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Glacier fluctuations of Muztag Ata and temperature
changes during the Late Holocene in westernmost
Tibetan Plateau, based on glaciolacustrine sediment
records

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25 Abstract Late Holocene glacial variations of Muztag Ata in Pamir Mountains
26 (westernmost Tibetan Plateau) were studied based on the analysis of grainsize,
27 magnetic susceptibility, elements (Zr, Zr/Rb, Rb/Sr) from an 8.3-m long distal
28 glaciolacustrine sediment core of Kalakuli Lake. High silt and Zr content, Zr/Rb ratio
29 and magnetic susceptibility values, and low clay content and Rb/Sr ratio are used to
30 indicate the glacier advance, while low silt and Zr content, Zr/Rb ratio and magnetic
31 susceptibility values, and high clay content and Rb/Sr ratio are used to reflect the
32 glacier retreat. Our results show that there are four glacier expansion episodes
33 occurring in 4200-3800 cal yr BP, 2950-2300 cal yr BP, 1700-1070 cal yr BP, and
34 570-100 cal yr BP, and four glacial retreat periods of 3800-2950 cal yr BP, 2300-1700
35 cal yr BP, 1150-570 cal yr BP, and 100 cal yr BP-present. The four glacier expansion
36 episodes are generally in agreement with the glacial activities indicted by ¹⁰Be
37 terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide surface-exposure dating of boulders on the moraines at
38 nearby Muztag Ata and Kongur Shan, as well as temporally coincident with the Late
39 Holocene ice-rafting events in the North Atlantic (i.e. Bond events 0 to 3). Over the last
40 2000 years, our reconstructed glacial variations are in temporal agreement with
41 reconstructed temperature from China and the Northern Hemisphere, i.e., glacial
42 advance responding to low temperature and glacial retreat to high temperature,
43 indicating that glacial variations at centennial time scales in western Tibetan Plateau are
44 very sensitive to temperature.

45 **Keywords** Glaciolacustrine sediment, Westernmost Tibetan Plateau, Glacier variation,
46 Kalakuli Lake, Late Holocene, temperature

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The Tibetan Plateau is assumed to sensitively respond to regional and global climate
49 change [*Prell and Kutzbach, 1992; Zhisheng et al., 2001*], accordingly the on-going
50 glaciers retreats on the Tibetan Plateau were explained by global warming [*Gardelle et*
51 *al., 2013; Käab et al., 2012; Khromova et al., 2006; Mölg et al., 2013; Yao et al., 2012*].

52 Therefore, studying the past glacier variations on the Tibetan Plateau is very important
53 to understand the responses to regional and global climate change. In particular, the
54 westernmost Tibetan Plateau is influenced by Asian monsoons in the east, the
55 Westerlies in the west, and the natural orographic barrier by the
56 Pamir-Karakoram-Himalaya mountain ranges [*Bookhagen and Burbank, 2010*].

57 Conventionally, the reconstructions of the past glacier variations have been based
58 mostly on the dating of moraine-ridge sequences and on moraine-stratigraphic studies
59 [*Grove, 1988; Patzelt, 1974*]. This approach was widely used in many studies in the
60 monsoon-influenced regions of Tibetan Plateau [*Lehmkuhl et al., 1998; Owen et al.,*
61 *1997; Owen et al., 1998; Owen et al., 2003a; Owen et al., 2003b; Owen et al., 2005;*
62 *Owen, 2009; Sharma and Owen, 1996*]. Recently, the well-preserved moraine
63 successions have also been reconstructed in Muztag Ata and Kongur Shan, and in
64 Central Karakoram which receive their most precipitation from westerly air masses
65 [*Derbyshire and Owen, 1997; Seong et al., 2007; Seong et al., 2009*]. However, the
66 moraine-stratigraphic approach is impossible to obtain continuous and high-resolution
67 glacier records. In the late 1970s and 1980s sediments in lakes located downstream
68 from glaciers was used to obtain not only continuous, but also high-resolution glacial

69 records of the Holocene [Karlén, 1976; 1981; 1988; Leonard, 1986a; b]. Thus, the
70 Holocene glacial variations recorded from distal (downstream) glaciolacustrine
71 sediment cores in both Europe and North America have been well obtained [Dahl et al.,
72 2002; Dahl et al., 2003; Leonard and Reasoner, 1999; Lie et al., 2003a; b; Lie et al.,
73 2004; Matthews, 2005; Matthews et al., 2005; Matthews and Dresser, 2008; Nesje,
74 1992; Nesje et al., 2000; Nesje et al., 2001], but this approach is rarely used to
75 reconstruct the Holocene variations in the Tibetan Plateau. Therefore, the main
76 objectives of this paper are (1) to set up a continuous record of late Holocene glacial
77 variations in Muztag Ata of westernmost Tibet based on distal glaciolacustrine
78 sediments in Kalakuli lake; (2) to compare our results with other records to obtain an
79 supra-regional view on late Holocene glacier development; and (3) to discuss the
80 relationship between the temperature variations and glacial activities at centennial time
81 scales in the westernmost Tibetan Plateau during late Holocene.

82 **2. Study area**

83 Kalakuli Lake (N38°25.83'-38°27.57', E 75°02.27'-75°04.17', 3645 m a.s.l.) is located
84 in the Pamir Mountains, which connects the Tibetan Plateau with further Central Asian
85 Mountain ranges (Fig.1). Its area is about 10 km². It has a shallow lake basin with an
86 average water depth of 15 m and a maximum depth of 20 m. Kalakuli Lake lies 20 km
87 downstream from the glaciers on the southern flank of the Muztag Ata massif (7546 m
88 a.s.l.). The lake receives glacial meltwater from Muztag Ata massif, and has a small
89 outflow, at its northern margin, to Kangxiwa River (Fig.1).

90 The 49-year (1961-2009) meteorological data from Tashikuergan (37.77° N, 75.23° E;

91 3100 m a.s.l), about 75 km to the south from Kalakuli Lake, west of Kusai Lake from Lake,
92 indicate the mean annual temperature is 0.7 °C and the mean annual precipitation is 127
93 mm. The highest precipitation occurs in spring (March to May) as a result of the
94 penetration of the midlatitude westerlies into the region (Miehe et al., 2001). Summer
95 precipitation, which could be associated with the south Asian monsoon, accounts for
96 <30% of the annual total [Barry and Chorley, 2003].

97

98 **3. Materials and methods**

99 During October 2008, we collected two long sediment cores from the central part of
100 Kalakuli Lake at a water depth of 16.0 m using UWITEC coring equipment (Fig. 1;
101 N38°26.381', E75°03.435'). Magnetic susceptibility (MS) of two long cores was
102 scanned with 2-cm resolution at Nanjing Institute of Geography and limnology,
103 Chinese Academy of Sciences (NIGLAS-CAS), using a Bartington MS2C loop sensor
104 with a loop diameter of 10 cm. MS results in standard units, SI, are given in 10⁻⁶. An
105 8.30 m long composite sediment core was constructed by MS correlations of the two
106 long cores, in order to ensure that the core is continuous and no overlap exists.

107 Radiocarbon dates were obtained on organic matter from seventeen samples using
108 accelerated mass spectroscopy (AMS). Eight measurements were carried out at
109 National Isotope Centre, Institute of Geological and Nuclear Sciences Ltd (GNS
110 Science), New Zealand, and nine at Beta Analytic Inc..

111 Non-destructive X-ray fluorescence (XRF) measurements on split core surfaces at
112 1 cm resolution were performed with an Avaatech XRF Core Scanner [Richter et al.,

113 2006] at Alfred Wegener Institute for Polar and Marine Research in Bremerhaven,
114 Germany. The elements Al, Si, P, S, Cl, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Fe, Mn, Co, and Rh were
115 measured at an X-ray voltage of 10kV, while the elements Zn, Ga, Br, Rb, Sr, Y, Zr, Au,
116 Pb, and Bi at an X-ray voltage of 30kV. All results are reported in counts per second
117 (cps). As XRF core scanning data is considered to be semi-quantitative, elemental
118 ratios have been used rather than direct counts [*Richter et al.*, 2006; *Weltje and*
119 *Tjallingii*, 2008].

120 For grainsize determinations the samples were pretreated with 10-20 ml of 10%
121 H₂O₂ to remove organic matter, washed with 10% HCl to remove carbonates, rinsed
122 with deionized water, and then treated with 10 ml of 0.05 M (NaPO₃)₆ on an ultrasonic
123 vibrator for 10 min to facilitate dispersion. Grainsize distributions between 0.02 µm and
124 2000 µm were determined using a Malvern Mastersizer 2000 analyzer.

125 Samples for magnetic susceptibility measurement taken from 2 cm intervals were
126 oven-dried below 40 °C to prevent possible alteration of the magnetic properties of the
127 sediment, and packed into 10 cm³ plastic boxes, then determined in volume specific SI
128 units normalized for sample mass using a Bartington MS2 susceptibility meter.
129 Measurements were repeated at least 3 times in order to test their reproducibility.

130

131 **4. Results**

132 **4.1. Chronology**

133 The seventeen radiocarbon ages show a general linear correlation, confirming a
134 continuous sediment record. Previous studies have shown that the dissolved inorganic

135 carbon (DIC) in melt water from glaciers could easily lead to older radiocarbon dates in
136 lake sediments, which is so-called the “Reservoir Effect” [Doran *et al.*, 1994; Doran *et*
137 *al.*, 1999; Squyres *et al.*, 1991]. Based on the $^{210}\text{Pb}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ dating results [Yao, 2011], the
138 0 a BP (1950 A.D.) appears at ca. 10.5 cm, where 1880 a BP was inferred from the
139 extrapolation of the upper two radiocarbon dates. Here, we assume a constant
140 “Reservoir Effect” as 1880 years and corrected all the radiocarbon dates before
141 calibration (Table. 1, Fig. 2A). The calibration and age-depth model were constructed
142 using the recently developed Bayesian method [Blaauw and Christen, 2011], which
143 taking the accumulation rates into account. The model was carried out the default
144 settings for lake sediments with 5-cm resolution, and calibrated using IntCal09 dataset
145 [Reimer *et al.*, 2009] (Fig. 2B).

146 **4.2. Grainsize**

147 |Almost no changes of grain-size variations are visible from visual inspection of
148 the core. The sediment consists of clayey silt with silt varying from 48% to 90% with an
149 average of 78%. The variation of clay percentage is opposite to that of silt throughout
150 the core (Fig.3A, B). Sand fraction only accounts for 2.5%, but can reach 20-30% in
151 some levels. |||

152 **4.3. Magnetic susceptibility**

153 Values for MS vary between 22.9 and 38.7×10^{-6} SI (Fig.3C). MS starts to decrease
154 and reaches its minimum values at depth of ca. 4.8 m. Maxima values in MS occur at
155 2.8 m. Then the MS shows a decreasing trend between 2.8 and 0 m. The variation of
156 MS is in parallel with that of silt, i.e., high values of MS corresponds to high content of

157 silt (Fig.3B and C).

158

159 **4.4. Zr, Zr/Rb, and Rb/Sr**

160 The variations of Zr content and Zr/Rb ratio are in parallel with these of silt content and
161 MS values (Fig.3B, C, D, and E), but show an opposite trend to variations of clay
162 content (Fig. 3A, D, and E). Conversely, high Rb/Sr ratio corresponds to low MS values
163 and low silt content, but to high clay content (Fig.3 A, B, C, and E).

164

165 **5. Discussion**

166 **5.1. Proxy interpretation for glacier activity**

167 Grain-size variations are indicators of glacier activity, because glacially eroded
168 and downstream transported particles produce characteristic signatures in
169 glaciolacustrine sediments [*Boulton, 1978; Matthews et al., 2000; Matthews et al.,*
170 *2005; Nesje et al., 2001*]. In particular, abrasion by wet-based glaciers can produce
171 abundant silt-sized particles in times of glacier advances [*Boulton, 1978; Drewry and*
172 *Drewry, 1986; Haldorsen, 1981; Matthews et al., 2000; Matthews et al.,*
173 *2005*]. Although mean or median grain size variations of glaciolacustrine sediments
174 were also used as indicator for glacier activity [*Leemann and Niessen, 1994a; b; Souch,*
175 *1994*], taking the silt fractions as proxy for glacier activity is more reasonable as it is of
176 direct glacial origin [*Matthews et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2005; Nesje et al.,*
177 *2001*]. Accordingly, we use high content of silt fractions in sediments of Kalakuli Lake
178 to reflect the glacial advance of Muztag Ata, and low content of silt fractions to indicate

179 the glacier retreat.

180 Magnetic susceptibility of lake sediments is usually used to indicate the erosion
181 and transport of clastic sediments in lake catchments [*Snowball and Thompson, 1990;*
182 *Snowball et al., 1999*]. In lakes without non-glacial inputs, increased surface runoff
183 caused by rainfall at warm and humid conditions will lead to more clastic materials, and
184 thus result in high magnetic susceptibility values [*Karlén and Matthews, 1992*]. If the
185 minerogenic component is of glacial origin, magnetic susceptibility should
186 therefore prove a useful index of glacier activity [*Karlén and Matthews, 1992*]. A study
187 of sediment from nine Norwegian glaciers shows a strong positive correlation between
188 glacier size and calculated sediment transport in proglacial rivers [*Roland and*
189 *Haakensen, 1985*]. Therefore, relatively high magnetic susceptibility values should
190 correspond with relatively large glaciers [*Matthews et al., 2000; Matthews et al., 2005;*
191 *Nesje et al., 2001*].

192 Zirconium is enriched in medium to coarse silts and is associated with heavy
193 minerals like zircon [*Dypvik and Harris, 2001; Fralick and Kronberg, 1997*].
194 Accordingly, it traces the abundance of relatively coarse, sandy siliciclastic materials
195 consisting of clay minerals and micas [*Dypvik and Harris, 2001; Heymann et al., 2013;*
196 *Kylander et al., 2011*]. Rb, in contrast, is abundant in clay minerals that dominate the
197 fine grained, siliciclastic material. Accordingly, the Zr/Rb-ratio traces grain size
198 changes with Zr/Rb-ratios indicating coarse-grained material and low Zr/Rb ratios
199 indicating fine-grained material [*Dypvik and Harris, 2001; Heymann et al., 2013;*
200 *Kylander et al., 2011*]. On average the sand fraction in Kalakuli Lake sediment core

201 sums up to only 2.5%. Accordingly, the Zr/Rb-ratio may reflect relative changes in the
202 silt vs. the clay fraction and thus glacier activity with high ratios tracing glacier advance.
203 Due to the substitution of Sr for Ca in the carbonate lattice, Sr is normally associated
204 with in-lake precipitation of carbonates such as calcite and aragonite [Dean and Arthur,
205 1998; Hammer et al., 1990]. The carbonate precipitation is mainly controlled by
206 evaporation and temperature. High evaporation or warmer temperature may lead to
207 high carbonate content. However, in the glaciolacustrine context, glacier retreat caused
208 by high temperature will result in fresh glacial meltwater which is unfavorable to
209 carbonate precipitation. Low temperature during a glacier advance, on the other hand,
210 also lead to reduced carbonate precipitation. Therefore, the Rb/Sr-ratio depends on the
211 amount of Rb which is strongly linked to the clay mineral assemblage. Accordingly,
212 low Rb/Sr ratios are related to a strong input of silt indicating glacier advance.

213

214 **5.2. The late Holocene glacier variations**

215 Based on the variations of grainsize, MS, Zr content, Zr/Rb ratios, and Rb/Sr ratios in
216 the sediment core of Kalakuli Lake, we can reconstruct the Late Holocene glacier
217 fluctuations of Muztag Ata (Fig.3). Four periods, 4200-3800 cal yr BP, 2950-2300 cal
218 yr BP, 1700-1070 cal yr BP, and 570-100 cal yr BP, are characterized by low content of
219 clay fractions, high content of Zr and silt fractions, high magnetic susceptibility values,
220 high Zr/Rb ratio, and low Rb/Sr ratio, which reveals that the glacier advanced during
221 these four periods. These four glacial advances, within dating errors, are generally in
222 agreement with the glacial activities indicted by ^{10}Be terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide

223 surface-exposure dating of boulders on the moraines in Muztag Ata and Kongur Shan
224 of western Tibetan Plateau [Seong *et al.*, 2009]. Their results show that the glaciers
225 advanced at ca. 4.2 ± 0.3 ka, 3.3 ± 0.6 ka, 1.4 ± 0.1 ka, and a few hundred years ago
226 during the late Holocene [Seong *et al.*, 2009]. Furthermore, the four glacier expansion
227 episodes revealed both by glaciolacustrine sediment (this study) and by moraine
228 successions, temporally coincide with the Late Holocene ice-rafting events in the North
229 Atlantic (i.e. Bond events 0 to 3) [Bond *et al.*, 2001]. The content of clay fractions and
230 Rb/Sr ratio are high and content of Zr and silt fractions, magnetic susceptibility values,
231 and ZR/Rb ratio are low during four periods of 3800-2950 cal yr BP, 2300-1700 cal yr
232 BP, 1070-570 cal yr BP, and 100 cal yr BP-present, which indicates that glacier
233 retreated in these four periods (Fig.3 and Fig.4).

234

235 **5.3. The glacier variations and their linkage to temperature changes over the last** 236 **2000 years**

237 Decadal-scale glacier variations and their response to global warming, based on
238 satellite and meteorological data, have been widely studied in
239 Pamir-Karakoram-Himalaya mountain ranges [Gardelle *et al.*, 2013; Käab *et al.*, 2012;
240 Khromova *et al.*, 2006; Mölg *et al.*, 2013; Yao *et al.*, 2012]. Here, we compare
241 centennial- scale glacier variations of Muztag Ata to the temperature regional and
242 global changes reconstructed using compilations of proxies records over the last 2000
243 years [Christiansen and Charpentier Ljungqvist, 2012; Ljungqvist, 2010; Mann and
244 Jones, 2003; Yang *et al.*, 2002]. Three distinct glacial retreat episodes occurring in

245 0-240 A.D., 880-1380 A.D., 1900 A.D.-present, correlate well with Roman warm
246 period (RWP), Medieval Warm Period (MWP), and Current Warm Period (CWP),
247 respectively. Between these three glacial retreat episodes, there are two glacial
248 expansion periods occurring in 240-880 A.D. and 1380-1900 A.D., which correspond
249 to Dark Age Cold Period (DACP) and Little Ice Age (LIA), respectively. Accordingly,
250 the history of glacier activity at centennial time scale in westernmost Tibetan Plateau is
251 in well agreement with temperature records of China and the Northern Hemisphere
252 [*Christiansen and Charpentier Ljungqvist, 2012; Ljungqvist, 2010; Mann and Jones,*
253 *2003; Yang et al., 2002*], with glacial advance responding to low temperature and
254 glacial retreat being correlated with high temperature. This good correspondence
255 indicates that the glacial variations in western Tibetan Plateau are very sensitive to local
256 and global temperature changes. Our results support the conclusion that the eastern
257 Pamir glacier retreat is due to increases in air temperature, and increased precipitation
258 would not be able to compensate for the mass loss [*Khromova et al., 2006*].

259 **6. Conclusions**

260 An 8.3m sediment core from Kalakuli Lake, a glacier-fed lake, is used to reconstruct a
261 continuous and high resolution record of late Holocene glacier history in western
262 Tibetan Plateau. Grainsize, magnetic susceptibility, Zr content, Zr/Rb and Rb/Sr ratio
263 are used as proxy indicators of glacier advance and retreat. Our records show that four
264 glacier expansion episodes can be identified in 4200-3800 cal yr BP, 2950-2300 cal yr
265 BP, 1700-1070 cal yr BP, and 570-100 cal yr BP. These four glacier expansion episodes
266 are generally in agreement with the glacial advances occurring at ca. 4.2 ± 0.3 ka, $3.3 \pm$

267 0.6 ka, 1.4 ± 0.1 ka, and a few hundred years ago based on ^{10}Be terrestrial cosmogenic
268 nuclide surface-exposure dating of boulders on the moraines in Muztag Ata and
269 Kongur Shan of western Tibetan Plateau, and also possibly coincident with the Late
270 Holocene ice-rafting events in the North Atlantic (i.e. Bond events 0 to 3), ,
271 Reconstructed glacier advances and retreats of the last 2000 years correspond well with
272 low and high temperature from other proxy records, which indicates that the glacial
273 variations at centennial time scale in western Tibetan Plateau are very sensitive to local
274 and global temperature changes.

275

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