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1	Lake Store Finnsjøen - a key for understanding Late-Glacial/early Holocene vegetation
2	and ice sheet dynamics in the central Scandes Mountains
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5	Aage Paus <sup>a</sup> , Sanne Boessenkool <sup>b1</sup> , Christian Brochmann <sup>b</sup> , Laura Saskia Epp <sup>b2</sup> , Derek Fabel <sup>c</sup> ,
6	Haflidi Haflidason <sup>d</sup> , Henriette Linge <sup>d</sup> .
7	
8	<sup>a</sup> Department of Biology, University of Bergen, P.O. Box 7803, Thormøhlens gate 53 A,
9	NO-5020 Bergen, Norway
LO	<sup>b</sup> Natural History Museum, University of Oslo, P.O. Box 1172 Blindern, NO-0318 Oslo,
l1	Norway
12	<sup>c</sup> School of Geographical and Earth Sciences, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G12 8QQ,
L3	Scotland, U.K.
L4	<sup>d</sup> Department of Earth Science, University of Bergen, and Bjerknes Centre for Climate
L5	Research, Postbox 7803, NO-5020 Bergen, Norway
16	
L7	
18	<sup>1</sup> Present address: Centre for Ecological and Evolutionary Synthesis, Department of
19	Biosciences, University of Oslo, P.O. Box 1066, Blindern, NO-0318, Oslo, Norway
20	<sup>2</sup> Present address: Alfred Wegener Institute Helmholtz Centre for Polar and Marine Research,
21	Periglacial Research, Am Telegrafenberg A43, 14473 Potsdam, Germany
22	
23	
24	Corresponding author:

25

- Aage Paus, Department of Biology, University of Bergen, P.O. Box 7803, Thormøhlens gate
- 27 53 A, NO-5020 Bergen, Norway. Phone: + 47 55 58 33 44. Fax: + 47 55 58 96 67. E-mail:
- 28 <u>aage.paus@uib.no</u>

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- 32 Beryllium-10 surface exposure ages; Late-Glacial; early Holocene; deglaciation; ice models;
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#### Abstract

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37 The Late-Glacial (LG) deglaciation and vegetation development in the Scandes Mountains has been debated for a century. Here we present new evidence from microfossils, radiocarbon 38 dated plant macrofossils and sedimentary ancient DNA from laminated sediments in Lake 39 Store Finnsjøen (1260 m a.s.l.) at Dovre, Central Norway. Combined with previous results 40 from three other Dovre lakes, this allows for new interpretations of events during and 41 42 immediately after the LG deglaciation. The Finnsigen sediments present the first uninterrupted record of local vegetation development in the Scandes Mountains from the late 43 Younger Dryas (YD), ca 12,000 cal years BP, to the early Holocene around 9700 cal years 44 45 BP. The local vegetation in late YD/early Holocene was extremely sparse with pioneer herbs (e.g. Artemisia norvegica, Beckwithia, Campanula cf. uniflora, Koenigia, Oxyria, Papaver, 46 Saxifraga spp.) and dwarf-shrubs (Betula nana, Salix including S. polaris). From 11,300 cal 47 years BP, local vegetation rapidly closed with dominant Dryas, Saxifraga spp., and Silene 48

acaulis. From ca 10,700 cal years BP, open birch-forests with juniper, Empetrum nigrum and

other dwarf-shrubs developed. Pine forests established within the area from 10,300 cal years BP. We identified the cold Preboreal Oscillation (PBO), not earlier described from pollen data in South Norway, around 11,400 cal years BP by a regional pollen signal. Distinct local vegetation changes were not detected until the post-PBO warming around 11,300 cal years BP. Apparently, the earlier warming at the YD/Holocene transition at 11,650 cal years BP was too weak and short-lived for vegetation closure at high altitudes at Dovre. For the first time, we demonstrate a regional glacier readvance and local ice cap formations during the YD in the Scandes Mountains. In two of the deep lakes with small catchments, YD glaciation blocked sedimentation without removing old sediments and caused a hiatus separating sediments of the ice-free LG interstadial (LGI) from those of the ice-free Holocene period. Both regional glaciers and local ice caps caused hiati. Ice-free pre-YD conditions at Dovre followed by a YD readvance point to a scenario that is intermediate between the maximum ice model postulating a thick glacier during the entire LG, and the minimum ice model postulating thin and multi-domed early LG ice.

# 1. Introduction

The thickness of the Scandinavian ice-sheet during the Weichselian, the time of the deglaciation, and the development of ecosystems during and immediately after deglaciation have long been debated. Today, the maximum ice model postulating one massive central ice-dome present until the early Holocene (e.g. Holtedahl, 1955; Vorren, 1977; Andersen, 1981; Mangerud, 2004), has been challenged by the minimum ice model involving a fluctuating and thin multidomed ice-sheet (e.g. Lambeck et al., 1998, 2010; Arnold et al., 2002; Wohlfarth, 2010). In accordance with the minimum model, the alpine region of Central Norway has been

assumed by several authors as deglaciated during the Late-Glacial (LG) before the Younger 75 Dryas (YD) cold period (Dahl et al., 1997; Paus et al., 2006, 2011, 2014; Bøe et al., 2007; 76 Goehring et al., 2008). In contrast, other authors rather interpreted glacial lineations and 77 moraines at high altitudes in this region to reflect northeastern and northwestern ice flows in 78 the YD supporting the maximum ice model (Follestad, 2005; Follestad and Fredin, 2007; 79 Olsen et al., 2013, 2014). 80 81 As no consensus has been reached regarding the time of Scandes Mountains deglaciation (Fig. 82 1) due to the lack of reliable radiocarbon dates, the immigration of species and their 83 84 establishment during the LG have been debated (e.g. Kullman, 2002 vs Birks et al., 2005). Also, due to fragmentary and incomplete early Holocene sediment sequences, the Scandes 85 vegetation development from pioneer vegetation to forests in the following periods is not 86 87 known in detail (Giesecke, 2005; Paus, 2010; Paus et al., 2011). For example, we know little about how vegetation responded to the early Holocene climate oscillations (Hoek and Bos, 88 2007; Paus, 2013) or when the earliest forests established in the Scandes Mountains. 89 90

In order to test the models on ice thickness, time of deglaciation, and immigration of plants to 91 newly deglaciated areas at Dovre, we studied sediments from a new lake: Lake Store 92 Finnsjøen, 1260 m a.s.l. (Fig. 1). This lake is situated close to and between Lake Ristjønna 93 (1253 m.a.s.l.) and Lake Topptjønna (1316 m a.s.l.) studied by Paus et al. (2011) and 30 km 94 west of Lake Flåfattjønna (1110 m a.s.l.) studied by Paus et al. (2006) and Paus (2010) (Fig. 95 1). We utilized microfossil analysis, <sup>14</sup>C-dating (AMS) of plant macrofossils, lithostratigraphy 96 (LOI, X-ray, tephra) and sedimentary ancient DNA (sedaDNA) from deglacial sediments, as 97 well as surface exposure dating with the terrestrial cosmogenic nuclide (TCN) <sup>10</sup>Be. In 98 addition, we merged the pollen data from the four studied Dovre lakes and treated them by 99

PCA ordination. Our new data together with the previously published data on the other lakes at Dovre enabled new interpretations of events during and immediately after the LG deglaciation of Dovre.

#### 2. Regional setting

The Dovre mountain ridge with Lake Store Finnsjøen and the previously studied lakes (Topptjønna and Ristjønna; Paus et al., 2011) is situated between the valleys Drivdalen and Vinstradalen in Sør-Trøndelag County, Central Norway (Fig. 1). Lake Flåfattjønna lies 30 km to the east of the ridge (Paus et al. 2006; Paus 2010). Features of the four lakes in the Dovre study are listed in Table 1.

The Finnsjøen sediments were cored close to Mt. Finnshø in a 14-15 m deep lake bottom depression with a diameter of 60-70m. Beyond the depression, the lake is not deeper than 6 m. The bedrock comprises a number of geological units belonging to the Røros nappe complex (Krill, 1987; Nielsen and Wolff, 1989). The northern part of the mountain ridge, where Ristjønna is located, consists of augen gneiss, quartz-feldspar slate, and calcareous mica schist. The southern part of the ridge, where Finnsjøen and Topptjønna are located, consists of greenschist/-stone, slate and hornblende amphibolite. On the mountain ridge, there is a mixture of continuous and discontinuous till covers, and rogen moraines are situated east of and adjacent to Finnsjøen (Sollid et al., 1980).

The mountain ridge is situated in the upper low-alpine zone with lichen-dominated dwarf-shrub tundra with *Empetrum nigrum s.l.*, *Vaccinium* spp., and *Betula nana*. The calciphilous

Artemisia norvegica, Campanula uniflora, Dryas octopetala, and Salix polaris also occur there, and Juniperus communis and Salix shrubs are found at protected sites.

The regional climate is continental with July and January mean temperatures of ca. 7.5-8 °C and -11 °C, respectively and an annual precipitation of 450 mm. The temperatures have been estimated using data from the nearest climate stations at Kongsvold and Fokstugu (DNMI, 2015), assuming a lapse rate of 0.6 °C /100 m (Laaksonen, 1976). The regional forest-line of *Betula pubescens* is situated at about 1050-1100 m a.s.l. In continental areas such as Dovre, the forest-line roughly follows the 10 °C July isotherm (Odland, 1996).

#### 3. Material and methods

3.1. Sampling and lithostratigraphy

The Finnsjøen lake sediments were retrieved at maximum water depth (14.7 m; UTM coordinates: NQ 32V 0535133 6918753) by coring from winter-ice. We used a 110 mm piston corer (Nesje, 1992) modified by A. Paus and J. Kusior (Dept. of Earth Science, Univ. of Bergen), which allowed us to use 6 m tubes and start coring several meters below the sediment surface. The results presented in this paper are based on the lowermost core section (1980-2195 cm depth below water surface) with 4 cm basal faint laminated clay gyttja (2191-2195 cm depth) below a minerogenic part of 103 cm and an upper 108 cm organic part distinctly laminated by macrofossil layers (Fig. 2). These sediments were described (Table 2) according to the method of Troels-Smith (1955). We were unable to core deeper, as the corer became totally filled with sediments.

The percentage loss-on-ignition (LOI) was measured in 2-10 cm from the studied core section 1980-2195 cm. The subsamples were dried overnight at 105 °C, weighed and ignited at 550

 $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 h. The weight LOI was calculated as % of dry weight.

To document the sediment structure in the minerogenic part of the core, sediments were X-ray photographed using Philips X-ray 130 kV instrument. The X-ray imagery was processed on a negative film. The results were later transferred into a positive format using a digital camera (Fig. 2).

Tephra particles were searched for in every 5 cm in the minerogenic bottom part of the core.

Particularly, we looked for tephra particles from the regional Vedde Ash layer (12.1 cal ka

BP; Grönvold et al., 1995; Bondevik et al., 2001). Samples were collected, sieved on different

sieves down to 30 micron, and studied under a microscope. However, no tephra particles were

found.

*3.2. Pollen* 

Material for pollen analysis was sampled at 1–4 cm intervals below 2080 cm and 20 cm above (Fig. 3). The samples were treated with HF and acetolysed according to Fægri and Iversen (1989). In addition, after each treatment with HCl or KOH, the pollen samples were centrifuged for 7-8 cycles in water to achieve clean samples from the lime-rich minerogenic sediments. *Lycopodium* tablets were added to the samples (1 cm<sup>3</sup>) for estimates of concentration and influx (Stockmarr, 1971). Identifications were based on Fægri and Iversen (1989), Moore et al. (1991), and Punt et al. (1976-1996), in combination with a reference collection of modern material. *Betula nana* pollen was distinguished using the morphological

criteria of Terasmäe (1951). In the pollen diagram (Fig. 3), the percentage calculation basis ( $\Sigma P$ ) comprises the terrestrial pollen taxa. For a taxon X of aquatic plants (AQP) and spores, the calculation basis is  $\Sigma P+X$ . The pollen diagram was divided into local pollen assemblage zones (paz) by visual inspection. The computer program CANOCO 4.5 (ter Braak and Smilauer, 1997-2002) was used for detecting and graphing ordination patterns in the terrestrial vegetation development (Fig. 4) based on a data set including pollen results from lake Store Finnsjøen merged with results older than ca 9.5 cal ka BP from Lake Flåfattjønna (1447 – 1552 cm depth), Lake Ristjønna (1233 – 1320 cm depth), and Lake Toppjønna (784 – 937 cm depth) (Paus et al., 2006, 2011).

Palynological terrestrial richness (PR) was estimated by rarefaction analyses (program RAREPOLL, Birks and Line, 1992) using  $\Sigma$  terrestrial microfossils = 124 as the statistical base (E(T<sub>124</sub>)). Due to the low statistical basis, the PR estimates do not strongly indicate the total floristic richness within the pollen source area. Intermediate levels of disturbance maximize richness by preventing both dominance and extinction of species (Grime, 1973). In accordance with this, the low estimated terrestrial PR E(T<sub>124</sub>) when the abundance of tree pollen (AP) is high (Fig. 3), should indicate closed forests, whereas local PR maxima indicate periods when the vegetation was positioned close to and above forest-lines (e.g. Aario, 1940; Simonsen, 1980; Seppä, 1998; Grytnes, 2003).

## 3.3. sedaDNA analyses

A total of 43 samples were successfully analysed for *sedaDNA*, and 17 of these were from the lowermost core section that is the focus of the present study. All analyses presented below are based on all 43 samples that yielded DNA, but the presented results are limited to the 17 samples relevant to this study (see Appendix A for sample details). The DNA samples were

taken from the inside of the core, after removing one half of its casing (see supplementary methods in Appendix A for details).

DNA was extracted as described in Boessenkool et al. (2014). PCRs (25 µL) contained 2 µL DNA, 0.2 µM of each primer, 1 mM dNTPs, 0.8 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA), 2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 1x PCR buffer and 1.25 U Platinum<sup>®</sup>Taq DNA polymerase High Fidelity (Invitrogen). The amplification profile consisted of 2 min at 95 °C, 45 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 50 °C and 30 s at 68 °C, followed by a final extension of 10 min at 72 °C. Samples were amplified using the *trn*L g and h primers (Taberlet et al., 2007). Primers were modified on the 5' end with unique 8 bp tags that differed from each other in at least 5 basepairs, and were preceded by NNN to improve cluster generation on the sequencer (Coissac, 2012; De Barba et al., 2014). PCR products were visualized on agarose gels. For each sample, up to five PCRs were performed and whenever possible three positive amplifications were pooled for sequencing. Pooled PCR products were purified with MinElute (Qiagen) and quantified using a Qubit® 2.0 fluorometer (Invitrogen). An equimolar mixture of all PCR products was sequenced on an Illumina Miseq (paired-end 2x100 bp) at Fasteris (Switzerland).

Extractions and PCR setup were performed in a dedicated aDNA laboratory at the Natural History Museum (University of Oslo). Established ancient DNA precautions to minimize contamination were adhered to throughout the experiments (Willerslev et al., 2004; Willerslev & Cooper, 2005). See supplementary methods in Appendix A for details, including a list of the sequences that were removed from the dataset, because they were identified to cultivated taxa and/or were extremely unlikely to occur in the study area.

Sequence data were analysed using a suite of programs from the OBITools package

(http://metabarcoding.org/obitools). The programs solexapairend and ngsfilter were used to assemble forward and reverse reads, and to remove reads with any errors in the tags or with more than two errors in the primer sequences. Subsequently, all reads < 10 bp in length were removed with the program obigrep, and identical reads were merged (100% coverage required) using *obiunia*. Finally, *obiclean* was used to remove putative PCR and sequencing errors. For taxonomic assignment, we used the program *ecoTag* and analyzed the sequences against two taxonomic reference libraries: 1) a combined curated library containing the Arctic and Boreal vascular plant libraries and the Arctic-boreal bryophyte library (containing 1664 vascular plant species and 486 bryophyte species; Sønstebø et al., 2010, Willerslev et al., 2014; Soininen et al., 2014) and 2) a reference library based on the embl standard sequences release 113 (see Boessenkool et al. 2014). Initially, only sequences represented by more than 100 reads and with an identity > 0.95 were kept in the final dataset, but after the observation of chimeric sequences (see above) we removed any sequences within a sample that were represented by < 400 reads in that specific sample. All analyses were done using computing facilities provided by the Norwegian Metacenter for Computational Science (Notur). Final assigned taxonomic identities can be found in Appendix A, and the output from the program ecoTag (including the sequences) can be found in the Appendices B and C.

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3.4. Radiocarbon dating and age-depth modelling

Seven samples of terrestrial plant remains from the Store Finnsjøen organic sediments above 2188 cm depth were AMS radiocarbon-dated (Table 3). As no datable macrofossils were found in the minerogenic sediments below, the LG chronology in these sediments is based on assumed ages. All dates are given in calibrated years BP (cal BP; present = 1950 AD) based

on the InCal13 calibration curve (Reimer et al. 2013). The dates were converted to calendar ages using CALIB 7.02 (Stuiver et al., 2014).

To model the best fit age-depth relationships (Fig. 5) based on the available <sup>14</sup>C ages we used the "Bacon" approach (Blauuw and Christen, 2011). Except for dividing the short Finnsjøen core into 2 cm sections (default is 5 cm), we used default settings.

3.5. <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure dating

Four samples were collected from bedrock surfaces in the Lake Flåfattjønna area (Fig. 1) for surface exposure dating with *in situ* cosmogenic <sup>10</sup>Be. All samples were taken from bare surfaces with exposed quartz veins or lenses in phyllite/ mica schist. The two lower elevation surfaces showed evidence of ice moulding and glacial deposition (boulders), whereas the two higher elevation surfaces appeared glacially plucked (Fig. 6). Field observations are listed in Table 4A. The rock samples were processed for surface exposure dating (following procedures modified from Child et al. (2000)) at the School of Geographical and Earth Sciences (University of Glasgow), and at the Cosmogenic Isotope Laboratory at the Scottish Universities Environmental Research Centre (SUERC). Resulting Be targets were measured at the SUERC AMS laboratory (Xu et al., 2010).

Surface exposure ages were calculated from <sup>10</sup>Be concentrations using the CRONUS-Earth online calculator (Balco et al., 2008; CRONUS-Earth, 2015). Table 4A and B show the relevant field and laboratory data, as well as the calculated surface exposure ages. The surface exposure ages were calculated according to the Lm scaling scheme using 1) the global average <sup>10</sup>Be production rate (spallation-induced production of 4.39±0.37 atoms g<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, Balco et al., 2008), 2) the western Norway <sup>10</sup>Be production rate from Goehring et al. (2012)

(spallation-induced production of 4.07±0.16 atoms g<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, Alternate calibration data sets, CRONUS-Earth (2015)), and 3) the Arctic <sup>10</sup>Be production rate from Young et al. (2013) (spallation-induced production of 3.93±0.15 atoms g<sup>-1</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, Alternate calibration data sets, CRONUS-Earth (2015)).

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### 4. Results

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- 4.1. Lithostratigraphy (Table 2, Fig. 2)
- The core section presented in this study (1980-2195 cm) is distinctly laminated (Fig. 2). In the 282 organic part above 2088 cm, the laminations are primarily dark layers of macrofossils, though 283 a few lighter silt/clay horizons occur. Below the homogenous silty clay sediments at 2088-284 285 2115 cm depth and older than ca 11.65 cal ka BP (extrapolated; see Fig. 5), a 70 cm thick clay-rich layer (2115-2185 cm depth) shows ca 250 laminations according to a high resolution 286 X-ray photo imagery (Fig. 7). In the upper part, the lamina thickness is ca 3 mm, in the lower 287 part it is ca 5 mm. The bending of laminas was apparently formed during coring and reflects 288 the sediment softness and viscosity when saturated by water. A dark and stratified sorted sand 289 layer occurs at 2185-2191 cm depth, between the laminated clay above and a laminated silty 290 clay gyttja below (Fig. 8). 291

- 293 *4.2. Pollen results and statistical analysis (Figs. 3 and 4, Table 5)*
- A total of 94 terrestrial taxa were identified in 45 levels of the Finnsjøen sediments. The
  pollen concentrations in paz 2, 3 and 4 were extremely low (in some levels down to 50 grains
  cm<sup>-3</sup>). Even when samples were analysed for two or three days, the mean sum of terrestrial
  pollen (ΣP) per sample did not reach more than 339 grains. The absence of corroded pollen

grains throughout the sedimentary sequence indicates negligible content of reworked material.

Six local pollen assemble zones were defined (Fig. 3, Table 5).

A data set that included the merged pollen results from Lakes Finnsjøen, Ristjønna, Topptjønna, and Flåfattjønna was subjected to a DCA ordination that showed a gradient length of 1.87 standard deviation units of turnover. This suggested linear response curves. Hence, PCA was chosen as ordination technique. In the graph of the two first PCA axes, the light-demanding pioneers are concentrated to the right (Fig. 4). Among these, taxa on well-drained disturbed soils (e.g. *Artemisia* spp., Poaceae) were more frequent in the lower part of the graph, whereas snow-bed plants (e.g. *Oxyria*-type, *Saxifraga oppositifolia*-type) were

found in the upper right. Trees and shrubs such as juniper and tree-birch dominated to the left.

4.3. Taxa identified by sedaDNA (Table 6).

The sequencing run provided 13 351 142 sequence reads that could be correctly assembled with no errors in the tags and not more than 2 errors in the primer site sequences. After further filtering on sequence length and removal of putative PCR and sequencing errors, 10 307 634 reads representing 2 278 unique sequences remained. A total of 89 unique sequences (8 199 825 reads) could be identified using our combined Arctic-boreal reference library with similarity >0.95 and a total representation of >100 reads. Using the embl databases, we identified 122 unique sequences (9 963 948 reads). Sequences with similarity <1.00 (but above 0.95) were checked manually against the closest matching reference sequences. For genera for which not all the relevant species were included in our library, we adjusted any identification to the species level up to the genus level. Similarly, we were able to narrow down some identifications by excluding Beringian/American species.

Ten out of the 16 samples from the lowermost core section showed positive amplification and were included in the sequencing run. Eight of these samples contained sequences that passed all filtering steps, resulting in identification of a total of 14 taxa (Table 6). Taxonomic resolution varied from family to species level. The  $trnL\ g$  and  $trnL\ h$  primers are designed for vascular plants but also amplify bryophytes, and we recovered DNA from one bryophyte genus ( $Splachnum\ sp.$ ) in our samples. The number of taxa identified from each sample varied from one to seven, with the oldest samples containing the least diversity.

The DNA data confirmed and complemented the records of pollen and spores. The *Rhinanthus* pollen type seemed to be represented by *Bartsia alpina* in the DNA data, whereas the retrieval of *Arbutoideae* DNA probably corresponded to pollen finds of *Arctous* and *Arctostaphylos*. For several taxa, the DNA data increased the taxonomic resolution relative to pollen data (e.g. *Bistorta vivipara*, *Pinus sylvestris*).

337 4.4. <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure ages (Table 4)

In this study, we use the results obtained using the Arctic production rate because its calibration data set extends back to ca. 16 ka. When comparing surface exposure age results internally, the analytical uncertainties (parentheses in age results column, Table 4B) should be used, whereas we use the full uncertainty when comparing <sup>10</sup>Be ages with dating results obtained using other methods.

The resulting <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure ages appear to increase with increasing elevation (cf. Linge et al., 2006). The two lower-elevation surfaces yield overlapping <sup>10</sup>Be ages and are thus not statistically different. The same is the case for the two higher-elevation surfaces. There is, however, a clear difference in results for the two elevation levels with 10.9 and 11.3 ka (mean

11.1±0.5 ka) *versus* 21.6 and 21.9 ka (mean 21.7±0.8 ka). Single nuclide surface exposure dating provides the apparent exposure age of rock surfaces, but does not confirm whether the surface exposure has been continuous or occurred during multiple episodes. Moreover, ages based on single nuclide measurements do not reveal possible subglacial erosion that could have removed previously accumulated nuclides. The geomorphic settings suggest that the lower sampling locations were glacially scoured, whereas the summit was plucked. The two lower-elevation samples are considered to reflect the timing of final deglaciation, whereas the summit samples suggest insufficient subglacial erosion to remove nuclides from prior exposure.

# **5. Discussion**

The Finnsjøen multi-proxy data (spanning from ca 9.7 to > 12.85 cal ka BP) presented in this study provides evidence of a previously undescribed LG deglaciation landscape and vegetation establishment in the Scandes Mountains. We emphasize however, that the LG chronology is exclusively based on stratigraphical correlations and considerations. We discuss the Lake Store Finnsjøen sediments and chronology (section 5.1.), the Lake Store Finnsjøen palaeoenvironment (section 5.2.), the stratigraphies of the four Dovre lakes (section 5.3.), and the Dovre deglaciation dynamics (section 5.4) with the interpretations in each section based on the conclusions of the previous section. Finally, we combine all evidence in the concluding section.

5.1. Lake Store Finnsjøen – sediments and chronology (Figs. 2, 7, 8, and 9)

The <sup>14</sup>C ages show a linear age/depth relationship, reflecting a rapid sediment accumulation (12 yrs/cm) for the organic deposits between ca 11.3 and 10 cal ka BP (Fig. 5). Apparently, the restricted depression where the coring was carried out was effectively filled up by inwashed organic material. Hence, sediment focusing is most probably involved. Though, minerogenic sediments may not be strongly focused according to Davis et al. (1984).

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The laminated clay unit located below the organic sediments (Fig. 7) is similar to sediments found in present polar desert lakes in Arctic Canada (K. Gajewski and S. Lamoureux, pers. comm.). These lakes have a more-or-less permanent ice cover and a moat (littoral band of open water) that varies in size from year to year. A semi-permanent ice cover at Finnsjøen is consistent with the low frequencies of algae, pollen, and sedaDNA (Fig. 3, Table 5), as ice cover strongly reduces light transparency and limits the open-water depositional surface. Such low frequencies also suggest that the laminations cannot be biogenetic (cf. Perren et al., 2003; Paasche and Larsen, 2010) and must have a clastic origin. The weakly developed and finegrained laminations show a stable and low-energy depositional environment, too weak to indicate impact from regional glaciers (cf. Zolitscka, 2007; Larsen et al., 2012; Ojala et al., 2012). Instead, the laminations could point to rhythmic variations in (1) moat-size and/or (2) run-off from local glaciers/snow-beds within the restricted catchment of Finnsjøen (cf. Brauer and Casanova, 2001; Zolitscka, 2007) which suggests the laminations may represent seasonal variations (varves). The ca. 250 laminations found below the biostratigraphic signal of the onset of the Holocene at 11.65 cal ka BP (Figs. 5, 7) would then show that the Finnsjøen varve deposition started during the late YD, not later than 11.9 cal ka BP. The decreasing lamination thickness from 5 mm in the lower part to 3 mm towards the top (2115 cm) most probably indicate an increasing distance from the active local ice still present within the lake catchment (Zolitschka, 2007). Laminations are absent in the homogenous silty clay above

(2115-2088 cm) which might indicate the total melt of the local ice cap around the onset of the Holocene according to the age-depth model (Fig. 5).

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The sand layer (2185-2191 cm depth) just below the laminated clay (Fig. 8) was probably rapidly deposited around 12 cal ka BP. In line with this, the absence of Vedde Ash indicates that the layer is younger than 12.1 cal ka BP (Bondevik et al., 2001). At 2191 cm depth, simultaneous and extremely abrupt changes occur in (1) the lithostratigraphy, from the sand layer to a 5 mm light clay horizon below (Fig. 8), (2) the pollen assemblages, i.e. the paz F-1/F-2 transition (Fig. 3), (3) the pollen concentrations, which are about 10-100 times higher in paz F-1 than in paz F-2, and (4) the loss-on ignition (Fig. 3). We think that these coinciding stratigraphical events must reflect a hiatus. The hiatus separates an upper YD biostratigraphy from a distinctly different pollen assemblage below, pre-dating YD and quite similar to the LGI assemblages of the adjacent Dovre lakes Topptjønna and Ristjønna where local ice caps did not develop (Paus et al., 2011). Evidence from the Greenland ice cores shows that the YD started 12.85 cal ka BP (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2007), so the hiatus must span at least 900 years. We think that the hiatus represents the YD establishment of a local ice cap blocking sedimentation and that the sand layer reflects the start of the ice melting in the late YD (see below). The local ice cap did not erode the underlying sediments, as laminations below the hiatus/sand layer including the uppermost light clay horizon are complete and intact (Fig. 8). The lake and catchment topography appear to have prevented water and water saturated sediments to escape, when the local ice cap blocked the lake.

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5.2. Finnjøen Late Glacial and early Holocene palaeoenvironment

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5.2.1. The Late Glacial Interstadial, paz F-1 (> 12.85 cal ka BP)

Paz F-1 (Fig. 3, Table 5) correlates to the tree-pollen dominated period at Dovre (Fig. 9) interpreted to reflect the Late Glacial Interstadial (LGI) (Paus et al., 2011). The local vegetation included mosaics of shrub/dwarf-shrub tundra (with e.g. *Alnus, Hippophaë, Juniperus, Salix* sp., *Betula nana, Empetrum*), grasslands (Poaceae, *Parnassia, Ranunculus acris, Rumex*), snow-beds (*Oxyria, Saxifraga*), and windblown ridges (*Arctous, Artemisia, Dryas*) expressing variations in topography, snow cover, and shelter. This vegetation was similar to and as diverse as the present low-/mid-alpine vegetation of Dovre. Mean July temperatures of at least 7-8 °C, similar to today, are suggested by the local presence of juniper, dwarf-birch, and *Parnassia* (Kolstrup, 1979; Paus et al., 2003). In addition, well-represented *Pediastrum* and *Botryococcus* suggest the lake was ice-free during summers.

## 5.2.2. Late Younger Dryas, paz F-2 (ca. 12 – ca. 11.65 cal ka BP)

Across the hiatus that corresponds to the paz F1/F2 transition (section 5.1.), total pollen concentrations drop to max. 800 grains cm<sup>-3</sup>, less than one tenth of the concentrations in paz F-1. Assuming that paz F-2 lasted ca 350 years (ca. 12 - ca.11.65 cal ka BP), a tentative total pollen accumulation rate (TTPAR) can be estimated to 50-80 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, which is similar to that of contemporary mid-arctic tundra (Ritchie and Lichti-Federovich, 1967; Fredskild, 1973). PR shows high species richness in open vegetation (Fig. 3). The occurrence of *Papaver radicatum*, *Artemisia* cf. *norvegica*, *Campanula* cf. *uniflora*, and *Dryas* reflects windblown ridges, whereas *Beckwithia glacialis*, *Oxyria*, *Saxifraga* and dwarf *Salix* (one *S. polaris* leaf found) show extensive snow-beds. *Thalictrum* and *Selaginella* suggest moist grasslands. Similar open YD pioneer vegetation has been described from Lakes Topptjønna and Ristjønna at Dovre (Paus et al., 2011). The low TTPAR and the dominance of pioneer plants (Fig. 3) strongly suggest that pine and tree-birch are mostly long-distance represented. However, pine

stomata (Paus et al., 2011) and the constant F-2 representation of well-preserved *Picea abies* grains (Fig. 3) could indicate their YD presence within the Dovre region (Paus et al., 2011).

SedaDNA is primarily local in origin (Jørgensen et al. 2012), and is therefore considered to mainly reflect local vegetation. The low number of taxa retrieved from the sedaDNA analysis (Table 6) therefore suggests a sparsely developed local flora. The high PR could then reflect extra-local or regional pollen. However, the limited sedaDNA retrieved from this layer may also be a consequence of post-mortem degradation of DNA, which leads to a decline in diversity with sample age (e.g. Boessenkool et al., 2014).

The low algae representation (Fig. 3) suggests cold water and/or reduced access to light in a lake with ice-free moats during summers (see section 5.1.). Between 2166 and 2150 cm water depth, the algal representation increased, and diatoms were observed during the search for tephra. This might reflect a milder period and broader moats, improving light transparency in the water. In Arctic Canada today, incomplete melting of lake-ice occurs in areas with July means of 3-5 °C and annual means of -17° to -19 °C (Belzile et al., 2001; Cook and Bradley, 2010), similar to the YD conditions on Greenland (Denton et al., 2005).

## 5.2.3. The onset of the Holocene, paz F-3 (ca. 11.65 - ca.11.45 cal ka BP)

The rapid tree-birch increase at the expense of open ground pioneers likely reflects regional changes in response to the ameliorating Holocene climate ca. 11.65 cal ka BP (Rasmussen et al., 2006; Thomas et al., 2007) as similarly signalled south and west of the Scandinavian ice sheet (e.g. Hafsten, 1963; Paus, 1995; Krüger et al., 2011). TTPAR (80-100 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>) similar to that of paz F-2, still indicates the local presence of a mid-arctic tundra (Ritchie and Lichti-Federovich, 1967; Fredskild, 1973). Accordingly, the distinct *Betula* and *Populus* 

representation in paz F-3 most probably reflects long-distance transport from favourable down-slope areas within the region. *Pediastrum* and *Botryococcus* show maxima at the paz F-3/F-2 transition, reflecting temporary ameliorating conditions for algal growth.

### 5.2.4. The Preboreal oscillation (PBO), paz F-4 (ca. 11.45-11.3 cal ka BP)

The increase in open ground pioneers at the expense of tree-birch in the paz F-4 reflects a vegetation setback (Fig. 3, Table 5). As TTPAR ( 40-70 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>) is not statistically different from that of paz F-3, we think that the distinct pollen percentage changes (e.g. the *Betula* decrease) mostly reflect a regional vegetation setback whereas the local mid-arctic tundra stayed more or less similar to those of paz F-3 and paz F-2. The paz F-4 changes including the regional tree-birch decrease are interpreted to reflect the PBO cooling (Björck et al., 1997) dated to ca. 11.4 cal ka BP (Hoek and Bos, 2007; Rasmussen et al., 2007). Currently, the PBO has only been recognized at a few sites in southern Norway (Bakke et al., 2005, Nesje et al., 2014).

## 5.2.5. The pre-pine local successions, paz F-5 (ca. 11.3 – ca. 10.3 cal ka BP)

The pollen assemblage reflects closing of local vegetation as also indicated by declining PR (Fig. 3). The sedaDNA data show increasing number of taxa (Table 6), which could indicate efficient outwash from the increasing vegetation cover within the catchment. However, we cannot exclude that the sedaDNA increase reflects less degradation in the younger and more organic F-5 deposits. In paz F-5A (11.3-10.7 cal ka BP), *Dryas* and *Silene acaulis* expanded on the ridges at the expense of *Artemisia*, whereas widespread snow-beds with dominant *Salix* (including *S.polaris*; Table 3), *Saxifraga*, and possibly *Equisetum* developed (Fig. 3, Table 6). SedaDNA occasionally seems to originate from wind-dispersed pollen (Boessenkool et al. 2014), and the DNA of Fagaceae (Table 6) most probably reflects long-distance *Quercus* 

pollen (Fig.3). A sudden increase in total accumulation rate (TPAR) from 70 to 400 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> at the F-4/F-5A transition and further to 2000 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> at the end paz F-5A reflects a development from mid-Arctic via low-Arctic tundra to forest-tundra (Ritchie and Lichti-Federovich, 1967). However, frequent macrofossil layers show efficient deposition and focusing that leads to over-estimated PAR values (Davis et al., 1984).

In F-5B (ca. 10.7 – ca. 10.3 cal ka BP), TPAR increased to 3000 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> showing further vegetation closure. Decreasing *Saxifraga* and maxima in *Juniperus* and dwarf-shrubs suggest drier soils. The 1% ΣP *Hippophaë* could reflect local stands indicating a July mean of 11-12 °C (Kolstrup, 1979). The identification of pine from sedaDNA (Table 6) supports previous pine stomata and megafossil finds from Dovre (Paus et al., 2011), but we cannot exclude long-distance representation from pollen. The tree-birch pollen reached 1200 grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>, which is sufficient to indicate local forests (Seppä and Hicks, 2006; Jensen et al., 2007). However, focusing may have reduced the evidential strength of PAR (see above). Overall, the F-5 successions show identical patterns to what is found in the early Holocene in other Dovre sites (Velle et al., 2005; Paus et al., 2006, 2011; Paus, 2010).

The initiation of the local terrestrial paz F-5 successions is simultaneous with abrupt rises in *Pediastrum*, *Botryococcus* and LOI (Fig. 3) and the sudden change from blue-grey silty clay to brown clay/silt gyttja (Table 2). We hypothesise that these coinciding events reflect a rapid warming at 11.3 cal ka BP and the total melt of lake-ice during summers, which improved light conditions and algal growth. This is the first typical "YD/Holocene" stratigraphical signal evident in the analysed core, suggesting that the warming at the YD/Holocene transition at 11.65 cal ka BP was too weak and short-lived to leave distinct traces at the high

altitudes at Dovre. Similar patterns have been indicated from other Dovre lakes (Paus, 2010;

522 Paus et al., 2011).

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- 524 5.2.6. Pine-forest establishment, paz F-6 (ca. 10.3 ca. 9.7 cal ka BP)
- The rapid PR-drop and strong pine rise (8 x 10<sup>3</sup> grains cm<sup>-2</sup> a<sup>-1</sup>) show that pine forests
- established locally and simultaneously with the regional pine-forest expansion (Owren, 1984;
- Høeg, 1994), as also shown by previous megafossil finds (Paus, 2010; Paus et al., 2011). Ten
- 528 cal ka old tree-birch seeds (Table 3) indicate local trees, whereas open patches are shown by
- well-represented dwarf-shrubs and herbs (Fig. 3, Table 6). Pine DNA was not detected in F-6,
- but the effect of different sources of bias on the taxa recovered by sedaDNA is still largely
- unclear (see e.g. Boessenkool et al. 2014), and lack of detection is therefore difficult to
- 532 interpret.

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5.3. Correlation of the Dovre lake stratigraphies (Figs. 9 and 10)

- When comparing the LG/early Holocene biostratigraphies (PCA, total pollen diagram) of the
- four Dovre lakes Flåfattjønna (Paus et al., 2006; Paus, 2010), Topptjønna and Ristjønna (Paus
- et al., 2011), and Finnsjøen (this study), three main periods can be recognized:
- 539 (1) The undated pre-YD characterized by low PCA1 and PCA2 values, high tree-pollen
- 540 percentages and (except for Flåfattjønna) closed vegetation on well-drained soils. The
- continuous and uninterrupted minerogenic sedimentation in Ristjønna (see below) suggests
- that period 1 represents the LGI. This is further supported by the poor organic content of the
- sediments (making it unlikely that the sediments represent the warm Eemian period), and by
- the pollen assemblage that differs strongly from adjacent interstadial signals older than the LG
- 545 (Helle et al., 1981; Lie et al., 2004; Paus et al., 2011).

(2) The YD to the end of the PBO, showing medium PCA2 values, maximum PCA1 values, 546 medium to low tree-pollen percentages, dominant Artemisia and Poaceae, and pioneer 547 vegetation on well-drained soils. Within this period, the YD/Holocene transitions are found in 548 minerogenic sediments (Fig. 9). Most interestingly, the sediments in the easternmost lake, 549 Flåfattjønna, lack this YD-PBO period (see below). 550 (3) The early Holocene after the PBO, showing medium to high tree-pollen percentages, 551 552 medium PCA1 values decreasing to low values, and an early maximum in PCA2 values. This reflects moist soils and local snow beds, well-developed in the early period. 553 554 The LGI/YD transitions show distinctly different features in each lake: In Ristjønna (see also 555 Paus et al., 2011), the LGI/YD transition is characterized by: (1) No lithostratigraphical 556 disturbances (Fig. 9); (2) gradual and smooth pollen curve patterns across the transition (Fig. 557 558 9); (3) continuous presence of aquatics; and (4) continuous deposition of stones at the lake bottom until the end of the YD. Most probably, the stones were brought by shore-ice to the 559 lake-center and dropped during melting (Paus et al., 2006, 2011; cf. Zimmermann et al., 560 2011). Altogether, this shows that Ristjønna was an open lake during summers, and 561 uncovered by glaciers in the period from the LGI to the YD. 562 563 In Topptjønna (see also Paus et al., 2011), the homogenous clay/silt shows no traces of 564 disturbance at the biostratigraphical LGI/YD transition. This indicates a low-energetic 565 depositional environment within the restricted catchment. However, abrupt changes in the 566 pollen and aquatics at the transition point to a hiatus. We do not think that this reflects the 567 formation of a YD glacier covering the lake. As Topptjønna is shallow and its catchment is 568

flat, paraglacial processes would have eroded its LGI sediments. Instead, the hiatus probably

reflects the change from semi-permanent lake ice in the late LGI to perennial ice that blocked deposition during the early YD cold period.

In arctic-alpine areas today, deeper lakes thaw slower than shallow lakes (Vincent et al., 2008; Novikmec et al., 2013). Therefore, it seems contradictory that the large and deep Ristjønna retained ice-free conditions during the YD summers, whereas the smaller and shallower Topptjønna did not. However, in contrast to Ristjønna, Topptjønna is located at a windy position in a saddle point (Fig. 1) that decreases snow cover during winter. Lakes with shallow snow cover will develop thicker ice and have a later ice break-up date than similar lakes with thinner ice (Vincent et al., 2008). Also, the higher altitude of Topptjønna delays ice-free conditions (Novikmec et al., 2013). Hence, it is plausible that Ristjønna stayed ice-free during summers in the YD, whereas a perennial ice cover developed at Topptjønna.

In *Finnsjøen*, the abrupt shift at 2191 cm depth, both biostratigraphically (paz F-1/F-2 transition; Fig. 3) and lithostratigraphically (Table 2, Fig. 8), reflects a hiatus that may span at least 800-900 years (see section 5.1.). The stratified sand layers above 2191 cm depth show disturbances within the catchment before a low-energy depositional environment established as signalled by the weakly developed and fine-grained laminations (Fig. 7). We think the hiatus reflects the development of a local perennial snow drift/ice cap that blocked sediment deposition. When the ice started melting in the late YD, the sand layers were deposited. Apparently, sediments below the ice were not eroded, similar to the interglacial deposits on Baffin Island that escaped erosive action by over-riding glaciers (Briner et al., 2007). Our interpretation is supported by the facts that: (1) the coring point is situated in a deep and restricted depression that could avoid glacial erosion, (2) the coring point is situated close to a steep hill with a NE aspect (Fig. 1) where snow melts late in the summers today, (3)

stratigraphies similar to that of Finnsjøen are not recognized in the adjacent Topptjønna or Ristjønna (Fig. 9) underlining the local feature of the YD ice development.

Flåfattjønna (see also Paus et al., 2006) deviates from the other lakes by lacking period 2 (YD-PBO) thus reflecting a hiatus of at least 1500 years (12.85-11.3 cal ka BP). Above the hiatus, a stratified sand/silt layer (Fig. 9) shows high-energy depositional environments within the catchment similar to the Finnsjøen sand layers, reflecting the melting of the local YD ice. Flåfattjønna is a deep lake in a small catchment (Table 1), so a cold-based none-erosive YD glacier could have established here and blocked sedimentation. Probably, this glacier did not compact the LGI sediments because the lake and catchment topography prevented water and water-saturated sediments to escape. The hiatus spans a longer period than that of Finnsjøen, which indicates that Flåfattjønna was covered by a larger glacier of more regional character. This distinctly contrasts previous interpretations: that the Flåfattjønna hiatus reflects perennial lake-ice during the YD (Paus et al., 2006) or during the YD-PBO period (Paus, 2010).

#### 5.4. Dovre glaciation dynamics (Fig. 10)

In the Weichselian period, glacier margins in west- and mid-Norway withdrew towards east-southeast during interstadials and advanced towards west-northwest during stadial periods (e.g. Mangerud, 1991; Lambeck et al., 2010; Wohlfarth, 2010; Olsen et al., 2013). It is likely that the deglaciation of the Dovre region in the pre-LGI period (Dahl et al., 1997; Paus et al., 2006, 2011; Bøe et al., 2007; Goehring et al., 2008) followed a similar pattern. This could explain why the eastern Flåfattjønna has more dominant tree pollen in the LGI than the western lakes (Fig. 9). An eastern regional glacier close to Flåfattjønna would have severely

hampered the development of local vegetation and its pollen production, and reinforced the relative representation of long-distance tree pollen.

The mean surface exposure age (21.7±0.8 ka) from the summit of Mt. Rødalshø adjacent to Flåfattjønna (Fig. 1) could be argued to reflect the minimum age of ice-free conditions at the summit, but such an interpretation is unreasonable without supporting surface exposure ages from multiple nuclide or boulder-bedrock pairs. No erratics were investigated in this study, but data from further east show that summit erratics yield substantially lower ages than the bedrock they rest on (Goehring et al., 2008). Hence, the surface exposure ages obtained from the summit should be regarded as apparent <sup>10</sup>Be exposure ages only, without speculating whether they result from certain episodes of prior exposure.

The two lower elevation samples from the slopes of Rødalshø yield overlapping surface exposure ages (mean age 11.1±0.5 ka). These surfaces appear ice moulded and can be considered to show the timing of deglaciation. The lowermost sample location is more likely to have thicker/more long-lasting snow cover, hence the sample RØD-0304 (11.3±0.4 ka) is considered to be the more reliable of the two. Shielding by seasonal snow cover seems to be minor as the lower-elevation surface exposure ages overlap with the lowermost radiocarbon age from Flåfattjønna (11.2 cal ka BP; Paus, 2010). The lack of surface exposure ages from nearby erratic boulders can be compensated by data from a valley less than 25 km SW of Rødalshø. Here, a boulder-bedrock pair (1250 m a.s.l. at Einståkåskardet) gives 12.6±1.1 ka (n = 2) and an adjacent bedrock surface (1200 m a.s.l.) gives 12.2±0.4 ka (Linge unpublished data).

During the YD cooling, glaciers advanced from the east and covered Flåfattjønna (Fig. 10). According to the Ristjønna and Topptjønna stratigraphy, a regional glacier did not reach the mountain ridge where these lakes are situated, 30 km west of Flåfattjønna. Therefore, the glacial lineations and moraines at high altitudes within this western region must be older than the interpreted YD age (Follestad, 2005; Follestad and Fredin, 2007; Olsen et al., 2014). However, local ice-caps/glaciers did develop here, as evidenced in the Finnsjøen deposits.

The Dovre glaciers may have started to advance prior to the YD (Fig. 10) as a parallel to the late Allerød advances in western Norway (Lohne et al., 2007). Already in the last half of the Allerød, a cold-temperature signal, i.e. the increase of pioneers, is found in the Topptjønna and Ristjønna pollen diagrams (Paus et al., 2011). This is in line with the decreasing LGI temperatures signalled in the Greenland ice-cores (Johnsen et al. 2001). Furthermore, pioneers are sparsely represented below the hiati in the Flåfattjønna and Finnsjøen diagrams, which may indicate that glaciers blocked sedimentation in these lakes before the regional cold signal fully developed in the late Allerød. According to Olsen et al. (2013), the regional YD glacial maximum is reflected by the Tautra morainic stage in late Allerød/early YD.

A similar YD readvance must have occurred elsewhere in the Scandes Mountains. For example, megafossil ages and <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure ages show that Mt. Åreskutan became ice-free during the LGI (Kullman, 2008) but was ice-covered during the YD (Johnsen, 2010). Megafossils can be preserved beneath glaciers for several thousands of years (Benedict et al., 2008; Öberg and Kullman, 2011). Accordingly, the Åreskutan megafossils found in a snow bed basin depressed in a small catchment, could very well have survived a YD reglaciation.

After the YD glacial maximum, the deglaciation in mid-Norway developed stepwise (Olsen et al., 2013, 2014). The local ice cap over Finnsjøen disappeared ca. 12 cal ka BP followed by an algae maximum in mid paz F-2, which points to milder temperatures (see section 5.2.2.). Consequently, increased temperatures, and not only lowered winter precipitation, could explain the YD glacier withdrawal. As deglaciation progressed, the eastern Flåfattjønna became ice-free around 11.3-11.2 cal ka BP (Fig. 10) according to AMS-dating of macrofossils from the Flåfattjønna deposits (Paus, 2010) and <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure ages of bedrock surfaces (Table 4).

### **6. Conclusions**

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The fossil pollen and DNA from our well-dated (AMS) laminated sediments in Lake Finnsjøen showed uninterrupted local vegetation development from late YD (ca 12 cal ka BP) to early Holocene around 9.7 cal ka BP. The earliest local vegetation in late YD/early Holocene was extremely sparse including snow-beds with *Beckwithia, Oxyria, Saxifraga* spp., and dwarf-willows, ridges with *Artemisia norvegica* and *Papaver*, and lee sides with *Betula nana*, grasses and *Selaginella*. From 11.3 cal ka BP, local vegetation rapidly closed with *Saxifraga* spp. and *Silene acaulis* in snow-beds and *Dryas* on ridges. From 10.7 cal ka BP, open birch-forests developed with juniper, *Empetrum* and other dwarf-shrubs. Pine forests established within the area from 10.3 cal ka BP.

We identified the Pre Boreal Oscillation (PBO) around 11.4 cal ka BP by a tree-birch minimum and maxima in *Artemisia*, *Selaginella* and grasses. This signals the effect of decreased long-distance tree-birch pollen. Distinct local changes were not detected until the post-PBO warming. The earlier warming at the YD/Holocene transition at 11.65 cal ka BP was too weak and short-lived for vegetation closure at high altitudes at Dovre.

	A local ice cap covered Lake Finnsjøen during parts of the YD without removing
older d	eposits causing a hiatus of at least 800-900 years, separating the late YD from Late
Glacial	interstadial (LGI) sediments.

Sediments from Finnsjøen and the three previously studied Dovre lakes tell four different LG histories: Ristjønna showed uninterrupted sediments indicating an open lake during summers from LGI to the early Holocene, Topptjønna was covered by permanent lakeice during parts of YD, Finnsjøen was covered by a local YD ice-cap, and Flåfattjønna was covered by a regional glacier from late Allerød to the early Holocene.

Parts of Dovre show two LG deglaciations: one in the pre-LGI and one in the late YD/early Holocene, involving a considerable YD reglaciation. This suggests that the most reasonable Scandinavian ice model is the one that is intermediate between the maximum ice model postulating a large glacier during the entire LG, and the minimum ice model postulating thin and multidomed early LG ice. This modified ice model also implies that the Åreskutan LGI megafossils could have been preserved beneath readvancing YD ice.

We have demonstrated that hiati in deep lakes that avoided glacial erosion represent a new stratigraphical tool for identifying glacier advances/re-advances.

As LG terrestrial macrofossils are lacking in all four Dovre lakes, the LG chronology is exclusively based on stratigraphical correlations and considerations. It has to be thoroughly tested by future studies providing reliable AMS-dates of terrestrial fossils.

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1027 Figure and Table captions.

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- Fig. 1: Maps showing the Dovre area (small centre map), and the location of the lakes Store
- 1030 Finnsjøen, Ristjønna, Topptjønna (left map) and Flåfattjønna (right map). The contour
- interval is 100 m and 40 m for the local maps to the left and to the right, respectively. Sites for

the TCN samples RØD 0301, 0304, 0307, and 0308 are indicated by 1, 4, 7, and 8, 1032 1033 respectively, on the map to the right. 1034 1035 Fig. 2: X-ray photography of the studied core section 1980-2195 cm below water surface, with increasing depth towards the left. See Table 2 and section 4.1. for sediment descriptions. 1036 The holes show where samples for sedaDNA were taken. The positions of Fig. 7 (2110-2174 1037 cm), Fig. 8 (2174-2195 cm) and calibrated ages are indicated. The minerogenic/organic 1038 1039 sediment transition at 2088 cm depth, 11.3 cal ka BP, reflects the post-PBO warming. The core-diameter (110 mm) is exaggerated in relation to the core length (115 cm). 1040 1041 Fig. 3: Lake Store Finnsjøen pollen diagram from the basal sediments, including dates, pollen 1042 assemblage zones, loss-on-ignition (LOI)-estimates, palynological richness (PR) estimates 1043 1044  $E(T_{124})$ , and total pollen concentration and accumulation rate estimates. Shaded curves represent 10x exaggeration of the scale. Note the change of depth scale at 2080 cm depth. 1045 1046 Lithostratigraphical symbols follow Troels-Smith (1955) where diamond-shaped squares 1047 denote organic sediment content, whereas L-shaped symbols and dots denote minerogenic content (silt/clay and sand, respectively) in sediments. Asterisks (\*) denote assumed ages 1048 1049 discussed in sections 5.1., 5.2. and used in estimating sedimentation rate and PAR. 1050 Fig. 4: Plot of pollen taxa along the first two axes of the PCA on the merged pollen data from 1051 the four lakes, as displayed in Fig. 9. Eigenvalues: axis 1: 0.297, axis 2: 0.180, axis 3: 0.099, 1052 1053 axis 4: 0.054. See section 4.2 for the ecological interpretations of the figure.

Fig. 5: The "Bacon" bayesian age-depth model (Blaauw and Christen, 2011) of the Finnsjøen core, overlaying the calibrated distributions of the seven individual dates. Grey-dotted lines

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indicate the model's 95% probability intervals. Highest probability sedimentation is shown by the white line. It intersects the position of the paz-2/paz-3 transition (white square) which strongly suggests that the transition represents the onset of the Holocene, 11 650 cal yrs BP. Post (grey-shaded) and prior (single line) distributions of memory and accumulation rate, in addition to iteration features (Log of Objective) are included in the upper part.

Fig. 6. Photographs of sample locations for <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure dating. (A) Sample RØD 0301 originates from a quartz lens (hammer for scale) at a vegetation-free and wind-exposed site. The bedrock surface appears to be both ice-moulded and weathered, causing the quartz lenses to protrude up to a few centimetres above the bedrock surface. Boulders of local bedrock are scattered around. (B) Sample RØD 0304 was collected from a quartz lens (plastic cup for scale) on an exposed surface surrounded by a cover of lichen-dominated dwarf-shrub heath. (C) Sample RØD 0307 originates from a quartz vein (circled) in bedrock, from a very exposed location near the summit of Rødalshø. The summit area appears to be stripped or plucked, as there is no material other than the occasional glacially transported boulder (local lithology and erratics). (D) Sample RØD 0308 originates from a quartz lens at the summit of Rødalshø (notebook for scale). Debris is confined to small depression, however, the cairn building might have cleaned the surface substantially.

Fig. 7: X-ray photography of the laminated silty clay at depth 2110-2174 cm with increasing depth towards the left. The downwards hammering of the core tube caused bending of laminations according to variations in sediment softness and viscosity.

Fig. 8: The basal sediments (2174-2195 cm depth) including the basal LGI silty clay gyttja (2191-2195 cm depth). Depth increases towards the left. The hole in the sand layer to the left

shows where sedaDNA was sampled. At 2191 cm depth, ca 1 cm to the left of /below the sedaDNA sampling point, the distinct transition between the light and ca 5 mm thick clay horizon below and the darker sand layer above, reflects the hiatus separating the LGI from the late YD.

Fig. 9: Lithostratigraphy (photos) and biostratigraphy (PCA, total pollen diagram) of the Dovre lakes Flåfattjønna (Paus et al. 2006), Finnsjøen (this study), and Topptjønna and Ristjønna (Paus et al. 2011). The dark lines separate the correlated periods 1 (pre-YD), 2 (from YD to end of PBO), and 3 (the early Holocene after PBO). The white horizontal lines show the onset of the Holocene. Note that period 2 is absent in the Flåfattjønna sediments.

Fig. 10: The summarized LG and early Holocene glacier and vegetation dynamics at Dovre as compiled from this study, Paus et al. (2006, 2011), and Paus (2010). Note that no datable LG macrofossils have been found in any of the four lakes, so the chronology earlier than 11.3 ka cal BP in each lake (dotted lines) is exclusively based on biostratigraphical and lithostratigraphical correlations and considerations. The tentative ages of the pre-LGI deglaciation are discussed in Paus et al. (2006, 2011).

Table 1: The features of the four Dovre lakes discussed in this study.

Table 2: The Finnsjøen lake sediment lithology from the core section studied.

Table 3: Results of the seven <sup>14</sup>C-dates from Finnsjøen. Calibrated ages (Stuiver et al., 2014) show probabilities within two sigma.

1107	
1108	Table 4: Summary of <sup>10</sup> Be sample information for rock samples from Rødalen.
1109	Part A: Summary of field data required for calculating surface exposure ages.
1110	Part B: Laboratory data required for calculating <sup>10</sup> Be surface exposure ages and resulting age
1111	estimates.
1112	
1113	Table 5: Names, dates, and biostratigraphical features of the local pollen assemblage zones.
1114	The rationale for the assumed ages denoted by asterisks (*), is given in Fig. 5 and section 5.1.
1115	
1116	Table 6: Taxa identified by sedaDNA analyses of the Finnsjøen sediments. Laboratory sample
1117	names refer to coring points (3, 4), coring point sections (B, C), core depth, and laboratory
1118	numbering in brackets. The depth (cm) refers to depth below water surface correlated with
1119	coring point 4 from which pollen were analysed (Fig. 3). The ages (cal ka BP) of the pollen
1120	assemblage zones (paz) are noted. Taxa are ordered alphabetically.
1121	
1122	

Table 1

Lake	Altitude	Geogr.	Basin size (m)	Max water	Catchment	No of
	m a.s.l.	position	- area (ha)	depth (m)	size incl.	inlets and
					basin (ha)	outlets
Store	1260	62°24'N,	800 x 390	14.7	69	0 + 1
Finnsjøen		9°41'E	- 23.7			
Ristjønna	1254	62°28'N,	1250 x 1000	12.1	275	1 +1
		9°37'E	- 68			
Topptjønna	1316	62°23'N,	200 x 300	6.9	45	0 + 1
		9°40'E	- 4.2			
Flåfattjønna	1110	62°20'N,	425 x 225	13	25	0 + 1
		10°24'E	- 6			

Table 2

Depth	Description	Colour	Comments
(cm)	(Troels-Smith 1955)		
1980-2021	Ld <sup>3</sup> 4, Dh +, Tb +, Ag +	Dark brown	Laminated gyttja with macro remains
		(nig 3)	
2021-2050	Ld <sup>2</sup> 2, Dh 1, Ag 1, As +	Brown	Laminated clay/silt gyttja. Includes several dark (nig 3)
		(nig. 2+)	macrofossil-layers less than 1 cm thick. Most distinct
			between 2021 and 2023 cm (Ld <sup>2</sup> 1, Tb1, Dh1, Ag+). Two
			mm thick and light (nig 1) clay layer at 2026 cm depth.
2050-2063	Ld <sup>1</sup> 1, Ag 1, As 2	Grey brown	Laminated clay/silt gyttja. Thin macrofossil layers (nig 3),
		(nig2-)	3 between 2050-2054.5 cm and 2 between 2061-2063.
2063-2076	Ld <sup>0</sup> 1, Ag 1, As 2	Brownish grey	Laminated clay/silt gyttja.
		(nig2-)	
2076-2080	Ld <sup>0</sup> 1, Ag 1, As 2	Grey brown	Laminated clay/silt gyttja. Includes four distinct
		(nig2)	macrofossil layers (nig 3-). More silty in the upper part.
2080-2087.5	Ld <sup>0</sup> 1, Ag 1, As 2	Grey brown	Laminated clay/silt gyttja. Lighter in the upper part.
		(nig2)	
2087.5-2115	Ag 1, As 3	Grey	Silty clay. Transition to the upper organic sediments clear
		(nig 2-)	cut. Shade of darker laminations between 2110-2115 cm.
2115-2173	Ag 1-, As 3+	Grey	Laminated silty clay. Gradual and indistinct transition to
		(nig 2-)	the upper layer.
2173-2178	As 4, Ag +	Grey (nig 1+)	Laminated clay
2178-2180	Ag 2, As 1, Ga 1	Grey (nig 2+)	Sandy silt. Undulating upper and lower transitions
2180-2185	Ag 1, As 3,	Grey brown	Silty clay. With fine laminations. Undulating upper
		(nig 2-)	transition.
2185-2191	Ag 1, Ga 3	Blue grey	Two sand lenses divided by silty clay (As 3, Ag 1) at
		(nig 3+)	2186.5-2187 cm
2191-2195	Ag 1, As 3, Ld <sup>0</sup> +	Grey brown	Laminated silty clay gyttja. At the upper transition, a 5 mm
		(nig 3-)	grey (nig 1) clay horizon occur.

Table 3

Lab.ref.	Lab.ref. Depth Age (year BP)		δ <sup>13</sup> C	Material dated (and its paz position)		
	(cm)	Uncalibr.	Calibrated (2 $\zeta$ )			
TRa-4468	1994.5- 1995.5	8845 ± 70	9683 - 10182	-27.0	Seeds of <i>Betula</i> undiff. and <i>B pubescens</i> . <i>B. nana</i> catkinscales. Bark, twigs and leaf remains. 16.1 mg. (paz F-6)	
TRa-4469	2009- 2010	8925 ± 65	9787 - 9848 (0.042) 9864 - 9877 (0.009) 9884 - 10227 (0.948)	-26.4	Leaf of <i>Salix polaris</i> . <i>Salix</i> budscales. Twigs and leaf remains. 17 mg. (paz F-6)	
TRa-4471	2036.5- 2038	9380 ± 115	10258 - 10875 (0.902) 10944 - 11076 (0.098)	-27.0	Leaves of <i>Dryas, Betula nana, Empetrum, Salix polaris, Salix</i> spp. <i>B.nana</i> catkin scales, <i>Salix</i> bud scales. Twigs. 33 mg. (paz F-5)	
TRa-4472	2053.5- 2055	9620 ± 85	10723 - 11200	-28.5	Leaves of <i>Dryas, Saxifraga oppositifolia, Betula nana, Empetrum.</i> Leaf stalks. 26.3 mg. (paz F-5)	
ETH- 48539	2062.5- 2063	9557 ± 34	10725 - 10895 (0.465) 10918 - 11088 (0.535)	-28.2	<i>Dryas</i> leaves and seeds. <i>Salix</i> cupula. Remains of twigs, stems and leaves. 39.4 mg. (paz F-5)	
ETH- 48540	2079 - 2080	9743 ± 34	11130 - 11234	-26.8	Leaves of <i>Dryas, Saxifraga oppositifolia. Salix</i> bud scales. 49.6 mg. (early paz F-5)	
Ua-45187	2085.5- 2087.5	9908 ± 117	11104 - 11826 (0.991) 11890 - 11931 (0.009)	-25.8	Leaves of Salix polaris, Saxifraga oppositifolia. Saxifraga seeds. Salix bud scale. 3.7 mg. (paz F-4)	

**Table 4A**Summary of field data required for calculation surface exposure ages.

Sample <sup>a</sup>	Elevation (m a.s.l.)	Surface type	Lithology	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°E)	Shielding factor <sup>b</sup>	Thickness <sup>c</sup> (cm) (factor)
RØD-0301	1150	lens in bedrock	quartz in mica schist	62.326523	10.380965	0.9986	5.0 (0.9597)
RØD-0304	1060	lens in bedrock	quartz in mica schist	62.319778	10.353989	0.9970	4.0 (0.9676)
RØD-0307	1435	vein in bedrock	quartz in mica schist	62.315045	10.384162	1.0000	12.0 (0.9069)
RØD-0308	1438	lens in bedrock	quartz in mica schist	62.315045	10.384162	1.0000	7.0 (0.9442)

**Table 4B**Laboratory data required for calculating <sup>10</sup>Be surface exposure ages and resulting age estimates.

RØD-0301 RØD-0304 RØD-0307	25.542	5 202.0±7.65	14.41±0.53 12.93±0.58 32.80±1.19	10.13±0.94 (0.38) 9.74±0.93 (0.44) 19.35±1.78 (0.70)	10.92±0.59 (0.40) 10.49±0.63 (0.47) 20.85±1.12 (0.76)	11.29±0.60 (0.42) 10.85±0.64 (0.48) 21.56±1.14 (0.79)
,		473.0±14.0		, ,	, ,	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> All samples processed and measured at SUERC. <sup>b</sup> Geometric shielding correction factor was computed after Dunne et al. (1999). <sup>c</sup> Sample thickness measured in cm from the surface, correction factor calculated assuming an exponential reduction in <sup>10</sup>Be production rate with depth (Gosse and Phillips 2000; Balco et al. 2008). <sup>d</sup> All samples use a density value of 2.65 g cm<sup>-3</sup>. <sup>e</sup> Be carrier concentration: 299 μg g-1. <sup>f</sup> Isotope ratios normalized to the NIST SRM 4325 <sup>10</sup>Be standard with a nominal value of <sup>10</sup>Be/<sup>9</sup>Be=3.06x10<sup>-11</sup>. <sup>g</sup> Uncertainties are reported at the 1σ confidence level. <sup>h</sup> Procedural blank <sup>10</sup>Be/<sup>9</sup>Be ratio of 4.66±0.90 x10<sup>-15</sup> used to correct for background. <sup>i</sup> Propagated uncertainties include error in the blank and counting statistics. <sup>j</sup> Ages calculated using the Lm scaling scheme and the global reference <sup>10</sup>Be production rate of Balco et al. (2008). Propagated errors in the calculated ages include uncertainties of the <sup>10</sup>Be production rate and of the <sup>10</sup>Be decay constant. <sup>k</sup> Ages calculated using the Lm scaling scheme and the western Norway reference <sup>10</sup>Be production rate of Goehring et al. (2012). Propagated errors in the calculated ages include uncertainties of the <sup>10</sup>Be decay constant. <sup>1</sup> Ages calculated using the Lm scaling scheme and the Arctic reference <sup>10</sup>Be production rate of Young et al. (2013). Propagated errors in the calculated ages include uncertainties of the <sup>10</sup>Be production rate of Young et al. (2013). Propagated errors in the calculated using the CRONUS-Earth online calculator (Balco et al. 2008) version 2.2, assuming no atmospheric pressure anomalies (std model), no significant denudation during exposure (ε=0 mm a<sup>-1</sup>), no prior exposure, and no temporal shielding (snow, sediment, vegetation). Errors in parenthesis are analytical errors only.

Table 5.

PAZ	Name	Age	Pollen zone characteristics	Diagnostic taxa not included in Fig.3
(depths in cm)		(cal. BP)		
<b>F-6</b> (1980-2010)	Pinus- Ulmus	9700- 10,300	Pine reaches 65 % ΣP whereas shrubs and herbs distinctly decrease. Total pollen concentration (TPC) and total PAR reach 35 10 <sup>4</sup> grains cm <sup>-3</sup> and 12 10 <sup>3</sup> grains cm <sup>-2</sup> a <sup>-1</sup> , respectively. Palynological richness (PR) shows a strong decrease.	Campanula cf. uniflora, Humulus, Melampyrum, Myricaria, Ranunculus acris- type, Sorbus, Ulmus
F-5 (2010- 2088)	Salix- Dryas- Saxifraga	10,300- 11,300	In F-5a, <i>Artemisia</i> , Poaceae, and <i>Selaginella</i> distinctly decrease, and <i>Salix, Dryas, Silene</i> cf. <i>acaulis, Saxifraga oppositifolia</i> -type, and algae rapidly rise at the zone transition. In F5-b, <i>Betula, Juniperus, Empetrum,</i> and <i>Vaccinium</i> -type rise when <i>Dryas, Silene</i> , and <i>Saxifraga</i> decrease and <i>Corylus</i> becomes continuously represented. PR distinctly decreases. TPC rapidly rises from 10 <sup>3</sup> to 10 <sup>5</sup> grains cm <sup>-3</sup> . Total PAR increases trough the zone: 4 - 30 10 <sup>2</sup> grains cm <sup>-2</sup> a <sup>-1</sup> .	Arctous alpinus, Astragalus/Oxytropis-type, Ephedra distachya-type, Hippophaë, Myricaria, Sorbus, Veronica, Ulmus
<b>F-4</b> (2088-2101)	Populus- Artemisia- Poaceae	11,300- *11,470	Artemisia, Poaceae, and Selaginella show local maxima, whereas Betula abruptly decreases. Populus is distinctly present. PR shows a weak maximum. TPC slightly decreases to 500-1000 grains cm <sup>-2</sup> a <sup>-1</sup> . Estimated tentative total PAR is 40-70 grains cm <sup>-2</sup> a <sup>-1</sup> .	Arctostaphylos uva-ursi,
<b>F-3</b> (2101-2115)	Betula- Populus- Rumex	*11,470- *11,650	Betula and Rumex rapidly rise, whereas Artemisia, Beckwithia, Poaceae, and Selaginella abruptly decrease. Populus shows almost continuous representation. PR slightly decrease. TPC reaches max of 900-1400 grains cm <sup>-3</sup> . Estimated tentative total PAR is 80-100 grains cm <sup>-2</sup> a <sup>-1</sup> .	Anemone-type, Campanula cf. uniflora, Ephedra fragilis-type, Fagopyrum, Rhinanthus
<b>F-2</b> (2115-2191)	Artemisia- Beckwithia -Poaceae	*11,650- ca. *12,000	Artemisia, Beckwithia, Poaceae, Selaginella, other pioneers, and PR show maximum values; tree-pollen and algae reach low values. TPC decreases to max 800 grains cm <sup>-3</sup> .	Anemone-type, Campanula cf. uniflora, Ephedra distachya-type, Ephedra fragilis- type, Koenigia, Plantago lanceolata, Sagina,
<b>F-1</b> (2191-2195)	Alnus- Betula- Pinus	* > 12,850	<i>Pinus, Alnus</i> and algae show distinct maxima, whereas palynological richness (PR) and pioneers show minimum values. Total pollen concentration (TPC) reaches 10 <sup>4</sup> grains cm <sup>-3</sup> .	Anemone-type, Arctous alpinus, Astragalus/Oxytropis-type, Campanula cf. uniflora, Hippophaë, Hippuris, Parnassia, Pedicularis, Sorbus, Ulmus

Table 6.

Laboratory sample	Depth	Paz and ages	Taxon (no. of reads)
name	(cm)	(cal ka BP)	
F4B_19802(SL171)	1980	F-6	Alchemilla sp. (93924)
		(9.7-10.3)	Bartsia alpina (23200)
			Dryas octopetala (60241)
			Lycopodium sp./Diphasiastrum sp. (4723)
			Salicaceae (118626)
F3B_19406(SL181)	1995-	F-6	Dryas octopetala (151364)
F3B_19400(SL181)		_	
	2000	(9.7-10.3)	Salicaceae (207524)
F4B_20001(SL158)	2000	F-6	Quercus sp. (80059)
		(9.7-10.3)	Salicaceae (123073)
F4C_20407(SL157)	2040	F-5b	Arbutoideae (14167)
		(10.3-10.7)	Bartsia alpina (18329)
			Bistorta vivipara (29035)
			Dryas octopetala (74584)
			Salicaceae (151825)
			Splachnum sp. (579)
			Pinus sylvestris (19314)
T1G 40 50 5(GY 04 50)	20.50	7.5	D (001704)
F4C_20606(SL0168)	2060	F-5a	Dryas octopetala (331584)
		(10.7-11.3)	Equisetum sp. (1390)
			Salicaceae (198024)
F4C 2080 5(SL156)	2080	F-5a	Fagaceae (15914)
1.0_20003(BE150)	2000	(10.7-11.3)	Salicaceae (20660)
		(10.7-11.5)	Saxifraga sp. (79756)
			Билугиди sp. (17130)
F3B_20203(SL178)	2130	F-2 (11.65-12)	Asteraceae (271470)
F4C_21602(SL165)	2160	F-2 (11.65-12)	Asteraceae (138343)
1'4C_21002(SL103)	2100	1-2 (11.03-12)	ASICIACCAC (130343)

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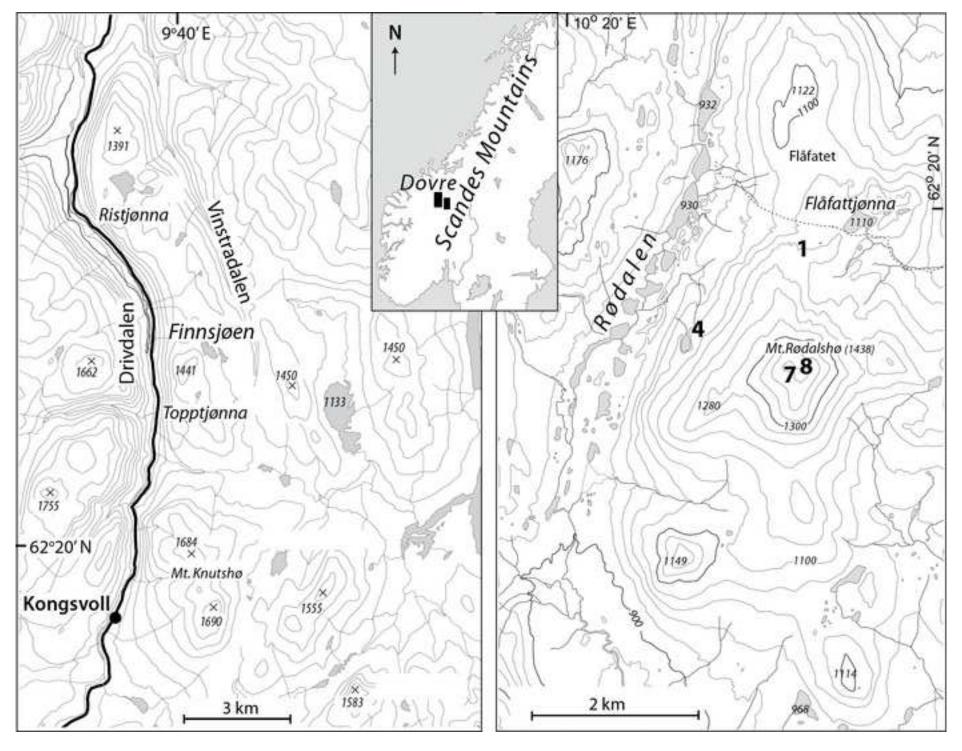


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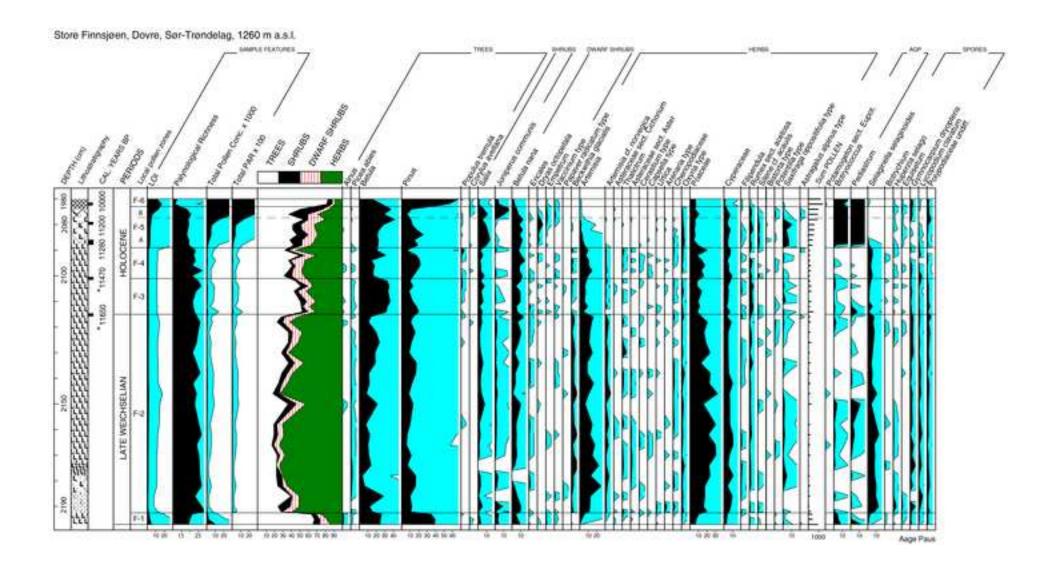


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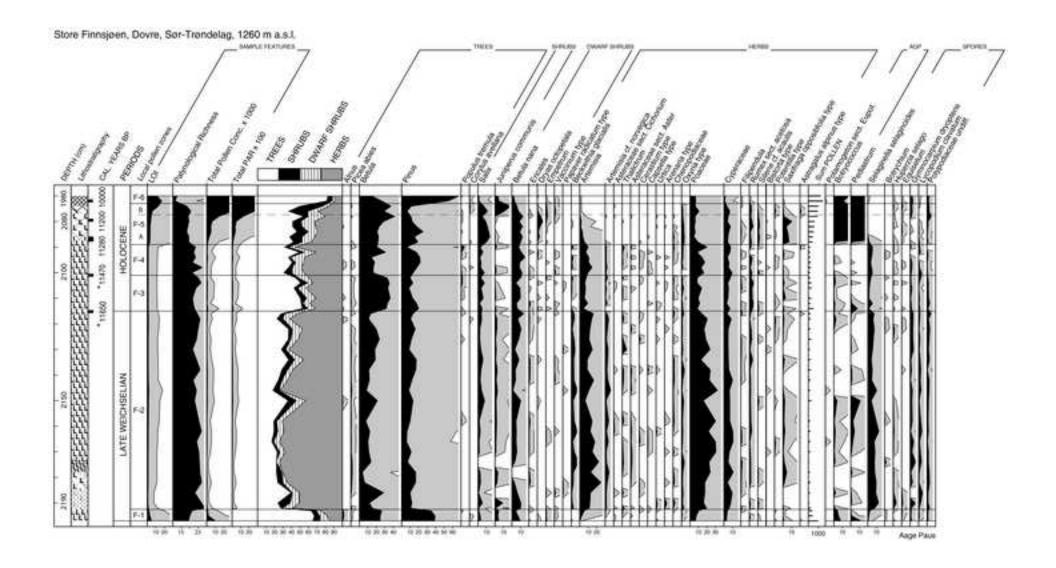


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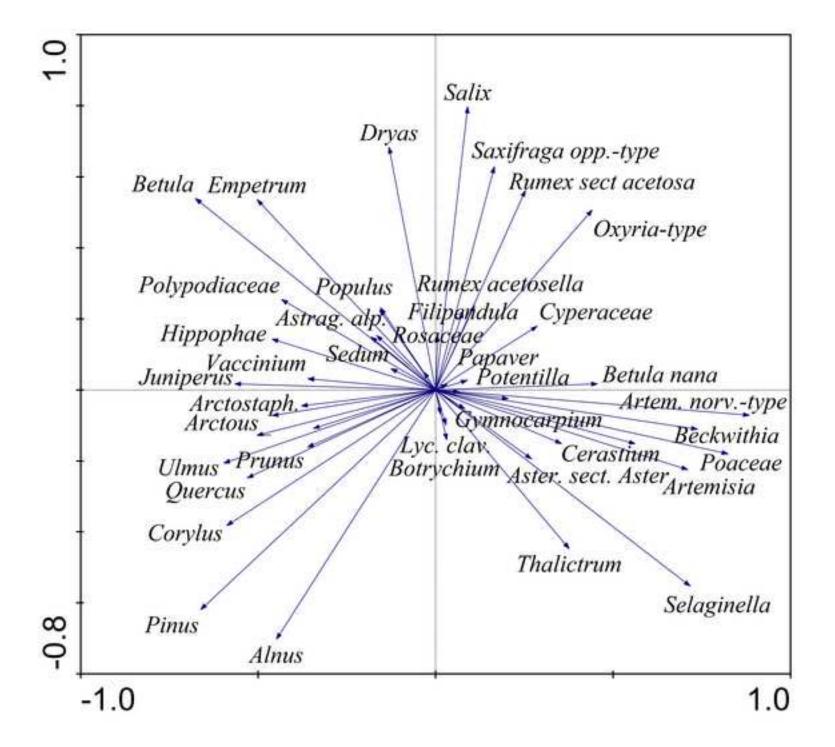


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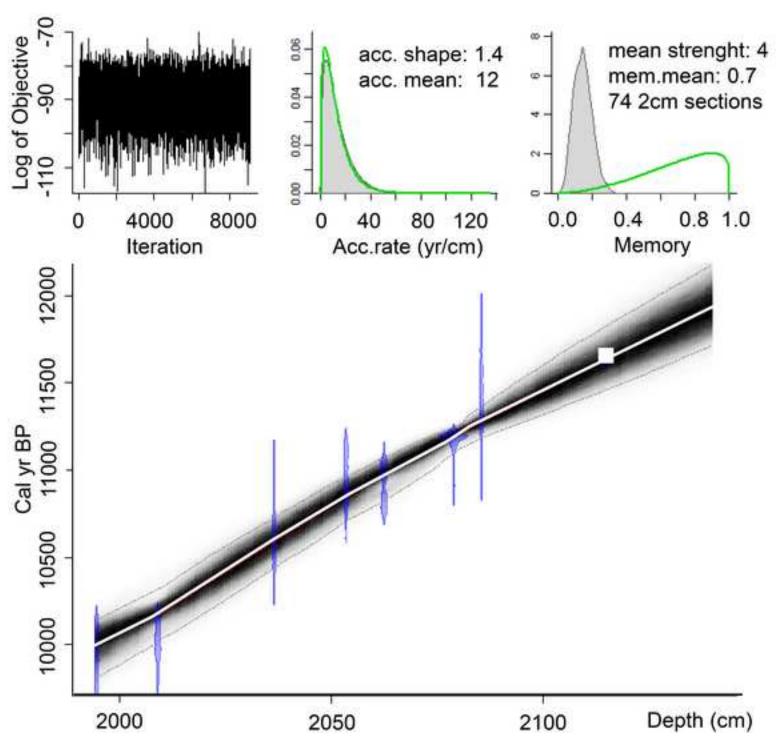


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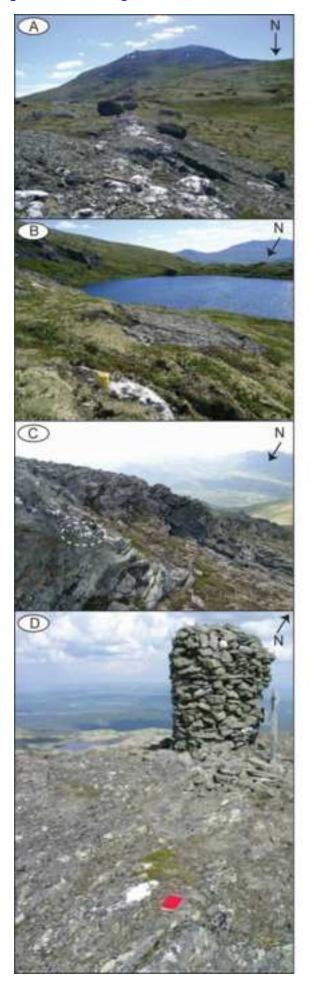


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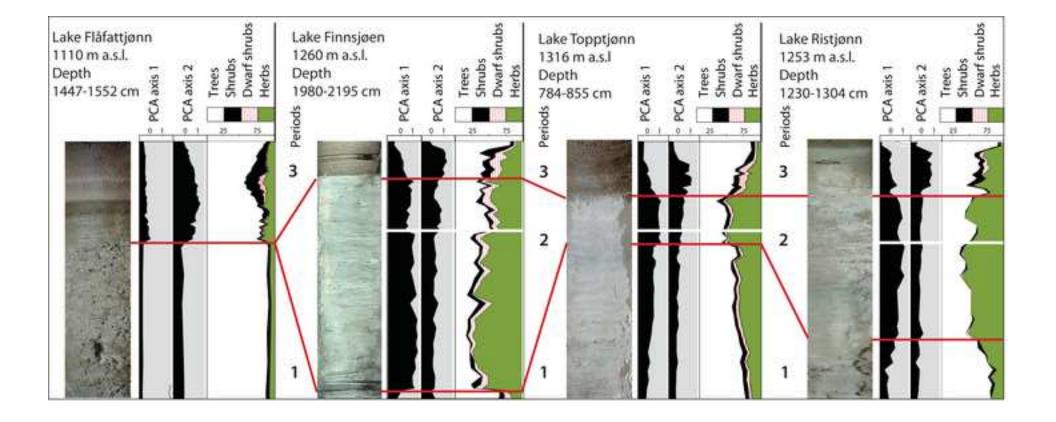


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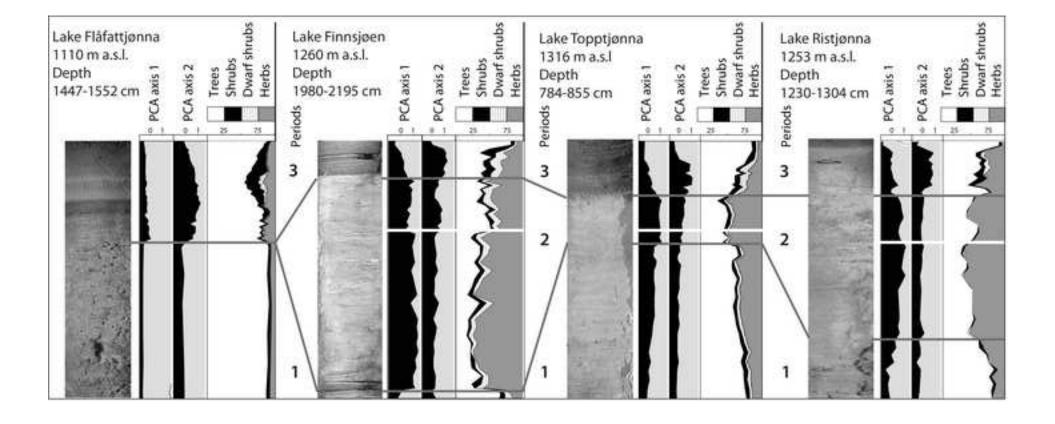
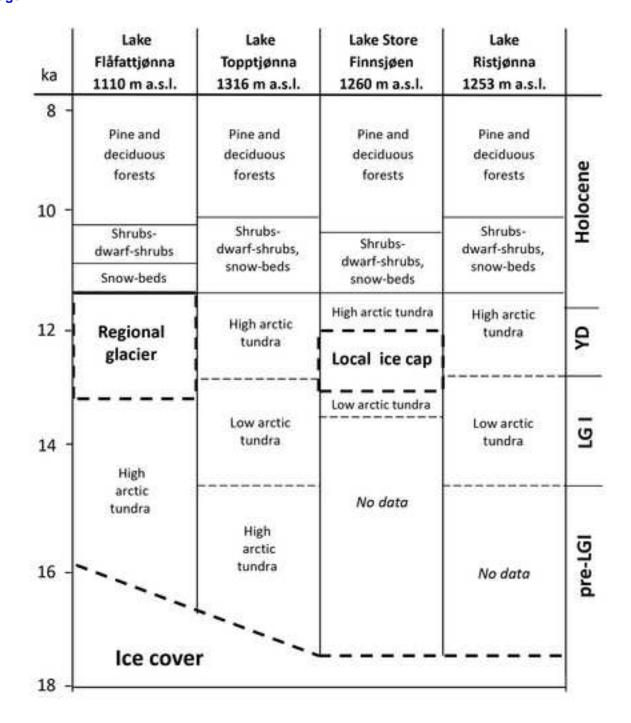


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AppendixC.doc
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