



Timing of glaciation and last glacial maximum paleoclimate estimates from the Fish Lake Plateau, Utah

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ABSTRACT

The High Plateaus of Utah include seven separate mountain ranges that supported glaciers during the Pleistocene. The Fish Lake Plateau, located on the eastern edge of the High Plateaus, preserves evidence of at least two glacial advances. Four cosmogenic ³He exposure ages of boulders in an older moraine range from 79 to 159 ka with a mean age of 129 ± 39 ka and oldest ages of 152 ± 3 and 159 ± 5 ka. These ages suggest deposition during the type Bull Lake glaciation and Marine Oxygen Isotope Stage (MIS) 6. Twenty boulder exposure ages from four different younger moraines indicate a local last glacial maximum (LGM) of ~21.1 ka, coincident with the type Pinedale glaciation and MIS 2. Reconstructed Pinedale-age glaciers from the Fish Lake Plateau have equilibrium-line altitudes ranging from 2950 to 3190 m. LGM summer temperature depressions for the Fish Lake Plateau range from −10.7 to −8.2°C, assuming no change in precipitation. Comparison of the Fish Lake summer temperature depressions to a regional dataset suggests that the Fish Lake Plateau may have had a slight increase (~1.5× modern) in precipitation during the LGM. A series of submerged ridges in Fish Lake were identified during a bathymetric survey and are likely Bull Lake age moraines.

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Introduction

Determining the timing of mountain glacier advance and its paleoclimatic and geomorphic significance has long been a major focus in Quaternary research (e.g. Thackray et al., 2008; Owen et al., 2009). In the past decade, several studies have documented significant variability in the timing and magnitude of Quaternary glaciations around the western U.S. (Owen et al., 2003; Licciardi et al., 2004; Benson et al., 2005; Laabs et al., 2006; Munroe et al., 2006; Licciardi and Pierce, 2008; Laabs et al., 2009). These records inform our still incomplete understanding of the synoptic-scale response of paleoglaciers to climate changes during and after the global last glacial maximum (LGM) (Clark et al., 2009). Several records also include data for the even more poorly resolved penultimate glaciation (e.g. Phillips et al., 1997; Easterbrook et al., 2003; Sharp et al., 2003; Licciardi and Pierce, 2008). Despite these studies, more data are required to improve our understanding of the regional response of glaciers to the last and prior deglaciations in the western U.S. Additionally, more records are

needed from locations that can test hypotheses regarding the possible influence of the Laurentide ice sheet on continental scale atmospheric circulation affecting glacial mass balance (e.g. Bartlein et al., 1998; Thackray et al., 2004; Thackray, 2008) and the possible effect of pluvial lakes on localized lake-enhanced snowfall affecting glacial timing and magnitude (McCoy and Williams, 1985; Hostetler et al., 1994; Munroe et al., 2006; Laabs et al., 2009). One location that has several formerly glaciated ranges that span a wide range of latitude and may provide insight into both of those questions is the High Plateaus of Utah.

The High Plateaus of Utah are one of the most prominent geographic features in the state of Utah, and define the structural and geothermal transition between the Basin and Range and Colorado Plateau physiographic provinces (Wannamaker et al., 2001) (Fig. 1). Many of the higher elevation areas of the High Plateaus were glaciated during the Pleistocene (Marchetti, 2007). The Wasatch Plateau (Spieker and Billings, 1940), Fish Lake Plateau (Dutton, 1880; Hardy and Muessig, 1952; Osborn and Bevis, 2001), Aquarius Plateau–Boulder Mountain (Flint and Denny, 1958; Osborn and Bevis, 2001; Marchetti et al., 2005, 2007), Markagunt Plateau (Mulvey et al., 1984; Currey et al., 1986), Tushar Mountains (Mulvey, 1985; Osborn and Bevis, 2001), northern Sevier Plateau (Osborn and Bevis, 2001; Jones et al., 2009) and Pavant Range (Mulvey, 1985; Oviatt, 1992; Osborn

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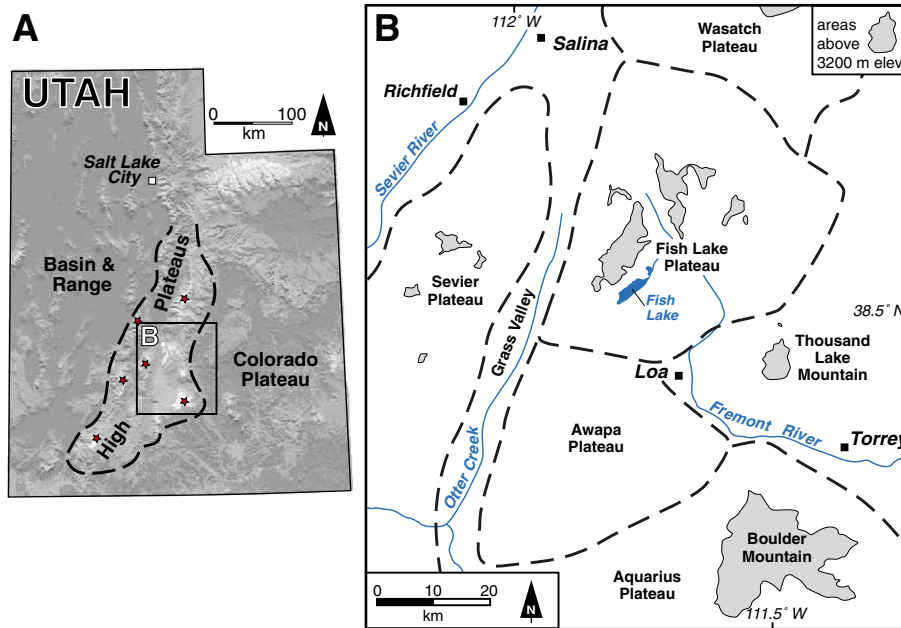


Figure 1. A. Location of the High Plateaus of Utah in the state of Utah. Other glaciated ranges in the High Plateaus are shown with red stars, see text for references. B. Location of the Fish Lake Plateau in the east central High Plateaus.

and Bevis, 2001) all have strong evidence for glaciation during the Pleistocene.

In this paper we use cosmogenic ^3He exposure age dating to determine the ages of glacial deposits from the Fish Lake Hightop Plateau in central Utah. We use reconstructions of former glacier extents to estimate local equilibrium-line altitudes (ELAs) during the LGM using the toe-to-headwall altitude ratio (THAR) and accumulation-area ratio (AAR) methods. Finally, we compare the modern climate at the reconstructed ELAs with modern glacial conditions to estimate changes in annual precipitation and ablation season temperature between the LGM and modern conditions at Fish Lake.

Geography and geology of the Fish Lake Plateau

The High Plateaus of Utah form a region of distinctive topography that separates the Colorado Plateau to the east from the Basin and Range to the west (Fig. 1). Extending for over 250 km southward from the Salt Lake City region to southern Utah, the High Plateaus include eight individual plateaus and ranges with a combined area greater than 15,000 km². The highest elevations reach 3600 m and at many locations the western edge of the High Plateaus forms a sharp topographic front with relief in excess of 1500 m (e.g. Wasatch Front, Cedar Breaks). The drainage divides between the Great Basin and Colorado River systems lie astride the High Plateaus.

The Fish Lake Plateau, located to the south-southeast of Salina, Utah and west of Capitol Reef National Park, occurs along the eastern edge of the High Plateaus and is bounded to the west by the south-trending Grass Valley, the Awapa Plateau to the south, Rabbit Valley to the east and transitions northward into southern Wasatch Plateau (Fig. 1). From west to east the Fish Lake Plateau includes the broad, high elevation, gently southeast-sloping Fish Lake Hightop (elev. 3546 m), the Fish Lake basin (elev. ~2700 m), and the southeast-sloping Mytoge Mountain (Fig. 2). Fish Lake (8.6 × 1.8 km), with an average depth of ~27 m is the largest natural mountain lake in Utah and drains to the northeast into Lake Creek (Fig. 2). The Fremont River heads at the confluence of Lake and Sevenmile Creeks now under Johnson Valley Reservoir (Fig. 2).

The Fish Lake Plateau is underlain by Cretaceous to Early Tertiary sedimentary units that are unconformably overlain by a thick sequence

of Oligocene to Miocene volcanic rocks. The Cretaceous and Early Tertiary units crop out along the northern and northeastern part of the Fish Lake Plateau and include limestone, siltstone, sandstone, and conglomerate of the North Horn, Flagstaff, and Colton Formations (Williams and Hackman, 1971; Carbaugh and Bailey, 2009). The volcanic sequence is 250 to 700 m thick and comprises three distinct units that include from bottom to top: the porphyritic and pyroxene-bearing Johnson Valley Reservoir trachyandesite, the phenocryst-poor Lake Creek trachyte, and biotite-bearing Osiris trachyte (also regionally called the Osiris tuff; e.g. Williams and Hackman, 1971; Mattox, 1991; Bailey et al., 2007; Ball et al., 2009). Most of the volcanic units are ash-flow deposits and likely derived from the Marysvale volcanic field in west-central Utah (Anderson and Rowley, 1975; Ball et al., 2009). Multiple $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ ages on sanidines from the Osiris trachyte yield a mean age of 23.03 ± 0.08 Ma while a single whole rock $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$ age from the Lake Creek trachyte is 25.15 ± 0.14 Ma (Ball et al., 2009).

Glacial deposits on the Fish Lake Plateau

The glacial deposits on the Fish Lake Plateau were previously studied by Dutton (1880), Hardy and Muessig (1952), and Osborn and Bevis (2001). Hardy and Muessig (1952) suggested that there is evidence for two main glacial advances around the Plateau, which they termed Wisconsin I and II and estimate as being equivalent to Early and Late Wisconsin in age, respectively. They also describe evidence for significant erosive ice modification on several areas of the Fish Lake Hightop. Osborn and Bevis (2001) include the Fish Lake Plateau in their review of Great Basin glaciation and agreed with most of Hardy and Muessig's (1952) conclusions about the extent of the glacial deposits however they did not find significant erosive ice modification on the Hightop.

During the summers of 2005–2008 we conducted field, air photo, and satellite image surveys of the glacial deposits on the Fish Lake Plateau. The main focus of our investigation was the deposits around the Fish Lake Hightop Plateau, as these are the most obvious and extensive of the glacial deposits on the entire Plateau. Three glaciers extended from the Fish Lake Hightop Plateau proper: the Rock Canyon, Pelican Canyon, and Tasha Creek glaciers, while two independent cirque glacier complexes: the Jorgenson Creek and

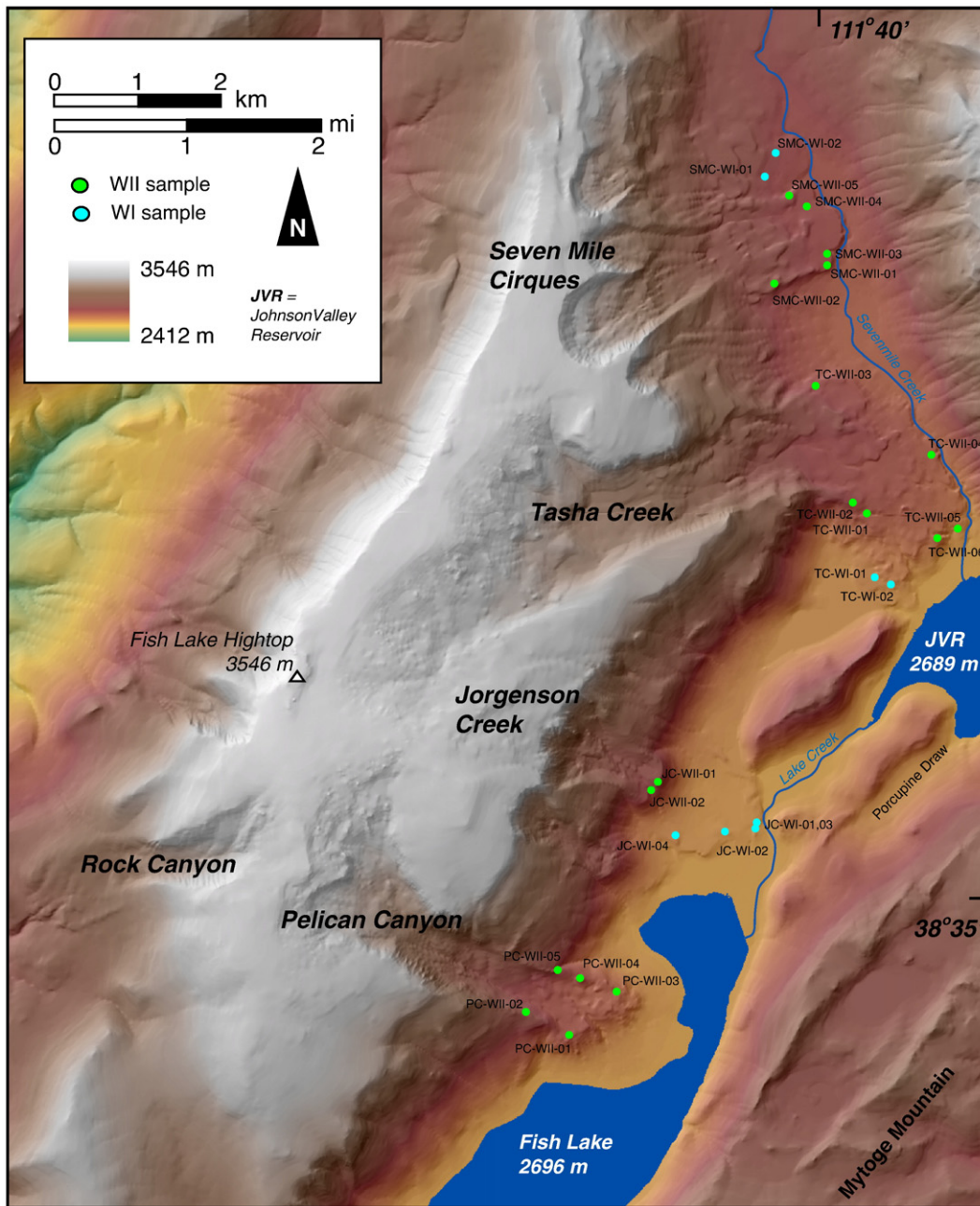


Figure 2. DEM and hillshade composite image of the Fish Lake Plateau Hightop and associated glacial deposits. Cosmogenic sample locations labeled.

Seven Mile, formed on the respective eastern and northeastern margins of the Hightop Plateau (Fig. 2).

Fish Lake Hightop

The Fish Lake Hightop may have hosted a small (~4 km²) ice cap or permanent snow field with ice or snow spilling into three main glacial troughs. The Hightop does not have extensive evidence of erosive ice modification. The predominant volcanic unit on the Hightop is the Lake Creek trachyte, which commonly occurs as thin, platy sheets which are easily fractured and do not preserve grooving or striations. The strongest evidence of glacial erosion on the Hightop is the sculpting of the heads of the three main glacial outlets (Fig. 2). All three glacial outlets head on gently sloping sections off the Hightop

and then become constricted, steep walled, glacial troughs that ultimately spill out onto the adjacent valley floors.

Rock Canyon

The glacier in Rock Canyon headed on the Hightop and descended to an elevation of ~2990 m (Fig. 2). The Rock Canyon glacier is the smallest of the glaciers from the Hightop, possibly due to increased ablation from its west-southwest aspect. A steep sided, hummocky, latero-terminal moraine loop defines the most recent advance of the Rock Creek glacier. Hardy and Muessig (1952) report an older glacial deposit to the north of the younger moraine. In the location of their older WI deposit we did find a slightly hummocky broad crested ridge; however it lacks convincing moranic topography and may be a

bedrock-cored ridge. Very few suitable boulders of the pyroxene-bearing Johnson Valley Reservoir trachyandesite unit occur on the Rock Canyon moraine which precluded using ^3He techniques to date this feature.

Pelican Canyon

The Pelican Canyon glacier headed on the Hightop and flowed off the Hightop through a ~200 m deep, ~1.5 km long trough cut through the main mass of volcanic rocks on the Plateau. A pair of steep-sided (20–25°) bouldery, lateral moraines define the margins of the youngest moraine. The toe of the youngest moraine is composed of several steep, yet short, ridges and hills with intervening closed

depressions. The lowest elevation reached by the youngest Pelican Canyon glacier is ~2760 m. A few smaller recessional moraine sets are nested just upstream and interior to the terminal and lateral moraines. A gently sloping outwash fan is deposited radially from the terminal moraine body and is one of the most conspicuous surficial features in the Fish Lake basin, nearly isolating the main body of Fish Lake from Widgeon Bay (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). Hardy and Muessig (1952) recognized only one age of glacial deposits at Pelican Canyon, which they considered to be WII or late Wisconsin in age.

Bathymetric surveys of Fish Lake were conducted in the summers of 2005 and 2006 using a single-beam 200 kHz transducer linked to a Leica SR530 real-time kinematic global positioning system (RTK-GPS) with a base-station and rover setup for real-time corrections.

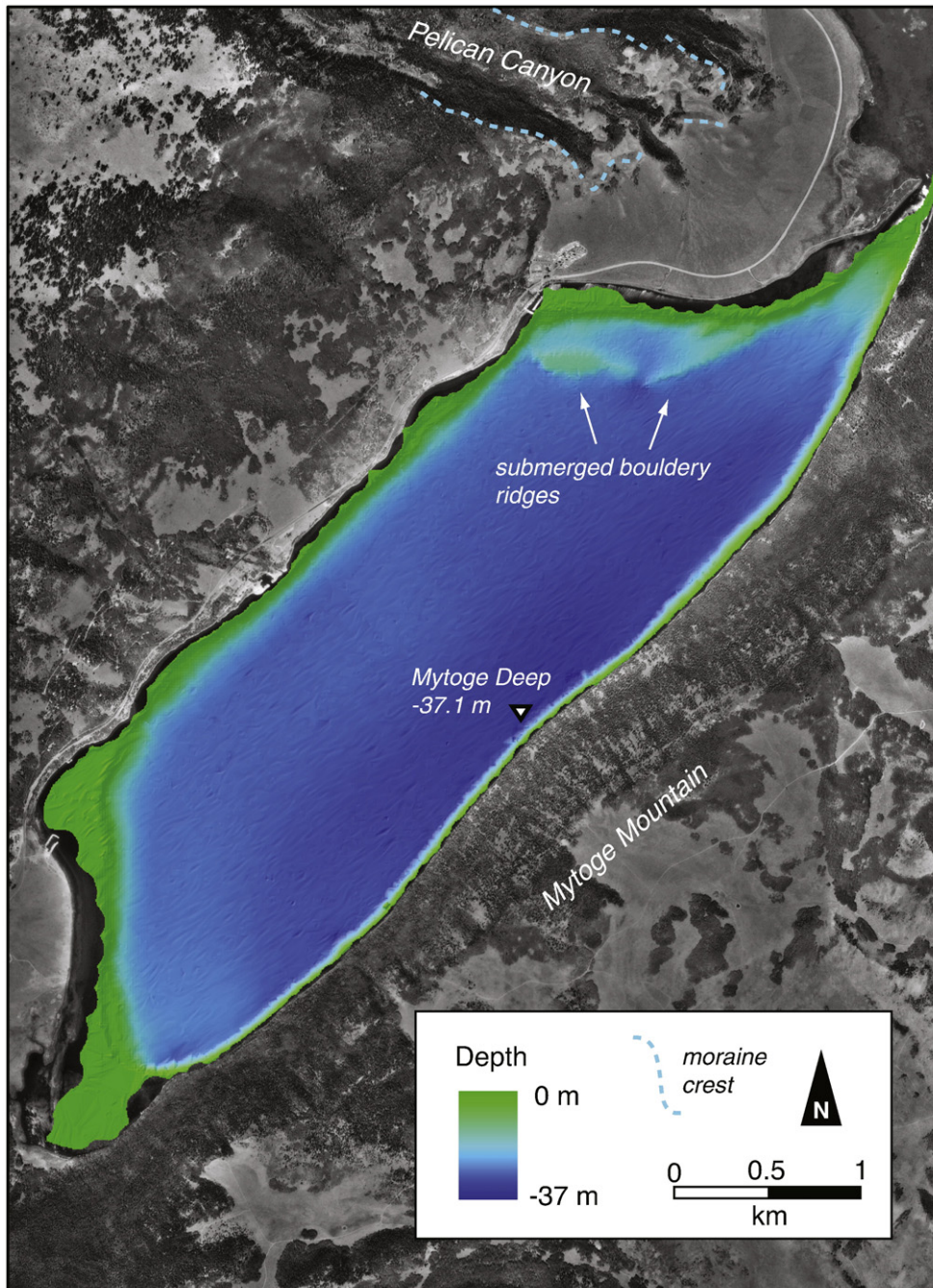


Figure 3. Bathymetric map of the main body of Fish Lake displayed on top of a digital orthophotograph. The northern segment of the lake was not surveyed due to its shallow depth and thick aquatic vegetation.

Horizontal positions were linked to depth soundings and merged in ArcPad. Accuracy for the fathometer is approximately 5–10 cm and for the RTK-GPS approximately 1–5 cm, giving a realistic accuracy of approximately 6–12 cm for the ~23,000 depth measurements across the lake. Data were gridded within ArcGIS and clipped to the shoreline. The resulting bathymetric map is shown in Figure 3. The image reveals a series of ridge-like features in ~20 m of water that are ~1 km to the south of the Pelican Canyon outwash fan. These slightly arcuate ridges are ~3 km long, project out ~10 m from the lake bottom, and are breached in a location coincident with the modern Pelican Canyon drainage. Side scan sonar (Marine Sonics 400 KHz, 150 m swath) indicates that the ridges are bouldery and easily distinguishable from the abundant lake bottom muds. We interpret this feature to be an older moraine ridge, likely correlative to Hardy and Muessig's (1952) WI unit and Bull Lake in age; however the subaqueous feature remains undated.

Jorgenson Creek Cirques

The two Jorgenson Creek glaciers formed in a series of steep cirques carved into the eastern edge of the Fish Lake Hightop plateau. The more northerly and larger of the Jorgenson Creek glaciers formed in a compound cirque and deposited two distinctly different moraines (Fig. 2; Fig. S1). The younger of these deposits is a steep-sided (25–30°), sharp-crested terminal moraine loop deposited by ice that descended to an elevation of ~2870 m. Approximately 400 to 800 m down valley of the younger moraine deposit is a second moraine loop. This feature has relatively gentle slopes (5–15°; except where incised), heavily weathered boulders, and a subdued surface topography. The older Jorgenson Creek deposits are much larger in areal extent than the younger deposits, and suggest ice was as low as ~2720 m during deposition of the older moraine (Fig. 2).

We found no field or air photo evidence of erosive ice modification on the Hightop Plateau above the Jorgenson Creek cirques. This contradicts Hardy and Muessig (1952), who mapped glacial features above the Jorgenson area on their glaciation map. We suspect that Hardy and Muessig (1952) misidentified a dipping contact of two different sub-units of the Lake Creek trachyte as an ice marginal ridge. The lack of evidence for erosive ice above, or ice spillover into, the Jorgenson area suggests that the Jorgenson Creek glaciers were constrained within their cirques and did not connect to an ice cap on the Hightop Plateau, at least during the last glaciation.

Tasha Creek

The Tasha Creek glacier was the largest glacier that headed on the Hightop Plateau. Ice flowed from a large accumulation area on the Hightop to the east-northeast, through a deep glacial trough (Fig. S2) cut into the northeastern margin of the Hightop Plateau and out onto Sevenmile valley. In the Sevenmile valley the glacier was deflected downstream towards the southeast. A complex, ~2 km long, assemblage of very hummocky, moderate-to-steep sided, moraines was deposited parallel to the course of Sevenmile Creek by the Tasha Creek glacier (Fig. 2).

Hardy and Muessig (1952) recognized two different ages of glacial deposits from Tasha Creek. We recognize only one; a young deposit likely correlative with the younger deposits elsewhere around the Hightop. Hardy and Muessig's (1952) WI deposit at Tasha Creek is likely the product of glacial mass wasting (formerly flow till) associated with the younger glaciation, as the feature originates from within the southern edge of the main moraine deposit. Several smaller recessional lateral moraines are inset upstream of the main body of the deposit. We estimate that ice flowed to an elevation of ~2720 m during the youngest glaciation at Tasha Creek.

Sevenmile Cirques

The Sevenmile cirques are the most northerly of the glacial features associated with the Hightop Plateau. Four steep-walled cirques hosted independent glaciers that spilled out onto the Sevenmile valley (Fig. 2; Fig. S2). The most northerly and southerly of the cirques supported glaciers that did not produce distinct terminal moraines. The two central cirques produced a merged body of glacial ice that flowed down to an elevation of ~2840 m. Deposits from the last advance from this glacier consist of a multi-lobed, steep sided (20–30°), latero-terminal moraine loop that encloses numerous ponds and depressions. A prominent set of recessional lateral moraine ridges are located ≤ 1.0 km upstream of the main terminal loop. We found no evidence of erosive ice modification or ice spill-over on the Hightop Plateau above the Sevenmile cirques, indicating that the accumulation areas of the individual glaciers were isolated within the cirques.

Hardy and Muessig (1952) mapped an older glacial deposit (WI) to the north of the toe of the younger set of deposits and moraines. In that location we found slightly hummocky boulder deposits with heavily weathered boulders and possible morainic topography. We agree with Hardy and Muessig (1952) and Osborn and Bevis (2001), that there may be an older glacial deposit in this location, however it is by no means definitive and it is difficult to accurately identify its margins.

Cosmogenic dating of glacial deposits

We measured cosmogenic ^3He concentrations in pyroxene separates from boulder samples taken from the crests of moraines from around the Fish Lake Hightop Plateau (Fig. 2). Our sampling strategy was to sample the highest (tallest) boulders that were sitting in stable positions on the crests of moraines (Table 1; Fig. S3). We only sampled boulders composed of the pyroxene-bearing Johnson Valley Reservoir trachyandesite, which is the most physically resistant rock unit exposed on the Plateau. We collected samples from boulders that had relatively flat, un-weathered top surfaces to reduce the possibility of boulder weathering affecting the exposure ages. Site data was collected with GPS units and verified with topographic maps (Table 1). The horizontal data are relative to the NAD 27 datum and boulder surface elevation uncertainties are likely less than ± 8 m.

Nucleogenic correction

The cosmogenic ^3He exposure age method has both advantages and disadvantages when compared to other routinely used cosmogenic exposure age techniques (e.g. ^{10}Be , ^{36}Cl , Gosse and Phillips, 2001). ^3He has the highest production rate of all the terrestrial cosmogenic isotopes and He isotopic concentrations can be measured relatively easily using conventional noble gas mass spectrometry. Major disadvantages of the method are that He is only quantitatively retained in a few mineral phases (e.g. Farley et al., 2001), and that there can be multiple sources of non-cosmogenic ^3He in many mineral phases.

In pyroxene, there are two main sources of non-cosmogenic ^3He : a mantle component ($^3\text{He}_m$) which, when present, is trapped in fluid inclusions (Kurz, 1986), and a nucleogenic component ($^3\text{He}_n$) produced from thermal neutron reactions on ^6Li (^6Li (n, α) ^3He) (Andrews and Kay, 1982). To correct for possible mantle-gas contamination in our samples we crushed multiple pyroxene samples on-line (under vacuum) and measured the He isotope concentrations in the released gasses. All of the crushed samples had negligible gas concentrations (close to the detection limit and line blanks) and unresolvable $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ ratios, indicating that pyroxenes from volcanic rocks on the Fish Lake Plateau do not have a significant component of mantle-derived He.

We used completely shielded samples of the pyroxene bearing Johnson Valley Reservoir trachyandesite (Bailey et al., 2007) to correct

Table 1
Cosmogenic sampling data and production rates.

Location/sample	Latitude (N)	Longitude (W)	Elevation (m)	Boulder height/longest axis (m)	Topo shielding factor	Self-shielding factor	Total shielding factor	³ He production rate ^a (atoms g ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)
<i>Pelican Canyon</i>								
PC-WII-01	38.5676	111.7013	2817	1.4/3.1	0.999	0.974	0.973	899
PC-WII-02	38.5708	111.7103	2941	1.1/2.8	0.998	0.957	0.955	952
PC-WII-03	38.5729	111.6943	2780	1.0/2.6	0.999	0.957	0.956	864
PC-WII-04	38.5740	111.6998	2845	0.8/2.3	0.999	0.957	0.956	899
PC-WII-05	38.5749	111.7034	2878	1.2/1.9	0.957	0.999	0.956	918
<i>Jorgenson Creek</i>								
JC-WII-01	38.5960	111.6893	2887	1.5/2.6	0.998	0.965	0.963	930
JC-WII-02	38.5959	111.6899	2886	1.7/2.7	0.998	0.974	0.972	937
JC-WI-01	38.5902	111.6757	2716	0.8/1.3	0.999	0.957	0.956	845
JC-WI-02	38.5905	111.6804	2728	0.9/1.5	0.998	0.942	0.940	837
JC-WI-03	38.5902	111.6755	2717	1.0/2.1	0.999	0.965	0.964	852
JC-WI-04	38.5896	111.6872	2737	0.9/2.2	0.999	0.965	0.964	863
<i>Tasha Creek</i>								
TC-WII-01	38.6238	111.6594	2807	1.5/3.2	0.999	0.957	0.956	880
TC-WII-02	38.6260	111.6628	2851	1.1/2.0	0.999	0.974	0.973	919
TC-WII-03	38.6392	111.6673	2865	1.1/2.6	0.999	0.965	0.964	919
TC-WII-04	38.6311	111.6505	2793	1.2/2.3	0.997	0.965	0.962	878
TC-WII-05	38.6231	111.6476	2726	1.2/1.7	0.998	0.974	0.972	850
TC-WII-06	38.6228	111.6493	2739	1.1/2.9	0.997	0.965	0.962	849
TC-WI-01	38.6173	111.6604	2739	1.2/2.3	0.998	0.940	0.938	827
TC-WI-02	38.6167	111.6571	2734	0.7/1.1	0.998	0.974	0.972	854
<i>Seven Mile Cirques</i>								
SMC-WII-01	38.6527	111.6662	2860	1.4/2.1	0.999	0.965	0.964	917
SMC-WII-02	38.6499	111.6735	2905	1.4/2.0	0.999	0.965	0.964	942
SMC-WII-03	38.6531	111.6661	2858	1.1/1.8	0.998	0.974	0.972	923
SMC-WII-04	38.6589	111.6683	2868	1.2/2.0	0.999	0.974	0.973	929
SMC-WII-05	38.6604	111.6703	2876	1.5/3.3	0.999	0.974	0.973	934
SMC-WI-01	38.6616	111.6739	2859	1.1/4.3	0.999	0.957	0.956	924
SMC-WI-02	38.6634	111.6732	2865	1.0/3.4	0.999	0.965	0.964	935

^a Production rate determined using a high latitude, sea level production rate of 120 atoms g⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Goehring et al., 2009), scaled using Lal (1991).

for nucleogenic ³He in our cosmogenic samples. Marchetti and Cerling (2005) and Marchetti et al. (2005) describe the context of our suite of shielded samples. The shielded sample pyroxenes yielded ³He concentrations ranging from 3.7 × 10⁶ to 10.9 × 10⁶ atoms g⁻¹, ⁴He concentrations ranging from 18.25 × 10¹² to 46.54 × 10¹² atoms g⁻¹, and a very consistent ³He/⁴He ratio of 2.08 × 10⁻⁷ which was used to correct cosmogenic samples for nucleogenic ³He (see below). Marchetti and Cerling (2005) and Marchetti et al. (2005) demonstrated that the ⁴He in pyroxenes from shielded samples is solely radiogenic, while the ³He was predominantly nucleogenic and in the cases of shielded samples from allochthonous deposits, partly from pre-exposure. Pyroxenes from rocks identical to the Johnson Valley trachyandesites on the nearby Boulder Mountain have a mean U concentration of 0.6 ppm, a mean Th concentration of 1.3 ppm, and Li concentrations that range from 13 to 38 ppm (*n* = 14) with a mean of 22 ppm (Marchetti and Cerling, 2005).

Analytical

Pyroxene samples were concentrated through standard crushing and sieving. We used the 1–2 mm size fraction for our analyses and etched each pyroxene sample in 5% HF for 15 to 30 min, likely removing the outer few 10 s of μm of each pyroxene grain.

He isotope concentrations were measured using noble-gas mass spectrometry at the University of Utah Dissolved and Noble Gas Laboratory. Pyroxene separates were completely degassed in a Mo lined crucible at >1400°C. Reactive gasses were removed using SAES getters, while Ar and Ne were trapped and removed cryogenically. ³He and ⁴He concentrations were measured on a MAP-251 mass spectrometer using Farady cup (⁴He) and electron multiplier (³He)

detectors. Measured counts of ³He and ⁴He were furnace-blank corrected and then standardized against multiple analyses of purified Yellowstone Park gas (MM) that has a known ³He/⁴He ratio of 16.5 *R*_A (where *R*_A is the ³He/⁴He ratio in air ~ 1.39 × 10⁻⁶). Procedural furnace blanks in this system range from 0 to 2 × 10⁵ atoms for ³He and 1 to 5 × 10⁹ atoms for ⁴He.

Concentrations of cosmogenic ³He (³He_c) were determined from the total measured ³He and ⁴He concentrations (³He_{tot} and ⁴He_{tot}) using the following relationship:

$${}^3\text{He}_c = {}^3\text{He}_{\text{tot}} - \left[{}^4\text{He}_{\text{tot}} \times \left({}^3\text{He} / {}^4\text{He} \right)_s \right] \quad (1)$$

where the shielded (³He/⁴He)_s ratio is 2.08 × 10⁻⁷ (Marchetti et al., 2005). The 1σ uncertainty associated with the shielded correction is ~14% and is propagated through the determinations of the ³He_c concentrations (Table 2).

Boulder exposure ages

The He isotope data and exposure ages are given in Table 2. Cosmogenic ³He exposure ages were calculated using the ³He_c concentrations as determined above and a sea-level, high-latitude ³He production rate of 120 atoms g⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Goehring et al., 2009) scaled to each samples altitude, latitude, and total shielding (Table 1) using Lal (1991) and Gosse and Phillips (2001). The resulting exposure ages were not adjusted for boulder surface erosion. Exposure ages were adjusted for possible snow shielding using the method outlined in Gosse and Phillips (2001) and employing historic snow pack data from the nearby Black Flat-U.M. Creek Snotel Site (BFTU-1; www.cbrfc.noaa.gov/snow/station/sweplot/sweplot.cgi?

Table 2
Helium isotope data and exposure ages for cosmogenic samples.

Location/sample	$^4\text{He}_{\text{tot}}$ (10^{12} atoms g^{-1})	$^3\text{He}_{\text{tot}}$ (10^6 atoms g^{-1})	$^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ fusion	R/R_A fusion	$^3\text{He}_c^a$ (10^6 atoms g^{-1})	$^3\text{He}_c$ %	Exposure age ^b (ka) $\pm 2\sigma$
<i>Pelican Canyon</i>							
PC-WII-01	16.22 \pm 0.08	21.4 \pm 0.5	1.32×10^{-6}	0.95	18.0 \pm 0.9	84.3	20.5 \pm 1.1
PC-WII-02	15.65 \pm 0.10	25.2 \pm 1.0	1.61×10^{-6}	1.16	21.9 \pm 1.2	87.1	23.5 \pm 1.3
PC-WII-03	25.79 \pm 0.06	23.6 \pm 1.1	9.14×10^{-7}	0.66	18.2 \pm 1.4	77.3	21.5 \pm 1.7
PC-WII-04	29.32 \pm 2.05	21.7 \pm 2.5	7.39×10^{-7}	0.53	15.6 \pm 2.4	71.9	17.7 \pm 2.8
PC-WII-05	22.68 \pm 0.53	21.6 \pm 0.2	9.51×10^{-7}	0.69	16.9 \pm 1.1	78.2	18.8 \pm 1.2
<i>Jorgenson Creek</i>							
JC-WII-01	23.76 \pm 0.11	24.1 \pm 0.8	1.02×10^{-6}	0.73	19.2 \pm 1.3	79.5	21.1 \pm 1.4
JC-WII-02	22.97 \pm 0.05	24.0 \pm 0.9	1.05×10^{-6}	0.76	19.2 \pm 1.3	80.1	21.0 \pm 1.4
JC-WI-01	24.86 \pm 0.10	111.2 \pm 1.7	4.47×10^{-6}	3.23	106.0 \pm 2.2	95.4	128 \pm 3
JC-WI-02	24.74 \pm 0.14	69.4 \pm 2.2	2.80×10^{-6}	2.03	64.2 \pm 2.4	92.6	79 \pm 3
JC-WI-03	26.89 \pm 0.14	138.2 \pm 3.8	5.14×10^{-6}	3.71	132.6 \pm 4.0	96.0	159 \pm 5
JC-WI-04	27.48 \pm 0.11	134.2 \pm 1.3	4.89×10^{-6}	3.53	128.5 \pm 2.1	95.7	152 \pm 3
<i>Tasha Creek</i>							
TC-WII-01	28.62 \pm 0.11	18.8 \pm 0.1	6.57×10^{-7}	0.48	12.9 \pm 1.3	68.4	14.9 \pm 1.5
TC-WII-02	25.57 \pm 0.10	20.2 \pm 1.2	7.92×10^{-7}	0.57	14.9 \pm 1.4	73.8	16.6 \pm 1.6
TC-WII-03	24.55 \pm 0.13	28.1 \pm 1.9	1.14×10^{-6}	0.83	22.9 \pm 1.9	81.8	25.5 \pm 2.2
TC-WII-04	27.94 \pm 0.06	21.1 \pm 0.8	7.53×10^{-7}	0.54	15.2 \pm 1.3	72.4	17.8 \pm 1.5
TC-WII-05	26.01 \pm 0.06	193.0 \pm 4.2	7.42×10^{-6}	5.36	187.6 \pm 4.4	97.2	226 \pm 6
TC-WII-06	23.47 \pm 0.03	36.2 \pm 1.5	1.54×10^{-6}	1.12	31.4 \pm 1.7	86.5	38 \pm 3
TC-WI-01	25.88 \pm 0.11	23.1 \pm 1.7	8.93×10^{-7}	0.65	17.7 \pm 1.7	76.7	21.9 \pm 2.2
TC-WI-02	23.30 \pm 0.09	25.6 \pm 1.3	1.10×10^{-6}	0.79	20.8 \pm 1.6	81.1	24.8 \pm 1.9
<i>Seven Mile Cirques</i>							
SMC-WII-01	20.96 \pm 0.08	23.1 \pm 0.6	1.10×10^{-6}	0.80	18.7 \pm 1.1	81.1	20.9 \pm 1.3
SMC-WII-02	20.38 \pm 0.06	23.8 \pm 0.7	1.17×10^{-6}	0.84	19.6 \pm 1.2	82.2	21.2 \pm 1.3
SMC-WII-03	21.99 \pm 0.07	45.3 \pm 1.0	2.06×10^{-6}	1.49	40.7 \pm 1.5	89.9	45 \pm 2
SMC-WII-04	24.66 \pm 0.08	24.5 \pm 1.1	9.92×10^{-7}	0.72	19.3 \pm 1.4	79.1	21.3 \pm 1.6
SMC-WII-05	33.64 \pm 0.08	27.3 \pm 0.8	8.12×10^{-7}	0.59	20.3 \pm 1.6	74.4	22.3 \pm 1.8
SMC-WI-01	26.03 \pm 0.03	116.2 \pm 2.5	4.46×10^{-6}	3.23	110.8 \pm 2.8	95.3	123 \pm 4
SMC-WI-02	20.97 \pm 0.06	171.0 \pm 2.9	8.16×10^{-6}	5.89	166.7 \pm 3.2	97.5	182 \pm 4

^a $^3\text{He}_c$ determined using Eq. (1) and a $^3\text{He}/^4\text{He}$ shielded value of 2.08×10^{-7} (Marchetti et al., 2005).

^b Exposure ages are determined using the $^3\text{He}_c$ concentration and corresponding production rate value from Table 1. The ages include a snow correction based on historic winter snowpack data from the nearby Black Flat / UM creek SNOTEL site using Gosse and Phillips, 2001 (see text).

BFTU1). This Snotel site is less than 15 km northeast of Fish Lake and is at a similar elevation (2867 m) to our sampled boulders, and so provides a good representation of the historic snow pack in the area. The snow correction added between 1.5% and 2.2% to the calculated exposure ages (Table 2).

Estimates of ELAs and climate during the last glacial maximum at Fish Lake, UT

The equilibrium line altitude (ELA) of alpine glaciers is a useful climatic indicator. If the ELA of paleoglaciers in formerly glaciated

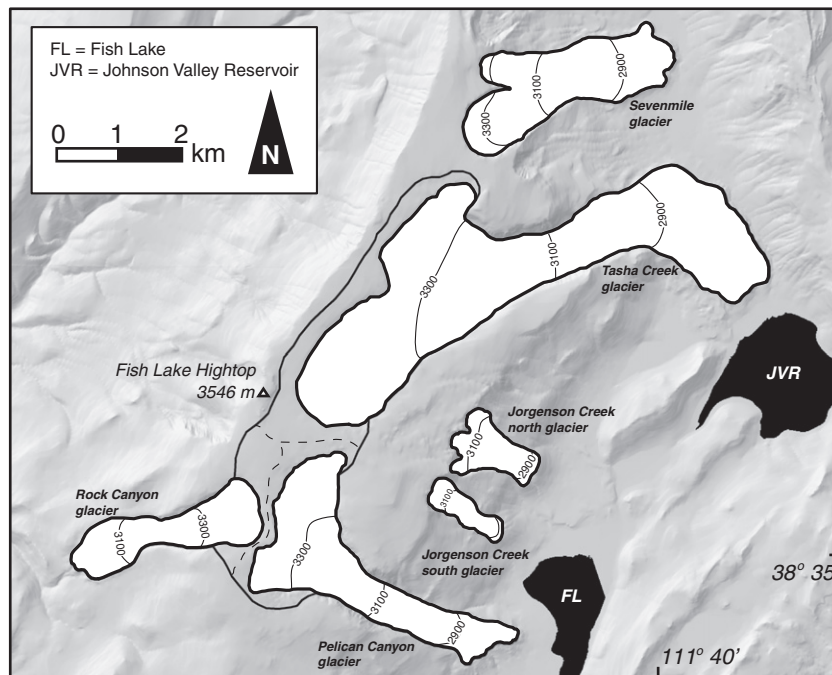


Figure 4. Reconstructions of LGM age glaciers on the Fish Lake Plateau. Contour lines are in meters and indicate reconstructed ice surface elevations.

Table 3
Paleoglacier ELA data.

Paleoglacier	Glacier area (km ²)	ELA from AAR method (m)	ELA from THAR method (m)
<i>Cirque</i>			
Reconstructed as individual glaciers (AAR = 0.6 ± 0.1 ; THAR = 0.4 ± 0.05)			
Jorgenson Creek South	0.5	3020 \pm 30	3035 \pm 30
Jorgenson Creek North	0.9	2980 \pm 20	3020 \pm 20
Seven Mile	3.5	2950 +70/–40	3060 \pm 30
<i>Hightop</i>			
Reconstructed as individual glaciers (AAR = 0.6 ± 0.1 ; THAR = 0.4 ± 0.05)			
Rock Canyon	2.1	3130 +100/–30	3165 \pm 25
Pelican Canyon	4.2	3190 +50/–110	3030 \pm 40
Tasha Creek	11.3	3130 +90/–140	3020 \pm 40
Reconstructed as part of an ice cap (AAR = 0.7 ± 0.1)			
Rock Canyon	3.1	3190 +160/–90	n.a.
Pelican Canyon	5.1	3180 +80/–170	n.a.
Tasha Creek	13.5	3080 +150/–90	n.a.

areas can be reliably determined, then estimates of the climate changes needed to glaciolate the area can be inferred (Leonard, 1989; Brugger and Goldstein, 1999). There are several techniques available to estimate the ELAs of formerly glaciolated areas. Most of these methods

involve determining the former glacier extent and measuring variables related to the glaciers area or elevation distribution and comparing those to identical variables on modern glaciers at equilibrium. All of these methods have significant uncertainties and can be confounded when glaciers have excessive supraglacial debris (Clark et al., 1994), or are significantly “piedmont” or “ice cap” like in their ice distribution (Leonard, 1984; Rea et al., 1998). Despite these potential problems, glacier reconstructions utilizing ELAs have been one of the most useful techniques in estimating the climates of past glaciations and the LGM and subsequent deglaciation in particular (e.g. Porter, 1975; Munroe and Mickelson, 2002; Denton et al., 2005).

In this report we used the accumulation-area ratio (AAR) and toe-to-headwall altitude ratio (THAR) methods to estimate the ELAs of Pinedale-age glaciers around the Fish Lake Hightop Plateau. More information about the AAR and THAR techniques are given in Meierding (1982), Torsnes et al. (1993), and Benn and Evans (1998). Paleoglaciers were reconstructed in ArcGIS using air photo, DEM, and satellite imagery. Glacier margins were mapped using lateral and terminal moraines, trim lines in glacially carved canyons, and erosional features in accumulation areas. Ice thicknesses were estimated along the course of reconstructed glacier beds with equations relating ice thickness, slope, and basal shear stress using modified versions of Locke (1995) (Fig. 4). We made minor adjustment to the thickness of each

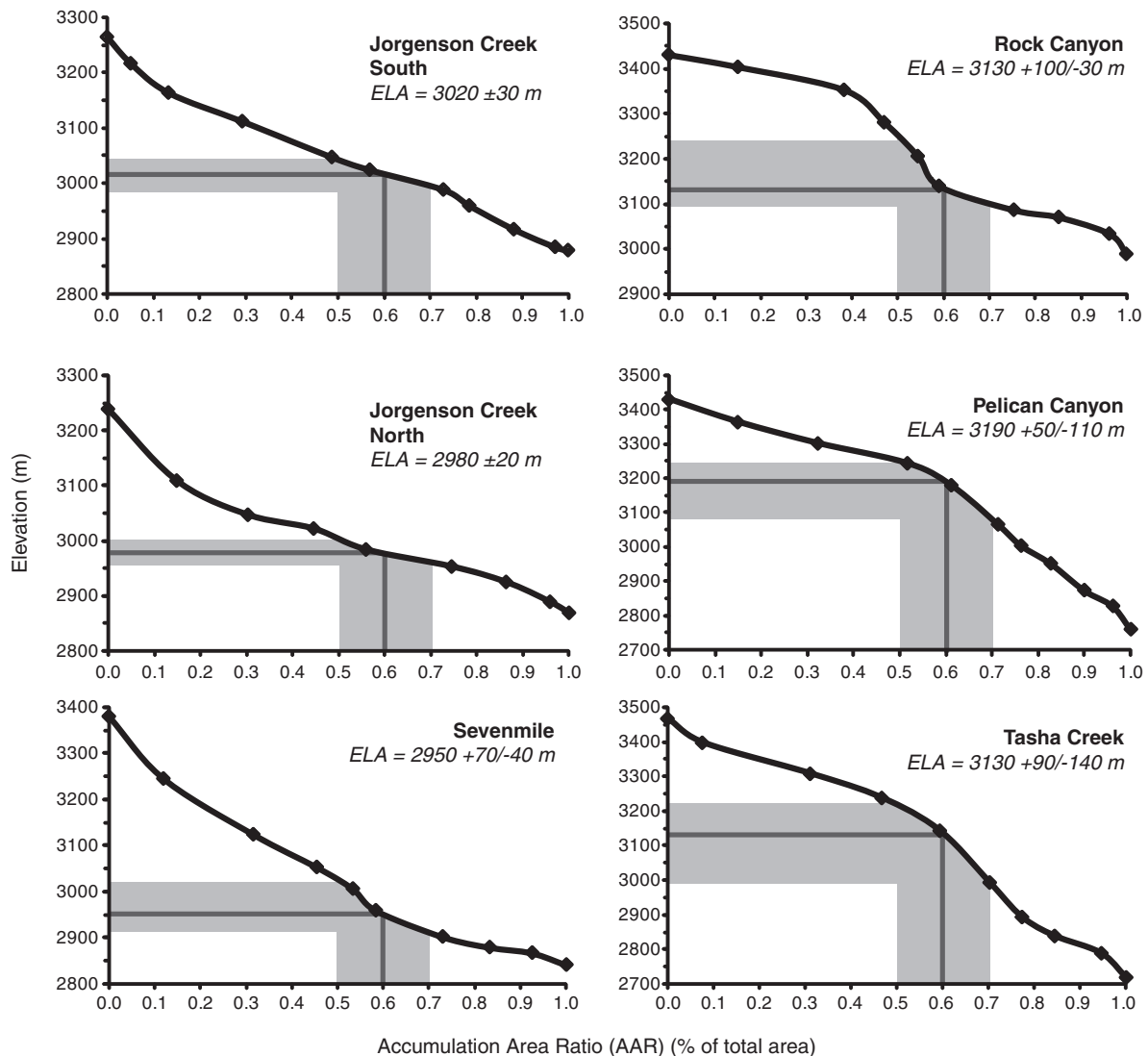


Figure 5. Elevation vs. total glacier area used to reconstruct glaciers using the AAR method. Hightop glaciers are modeled as individual glaciers. The gray boxes indicate the uncertainty (± 0.1) associated with the AAR method and resultant uncertainty in the reconstructed ELAs (see text).

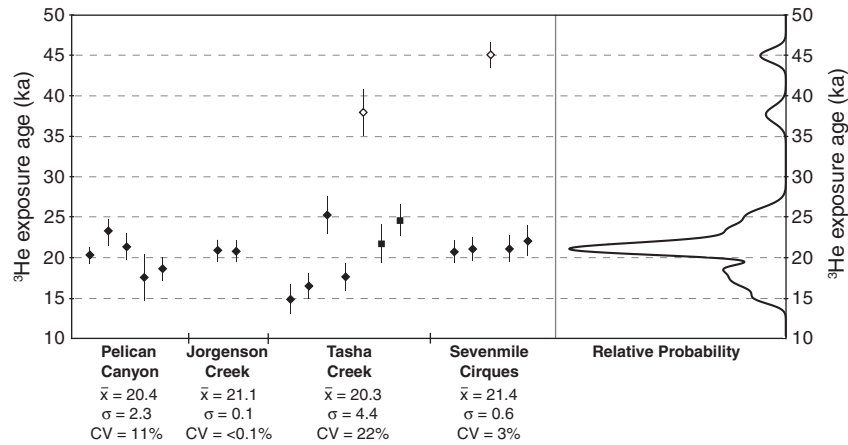


Figure 6. Exposure age data for the younger (WII) moraines sampled in this study. Squares indicate the boulders from the glacialic mass movement feature associated with the Tasha Creek moraine. Open symbols indicate outliers. Sample TC-WII-05 (226 ± 6 ka) is not shown on the figure. The relative probability includes all the data shown on the figure. The outliers and relative probability were determined using ISOPlot (Ludwig, 1996).

paleoglacier so that the basal shear stress along the bed of each glacier was between 50 and 150 kPa (Paterson, 1994). We used a value of 0.4 ± 0.05 for the toe-to-headwall altitude ratio and 0.6 ± 0.1 and 0.7 ± 0.1 for the accumulation area ratio in the reconstructions of ELAs. The two different values and high uncertainties associated with the AAR ratios are due to the wide range of glacier types at Fish Lake (Table 3). The glaciers at Fish Lake range from simple cirque glaciers with well-constrained margins and relatively simple shapes (Sevenmile and Jorgenson Creek) to more complicated transection or outlet-type glaciers from the Fish Lake Hightop that may have been at least partially sourced from a small ice cap (Rock and Pelican Canyons, Tasha Creek). Typically, ice cap fed or transection glaciers would have a higher AAR, closer to 0.7 or 0.8 (Pierce, 1979; Rea et al., 1998). However, some of the glaciers from the Fish Lake Hightop are also piedmont like in their lower reaches as they spill out from constricted glacial canyons onto flat valley floors. Piedmont-type glaciers are thought to have a lower AAR values, on the order of ~ 0.5 (Leonard, 1984). So to capture the full range of possible glacier AAR relationships we reconstructed all the cirque glaciers using an AAR of 0.6 ± 0.1 , and the Hightop glaciers in two different ways. The first Hightop glacier reconstruction assumed that the glaciers were not significantly fed from an ice cap and so we delineated the uppermost accumulation zone based on the margin of definitive ice erosion. In this scenario, the glaciers were reconstructed as separate glaciers. The ELAs of these glaciers were determined using an AAR of 0.6 ± 0.1 (Fig. 5). In the other scenario we reconstructed the Hightop glaciers assuming that their accumulation areas were connected and fed by a small ice cap or ice field, and we used an AAR of 0.7 ± 0.1 to estimate the ELAs of the merged glaciers.

We used the methods of Leonard (1989, 2007) to estimate LGM climatic conditions from our reconstructed paleoglacier ELAs. In this method the modern climatic conditions at the reconstructed paleoglacier ELAs are compared to modern climatic conditions at modern glacier ELAs. The difference between the values is an estimate of the temperature or precipitation changes needed to sustain the paleoglaciers at equilibrium during the LGM, and hence is an estimate of the range of possible temperature and precipitation changes between the LGM and today. We used the annual precipitation (cm H₂O) versus the summer (JJA) temperature (°C) data set in Ohmura et al. (1992) as the basis for the modern glacier ELA relationships.

To determine the modern climatic conditions at our range of reconstructed ELAs we used a linear regression of mean summer (JJA) temperature data versus elevation for multiple stations across central Utah (mean summer temperature (°C) = $-0.0063 \times \text{elevation (m)} + 31.293$; $n = 43$; $r^2 = 0.946$; $p \ll 0.05$) (data from WRCC, 2006). The temperature data span elevations exceeding the range of recon-

structed ELAs so no extrapolation was needed. The modern precipitation data were determined from annual precipitation values in the PRISM dataset (<http://gisdev.nacse.org/prism/nn/index.phtml>) (PRISM Climate Group, 2010). The 1971–2000 climate normals (30-arcsecond (~800 m) grid cell time series analysis from the PRISM data explorer) yield annual precipitation values of 85.4 to 95.5 cm (H₂O equivalent) for the range of reconstructed ELAs at Fish Lake. We use the mean of those two values (90.5 cm) as the estimate of modern annual precipitation for the range of reconstructed ELAs.

Discussion

Ages of glacial deposits

The exposure ages of moraine boulders from Fish Lake are given in Table 2 and Figure 6. The data include three locations where we determined ages of glacial deposits originally interpreted as Wisconsin I in age (early Wisconsinan, likely Bull Lake equivalent) by Hardy and Muessig (1952). From the south to the north these include the JC-WI, TC-WI, and SMC-WI samples (Table 1; Fig. 2).

The JC-WI samples range from 79 ± 3 to 159 ± 5 ka with a mean (\pm standard deviation) of $129 (\pm 39)$ ka. Exposure age populations from older, eroded moraines are notoriously difficult to interpret due to prolonged boulder erosion and potential boulder exhumation from deposit erosion (Hallet and Putkonen, 1994; Phillips et al., 1997; Putkonen and Swanson, 2003). Given those two factors we suspect

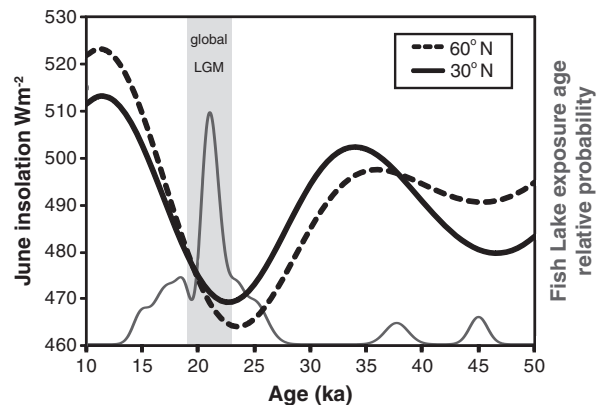


Figure 7. Summer insolation values for 30°N and 60°N between 10 and 50 ka (Berger and Loutre, 1991). The Fish Lake exposure age relative probability curve is shown in gray.

that the mean age of the JC-W1 deposit is an underestimate of the true age of the feature. Other cosmogenic studies of older, likely Bull Lake age moraines in the western U.S. have reported similar exposure age populations and concluded that the oldest exposure ages are likely the best indicator of the true age of moraine abandonment (Easterbrook et al., 2003; Licciardi and Pierce, 2008). If that is the case, then the JC-W1 deposit was deposited ca. 152–159 ka and is likely Bull Lake (~MIS 6) in age (Easterbrook et al., 2003, Sharp et al., 2003).

The two ages from the TC-W1 deposit indicate that the feature is not Bull Lake in age but rather LGM in age (Table 2). We previously discussed this feature (see above), and indicated that it is likely a glacial mass movement deposit associated with the younger set of glacial deposits at Tasha Creek. The two variable ages of the SMC-W1 deposit only allow us to suggest that the feature is certainly older than the LGM and may be a Bull Lake age moraine, or may be older.

Exposure age samples from the younger WII moraines were originally thought to be late Wisconsin in age (LGM or Pinedale-age; Hardy and Muessig, 1952; Osborn and Bevis, 2001). The exposure ages confirm that age assignment, and analysis of the relative probability distribution of all the WII exposure ages suggests that the local LGM at Fish Lake occurred at $\sim 21.1 \pm 1.2$ ka (sharp peak in relative probability curve in Fig. 6). This timing is coincident with the global LGM (21 ± 2 ka) and indicates that the Fish Lake glaciers reached their maximum extent at the end of an insolation minimum (Fig. 7) (Berger and Loutre, 1991). The statistical data associated with the exposure age populations (Fig. 6) indicate that moraines deposited from Hightop glaciers have greater variability than cirque constrained glaciers, when obvious outliers are excluded (TC-WII-05, TC-WII-06, SMC-WII-03).

The exposure ages from the Tasha Creek moraine boulders are highly variable. Even with two outliers removed, the ages have the highest variability of all the WII ages around the basin (Table 2). This is partly due to samples TC-WII-01 and TC-WII-02 which were collected from a higher elevation section of the right lateral moraine (Fig. 2) that may have been re-occupied by ice during a recessional event. The TC-WII suite of samples contributes to the 15–18 ka sub-peak in the relative probability curve (Fig. 6) and suggests that there may have been a re-advance or standstill of glacial ice at that time.

ELAs and LGM climate estimates at Fish Lake

ELA estimates are given in Table 3 and the LGM-to-modern climate changes are given in Table 4. The reconstructed LGM-age glacier ELAs range from 2950 to 3190 m. Glaciers descending from the Hightop have the highest ELAs while the cirque constrained glaciers have lower ELAs. This may be due to greater insolation on the exposed Hightop and late afternoon shading and favorable lee side snow accumulation of the southeasterly and northeasterly facing cirque glaciers. The ELAs determined using the THAR and AAR methods are similar for the cirque glaciers but differ for the Hightop glaciers. The

Table 4

Possible precipitation and summer temperature depression conditions for the Fish Lake Plateau during the LGM.

Modern glacier data set	Annual precipitation (compared to modern)	Summer temperature depression (modern to LGM: °C)
World (maximum estimate)	0.5×	−12.1
	1.0×	−10.6
	1.5×	−9.2
	2.0×	−7.9
	3.0×	−5.9
Rocky Mountain (minimum estimate)	0.5×	−9.6
	1.0×	−8.1
	1.5×	−6.7
	2.0×	−5.5
	3.0×	−3.4

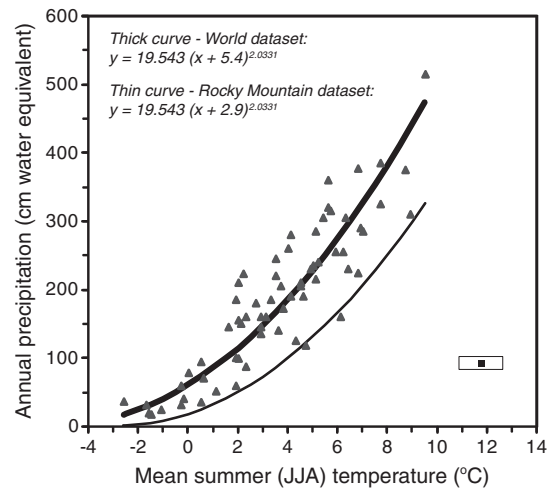


Figure 8. Annual precipitation vs. mean summer temperature for the modern glaciers in the Ohmura et al (1992) data set. The thick curve indicates the best fit for the entire (world) data set. The thin curve indicates the best fit for the Rocky Mountain part of the data set. Equations for lines are from Leonard (2007). The black square surrounded by the rectangle indicates the range of modern precipitation and mean summer temperatures determined for the reconstructed LGM ELAs at Fish Lake. To estimate the change in summer temperature between the LGM and today we subtracted the mean modern summer temperature at the reconstructed ELAs (black square) from the thick curve (maximum estimate) and the thin curve (minimum estimate) for varying precipitation amounts relative to the modern value of 90.5 cm (0.5×, 1×, 1.5×, 2×, 3×) (Table 4).

two different Hightop glacier reconstructions (individual vs. ice cap) using the AAR method yielded very similar results, between 3100 and 3200 m.

The climatic changes from modern conditions that are needed to sustain the LGM age paleoglaciers can be estimated from Fig. 8. The possible LGM-to-modern climatic changes are strongly dependant on which part of the Ohmura et al. (1992) data set (curve in Fig. 8) is used for comparison. Leonard (2007), following Locke (1989) and Braithwaite et al. (2006), makes the argument that glacier reconstructions in the western U.S. should use the Rocky Mountain data in the Ohmura et al. (1992) data set (thin line in Fig. 8) as the western U.S. is more likely associated with the higher temperature, lower precipitation part of the data set. This effectively provides a minimum estimate of the summer temperature depressions and led Leonard (2007) to suggest that using the Rocky Mountain data set may underestimate LGM to modern summer temperature depressions. We use the Rocky Mountain data set reconstruction (thin line in Fig. 8) in Table 4 as a minimum estimate of LGM to modern summer temperature depressions for various precipitation scenarios and the world data set (thick line in Fig. 8) as a maximum estimate of summer temperature depressions. Given those boundaries and assuming modern precipitation amounts, the Fish Lake Plateau likely had summer temperature depressions of -10.7 to -8.2 °C during the LGM (Table 4).

Several studies around the central Rocky Mountains have documented LGM summer temperature depressions from paleoglacier ELA based reconstructions (Munroe and Mickelson, 2002; Brugger, 2006; Laabs et al., 2006; Leonard, 2007; Brugger, 2010). In these studies, summer temperature depressions for the LGM range from -6.5 to -9.5 °C, assuming modern precipitation amounts. To bring the Fish Lake summer temperature depressions into that range would require increasing precipitation by 1.5× modern (Table 4). Therefore we suggest that the Fish Lake region may have had a slight increase in precipitation during the LGM compared to modern values.

Implications for regional paleoclimate

Our Fish Lake exposure age data adds to a growing body of research on the timing of LGM alpine deglaciation in the interior western US. The

Fish Lake data indicates local LGM moraine stabilization at ~21 ka and possible glacial re-advance or standstill at ~15–18 ka only a minimal distance upstream of the LGM position. This is similar to a number of glacial records across a wide range of latitudes in the interior western US. The following locations all have well-documented records of Pinedale-age terminal moraine stabilization during the LGM (21 ± 2 ka) and exposure ages on recessional moraines either at, or only slightly upstream of the LGM positions, between 15 and 18 ka: the Wallowa Mountains, OR (Licciardi et al., 2004); the Wind River Range, WY (Gosse et al., 1995; Easterbrook et al., 2003); the eastern Uinta Mountains, UT (Laabs et al., 2009); the eastern and western drainages of the Sawatch Range, CO (Brugger, 2007; Briner, 2009); and the Rio Grande drainage of the San Juan Mountains, CO (Benson et al., 2005). Glacial records from Boulder Mountain, UT (Marchetti et al., 2005; 2007); the Middle Boulder Creek Valley of the Colorado Front Range (Ward et al., 2009); and the Animas drainage of the San Juan Mountains, CO (Guido et al., 2007) all have roughly same timing of glaciations (terminal moraine at $\sim 21 \pm 2$ ka; followed by retreat and re-advance or standstill until 15–18 ka) but these locations had more glacial retreat during the LGM to 15–18 ka time interval. Data from the Yellowstone ice cap and Teton Mountains (Licciardi and Pierce, 2008); the central Wasatch Mountains (Lips et al., 2005; Laabs et al., 2007); and the western Uinta Mountains (Laabs et al., 2009) document locations that had terminal moraine abandonment *after* the LGM and during 15–18 ka. For the Yellowstone and Teton records this may have been due to the complex dynamics of such a large ice cap and movement of the ice divide through time or moisture starvation during the LGM caused by anti-cyclonic flow off of the southern Laurentide ice sheet blocking moisture laden westerly storms (Licciardi and Pierce, 2008). The Wasatch and western Uinta locations are immediately downwind of pluvial Lake Bonneville and likely had prolonged glaciations due to lake-enhanced snowfall lowering ELAs until Lake Bonneville fell below the Provo level at 14–15 ka (Munroe and Mickelson, 2002; Godsey et al., 2005; Munroe et al., 2006; Laabs et al., 2009). The Fish Lake Plateau was likely too far from Lake Bonneville at all lake levels to supply significant lake-enhanced snowfall to the area. Several other ranges in the High Plateaus that were closer to Lake Bonneville may have had lake-enhanced precipitation affect paleoglacier ELAs (Mulvey, 1985).

Taken together, the glacial records for the interior western US indicate a broad synchrony in the timing of final LGM deglaciation (Schaefer et al., 2006). Most ranges began initial deglaciation during the LGM and then had a standstill or re-advance during the interval between 15 and 18 ka. Some ranges either did not have glaciers at their terminal positions during the LGM, or had post-LGM advances (15–18 ka) that overran the LGM moraines. It is clear that most of the interior western US glacier records document glaciers near, or at, their terminal moraine positions *after* the LGM and between 15 and 18 ka. This indicates sustained glaciation during a time period (15–20 ka) of increasing ($5\text{--}7 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$ per ka) ablation season insolation (Fig. 7). Hypotheses to explain how glaciers were sustained near their terminal moraine positions during a period of increasing insolation typically invoke additional moisture sources (e.g. Licciardi et al., 2004; Munroe et al., 2006; Thackray, 2008). For the Wasatch and western Uinta records this moisture was clearly from lake-enhanced precipitation off of Lake Bonneville (e.g. Laabs et al., 2009). For other locations the excess moisture is sometimes hypothesized to have come from low-pressure storms tracking along the polar branch of the Northern Hemisphere jet stream (e.g. Thackray, 2008), which was deflected significantly south of its present mean position due to the Laurentide ice sheet (Bartlein et al., 1998). Southward deflection of the polar jet stream during the LGM and possibly until ~14–15 ka is supported by modeling studies (Bartlein et al., 1998; Kutzbach et al., 1998) and several data sets from around the southwestern US (Jewell, 2007; Asmerom et al., 2010; Wagner et al., 2010). However, the jet stream hypothesis is somewhat contradicted by the fact that interior western US mountain ranges spanning a total of ~8° of latitude, have

the same timing of final LGM deglaciation. It seems unlikely that jet-stream-driven storminess alone could supply the needed moisture across such a wide range of latitudes over several millennia. Further research into the climatic conditions across the interior western US during the 15–21 ka time interval and modeling studies of the dynamics of paleoglacier ELA responses to increasing insolation and seasonal precipitation changes (e.g. Fujita, 2008; Rupper et al., 2009) may provide a clearer resolution to this problem.

Conclusions

The Fish Lake Plateau hosted outlet and cirque glaciers at least twice during the Pleistocene. Exposure ages of boulders on an older, degraded moraine range from 79 to 159 ka and suggest deposition coincident with the type Bull Lake glaciation (MIS 6). Multiple boulders on younger moraines indicate a local LGM of ~21.1 ka while two ages from the Tasha Creek moraine may suggest a deglacial pause at 15–18 ka. ELAs of Pinedale-age glaciers range from 2950 to 3190 m and appear to be weakly controlled by aspect. Paleoglacier ELA reconstructions are relatively insensitive to the reconstruction method (AAR vs. THAR) and whether Hightop outlet glaciers were considered as part of an ice cap or as independent glaciers. LGM climate estimates from the paleoglacier ELAs suggest that with no change in precipitation, summer temperatures at Fish Lake were -10.7 to -8.2°C colder than modern. When compared to a regional data set of summer temperature depressions our data suggest that LGM precipitation at Fish Lake was either similar to modern or slightly increased ($\sim 1.5\times$ modern).

Supplementary materials related to this article can be found online at doi:10.1016/j.yqres.2010.09.009.

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