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The Neoglacial landscape and human history of Glacier Bay, Glacier Bay National Park and Preserve, southeast Alaska, USA

Cathy Connor,1* Greg Streveler,2 Austin Post,3 Daniel Monteith4 and Wayne Howell5

(1Department of Natural Sciences, University of Alaska Southeast, Juneau, Alaska, USA; 2Icy Strait Environmental Services, Gustavus, Alaska, USA; 3US Geological Survey, Tacoma WA, USA; 4Department of Social Sciences, University of Alaska Southeast, Juneau, Alaska, USA; Glacier Bay National Park and Preserve, Alaska, USA)

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Abstract: The Neoglacial landscape of the Huna Tlingit homeland in Glacier Bay is recreated through new interpretations of the lower Bay’s fjordal geomorphology, late Quaternary geology and its ethnographic landscape. Geological interpretation is enhanced by 18 radiocarbon dates compiled from published and unpublished sources, as well as 15 newly dated samples. Neoglacial changes in ice positions, outwash and lake extents are reconstructed for c. 5500–200 cal. yr ago, and portrayed as a set of three landscapes at 1600–1000, 500–300 and 300–200 cal. yr ago. This history reveals episodic ice advance towards the Bay mouth, transforming it from a fjordal seascape into a terrestrial environment dominated by glacier outwash sediments and ice-marginal lake features. This extensive outwash plain was building in lower Glacier Bay by at least 1600 cal. yr ago, and had filled the lower bay by 500 cal. yr ago. The geologic landscape evokes the human-described landscape found in the ethnographic literature. Neoglacial climate and landscape dynamism created difficult but endurable environmental conditions for the Huna Tlingit people living there; choosing to cope with environmental hardship was perhaps preferable to the more severely deteriorating conditions outside of the Bay as well as conflicts with competing groups. The central portion of the outwash plain persisted until it was overridden by ice moving into Icy Strait between AD 1724–1794. This final ice advance was very abrupt after a prolonged still-stand, evicting the Huna Tlingit from their Glacier Bay homelands.

Key words: Glacier Bay, southeastern Alaska, Neoglacial, ‘Little Ice Age’, outwash plain, ethnographic landscape, Tlingit history.

Introduction

Since the visits of George Vancouver in 1794 (Lamb, 1984), John Muir in 1879, 1893 and 1899, and G.K. Gilbert in 1899 (Burroughs and Muir, 1899); cartographers, scientists and the public alike have been fascinated with the ongoing disappearance of a once huge Glacier Bay Icefield. This icefield extended more than 6000 km² over the landscape and reached thicknesses of up to 1.5 km by AD 1750, the ‘Little Ice Age’ (LIA) maximum (Larsen, et al., 2005). Dramatic deglaciation over the last 250 years has been documented by numerous workers including Reid (1896), Klotz (1899), Field (1947), Lawrence (1958) and Molnia (2006).

The archaeological record for Glacier Bay (the Bay) was extirpated by the last ice advance, so we must rely on ethnography to provide the entire cultural record of the pre-LIA human tenure in the Bay. The Huna Tlingit, indigenous people of northern Southeast Alaska, actively retain a living memory of this time before the last ice when Glacier Bay was the centre of their world. However, they describe a very different landscape to the deglaciated fjordscape of today. This paper will characterize these remembered ethnographic and geographic landscapes and link them through time with their points of geologic coincidence.

Although fragments of the rich oral human history and geologic record for this period have been published, no overview is available for the Neoglacial sequence of landscape evolution between 5500 and 200 years ago, when this formerly inhabited landscape was being created, occupied and destroyed. This work is the first serious attempt to integrate the geologic and ethnographic records. This dearth of information was recognized by the Glacier Bay National Park & Preserve staff in 2003 as an obstacle to full understanding of
the tenure by Huna Tlingits, and an impediment to formal
notifications of portions of the Bay as a Traditional Cultural Property under
National Register Criteria (Parker and King, 1990; Montieith, 2006),
which require rational boundary and landscape descriptions. In
2004, Connor and Streveler, with Post's overview, summarized and
supplemented available information on the Bay's Neoglacial land-
scape (Montieith et al., 2007). We gave particular attention to the
middle and lower Bay, where ethnographic information indicated
concentration of former Tlingit use. As part of this effort, Howell
and Montieith assembled the Bay's ethnographic record.

Methods

Geology

Review of the published Neoglacial record for the Bay centred on
extensive research carried out in the Muir Inlet area (Figure 1) by
the Ohio State Institute of Polar Studies (Haselton, 1966;
Goldthwait et al., 1966; Mickelson, 1971; McKenzie and
Goldthwait, 1971; Goldthwait, 1987; Goodwin, 1988). Of the
numerous published radiocarbon dates for the Bay, we selected
six for particular relevance here (Table 1).

The present study reports 32 previously unpublished dates
(Table 1, Figure 2). Thirteen are from work by Post, Streveler
and Mann since 1975. Seven samples (four unpublished ages and three
undated wood samples with stratigraphic context) were generously
contributed by Daniel Lawson and analysed for this study. We
focused on information gaps through field studies in the lower and
mid Bay during the summers of 2004 and 2005, resulting in 12 new
dates. These 32 previously unreported ages and the six dates from
previous studies provide the 38 radiocarbon ages used to anchor the
geologic and overlapping human events in this study.

Samples collected by Connor, Streveler and Lawson were dated
using standard and AMS methods by Beta Analytic. Radiocarbon ages from three marine shell samples were corrected for the marine carbon reservoir effect by subtracting 470 years
(Kovanen and Easterbrook, 2002; Mann and Streveler, 2008).
Unpublished and older measured 14C ages were calibrated using
Calib 5.0.1 (Stuiver and Reimer, 1993). Radiocarbon ages are
reported here as 2σ calibrated years before AD 1950 (cal. yr ago;
Table 1, Van der Plicht and Hogg, 2006). Stratigraphic context
(Figure 3a, b) provided information about palaeoenvironments
enabling us to distinguish evidence for tree mortality caused by
slowly encroaching, ice-distal, outwash sediments from tree
deaths caused directly by ice contact. A description of lower Bay
sediments, which we here name the Beardslee Formation, and our
interpretations, is included in Appendix 1.

Data for the early Neoglacial, c. 5500-2000 yr ago were generally
characterized in terms of glacier terminus, outwash and glacial
lake positions, based principally on the existing literature. For
the late Neoglacial, we selected three periods with the best land-
scape information and relevance to the history of human tenure in
the Bay, as supported below, for detailed palaeoenvironmental
reconstructions. This 'time slice' methodology allows the creation
of landscapes in coherent detail, but de-emphasizes changes that
may have occurred between the chosen periods.

Ethnography

The ethnographic literature provided references to landscape
character during and prior to the final LIA advance (Seidmore,
1893; Swanton, 1909; Black, 1957; Hall, 1962; Olson, 1967; de
Laguna, 1972; James, 1973; Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987;
Emmons, 1991, no date; Hoonah Indian Association (HIA), 2006).
Emphasis was placed on multiple tellings of two particularly
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Links to sample locations in Figure 2</th>
<th>Sample no.</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Dated material</th>
<th>Measured $^1$C age (yr BP)</th>
<th>$^{13}$C/$^12$C ratio</th>
<th>Conventional $^1$C age (yr BP) AD 1950</th>
<th>Average of calibrated 2 $\sigma$ radiocarbon age cal. BP (yr before AD 1950) rounded to nearest 10$^5$</th>
<th>Marine reservoir effect correction (−470 years)$^4$</th>
<th>Sample source</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>UW 597</td>
<td>Mouth of Reid Inlet</td>
<td>reworked wood in till</td>
<td>4980 ± 90</td>
<td>568 ± 90</td>
<td>5750</td>
<td>A. Post and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1981)</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>UW 598</td>
<td>Near Topkea Glacier</td>
<td>reworked wood in till</td>
<td>4655 ± 75</td>
<td>5389 ± 75</td>
<td>5430</td>
<td>A. Post and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1981)</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>UW 596</td>
<td>Whidbey Passage</td>
<td><em>in situ</em> stumps</td>
<td>4385 ± 60</td>
<td>4925 ± 60</td>
<td>5220</td>
<td>A. Post and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1981)</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>B 194100</td>
<td>Head of Berg Bay</td>
<td>shells in marine silt</td>
<td>4380 ± 50</td>
<td>4790 ± 50</td>
<td>4760</td>
<td>4290</td>
<td>A. Post and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1981)</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>B 207586</td>
<td>Willooggby Is</td>
<td><em>in situ</em> spruce root</td>
<td>3440 ± 60</td>
<td>3420 ± 60</td>
<td>3710</td>
<td>A. Post and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1981)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I 1305</td>
<td>Forest Creek</td>
<td>wood in lake silt</td>
<td>2620 ± 120</td>
<td>2771 ± 120</td>
<td>2660</td>
<td>Haselton (1966)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>OWU 489</td>
<td>Central Wachusett</td>
<td>stump pushed by ice</td>
<td>2520 ± 87</td>
<td>2566 ± 87</td>
<td>2560</td>
<td>Mckie (1971)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I 3398</td>
<td>Lower Muir</td>
<td>wood below clay</td>
<td>2390 ± 110</td>
<td>2439 ± 110</td>
<td>2520</td>
<td>McKenize and Goldthwait (1971)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>B 194103</td>
<td>Lars Island</td>
<td>reworked stick</td>
<td>2300 ± 40</td>
<td>2290 ± 40</td>
<td>2250</td>
<td>this study</td>
<td></td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>B 194102</td>
<td>Lars Island</td>
<td>reworked woody debris</td>
<td>2120 ± 40</td>
<td>2100 ± 40</td>
<td>2270</td>
<td>this study</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>B 148007</td>
<td>Gustavus</td>
<td>shells in marine silt</td>
<td>2410 ± 40</td>
<td>2420 ± 40</td>
<td>2670</td>
<td>2200</td>
<td>G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 2000)</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I 2687</td>
<td>SE Adams Inlet</td>
<td>stump under silt</td>
<td>1700 ± 100</td>
<td>1621 ± 100</td>
<td>1860</td>
<td>McKenzie (1970)</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>B 194104</td>
<td>N of Rush Pt.</td>
<td>reworked organics</td>
<td>1860 ± 40</td>
<td>1920 ± 40</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>this study</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>B 220875</td>
<td>Netland Island</td>
<td><em>in situ</em> stumps</td>
<td>1760 ± 40</td>
<td>1780 ± 40</td>
<td>1780</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>B 194099</td>
<td>N. Fox Farm Is.</td>
<td>reworked stump</td>
<td>1630 ± 60</td>
<td>1650 ± 60</td>
<td>1670</td>
<td>this study</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>DIC 941</td>
<td>Gustavus</td>
<td>reworked wood</td>
<td>1530 ± 50</td>
<td>1388 ± 50</td>
<td>1430</td>
<td>R.F. Goldthwait and G.P. Streeveler (unpublished data, 1975)</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>B 9520</td>
<td>W of Casmere GI</td>
<td>organics in silt</td>
<td>1150 ± 60</td>
<td>1009 ± 60</td>
<td>1220</td>
<td>Goodwin (1988)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Y 305</td>
<td>Hunter Cove</td>
<td><em>in situ</em> wood</td>
<td>850 ± 50</td>
<td>743 ± 50</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>Goldthwait (1963)</td>
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<th>Links to sample locations in Figure 2</th>
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<th>Dated material</th>
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<th>Marine reservoir effect correction (−470 years)$^c$</th>
<th>Sample source</th>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>B 194095</td>
<td>Lester Point</td>
<td>root near stump</td>
<td>370 ± 50</td>
<td>−23.7</td>
<td>390 ± 50</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>this study</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>B 220874</td>
<td>Lester Point</td>
<td>wood</td>
<td>370 ± 40</td>
<td>−23.7</td>
<td>390 ± 50</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>B 86328</td>
<td>N of Pt Gustavus</td>
<td>in situ spruce stump</td>
<td>233 ± 40</td>
<td>−23.7</td>
<td>290 ± 40</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>D. Mann and G.P. Streveller (unpublished data, 2000)</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>B220866</td>
<td>Pt Carolus</td>
<td>wood</td>
<td>280 ± 40</td>
<td>−23.3</td>
<td>310 ± 40</td>
<td>390</td>
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<td>33</td>
<td>B86378</td>
<td>Halibut Cove</td>
<td>stump rooted intertidal</td>
<td>240 ± 60</td>
<td>120 ± 40</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>B 220872</td>
<td>South Halibut Cove north of Pt Gustavus East side</td>
<td>wood</td>
<td>190 ± 40</td>
<td>−23.5</td>
<td>210 ± 40</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>D. Mann and G.P. Streveller (unpublished data, 2000)</td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>B 220873</td>
<td>South Halibut Cove north of Pt Gustavus East side</td>
<td>wood</td>
<td>180 ± 40</td>
<td>−23.5</td>
<td>200 ± 20</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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<td>36</td>
<td>B 220871</td>
<td>Lester Point</td>
<td>wood</td>
<td>180 ± 40</td>
<td>−25.0</td>
<td>180 ± 40</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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<td>37</td>
<td>B 86379</td>
<td>Lester Point</td>
<td>in situ devil’s club root</td>
<td>150 ± 60</td>
<td>198 ± 60</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>D. Mann and G.P. Streveller (unpublished data, 2000)</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>B122187</td>
<td>Lester Point</td>
<td>stump</td>
<td>220 ± 40</td>
<td>168 ± 40</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>D. Lawson (unpublished data, 2006)</td>
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</table>

$^a$ Radiocarbon lab identification: B, Beta Analytic; DIC, Radioisotopes Laboratory, Dicor Corporation, Cleveland, Ohio; UW, Univeristy Washington; I, Isotopes – a Teledyne Company, Westwood, New Jersey; OWU, Ohio Wesleyan University Radiocarbon Lab; Y, Yale.

$^b$ Corrected radiocarbon age (CALIB 5.0.1), 2 $\sigma$ calendar age BP (AD 1950), Stuiver and Reimer (1993).

$^c$ Correction for marine reservoir effect (−470 $^{14}$C years after Kovanen and Easterbrook, 2002; and Mann and Streveller, 2008).
relevant narratives—the *Glacier Bay Story* (Scidmore, 1893; Black, 1957; James, 1973; Dauenbaru and Dauenhauer, 1987; Emmons, no date) and *The Story of Kakepule* (the modern orthography is Kakek’y̱wit, used hereafter) (Swanton, 1909; Olson, 1967; James, 1973; Dauenbaru and Dauenhauer, 1987). We supplemented the written accounts with contemporary ethnographic interviews and consultation with elders from the community of Hoonah, for whom the old stories and landscapes remain very much alive (Thornton, 1995; James, 1996; Johnson, 1996; Hanlon, 2000; White, 2003).

Of integral importance was a place-name map for the Huna Tlingit homeland (HIA, 2006). This map captures over 250 Tlingit toponyms that include historic period names but also extends into a remembered pre-LIA past. These names are tied to locales with linguistic modifiers that when ‘unpacked’ offer nuanced details of geology, geography, landscape change, mythology, history and more (Thornton, 1995, 2008). These map names occur in various forms in all of the pertinent oral narratives recorded over the past 125 years, and corroborate the relative durability of oral history and its utility for anchoring the stories in space. The Tlingit language used in this work, unless otherwise quoted from older texts, is the modern Tlingit orthography (Story and Naish 1973, 1976; Dauenbaru and Dauenhauer, 1987, 1991; Thornton, 1995; HIA, 2006).

**Results**

The following sequence of Neoglacial events portrays a Glacier Bay episodically transformed from a glaciomarine system into a terrestrial environment dominated by an immense icefield with associated lake and terminus outwash features. We begin with a

---

**Figure 2** Radiocarbon sample site locations and ages cited in text are indicated by stars. Superscript numbers link these sites to more information in Table 1.

**Figure 3** The stratigraphic context for radiocarbon samples collected from (a) Francis Island and (b) Lester Island.
outwash sediments near Berg Bay (Figure 2; Table 1, B194103-2) suggest strongly that the forefield extended well south of the West Arm ice front by 1000 years later.

By about 2660 cal. yr ago, glacial lake silts laid down in numerous portions of the East Arm of Glacier Bay (Figure 2; Table 1, I 1305) indicate that West Arm ice had extended sufficiently far south to impound ‘Glacial Lake Muir’ in a still largely ice-free Muir Inlet area (Mickelson, 1971; Goodwin, 1988). At this time McBride Glacier in upper Muir Inlet was inferred to be near the mouth of its inlet and calving into lake water (Goodwin, 1988). Carroll Glacier had advanced over trees at mid-Wachtsussit Inlet by 2560 years ago (OWU 489), while Muir Glacier was somewhere above the midpoint of its upper fjord, based on 2790 year old vegetated outwash at that position (UW 595, Figure 1). Muir Lake persisted sometime after 2520 cal. yr ago (Figure 2, Table 1, I 3398), after which retreat of West Arm ice collapsed the ice dam, draining Muir Lake.

The late Neoglacial readvance, 1600–1000 years ago

The minimum terminus position (Figure 4, points A, B) for West Arm ice by 1860 cal. yr ago (Figure 2, Table 1, I 2687 ) is indicated by the onset of ‘Glacial Lake Adams’ in Muir Inlet (Figure 4, point C). Lake Adams persisted until at least 1220 cal. yr ago (Table 1, B9529). To establish the dam necessary to impound this lake, Goodwin (1988) portrayed the West Arm ice front entering Muir Inlet as far as the mouth of Adams Inlet. Given that position, we extrapolate the main ice terminus in the central Bay southward to the location depicted in Figure 4, where it would have advanced into Geikie Inlet (point D). Small lakes would have been trapped along the east margin of the main Bay where the ice margin blocked the mouths of tributary valleys.

It is at this time that we get this first possible link with the ethnographic record. The name Laaayu Tukhuye (Area Below ‘Building the Lake’) appears on the Tlingit place-name map in the general area below Muir Inlet (HIA, 2006). There are no lakes in the vicinity today, and the active verb tense of this name implies that an observer may have been on land to witness the process of a lake being built at some time in the past. There is also mention in the historical record of Huna Tlingits recounting an ice-damming event that impacted a salmon run (Scidmore, 1893), and one likely possibility is the impoundment of Lake Adams (or Lake Muir a millennium earlier).

Muir Inlet ice termini for this scenario are positioned in accordance with Goodwin (1988). Some of them are in contact with Lake Adams, based on the presence of dropstones in lake sediments at that time (McKenzie and Goldthwait, 1971). Lake Adams filled much of the lower Muir and the Adams basins, and likely overflowed by way of an outlet through Endicott gap, draining to the east into Lynn Canal (Figure 4, point E) during lake stages higher than 220 m (Goodwin, 1988). The lake may have also drained southward during its formative and waning stages, perhaps catastrophically.

Four radiocarbon dates (1800, 1610, 1670 and 1430 cal. yr ago) on non-rooted materials embedded in outwash sediments from widespread localities in the lower Bay suggest the existence of an extensive outwash plain extending southward from the ice during this period, but they do not define its distal edge (Figure 2; Table 1, B194104, D1C 943, B194099, D1C 941). A stump rooted in outwash at the mouth of Berg Bay dating from 1780 cal. yr ago (Figure 4, point F; Table 1, B220875) places this forefield edge at least as far advanced as that locality. A date on Meconopsis sp. shells from Gustavus at 2290 cal. yr ago (Figure 4, point G; Table 1, B148007) demonstrates the persistence of marine conditions there.

We locate the ice terminus near the southern margin of the bathymetric deeps northwest of the Beardslee Islands (Figure 5),

general sketch of Neoglacial events. Goldthwait et al. (1966) attempted a general depiction of ice positions at four points in time, based on considerably less information than is now available. Ice positions presented in this paper are broadly compatible with Goldthwait’s work. Our focus is on the latter portion of this period when ethnographic information directly applies.

The early Neoglacial, 5500–2000 years ago

Initial evidence for Neoglacial ice advance in the Bay comes from the mouths of Reid Inlet, 5750 cal. yr ago, and Johns Hopkins Inlet, 5430 cal. yr ago (Figure 2; Table 1, UW597, UW598) where wood-bearing tills were being deposited. Between 5220 and 4790 cal. yr ago, outwash gravels were burying the bases of trees near sea level along Whidbey Passage, Francis Island and Sturges Islands, respectively (Figures 2, 3a, Table 1, UW596, UW671, B207583-4) indicating that the terminal position of West Arm ice remained somewhere up-Bay from these localities. Marine silts deposited at Kidney Island 4560 cal. yr ago and Berg Bay 4290 cal. yr ago (Figure 2; Table 1, B194096, B194100) record shallow water marine conditions in portions of the lower Bay. The lack of iceberg-deposited dropstones in these silts further suggest that an outwash plain spanned the West Arm in front of the glacier by that time. In-situ stumps (3710 and 3420 cal. yr ago) buried in outwash at Willoughby Island, several miles to the north of Berg Bay (Figure 2; Table 1, B207586-5) support this assumption. Dates from 2520 and 2270 cal. yr ago on unrooted wood from non-local
and posit that the ice remained in that position for over a millennium prior to the LIA maximum. There is no indication of bedrock control in the Beardslee Islands and ice loading and crustal subsidence throughout the Neoglacial would have deepened lower Bay depositional environments (Larsen et al., 2005). We believe the Beardslee Islands consist of an accumulation of sediments with a maximum thickness equal to the bathymetric depth just to the north (c. 250 m) plus the elevation of the highest northern Beardslee Island (c. 30 m) for a total of c. 280 m. The inception of Lake Adams c. 1800 years ago sets an upper temporal limit for ice advance to a position at the southern extent of the deeps. A maximum period of c. 1550 (1800-250) years is thus indicated, from Lake formation to the final LIA advance, during which time sediments accumulated at an average rate of c. 18 m/century. This estimate is similar to the rates of c. 19 m/century calculated for the Berg Formation in Adams Inlet (McKenzie and Goldthwait, 1971) and c. 14 m/century for the Van Horn Formation in Wachusett Inlet (Goldthwait, 1963).

The youngest date for rootwood in Muir Inlet is from 880 cal. yr ago (Figure 2; Table 1, Y-305), which suggests, first, that West Arm ice had retreated sufficiently to release Glacial Lake Adams and allow tree growth (Goodwin, 1988; Mann and Streveler, 2008), and second, shortly thereafter Muir region glaciers had coalesced to fill the Muir basin with ice.

**Before the 'Little Ice Age' maximum, 500–300 years ago**

The main ice front (Figure 6, point B) lay north of the central Beardslee Islands by 420 cal. yr ago, based on wood rooted in peat atop outwash at Kidney Island (Figures 1, 2, and 6, point B; Table 1, B194097). A minor advance sufficient to trap a lake in Beartrack Valley at 470 cal. yr ago (Figure 6, point D; Table 1, DIC 939) occurred during this period.

In the centuries before the LIA maximum, the outwash plain built southward from the stationary ice front to the Bay mouth (Figure 6, points C, E and F; Table 1, B194095, B220874, B86328, B22083), and probably into the Berg-Dundas Basin (Figure 6, points G, H). The lack of constraining bedrock features within the Bay margins and the existence of bedrock rooted in outwash midway between these margins suggest that this forefield stretched laterally from the eastern to western shorelines of the present Bay and across the Gustavus lowlands. Patches of young forest (Table 1, UW 672), thicket and fen (Table 1, B194097) were scattered across a generally barren outwash on a surface chronically disturbed by aggrading streams. In contrast, the Lester Island-Beartrack Cove vicinity (Figure 6, point E) supported large trees and podzolic soils, with a range of dates spanning several centuries, indicating a forest of considerable antiquity (Table 1, B122187, B194095, B86379, Figure 3b, Appendix 1).

Two observations regarding the LIA terminal moraine configuration (Figures 7 and 8) suggest that this forest was associated with a pre-existing topographic feature in the Beartrack Cove vicinity. First, the lateral moraine aligns diagonally into the centre of the Glacier Bay trench instead of following the eastern bedrock margin, as does the western lateral moraine. Second, a pronounced inflection in the eastern moraine (Figure 8, point A) occurs at Beartrack Cove. As there are no indications of bedrock in the area, we suggest the existence of some pre-existing geomorphic feature such as a moraine or an area of aeolian dunes. The authors opt for the sand hill interpretation as we did not find evidence of elevated ice-contact deposits other than low-lying ground moraine capping the Beardslee Formation stratigraphy of the Beartrack Cove area.

**The Tlingit homeland**

The linkage between geological evidence and Tlingit toponyms is clearer for this period 500 to 300 years ago. Huna Tlingit memory corroborates and further focuses the geological reconstruction of the glacial landscape during the centuries prior to the catastrophe of the LIA final ice advance upon the Tlingit homeland (Figure 7).

The interpretation of the Tlingit homeland hinges on 11 Tlingit toponyms that anchor two enduring oral narratives. The Glacier Bay Story is a sacred story owned by the Chookumidi Clan that recounts a human settlement located on a salmon stream in the Bay that was
destroyed by the advancing glacier which came down as a result of human agency, in this case a broken taboo (Scidmore, 1893; Black, 1957; Hall, 1962; James, 1973; Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987; Cruikshank, 2005; Emmons, no date). The second narrative is the pre-LIA story of Kaakeik witi (Swanton, 1909; Olson, 1967; de Laguna, 1972; James, 1973; Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987; Thornton, 2008). This relates the adventures of a wandering man whose entire village in nearby Dundas Bay (Figure 1), had died from a mysterious avian-borne epidemic. He migrated north to the Alsek River (and perhaps Copper River) and married into an Athabaskan tribe from the interior. Wanting to re-establish contact with his own people he organized a trading party and traversed the valleys and glaciers to a place called Chookanhéeni, likely entering from the Alsek River valley over the Alsek-Grand Pacific Glacier systems to the northwest.

As the oldest name, S’t Shuyee (Area at the end of the Glacial Silt) (HIA, 2006; Figure 7, point A) indicates, the Huna Tingit clearly recognized that their ancestral homeland was a terrestrial environment and glacio-fluvial in character, even to the point of distinguishing grain size. The land is aptly described as the distal end of the glacier system indicating that the people preferred living farthest from the direct effects of that hostile environment, and closest to, or with reasonable access to, tidewater. The glacier is consistently described as being distant. ‘The only glacier was way up on Mt. Fairweather’ (Black, 1957). Susie James’s narrative provides us poetic detail: ‘It was said you could clearly see up the bay. Through the mountains there you could see the glacier waaaaay up the bay; it was only a tiny piece. It was hanging there up the bay. It couldn’t be seen much from the river; it could only be seen from way out’ (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987). Distance and appearance are also implied in the name – Sit’k’i T’ooch’ (Little Black Glacier) (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987; HIA, 2006; Figure 7, point B) suggesting it was well back from the settlements (little) and in a state of quiescence (dark and rock-strewn). Yet it must have been sufficiently close that residents of the village could see trading parties crossing it while coming from the interior (north) as related in the account of Kaakeik witi: ‘The Athapascans on their way down used to be seen when still far back from the coast’ (Swanton, 1909). The geologic model (Figure 5) posits such a glacier, though markedly closer than ‘way up on Mt. Fairweather’.

Determining the number and placement of rivers is somewhat challenging. The setting of the Glacier Bay Story is often framed in a broad valley with a single river running through it as indicated by NPS historian George Hall (1962): ‘People say that Glacier Bay was a great valley with a single river running through it’. Annie Houston, in an account recorded in the 1950s, also suggests a single river scenario: ‘In the beginning Glacier Bay was like a river, not a bay’ (Black, 1957) and, ‘Along the river was where the village was. Now the river is the bay’ (Black, 1957). But in her narrative she links this single river to the western margin of the fjord: ‘Willoughby and the other islands were in the middle of the big river, on sand bars’ (Black, 1957), but goes on to link it also with Ghathéeni on the far eastern side of the fjord: ‘I figure villages were not on Willoughby Island but up and down the river, on Bartlett river, or at least on the right side of Glacier Bay goin’ in [sic]’ (Black, 1957). Given the physiography of the Glacier Bay fjord – about 15 km wide at the north end of our study area, opening to about 20 km on the southern end, a single river channel sweeping from west to east across an unstable and aggrading outwash plain is improbable.

In fact, the ethnographic accounts do name two distinct rivers, Ghathéeni (Sockeye Salmon River) and Chookanhéeni (Grassy River) (Swanton, 1909; Black, 1957; Olsen, 1967; Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987; HIA, 2006; Emmons, no date). Four modern rivers have become namesakes of these ancient rivers for the Huna Tingit – Chookanhéeni and Chookanhéeni Yadi (Figure 7, points C, D) are a modern stream that flows into the southwestern margin of the fjord, while Ghathéeni and Ghathéeni Tlein (Big Sockeye Salmon River) (Figure 7, points E, F) is associated with the modern Bartlett River and Beartrak River (HIA, 2006). Names and stories related to these rivers imply that they were also productive salmon streams ancestrally, which further suggests that they were fed by clearwater tributaries entering the main valley from bedrock-constrained lateral valleys. Sockeye salmon prefer to keep in clearwater lakes. In one narrative, lakes are also associated with a place called Auxx’w Xoo’ (Among the Little Lakes) (Figure 7, point G), a place described as somewhere up near the glacier when viewed from the Ghathéeni village (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987; HIA, 2006). Plausible locations for lakes are morainal impoundments formed when West Arm ice pressed against the either fjord wall; geologic evidence documents glacial damming in the Beartrak Valley about 470 cal. yr ago (Table 1, DIC 939). This kind of a lake system would have linked to the nearest river system (Ghathéeni) through outlet channels, providing spawning habitat for sockeye salmon.

The possibility of a third, mid-valley river system is based on two lines of reasoning. Going back to Anne Houston’s account, Willoughby Island, which she relates as being an island in a river emanating from the glacier, is clearly not associated with either the Chookanhéeni or Ghathéeni drainages, which would have been fed by side-valley tributaries. Given what we know of modern glacial valleys, these drainage patterns can consist of migrating channels.
on an aggrading plain or proglacial lakes with outlet rivers if the glacier has receded sufficiently to allow their formation.

A second line of reasoning for this ‘third’ river comes from the stories of Kaakeiwt’s travels. Having approached his homeland from the northwest, he led an Athabaskan trading party to their first meeting with his kinsmen at the place called Choookanhéeni. But upon arrival and greeting he was abruptly turned away. This is not surprising, as he must have been presumed long dead, and his kinsmen invoked shamanistic powers in dismissing him: So Kaakeiwt responded to his travel companions, ‘they are sending us away from here . . . At once the Athapascons put their packs over their shoulders . . . They went directly to the place where they had been sent [‘below’], and to ‘the other side’], and, crossing a glacier, came to Sand-hill-town.’ (in the Bartlett Cove vicinity, Swanton, 1909). Given that the direct distance between the location of Choookanhéeni (along the lower Bay’s western margin) and modern Bartlett Cove, is only a few straight-line kilometres away, it seems odd that Kaakeiwt’s party would backtrack up-valley to take a glacier crossing. There must have been a serious impediment to travel in the path of the direct route, such as a glacial outwash river. Our interpretations of the geological situation supports this ‘three river’ scenario. An unnamed and inhospitable river covered the central part of the outwash plain, and two named rivers flowed into the plain from the east and west originating from clear-water sources, that would have been constrained along the valley margins by the aggrading plain. These named rivers would have supported salmon populations and provided a means of livelihood for human habitation.

Tlingit place-names and ethnography identify a topographic eminence on the valley floor called L’ewishyaayi (Sand Mountain (Dune) Country) (Figure 7, point H), described as extending from the current Point Gustavus to the base of the Beartrack Mountains. As previously argued, L’ewishyaayi could have been a region of aeolian dune features or a pre-existing glacial moraine.

There is some discrepancy in ethnography as to the desirability of this valley for habitation. One Gustavus homesteader was told by his native acquaintances that the old Tlingit settlements were in an area with ‘scarcely no brush or timber’ (Parker, 1940). Yet modern Tlingits perceive Se’ Shuyee, as having been an ideal place to live, even a ‘Tlingit Garden of Eden’ (Johnson, 1996). Oral history clearly identifies two inhabited areas, one was along the meadow-lined Choookanhéeni, with family groups living in houses scattered along the river, recognized in relation to each other as upstream-downstream (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987). Placing Choookanhéeni on the west margin of the Bay between modern namesake rivers at Berg Bay and Rush Point on the western shore of Glacier Bay (Figure 1) is supported by oral history. An informant in the 1930s located Choookanhéeni near the western mouth of Glacier Bay (Olson, 1967). It is also remembered that a prominent cliff stood near one Choookaneidi village, at a place called T’ooch’ Ghi’t’i (Black Cliff) (Figure 7, point I) (White, 2003). One rock type stands out, a black siliceous shale (Rossman, 1963) that occurs in prominent outcrops on the southern shore of Berg Bay and at a prominent cliff at Rush Point on the western shore of Glacier Bay not far south from Berg Bay (Figure 1). The cliff at Rush Point is quite prominent and south-facing, and would have provided shelter from the cold winds blowing off the glacier. Interestingly, the stream that flows into the modern Bay just north of Rush Point is called Choookanhee Yiidi (Child of Choookanhéeni) (HIA, 2006), a name that implies a secondary rank, such as a tributary to a larger stream.

The other, more prominent habitation mentioned in the narratives is L’ewishna Shakee Aan (Town on Top of the Sand Mountain (Dune)) (Figure 7, point J), which was said to be a major village situated on a large dune within L’ewishyaayi. From the earliest recorded accounts, this village has been identified as being in the Bartlett Cove vicinity. For example: ‘Long, long ago, the glacier advanced and swept away Klenshuwskii, the city on the sand at the base of the mountains, where the Beardslee Islands now rise’ (Scidmore, 1893). Legends of the Wooshkeetaan Clan anchor to named places extending from Point Gustavus (Figure 1), Tleiw Shuyee (Clay Point) (Figure 7, point K), through Bartlett Cove and to the Beartrack Mountains, with the Bartlett Cove area considered the specific location of the ancestral village (Hanlon, 2000; HIA, 2006; Thornton, 2008). Though now located along the eastern margin of the lower Bay, the Bartlett Cove area would have been terrestrial during the LIA and well out onto the plain (Figure 6).

How was life at L’ewishna Shakee Aan more tolerable than conditions we have described for the rest of the outwash plain? For one thing, tall sand dunes (or moraines) could have provided sheltered breaks from winds blowing off the glacier, particularly if their relief was sufficient as the name translation ‘mountain’ implies according to several Huna Tlingit elders (James, 1996; Hanlon, 2000). The story of Kaakeiwt also offers some insights regarding the local environmental conditions. Following his arrival at L’ewishna Shakee Aan the narrative relates: ‘the people were going to build a feast house out of the wealth the Athapascons had brought them. Every morning before they had eaten anything they went after large trees for house timbers’ (Swanton, 1909). Thus, timber would have been close by the village. Evidence for a mature ancient forest is precisely in the Bartlett Cove vicinity, with the rooted stumps of large trees relatively common in the intertidal zone along the northern and southern shorelines.

These human occupation sites could have also provided defensive attributes. Archaeological evidence from throughout the Pacific Northwest indicates the region was a socially hostile environment during much of the LIA, as demonstrated by the number of forts and defensive sites (Moss and Erlandson, 1992). Several
lines of evidence suggest this situation was prevalent in the S’ë Shuyee region. Willie Marks, in relating his version of the Kaa'ke'it story, recounts that ‘… Ghathëheenë was the kind of a place ancient people lived in. They used to live there away from war parties; they lived in a safe place. A difficult place; this was how people lived’ (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987). There are also a number of stories recorded in Swanton (1909) that pertain to war events, including one specific to the Hoohnah region that recounts a Haida war party from the south on a slave raid (Swanton, 1909). Also, a number of fort sites and refuge rocks have been documented throughout the region (de Laguna, 1960; Ackerman, 1968; Crowell, 1995). Defensive sites were built on elevated landforms that offered views of surrounding terrain, particularly long open vistas with difficult or restricted water access. T’oosh’ Ghi’lli, the cliff at Rush Point, and L’ewishaa Shaktee Aan, the high dune, would have afforded this advantage. George Emmons in the 1880s clarified the relationship of the two habitation areas: ‘Klem sha shakian (Town on sand under high mountain) was the most populous and important older village hereabouts. All of the families are mentioned as living here … Tchuoonehenie was contemporaneous with Kleneshawshikéeen’ (Emmons, no date). Chookenhnee village may have actually been several summer camps where families went to harvest fish, returning to the winter village of L’ewishaa Shaktee Aan, the common pattern in the Tingit seasonal subsistence activities. Alternatively, it may have been left unoccupied before the advance of the glacier, if, for example, the river had moved away from the village, making canoe travel difficult. All of the oral histories focus on the glacier destroying L’ewishaa Shaktee Aan, but none describe it overrunning Chookenhnee.

Exodus ethnohistory

The accounts of eviction handed down through generations of Tingit elders describe this final stage of the LIA advance as a catastrophic event that overran the village, barely giving the people time to escape. The Glacier Bay Story is an example: ‘What’s wrong with the glacier? It’s growing so much. They used to see it wa-a-a-a-ay up the bay. But now it was near, getting closer, … It was now growing fa-a-a-a-ay. They said the way it was moving, the way it was growing, was faster than a running dog’ (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987). Annie Houston provides this view of the next stages: ‘… The glacier came and pushed all the sand away. The glacier came almost to Pt. Adolphus on Chichagof Island’ (Figure 1, Black, 1957). The people were so concerned that the glacier would advance across icy Strait, cutting their world in half, that they ‘threw a slave into a crevasse and so propitiated the Ice Spirit, and the glacier retreated’ (Emmons, 1991). Point Adolphus bears that woman’s name – Sdakweixh Lutu (Sdakweixh’s Point) (HIA, 2006).

The people, now known as the Xunaa Kawoo (Lee of the North Wind people) for the place they migrated to after their exodus, returned to their Glacier Bay homeland and applied many names of the remembered landscape – such as Chookenhnee or Gathëheenë. They also applied new names to the transformed landscape – first Xaatl Tú (Among the Icebergs), and eventually Sīt’ Eet’ Gheeey (The Bay in Place of the Glacier). The stories of their time in S’ë Shuyee are still very much alive for the Huna Tingit, and their relationship with this ancestral place defines who they are as a people.

Discussion

Human occupation throughout the 5000 year Neoglacial history in Glacier Bay has been tempered by several environmental factors. Glaciers were more extensive than today and directly excluded human habitation in large parts of the Bay. The large, glacially generated, aggrading outwash features would have created exposed, unstable human habitation sites. Proxy temperature records indicate that cooling mean summer temperatures (12.25°C relative to the Holocene Warm period (15.8°C during Hypsithermal high, 8000–6000 years ago) would have begun to challenge human occupants beginning about 5000 years ago (Mann et al., 1998). Cooling would have climaxed during the late stages of the LIA, when even in mid summer ‘… the surrounding ice diffused a chill we could scarcely endure’ (Menzies, 1991). For parts of the mid Neoglacial, large ice-dammed lakes in Muir Inlet may have created glacial lake outburst flood hazards for outwash plain occupants. Earthquakes and tsunami generated along the Fairweather fault system in the eastern Gulf of Alaska (Mazzotti and Hyndman, 2002) would have created episodic hazards, especially along oversteepened fjord walls (Wieczorek et al., 2007).

Before the final LIA advance, climate, topography and resource availability made S’ë Shuyee ‘a difficult place’ for human occupants (Dauenhauer and Dauenhauer, 1987). Despite these conditions, Tingit oral history makes it clear that people did maintain important villages there. Convergent evidence from geology and ethnography suggests that habitation sites were available where landforms such as bedrock points, moraines or stabilized dunes constrained rivers, provided shelter and permitted forests to develop. River estuaries would have provided access to the sea as well as proximity to overland trade routes such as those available to the ancient and modern villagers of Kluakwan along the Chilkat River north of the Glacier Bay near Haines, Alaska.

Deteriorating conditions in icy Strait makes human residence within the Bay much more explicable. Sea level rose to about 4 m
higher than present as advancing ice loaded the underlying crust (Larsen et al., 2005; Mann and Stvrecler, 2008). This destabilized and eroded the forest margins making them wind-prone and without meadowly upper beaches. At Point Adolphus ‘Mussels and clams used to wash way up in the woods’ (Annie Houston in Black, 1957). unstable storm beaches formed along shorelines and were covered with silt from glacial river discharge. Deep snows impacted lowland and subaerial habitats and many streams were invaded by glacial meltwater and a transgressing sea. Conditions for key food resources such as mountain goat, deer, shellfish and salmon would have been greatly compromised. Tingit evict narratives say nothing of joining extinct villages or encountering other occupants as they fled across Icy Strait. Deteriorating LIA conditions are correlated throughout northern Southeast Alaska with increased settlement of defensive sites during the last millennium (Moss and Erlandson, 1992).

Conclusions

Data sources from different disciplines enable us to portray landscape conditions during periods of advancing glacial ice from the upper west side of Glacier Bay to the Bay mouth between 3000 and 250 yr ago, with at least one ice reversal. Stratigraphy and geochronologic evidence from the Beardslee Formation indicates the existence of a large outwash plain, very likely for the millenium prior to the LIA maximum, and certainly for the centuries just before that ‘final’ ice advance. Human living conditions on this plain were difficult because of deteriorating climate and landscape dynamism, including probable jökulhlaups when glacial lakes Muir and Adams may have drained catastrophically across it. However, Tingit oral history makes it clear that people lived there in significant numbers just prior to the LIA maximum, perhaps in response to even more severely deteriorating conditions elsewhere or conflicts with competing groups. The final ice advance to the Bay mouth about 250 yr ago was very abrupt after a prolonged still-stand, and evicted the Tingit from their ancestral heartland.

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Appendix 1: the Beardslee Formation

The extensive suite of late-Holocene unconsolidated sediments occupying central and lower Glacier Bay is here termed the ‘Beardslee Formation’. These deposits form the Beardslee Islands, the perimeter of Beartrack Cove, the Gustavus forelands, Lars and Netland Islands on the Bay’s western shore near Berg Bay, and occur as discontinuous pockets along island and mainland shores in the mid Bay (Figure 1). The Beardslee Formation is comprised of eroded fluvial, lacustrine and marine sediments, in some localities sparsely overlain by aeolian sands and silts or eutactics and till, sometimes deformed. Waterlain deposits rarely consist of particle sizes larger than fine gravel except in the formation’s northern extent, atop Strawberry Island, and along the shore of Beartrack Cove. Silt and sand crop out along many shores. Such deposits on Kidney Island and upper Berg Bay contain the marine bivalve Macoma sp. Other occurrences such as the Strawberry Island bluffs contain varved sediments of possible lacustrine origin, but their biotic sterility has left this interpretation uncertain. The LIA lateral moraine cuts NE–SW across the Beardsilee Formation. Outside the moraine, the Gustavus forelands are unmodified by ice, and reflect the formation’s overall topography prior to the final LIA advance.

Soil, peat and rooted woody plants are generally scarce. Localities with such remains include Kidney Island, Berg Bay, Rush Point, Francis Island, Willoughby Island, Lester Point, Bartlett Cove and Point Gustavus (Figure 1). In situ organics at these sites are immediately overlain by generally fine-grained fluvial sediments, possibly accumulated in areas of local subsidence related to ice loading upvalley. The Sitka Spruce tree stumps we observed rooted on Francis, Willoughby and various Beardslee Islands, Bear Track Valley and the Gustavus area were in growth position and showed no signs of lateral offset from their roots, tension fractures, curved trunks, ice abrasion, or other uprooting (Figure 3a). Fleisher et al. (2006) observed buried forests (Spruce, cottonwood and alder) that had been previously killed by outwash in the forefield stratigraphy of the Bering Glacier which were subsequently sheared and deformed during the 1993–1995 surge. We did not see such deformation in Glacier Bay tree stumps. At Kidney Island we collected a shrub rooted in peat that had been uplifted and rotated sideways as a block, presenting itself in cross-sectional view on the beach, suggestive of ice deformation -400 yr ago. Wiles et al. (1999) attributed the general demise of spruce forests in the Bering Glacier foreland during the fifth and sixth centuries AD to foreland aggradation indicative of glacial advance up valley and not direct ice contact. In Glacier Bay our observations indicate burial of terrestrial forested surfaces by aggrading outwash rather than direct shearing of forests by over-riding glacial ice. We interpret a prevalent surficial diamicton in the Beardslee Formation to be till associated with the LIA ice advance and retreat, and not the direct cause of tree mortality.

Nearly all in situ organics (Figure 3a, b) are comprised of thin soil, peat, shrubs or youthful spruce trees exposed by wave action in a rapidly uplifting (38–32 mm/yr; Larsen et al., 2005) upper intertidal zone. The prevalence of fine-grained, well-sorted, laminated and cut-and-fill deposits are interpreted to have been laid down in a low-energy fluvial environment. Locally subsiding areas related to ice loading probably created depositional lows in which these sediments accumulated. The general scarcity of in situ organic materials is an indication of an outwash surface generally barren of vegetation.

Contrasting with the general characteristics of the Beardslee Formation palaeoenvironment described above is a zone of abundant in situ forest remains extending from near Point Gustavus northward through the Bartlett Cove vicinity and discontinuously to Beartrack Cove (Figure 1). These include numerous tree stumps > 0.5 m in diameter. In one site on Lester Point, at least one 0.8m diameter spruce is present, as were forest floor palaeosols with devil’s club (Echinopsus horridum), which today seldom occurs in forests less than a century old. Persistence of forest at this location is indicated by dated stumps ranging in age from the LIA
maximum to over 500 years ago (Table 1) and buried soil exhibiting a podzolic e-horizon (Figure 3b).

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