope (Laberg & Vorren 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 1996, 1998; Vorren et al. 1998). The sedimentary record in this study covers only a limited area of the East Greenland slope and is, therefore, placed within a regional context using published GLORIA imagery and geological data from the slope and the abyssal plain of the Greenland Sea (cf. Mienert et al. 1993, 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 2002; O’Coaigh et al. 2002).

Sedimentation is greatest on the central East Greenland slope during full-glacial periods in response to ice-sheet advance across the continental shelf. LGM sedimentation rates of up to 30 cm ka$^{-1}$ are recorded on the slope and contrast with Holocene rates of less than 4 cm ka$^{-1}$. Geological evidence presented in this study and from other work in East Greenland (e.g. Dowdeswell et al. 1994b; Funder 1989; Funder et al. 1998) indicates that the Greenland Ice Sheet has exhibited relatively minor fluctuations between Late Quaternary glacial and interglacial periods. These fluctuations limited the amount of sediment transferred to the East Greenland slope, resulting in a sediment-starved environment relative to other margins of the Polar North Atlantic where ice sheets
reached the shelf break and delivered sediment directly to the slope at rates up to, and possibly exceeding, 170 cm ka$^{-1}$ (Laberg & Vorren 1996; Vorren et al. 1998; Dowdeswell et al. 1996, 1998; Solheim et al. 1998).

The East Greenland margin north of 72$^\circ$N is characterized by a network of submarine channels that extend from the upper continental slope to the abyssal plain of the Greenland Sea, and the apparent absence of major debris flow lobes or a trough-mouth fan (Mienert et al. 1993, 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 2002). This is confirmed by our core and acoustic records showing that debris flows are confined mainly to the upper slope and do not form the main architectural sediment body so typical of slopes characterized by trough-mouth fans (e.g. Laberg & Vorren 1995; Dowdeswell et al. 1997b; King et al. 1998). Sediment cores and acoustic records in this study were recovered from immediately upslope of the channels and also from the upper regions of the channel system itself. Diamicton, sand and mud facies in cores, and sediment lobes in the acoustic records, indicate episodic down-slope transport of coarse-grained sediment by debris flows and turbidity currents, derived from mass failure of upper slope sediments.

Sediment gravity flows sourced from the upper slope are likely to have fed into the deepwater channel systems. The passage of turbidity currents through the channel system is indicated by the presence of sandy and muddy turbidite facies in cores recovered from the channel system further downslope (Ó Cofaigh et al. 2002). This evidence suggests that sediment gravity flows contributed to the formation of the channel system, possibly in conjunction with dense brines cascading down the slope following their rejection during the formation of sea ice across the East Greenland shelf (Dowdeswell et al. 1996, 1998, 2002).

**Onset of Late Weichselian deglaciation**

The initial onset of deglaciation of the Greenland Ice Sheet is indicated by a distinct $\delta^{18}$O isotope minima after 15 300 $^{14}$C years BP on the continental slope (PS2627) attributed to a major pulse of low-saline meltwater (Fig. 14). A...
meltwater event following 15,800 years BP is also recorded in oxygen isotope records from further south along the East Greenland continental margin (Nam et al. 1995; Nam 1996). The similarity in timing indicates that meltwater production was a regional phenomenon and that the onset of deglaciation in East Greenland was broadly synchronous. The timing of deglaciation is supported by oxygen isotope data from the Renland Ice Core (Scoresby Sund region), which shows termination of the last glacial period at c. 15,000 $^{14}$C years BP (Johnsen et al. 1992). Meltwater spikes in isotope records from the Fram Strait and Norwegian Sea indicate that the deglaciation of ice sheets surrounding these regions occurred slightly later, beginning after 15,000 $^{14}$C years BP (e.g. Jones & Keigwin 1988; Sarnthein et al. 1992; Elverhøi et al. 1995; Hald et al. 1996; Hebbeln et al. 1998). Initial deglaciation in the Eurasian Arctic occurred earlier at 15,800 years BP (Stein et al. 1994a,b).

Deglaciation of the Greenland Ice Sheet further to the north in East and NE Greenland may have sourced these meltwaters with subsequent transport south in the East Greenland Current (cf. Stein et al. 1996). Meltwaters influencing the East Greenland continental margin may be associated, in part, with the decay of the Russian Arctic and Svalbard–Barents Sea ice sheets (Stein et al. 1994a,b; Nam et al. 1995). The influence of meltwater across the continental slope had terminated by 13,000 $^{14}$C years BP, probably in response to continued retreat of the ice-sheet margin.

There is an apparent absence of diagnostic sedimentary and acoustic facies on the middle–outer shelf that could provide information on the nature (continual or staggered retreat), mechanism (iceberg calving versus melting) and rate of ice sheet recession in East Greenland. However, a thin unit of iceberg-rafter diamicton drapes the front of the middle-shelf moraine indicating that the ice sheet had abandoned the middle shelf before 13,000 $^{14}$C years BP (Fig. 14).

**Sedimentation on the continental shelf and slope during Late Weichselian deglaciation**

An abrupt termination in both IRD delivery and deposition of coarse-grained sediment gravity flow deposits across the East Greenland slope occurs concomitantly with the onset of deglaciation after 15,300 $^{14}$C years BP. Both parameters are consistent with the slope becoming an increasingly ice-distal environment, and with an associated decrease in the flux of glacial sediment to the slope, concomitant with ice-sheet retreat. Reduced sediment flux would result in greater sediment stability on the slope, thereby preventing sediment gravity flows and the deposition of coarse-grained lithofacies. The East Greenland Current may have confined icebergs to the shelf and uppermost slope (possibly in response to an increase in current velocity), thereby preventing both the drift of icebergs over the slope and deposition of IRD.

Hemipelagic sedimentation dominates the upper slope during Late Weichselian deglaciation with deposition of dropstone sandy mud (PS2629). The mid- to lower slope between 15,300 and 13,000 $^{14}$C years BP is characterized by the deposition of finely interbedded sand-mud couplets (47–98 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$; 51–79 cm ka$^{-1}$) by a combination of downslope current activity and hemipelagic settling. This lithofacies has been observed on the slope off western Spitsbergen where it is associated with the growth and decay of the Barents Sea Ice Sheet (Andersen et al. 1996). These currents may have been derived from relatively small-scale sediment failure on the upper slope. Alternatively, downslope currents could be associated with movement of dense brines down the continental slope following their rejection during increased seasonal sea-ice formation (cf. Dowdeswell et al. 1998). Hemipelagic settling dominates sedimentation after 13,000 $^{14}$C years BP with reduced sediment flux (<3 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$; <4 cm ka$^{-1}$).

Sedimentation proximal to the middle-shelf moraine before 13,000 years BP is dominated by debris flow diamicton (PS2630) but it is uncertain how far this mass-flow activity extends back in the Late Weichselian. Iceberg-rafted diamicton is deposited across the shelf in regions proximal to the moraine between 13,000 and 10,000 $^{14}$C years BP and may extend across the outer shelf. This facies post-dates the moraine and indicates that the ice sheet had retreated from the middle-shelf by 13,000 $^{14}$C years BP, and that ice-mass loss was by iceberg calving. Very light $\delta^{18}$O values corresponding to this diamicton drape indicate significant meltwater production associated with either melting of icebergs or the ice sheet itself.

**Late Weichselian–Early Holocene deglaciation of the inner shelf and fjord system**

Deglaciation of the inner continental shelf and fjord is marked by an up-sequence facies change (PS2633, PS2631 and PS2641) from laminated mud to bioturbated mud, representing
meltwater deposition and a progressive shift from ice-proximal to ice-distal conditions during ice-sheet recession (cf. Svendsen et al. 1992). These sediments directly overlie acoustically opaque till or bedrock on the inner shelf and in the outer fjord, and they represent grounded ice-sheet conditions as opposed to an ice shelf. Significant production of low-saline meltwater during deglaciation of the inner shelf and outer fjord is confirmed by a prominent δ18O-spike in isotope records corresponding to the laminated mud facies on the inner shelf (PS2641). The abrupt termination of both the δ18O-minima and deposition of laminated mud supports rapid deglaciation and establishment of ice-distal conditions. Deposition of fine-grained lithofacies dominates ice recession, indicating that ice mass-loss is controlled by ablation with significant production of meltwater. The low concentrations ofIRD within these lithofacies indicate that the supply of IRD was overwhelmed by meltwater-derived sediment. However, iceberg scouring of the inner shelf and Fosters Bugt support iceberg production during deglaciation and the low IRD content could alternatively reflect the influence of polar water of the EGC that prevented iceberg melt and debris release.

Radiocarbon dates from sediments directly overlying the meltwater-derived laminated mud facies indicate that ice had abandoned the inner shelf before 9100 14C years BP and the outer fjord before 7440 14C years BP (Fig. 14). The thin nature of sediment cover on the shelf indicates that ice abandoned the inner shelf and established ice-distal conditions rapidly, but the timing of this is unknown. Terrestrial geological data from Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord point to stabilization of the ice margin in Fosters Bugt at 10 000 14C years BP (Hjort 1979, 1981; Funder 1989; Funder & Hansen 1996; Funder et al. 1998) (Fig. 14). The shallow Fosters Bugt and Bontekoe Ø would have formed natural pinning points, thereby facilitating stabilization of the retreating ice margin during the Younger Dryas. Marine geological evidence in the form of moraines and ice-proximal sediment depocentres, such as that associated with the Milne Land stadal ice front in Scoresby Sund (e.g. Dowdeswell et al. 1994b), are absent. This may reflect Holocene iceberg scouring which has destroyed a significant proportion of the marine record in Fosters Bugt and on the inner shelf. Alternatively, the dominance of meltwater sediments in Fosters Bugt may reflect the continental retreat of the ice sheet margin from a position immediately east of Bontekoe Ø after 10 000 14C years BP.

There is no chronological data on deglaciation and the rate of glacier retreat from the middle fjord, but evidence from other East Greenland fjords suggests that glacier-ice had attained its present-day position by 6–7000 14C years BP (Funder 1978, 1989) (Fig. 14). A drape of stratified glaciomarine sediment directly overlying till or bedrock, coupled to the absence of ponded sediment depocentres suggests that glacier retreat through the outer fjord before 7440 14C years BP was fairly continuous. In contrast, glacier retreat through middle Kejser Franz Joseph Fjord was punctuated by stillstands in response to numerous pinning points. Glacier-ice stabilized in these topographically favourable positions, and fed sediment into ice-proximal basins (prograding down-fjord) by subaqueous sediment gravity flow and suspension settling.

Holocene ice-distal sedimentation in the middle–outer fjord and continental margin

Ice-distal conditions became established in the middle–outer fjord during the Early Holocene. In this setting, a significant volume of sediment is transferred to the deep basins of the middle–outer fjord by subaqueous debris flows and turbidity currents, producing interbedded, homogeneous sediment lobes and stratified sediment (Fig. 5; cf. Niessen & Whittington 1997). Mass-flows are derived from sediments deposited along the margins of the middle–outer fjord by rock fall, deltas, alluvial fans and meltwater-processes. These sediments are prone to failure due to rapid sedimentation and the irregular and steep bathymetry of the fjord. Sediment-laden meltwater discharged into the middle–outer fjord and Fosters Bugt via a number of glacialfluvial and fluvial systems (e.g. Badlandal and Parallelulal; Fig. 1c) and from glacier-fed turbid overflow plumes escaping the inner fjord, producing thick sequences of bioturbated and massive muds (PS2633, PS2632 and PS231). Sediment flux can reach 90 cm ka⁻¹, reflecting the narrow fjord physiography and proximity of meltwater sources, and the high volume of sediment transferred to this fjord by meltwater. The low amount of IRD indicates that meltwater sedimentation is dominant over iceberg rafting in this East Greenland fjord. Meltwater-derived muds are abundant close to fast-flowing outlet glaciers in fjords further to the south in East Greenland, in both Scoresby Sund and Kangerlussuaq Fjord (Smith & Andrews 2000; Ó Cofaigh et al. 2001), as well as in fjords in the Canadian Arctic (Stewart 1991; Syvitski & Hein 1991; Hein & Syvitski 1992). Therefore, the
relatively widespread occurrence of fine-grained lithofacies suggests that meltwater sedimentation can be relatively significant in polar glaciomarine environments. Icebergs that do traverse the fjord system and Fosters Bugt actively scour the sea floor above 300 m water depth.

Meltwater escaping the middle–outer fjord and fjords further to the north in East Greenland also contribute significantly to the deposition of thick bioturbated mud facies in the inner shelf bathymetric deep. The high flux of sediment to the inner shelf (up to 117 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$) reflects the high volume of meltwater-derived sediment escaping the fjord systems, and is probably a function of the proximity of fluvial and glaciomarine systems that drain into the nearby outer fjord system. The middle–outer shelf is subject to intense erosion and winnowing by the East Greenland Current resulting in a lag of sandy gravelly diamicton (PSZ630) and an apparent absence of fine-grained sediment at the sea floor. The continental slope is comparatively sediment starved (<4 cm ka$^{-1}$) where hemipelagic sedimentation produces mud facies.

**Conclusions**

1. Geophysical and geological evidence indicates that during the LGM the Greenland Ice Sheet extended as far as the mid-continental shelf where its maximum grounded extent is marked by a prominent moraine.

2. Sediment flux to the continental slope during the LGM was high (15–30 cm ka$^{-1}$; 16–65 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$) in response to ice-sheet advance onto the shelf. Sedimentation across the upper slope was characterized by the release of significant quantities of iceberg-rafted debris (diamicton facies) with subsequent downslope remobilization of this sediment by mass-flow (typically debris flow). On the middle–lower slope iceberg rafting and hemipelagic sedimentation (forming dropstone mud and sandy mud) were punctuated by deposition of diamicton and graded sand/gravel facies by mass flows derived from sediment failure on the upper slope. A downslope decrease in IRD reflects either the influence of the East Greenland Current confining icebergs to the upper slope, or progressive distance from the ice-sheet margin. Sediment gravity flows on the slope are likely to have fed into the East Greenland channel system, contributing to its formation.

3.Deglaciation commenced after 15,300 14C years BP as indicated by $\delta^{18}$O isotope minima. Ice had abandoned the middle-shelf moraine before 13,000 14C years BP. The presence of iceberg-rafted diamicton on the middle–outer shelf supports ice-mass loss through calving after 13,000 years BP.

4. Iceberg rafting and deposition across the slope ceased during deglaciation reflecting increasingly ice-distal conditions and, possibly, confinement of icebergs to the shelf by the EGC. Fine-grained deposition by downslope currents dominated slope sedimentation at 15,300 and 13,000 14C years BP, and may have been linked to an increase in brine rejection on the shelf.

5. Ice abandoned the inner shelf before 9100 14C years BP and stabilized in Fosters Bugt at 10,000 14C years BP. The outer fjord was deglaciated before 7440 14C years BP. Sedimentologically, deglaciation is marked by an upward stratigraphic transition from acoustically opaque till or bedrock to laminated mud and bioturbated mud representing increasingly ice-distal conditions. Distinct $\delta^{18}$O isotope minima on the inner shelf indicate major meltwater production during deglaciation. Ice retreat through the middle–outer fjord was punctuated by topographically-controlled stillstands and ice-proximal sedimentation within the mid-fjord basin.

6. Holocene sediments on the middle–outer continental shelf are winnowed and eroded by the EGC, and the shelf is iceberg scoured. Sediment gravity flows transfer sediment to the deep basins of the Holocene ice-distal middle–outer fjord, producing interbedded acoustically transparent sediment lobes and stratified sediment. Sediment-laden meltwaters transfer high volumes of sediment at high fluxes (up to 111 cm ka$^{-1}$ and 117 g cm$^{-2}$ ka$^{-1}$) to the outer fjord, Fosters Bugt and inner shelf, and produce thick sequences of bioturbated and massive mud. Meltwater sedimentation overwhelms iceberg rafting in this East Greenland fjord and shelf system. The relatively widespread occurrence of fine-grained lithofacies in East Greenland fjords suggests that meltwater sedimentation can be significant in polar glaciomarine environments.

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