

1 **Climate change is rapidly deteriorating the climatic signal in Svalbard glaciers**

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41 **Abstract**

42 The Svalbard archipelago is particularly sensitive to climate change due to the relatively low altitude
43 of its main ice fields and its geographical location in the higher North Atlantic, where the effect of
44 the Arctic Amplification is more significant. The largest temperature increases have been observed
45 during winter, but increasing summer temperatures, above the melting point, have led to increased
46 glacier melt. Here, we evaluate the impact of this increased melt on the preservation of the oxygen
47 isotope signal ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) in firn records. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ is commonly used as proxy for past atmospheric
48 temperature reconstructions and, when preserved, it is a crucial parameter to date and align ice cores.
49 By comparing four different firn cores collected in 2012, 2015, 2017 and 2019 at the top of the
50 Holtedahlfonna ice field (1100 m. a.s.l.), we show a progressive deterioration of the isotope signal
51 and we link its degradation to the increased occurrence and intensity of melt events. Our findings
52 indicate that starting from 2015, there has been an escalation in melting and percolation resulting
53 from changes in the overall atmospheric conditions. This has led to the deterioration of the climate
54 signal preserved within the firn or ice. Our observations correspond with the model's calculations,
55 demonstrating an increase in water percolation since 2014, potentially reaching deeper layers of the
56 firn. Although the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal still reflects the interannual temperature trend, more frequent melting
57 events may in the future affect the interpretation of the isotopic signal, compromising the use of
58 Svalbard ice cores. Our findings highlight the impact and the speed at which Arctic Amplification is
59 affecting Svalbard's cryosphere.

60

61 **Introduction**

62 Arctic regions are undergoing faster warming than the global average, due to the so-called “Arctic
63 Amplification”(Serreze and Barry, 2011). Arctic Amplification is caused by various feedback
64 processes in the atmosphere-ocean-ice system and significantly affects the Arctic North Atlantic
65 region. Arctic warming is not seasonally uniform and has the largest impact in the winter months and
66 close to the surface (Dahlke and Maturilli, 2017). Furthermore, it is not evenly distributed across the
67 Arctic; the largest warming rates are over the Barents/Kara Seas, where autumn and winter sea-ice
68 retreat is the most pronounced (Lind et al., 2018; Isaksen et al., 2022, 2016). However, even at
69 tropospheric levels, there is a significant warming signal in recent decades that peaks in the Svalbard
70 region, and more generally, in the North Atlantic sector of the Arctic (Dahlke and Maturilli, 2017).
71 Rates there are up to four times the global average since 1979 (Rantanen et al., 2022b).
72 Glaciers and ice caps in the Svalbard archipelago cover an area of $\sim 34,000 \text{ km}^2$, representing about
73 6% of the world’s glacier area outside the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets. Svalbard glaciers
74 contain $7740 \pm 1940 \text{ km}^3$ (or Gigaton; Gt) of ice, sufficient to raise global sea level by $1.7 \pm 0.5 \text{ cm}$ if

75 totally melted (Schuler et al., 2020; Geyman et al., 2022; van Pelt et al., 2019). As a result of both
76 Arctic Amplification and their peculiar position at the edge of Arctic sea ice retreat, they are
77 experiencing among the fastest warming on Earth (Noël et al., 2020).

78 Ongoing climate trends also affect the state of the seasonal snowpack in Svalbard (Østby et al., 2017;
79 van Pelt et al., 2016), with the number of days with snow-cover on the ground in Longyearbyen
80 decreasing from 253 (1976-1997) to 219 (2006-2018) (data from Monitoring of Svalbard and Jan
81 Mayen, mosj.no). The change in the Svalbard climate also has strong repercussions for the entire
82 environment of the archipelago, leading to an increase in frequency of Rain on Snow (RoS) events
83 (Wickström et al., 2020; Salzano et al., 2023) which lead to pervasive ice layers (Sobota et al., 2020)
84 covering the ground, limiting access to food for reindeers (Peeters et al., 2019). It has also led to a
85 reduction in sea ice that is limiting and changing the hunting area of polar bears. These changes over
86 time might be captured in ice core records. Ice cores are commonly used to derive information about
87 past climate conditions and atmospheric composition, including traces of natural events such as
88 volcanic eruptions (Sigl et al., 2014), anthropogenic contamination (Vecchiato et al., 2020) and past
89 temperature variability (Wolff et al., 2010), revealing that abrupt climate changes have repeatedly
90 occurred over the last ice age. For example, during the so-called Dansgaard-Oeschger events,
91 temperatures rose by about 5°C within centuries (Boers, 2018). However, even during these natural
92 abrupt events, a complete transition from stadial (glacial) to interstadial (warm) conditions took about
93 a century (Scoto et al., 2022; Steffensen et al., 2008). Current temperature rise in Svalbard is much
94 faster than the one observed during the D-O events, with the annual mean surface air temperature
95 increasing on average by $+1.3 \text{ °C} \pm 0.7 \text{ °C}$ per decade, and winter mean temperature increasing by
96 $+3.1 \pm 2.4 \text{ °C}$ per decade (Dahlke et al., 2020; Maturilli et al., 2013).

97 Snowmelt and water percolation at the sampling site can move the chemical constituents across the
98 layers (Spolaor et al., 2021; Avak et al., 2019) disturbing the original signal. Prolonged events can
99 even fully compromise the preservation of the climatic information contained by ice cores. Avak et
100 al., (2019) showed that atmospheric composition was well preserved in an Alpine ice core during the
101 winter, but that the melting in the spring and early summer caused a preferential loss of certain major
102 ions and trace elements. In particular, the elution behavior of major ions is most likely controlled by
103 redistribution processes occurring during snow metamorphism, as underlined by recent work
104 investigating the distribution of impurities within the ice matrix (Bohleber et al., 2021). Variable
105 mobility has also been observed for trace elements, although they have been suggested to be better
106 preserved than major ions (Avak et al., 2019). Since the temperature is below the melting point ($<0 \text{ °C}$)
107 throughout the year, the Antarctic and the Greenland plateaus are the best locations for such studies,
108 nevertheless, rare melting events have been observed in the Greenland plateau (Bonne et al., 2015).

109 Beyond the polar regions, many other drilling sites have been investigated including the Alps
110 (Arienzo et al., 2021; Gabrielli et al., 2016; Schwikowski et al., 1999), the Himalayas (Thompson et
111 al., 2018; Dahe et al., 2000), the Andes mountain range (Hoffmann et al., 2003; Thompson et al.,
112 2021), the Canadian Arctic (Zdanowicz et al., 2018) and the Svalbard archipelago (Isaksson et al.,
113 2005; Wendl et al., 2015) to reconstruct the past atmospheric and climate condition as well as the
114 anthropogenic contamination (Vecchiato et al., 2020) in different and specific regions of the Earth.
115 There are several ice caps in Svalbard, but given their relatively low altitude, most are not suitable
116 for the preservation of a pristine climate archive. The glacier equilibrium line altitude (ELA) varies
117 across the different regions of the archipelago, but is generally situated between 300 to 700 m
118 a.s.l.(van Pelt et al., 2019). In the southern part of the archipelago, the ELA is lower due to the higher
119 winter snow accumulation, while in the northern part, the ELA rises to 600-700 m. Signal
120 preservation requires drilling to be above the ELA for regular snow accumulation, but also, so that
121 summer percolation only moderately affects the upper firn layers.
122 Several drilling operations have collected ice core records in the Svalbard archipelago. The longest
123 ice-core record (in time coverage) was collected from Lomonosovfonna, at 1230 m a.s.l., and covered
124 ~1200 years of Svalbard climate history (Divine et al., 2011) and was used in conjunction with a
125 more recent core drilled in Holtedahlfonna (1140 m a.s.l.) that covered the past 300 years to
126 reconstruct past winter surface air temperature for Svalbard based on isotopic analysis (Divine et al.,
127 2011). The authors were able to identify three major sub-periods providing valuable insights into the
128 historical temperature variations in Svalbard from this ice core. The first period, spanning from 800
129 to 1800, was characterized by a continuous decline in winter temperatures that occurred at a rate of
130 about 0.9 °C per century. The second period that occurred during the 1800s was the coldest century
131 in Svalbard, with a winter cooling of 4°C relative to the 1900s associated with the Little Ice Age.
132 Finally, based on the reconstructed temperature data, the authors identified a third period
133 characterized by rapid warming and the reduction in sea-ice extent as of the beginning of the 1900s.
134 These findings highlight the validity of using isotope data for temperature reconstructions.
135 Other Svalbard ice cores have also been retrieved from Austfonna (750 m. a.s.l.), covering
136 approximately 900 years and Vestfonna (600 m a.s.l.) covering approximately 500 years, and showed
137 that most of the chemical constituents contained in the initial snow cover remained in the ice cores,
138 although melt water percolation had led to their re-distribution (Watanabe et al., 2001) (Matoba et
139 al., 2002). The Holtedahlfonna ice core was also used to study major ions (Beaudon et al., 2013) and
140 when compared to the Lomonosovfonna core, the obtained record suggests that there are local
141 influences affecting the studied chemical species, possibly related to the proximity of the Greenland
142 Sea. In addition, east–west disparities between the cores were also apparent and were attributed to

143 different air mass sources for these two regions of the Svalbard Archipelago. Although part of the
144 signal variability of the Svalbard ice core was attributed to summer melting, a multi-year resolution
145 environmental record was preserved, likely due to the formation of thin ice layers in the annual
146 snowpack, which act as barriers to the deeper elution of ions. However, all these cores were recovered
147 in late 90s or early 2000s when the temperature rise due to Arctic Amplification was less extreme
148 and the current state of these ice caps and their validity for climate reconstruction is unknown.
149 In addition to deep-drilling, numerous investigations using shallow ice cores from the Holtedahlfonna
150 have consistently highlighted the site's significance for climate research (Burgay et al., 2021; Barbaro
151 et al., 2017; Ruppel et al., 2017). In light of the Arctic Amplification, Svalbard glaciers and the
152 climate signal they provide are in danger of being degraded, and their reliability for future climate
153 studies needs to be assessed. In order to do so, we conducted oxygen isotopic composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
154 analysis on a series of four shallow ice cores collected at the summit of the Holtedahlfonna ice field.
155 These ice cores were obtained in different years and cover overlapping atmospheric deposition
156 periods, offering insights into the evolution of isotopic stratigraphy over time. In this paper, we
157 focused on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ because it is a widely utilized parameter in ice core science for reconstructing past
158 temperature changes (Divine et al., 2011; Stenni et al., 2017) and it is comparatively less influenced
159 by melting and percolation events (Pohjola et al., 2002) than other chemical parameters analyzed in
160 ice cores. We compared the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signals among the different shallow cores and discuss the impact
161 of summer melting and meteorology using glacier mass balance measurements and snowpack
162 modeling.

163 **2. Methodology**

164 **2.1 The Holtedahlfonna ice field**

165 Holtedahlfonna (HDF – Figure 1) is the largest ice field (ca. 300 km²) in northwestern Spitsbergen,
166 located about 40 km from the Ny-Ålesund research station. It covers an elevation range of 0–1241 m
167 a.s.l. (Nuth et al., 2017) and the upper part of the glacier, located approximately at 1100 m a.s.l., has
168 a positive annual snow mass balance, ca. +0.50 m. w.e. a⁻¹(van Pelt et al., 2019). The site has already
169 been studied for long term paleoclimate reconstruction, covering the past 300 years (Divine et al.,
170 2011; Goto-Azuma et al., 1995). In April 2005, a 125 m a long ice core was drilled using an
171 electromechanical corer and the bottom temperature in the borehole was -3.3°C , assuring cold ice
172 conditions over the entire ice thickness. Ice temperature measured in the borehole featured a
173 maximum of -0.4°C at 15 m depth, indicative of firn-warming due to the release of latent heat from
174 refreezing (Beaudon et al., 2013).

175 **2.2 The Holtedahlfonna shallow firn cores: collection and processing**

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177 In the spring seasons of 2012, 2015, 2017 and 2019, a total of four shallow cores were obtained from
178 the summit of the Holtedahlfonna ice field (79°09'N, 13°23'E; 1150 m. a.s.l.). The shallow cores were
179 collected using a 4" fiberglass Kovacs Mark-II ice corer driller powered by an electric drill and
180 reached depths of 7-10 m into the firn. All shallow cores were drilled from the bottom of the annual
181 snowpack\last summer surface. Length and density of each firn core section were logged, stored in
182 plastic sleeves, and transported back to Ny-Ålesund for laboratory analysis. For cores collected in
183 2012, 2017 and 2019, core samples were processed in a class-100 laminar flow hood in the laboratory
184 of the Italian research station "*Dirigibile Italia*" in Ny-Ålesund. Core sections were cut into pieces of
185 5 to 7 cm length using a ceramic knife and the external part of the core physically removed to avoid
186 contamination. The density was measured for each sample produced. The core 2015 was processed
187 as reported in Ruppel et al. (2017).

188

189 **2.3 Oxygen stable isotope analysis ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)**

190 The samples for oxygen isotopic analyses ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) were melted at room temperature ($\approx 20^\circ\text{C}$) and
191 transferred into 2-mL clear glass vials filled to the top. Samples were kept refrigerated at $+4^\circ\text{C}$ and
192 analyzed at Ca Foscari University of Venice (2017 and 2019) and at Tallinn University of Technology
193 (2012 and 2015). In both cases, the isotopic measurements were carried out using a Picarro L1102-*i*
194 analyser coupled with a CTC Pal autosampler. The instrument uses Cavity Ring-Down Spectroscopy
195 (CRDS) technology, based on the unique near-infrared absorption spectrum of each gas-phase
196 molecule. The autosampler injects the melted sample into the vaporizer (set at 110°C), where it
197 becomes gaseous and is then transferred into the cavity (nitrogen is used as a carrier), in which the
198 measurement occurs. The instrument datasheet reports an analytical precision of ± 0.10 ‰ for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$.
199 Each sample was injected eight times: only results within $\pm \sigma$ from the 8-repetition average were kept
200 for records, while outliers were discarded. Internal isotopic standards periodically calibrated against
201 IAEA-certified standards (V SMOW 2 and SLAP 2) were used for calibration.

202

203 **2.4 Holtedahlfonna surface mass balance**

204 Surface mass balance (SMB) of Holtedahlfonna is monitored by the Norwegian Polar Institute
205 (Kohler, 2013). SMB is obtained from repeated field visits at the end of winters and summers, with
206 winter snow-depth sounding and density measurements and repeated height readings of an array of
207 stakes along the glacier centerline. Balance estimates are extrapolated over the entire glacier basin by
208 determining the balance as function of elevation and averaging them, applying weights determined
209 from the distribution of glacier area as a function of elevation. This method quantifies the glacier-
210 wide SMB, i.e., the mass changes at the surface of the glacier, and within near-surface layers, but

211 does not include internal mass changes below the last summer surface. SMB measurements at
212 Holtedahlfonna started in 2003; since the drilling site is in the accumulation area, these measurements
213 provide information of the seasonal accumulation, but disregard the internal accumulation that may
214 occur due to refreezing of meltwater in layers below the last summer surface. The uppermost part of
215 HDF has had a consistently positive mass balance and is therefore assumed to preserve most of its
216 annual snow deposition.

217

218 **2.5 Estimation of Meteorological condition at the summit of the Holtedahlfonna ice field**

219 In absence of in-situ meteorological measurements at the drill site, we obtained long-term seasonal
220 (DJF, MAM, JJA and SON) temperature and precipitation series from the high-resolution CARRA
221 dataset (Copernicus Arctic Regional Re-Analysis, Schyberg et al., 2020). This 2.5 km resolution
222 product covering the period 1991-2020 is downscaled from ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) using the
223 state-of-the-art weather prediction model HARMONIE-AROME (Bengtsson et al., 2017). CARRA
224 has several improvements compared to ERA5, including assimilation of a large amount of additional
225 surface observations, use of satellite data, and improved representation of sea ice; it is therefore likely
226 to provide the best estimate of meteorological conditions in the Barents Sea region.

227 The CARRA reanalysis is also used to force the CryoGrid community model (Westermann et al.,
228 2023) to simulate glacier mass balance, seasonal snowpack evolution and meltwater runoff across
229 Svalbard Franz-Joseph Land and Novaya Zemlya. The model couples the surface energy balance and
230 a multi-layer subsurface module to resolve meltwater production, percolation, storage, refreezing and
231 runoff, accounting for the interaction with local density and temperature stratigraphers. The vertical
232 discretization comprises 47 layers of variable vertical extent to cover the uppermost 20 m below the
233 surface (Steffensen Schmidt et al., 2023).

234

235 **3.RESULTS**

236 **3.1 Shallow firn core dating and alignment**

237 To date the core, we use the seasonal cycle (where present) of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data together with the mass
238 balance data available since 2003. Core depths were converted to water equivalent using the density
239 data acquired during the core processing. Density for the 2015 core is taken from Ruppel et al., (2017),
240 the 2012 values are published in (Spolaor et al., 2013), and density for the 2017 and 2019 cores are
241 presented in this work; density profiles of the four shallow cores (Figure S1) all reveal a similar
242 pattern.

243 The cores were collected within 50 m of the mass balance stake HDF-10. The stake measurements,
244 which show a consistently net positive mass balance (Figure 2), provide a historical record of

245 snowpack accumulation that can be directly used to assign a specific year to firn core depth range
246 (Figure 3).

247 Oxygen stable isotopes can be used independently to annually date the ice, but only in ice-core
248 archives where the seasonal signal is well preserved. This means that snow accumulation needs to be
249 sufficiently high, and the summer ablation should not compromise the stratigraphy by redistributing
250 and smoothing the original atmospheric signal. By combining the annual accumulation and the core
251 depth expressed in water equivalent and the seasonality of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (where available and preserved), we
252 can date and align all four cores (Figure 3).

253 The cores cover 14 years in total (from 2005 to 2018). The time coverage for each core is reported in
254 Table 1 together with additional information for each firn core. The 2012 core had a $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ average
255 value of -15.3 ± 1.0 ‰, the 2015 core a value of -15.1 ± 0.8 ‰, the 2017 core an average value of -
256 14.4 ± 0.7 ‰ and the 2019 core an average value -14.1 ± 1.2 ‰. Specific features overlap in the four
257 cores (Figure 3 and 6), and show a general increasing trend in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ from 2005 until 2018. In
258 particular, the 2012 and 2015 cores have similar fluctuations with shared features, particularly during
259 2005-2006, which was used for core alignment. They also showed similar features in the remaining
260 periods that they each covered, though with minor differences. The high $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values in 2013 that
261 occurred in the 2015 core are also clearly found in the 2017 core, helping to synchronize the records.
262 The alignment of the 2019 core with previous cores could only be done through mass balance values,
263 since the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values did not show the same peaks as the other records. In particular, the decrease in
264 $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values recorded in the period representing 2016 was not present in the 2017 core.

265 266 **3.2 Meteorological condition at the Holtedahlfonna ice field summit**

267 The meteorological conditions at the Holtedahlfonna ice field summit from 1991 to 2019 were
268 retrieved from model re-analysis and provide a clear overview of the on-going changes occurring at
269 the site.

270 The annual average winter temperatures (DJF) at the HDF summit (located at 1100 m a.s.l.) ranged
271 from -25°C to -15°C , and show an increasing trend of 2.37°C per decade for the period 1991–2019
272 (Figure 4a - blue line). The annual average spring and summer temperatures (MAM) ranged from -
273 17°C to -12°C (Figure 4a - green line) and -5°C to -1°C (Figure 4a - red line), respectively. The
274 average temperature increase per decade since 1991 was 0.38°C for spring and 0.51°C for summer.
275 The temperature during fall (SON) increased by 1.47°C per decade and ranged from -15°C and -5°C
276 (Figure 4a - brown line).

277 Although the average seasonal summer temperatures were below the water melting point, positive
278 degree days (PDD – Figure 4b, expressed as the sum of mean daily temperatures for all days during

279 a period where the temperature is above 0°C), occurred at the summit of HDF, causing snowpack
280 melting. The cumulative annual PDD, retrieved from model temperature series outputs, showed a
281 stable value for the period 1990 to 2015, although some years (1994, 1999, 2010) and periods (2001–
282 2006) were characterized by an increased PDD. A net increase from 2015 to the present time was
283 recorded. Snow melting at the site was clearly visible and confirmed by the presence of several ice
284 lenses in the core (Spolaor et al., 2013; Burgay et al., 2021).

285 The annual model estimated precipitation (1991–2019) ranged between 630 to 1170 mm w.e. per
286 year, with a slight increase in the most recent period (Figure 4d). A similar trend was also observed
287 in Ny-Ålesund (Førland et al., 2020). Seasonal precipitation (Figure S2) was most abundant during
288 fall (SON) and winter (DJF), with an average precipitation of 286 mm w.e. and 274 mm w.e,
289 respectively, and a relative average contribution of 32% and 31%, respectively, to the total deposition.
290 The lowest precipitation occurred in spring (MAM) and summer, with an average precipitation of
291 170 mm w.e. and 145 mm w.e., respectively, which represents an average contribution of 20% of the
292 total deposition in spring and 17% of the total precipitation in summer.

293 Although the annual mass balance was always positive, the summer mass balance was both positive
294 and negative depending on the meteorological conditions (Figure 2). The winter accumulation
295 represented between 60% and 100% of the net annual mass balance at the site. Even though the
296 summer mass balance data from 2015 to 2020 were positive, melting also occurred and water
297 percolated into the snow and firn before refreezing.

298 Most of the melting occurred during the summer period (JJA), but melting events also occurred during
299 fall and late spring (Figure S3). The estimated annual melting at the site from 1991-2020 (Figure 4c)
300 varied between 960 mm w.e (2020) and 117 mm w.e (2008) and showed a clear increasing tendency
301 following temperature rise. Moreover, autumn snowpack melting events, previously rare, became a
302 more regular phenomenon in the period 2015 to 2019. However, spring snowmelt is sporadic (2011)
303 and rare.

304 In addition to meteorological reanalysis from the HARMONIE-AROME model, the CryoGrid
305 simulation provided information about the presence of liquid water in the firn and its penetration
306 (Figure 5). Percolation was mainly confined to the surface layer between 1991 (beginning of the
307 simulation) to the end of the 90s(except 1999). Percolation increased significantly from 2000
308 onwards. In particular, for the period 2004-2005, severe surface melt events occurred (Figure 2c and
309 Figure S3), causing water percolation for several meters (Figure 5). The 2006 to 2014 period was
310 characterized by relatively limited surface melting and the lowest amount of percolated water, which
311 did not exceed one (2006 and 2008) to four (2010 and 2011) annual snow accumulation periods.
312 Based on the model's calculations, water percolation increased since 2014 and was able to reach

313 deeper firn strata. Although the model suggests the presence of liquid water in the firn, water and
314 elution channels are complex to simulate and likely present high spatial variability. Hence, we only
315 consider the data presented in Figure 5 in a qualitative manner to evaluate the possible presence or
316 absence of liquid water within the snowpack and its theoretical penetration\percolation depth.

317

318 **4. DISCUSSION**

319 The aim of this paper is to evaluate the effect of temperature rise on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ Holtedahlfonna ice core
320 signal preservation. Our discussion will focus only on the periods covered by the shallow cores.

321 Based on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records of the four shallow cores, it is evident that the seasonal signal for the core
322 2019 and 2017 experienced considerable changes and progressively deteriorated. While wind
323 redistribution can transport snow, it primarily affects snow deposited at similar altitudes, which tends
324 to have a similar water stable isotope fingerprint. It is highly improbable that snow deposited at lower
325 elevations could be lifted and deposited at the summit of Holtedahlfonna in quantities sufficient
326 enough to completely degrade the climate signal preserved in the ice. Moreover, analysis of wind
327 patterns in Ny-Ålesund does not indicate any significant shifts or changes in average wind velocities
328 (Cisek et al., 2017).

329 We hypothesize that the most important parameters affecting the pristine atmospheric signal trapped
330 in the snow is the amount of snow melting, which depends on the snow and meteorological
331 conditions, and the penetration of the melt water into the snowpack.

332 In the core collected in 2012 (Figure 3), the seasonal variations are clear for almost the entire period
333 except for 2004-2005, a period characterized by significant summer melt that disturbed the
334 atmospheric signal trapped in the ice. However, for the period 2006-2011, the seasonality is clear and
335 each $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seasonal cycle is confined within the annual snow mass balance measurements.

336 The 2015 core still presented the seasonal cycle in the upper half of the core, corresponding to the
337 second period (2010-2014). However, the seasonal feature of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ identified in the 2012 core for
338 the periods 2008–2009 was no longer present, suggesting a possible elution caused by the percolation
339 of liquid water (Figure 5). The model simulation supports the possibility that post deposition events
340 may have occurred within the firn due to the percolation of liquid water.

341 The most striking change in terms of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seasonal cycle occurred in the 2017 core. The 2017
342 core overlapped with the 2015 core for the period 2012-2014 and, while the seasonality for this period
343 was well defined in the 2015 core, only the seasonal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for year 2013 was visible in the 2017 core.

344 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seasonal cycle of 2014 has undergone significant smoothing and the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seasonal cycle in
345 2012 is no longer visible. For the period 2015-2016, the seasonal cycle was not clear, although
346 oscillations were still present.

347 In the most recent core collected in 2019, a seasonal $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ cycle could no longer be detected and
348 particular features, such as the drop in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in 2016 (not observed in the 2017 core), was
349 not linked to a drop in the temperature, since 2016 was the warmest year on record (Figure 6, red
350 dots).

351 Two independent statistical analyses, one using the significant value of a regression model and the
352 other using the spectral analysis, were performed on the shallow core records to test the presence of
353 seasonal oscillation on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal. Both statistical analyses demonstrated the disappearance of
354 the seasonal signal in the most recent (2017 and 2019) shallow cores (full details are reported in the
355 supplementary material - section 2). Using the linear regression model for each core and each year,
356 we first identified the maximum and the minimum for the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal (Figure 6) and then calculated
357 the weighted slope between each extreme value (Figure 7). We determined the annual maximum and
358 minimum values by referencing the annual mass balance dating for individual shallow cores (Figure
359 3). Specifically, within the time windows defined by the mass balance values, we pinpointed the
360 extreme values closest to the start or conclusion of the glaciological year, while adhering to the
361 alternating pattern between maximum and minimum values. The significant values of the seasonality
362 of the weighted slope considering the increasing and decreasing periods separately is presented in
363 Table S1. A significant seasonality (p-value < 0.05) is only observed in 2012 and 2015 ice cores.

364 The change in the seasonal patterns of precipitation, and to a lesser degree, the overall quantity, could
365 have influenced the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal of the four cores. However, from the model results, the seasonal
366 contribution to the total annual precipitation did not change significantly (Figure S2). This would
367 suggest that precipitation does not play a central role in explaining the degradation, or possible
368 change, in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal, and that increased melting and water percolation might have had a larger
369 effect. Instead, the increase in year-round precipitation could enhance melt water formation during
370 the summer periods. The preservation of the ice core climate signal strongly depends on the amount
371 of snow melt during summer and the capability of water to penetrate the snowpack, which in turn is
372 controlled by snow temperature. The progressive atmospheric warming, the increase of summer
373 melting and water percolation as well as the water movement within the snowpack could all have had
374 an impact on the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal present in the Hoftedahlfonna firn\ice.

375 The progressive degradation and loss of the seasonality of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in the shallow core (2004
376 - 2018) is also supported by the results obtained from the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal in the 2005 core. In the deep
377 core collected in 2005, the seasonal signal of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ in the period 1960 to 2000 was well preserved
378 (Figure S5). The signal determined in the 2005 Hoftedahlfonna deep ice core shared similar features
379 with those determined in the 2012 and 2015 shallow cores, where the seasonal oscillations were still
380 partially present, but not with signals determined in the 2017 and 2019 cores, where the seasonality

381 in $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ almost disappeared. We suggest that since 2015, estimated melting and percolation increased
382 because of the evolution of the general atmospheric conditions, causing a deterioration of the climate
383 signal preserved in the firn\ice.

384 Water stable isotopes are commonly used as a temperature proxy. By overlapping the water stable
385 isotope profiles measured in the shallow cores and, comparing their trends with the annual average
386 temperature, we suggest that the general atmospheric temperature trend is still preserved within the
387 HDF ice (Figure 8), although some clear deterioration is visible. For example, the highest annual
388 temperature values recorded in 2016 were not mirrored in the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ record from the 2017 and 2019
389 cores. This underscores the impact of high temperatures on the preservation of pristine atmospheric
390 signals in ice cores that have significantly impacted the preservation of the atmospheric signal, since
391 temperature values.

392

393 **5. Conclusion**

394 An ice core drilled at the summit of Holtedahlfonna has previously been used to provide atmospheric
395 and climate conditions about the past 300 years. Before 2005, the site was characterized by moderate
396 summer melting, yet the snow and ice analysed proved to preserve important climate information as
397 well as the main seasonal features. The current warming of the Svalbard archipelago has clearly
398 enhanced glacial mass loss, with a rise in the equilibrium line altitude and a shorter snow season. This
399 study is the first investigating the impact of temperature rise on climate signal preservation within the
400 firn\ice in one of the highest ice fields in Svalbard. The direct effect of higher temperatures has
401 increased summer melt and enhanced meltwater percolation. In this study, we have shown that the
402 climate signal preserved in the ice has been progressively deteriorated. For example, in seven years,
403 the seasonal signal visible in the 2012 core has completely disappeared in the 2019 core, most likely
404 due to increased snow summer melting and water percolation. However, although the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ seasonal
405 signal has disappeared, the overall atmospheric warming signature is still preserved in the ice\firn,
406 suggesting that the site is still suitable for long record paleoclimate reconstruction. However, with
407 the current warming rate of the Svalbard archipelago and the consequent increase in summer melting,
408 Holtedahlfonna and other ice fields at similar altitudes might no longer provide suitable records of
409 the climatic condition. Glaciers worldwide are currently not only losing mass at unprecedented rates,
410 but also the climatic information they contain.

411

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424

425 **Author contribution**

426 AS, EB, FS, JCG, CL, MB, JG, FB, and DC conceived the experiment and collected the samples and
427 wrote the paper with the support of all co-authors; CT, TM, GD and BS analyze the samples; JK
428 provide the field mass balance data and contribute in data interpretation; LSS and TVS provide the
429 model data and atmospheric re-analysis; FdB and MC perform the statistical exercise and contribute
430 in data interpretation. BL and FD contribute to data interpretation. DD and EI provide the data from
431 previous ice core and contribute to data interpretation.

432

433 **Data availability**

434 The $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ data from shallow ice cores will be available at this link
435 (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10404940>).

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437 **Competing interests**

438 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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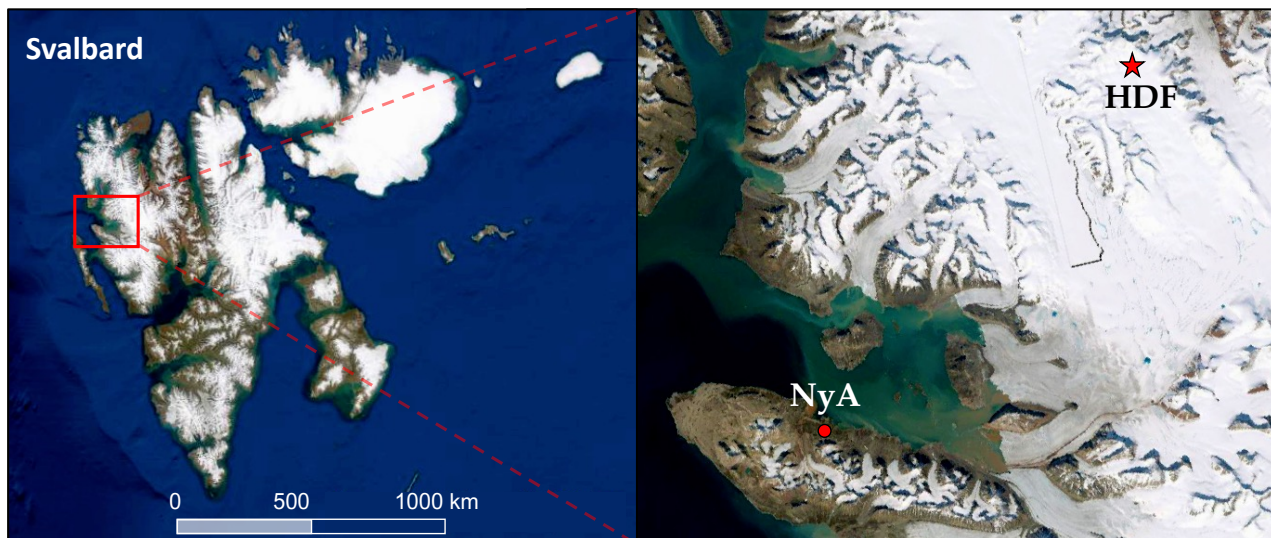
455 **FIGURES**

456

457 **Figure 1.** Location of the drilling site (red star) within the Holtedahlfonna (HDF) ice field as
458 compared to the Ny-Ålesund research village (NyA). Maps from <https://toposvalbard.npolar.no> (last
459 access: 5th June 2023).

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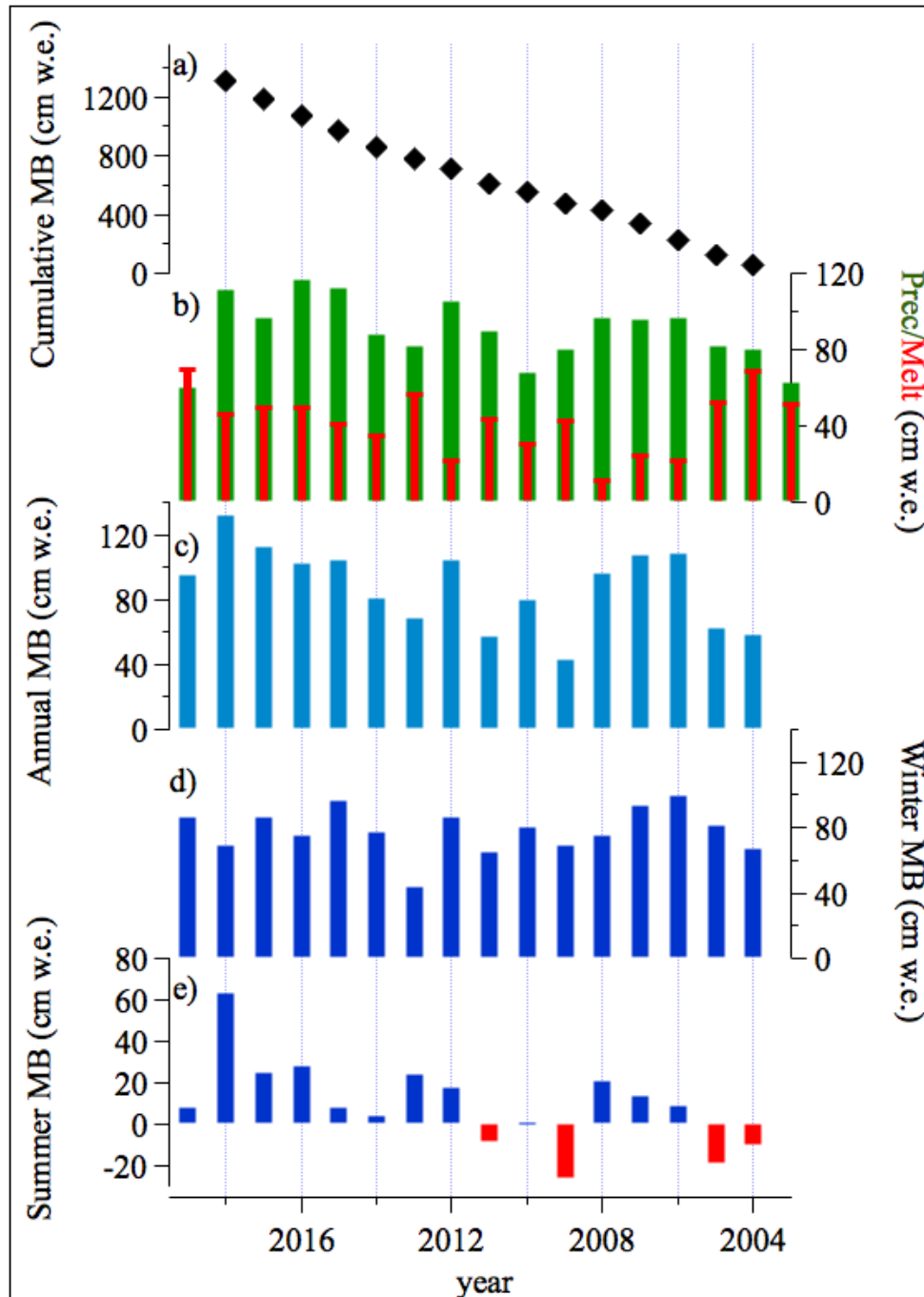
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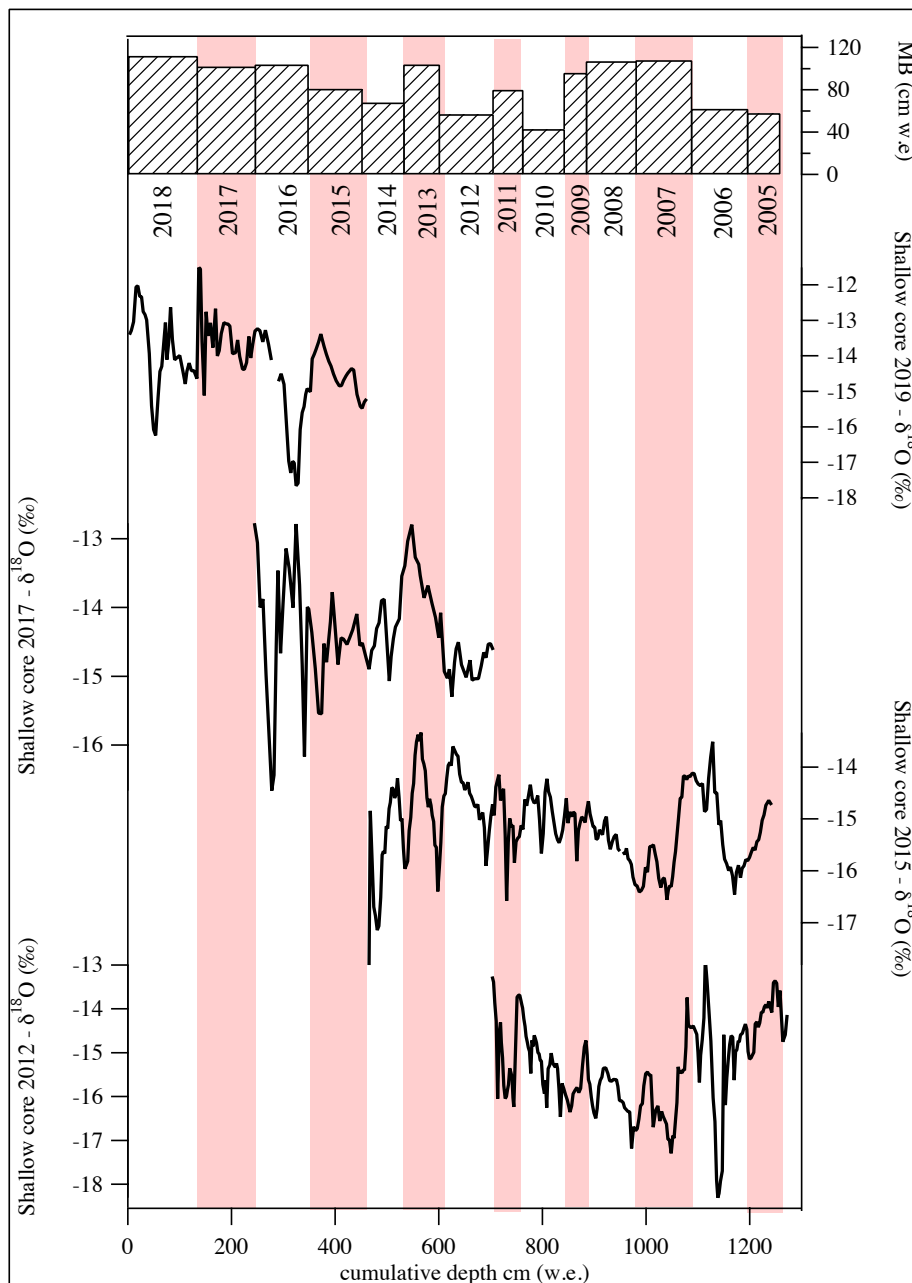
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492 **Figure 2.** Mass balance measurements, modelled precipitation and snow melt at the drilling site for
 493 the period 2004-2019. a) cumulative surface mass balance (SMB) expressed in cm of w.e., b)
 494 comparison of modeled total annual precipitation (green – in mm w.e) and modeled melt (red in mm
 495 w.e). c-e) net, winter and summer mass balance (cm w.e.) measured at the top of the Holtedahlfonna
 496 ice field, respectively.
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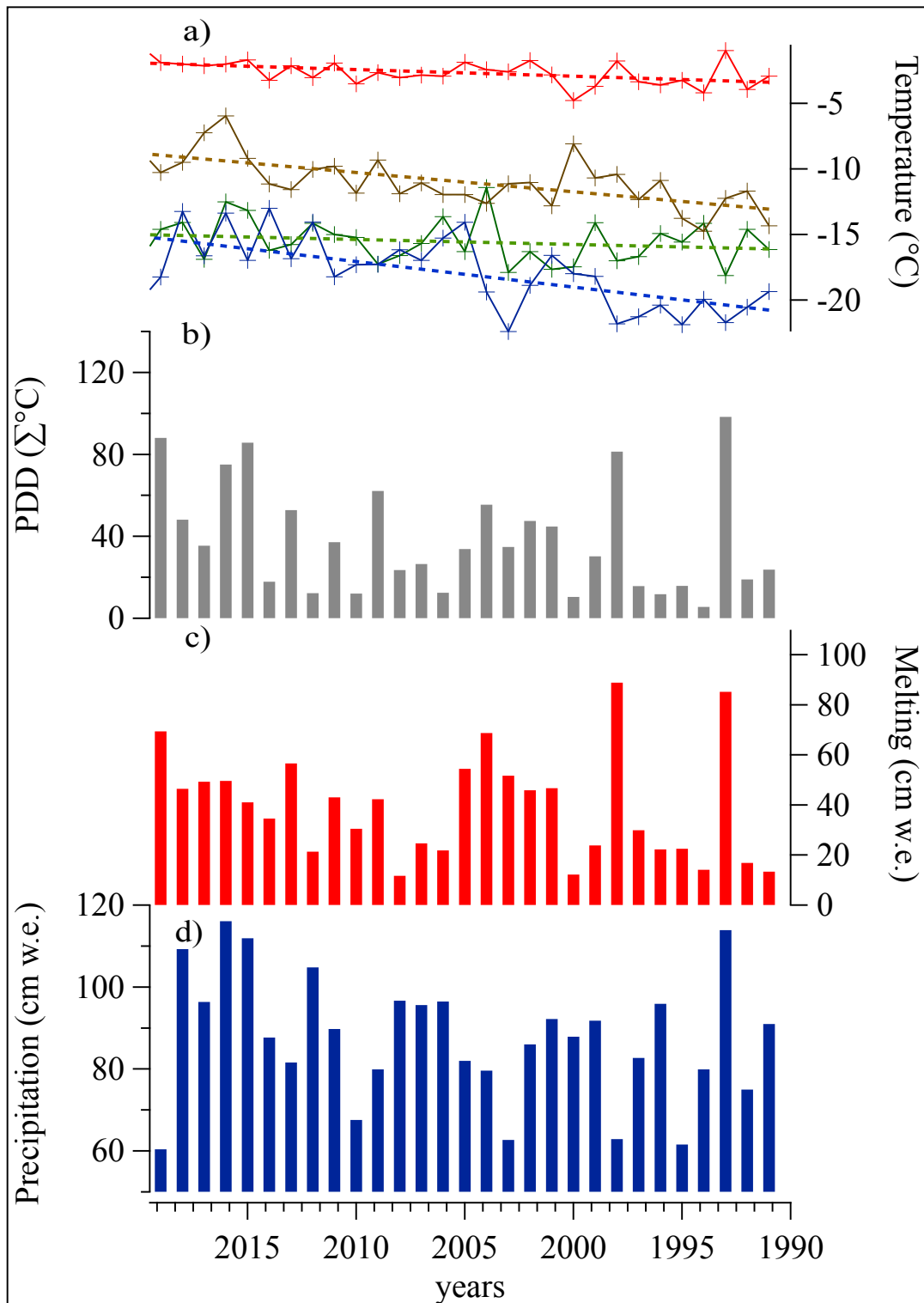


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506 **Figure 3. Oxygen stable isotope profiles** $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ of the shallow cores. The shallow core was aligned
 507 by converting the depth to depth expressed in cm of w.e. using the annual mass balance (MB) data.
 508 The white and pink colors distinguish different years based on the MB measurements and are reported
 509 in the upper panel. The “0 cm” value refers to the last summer snow surface.
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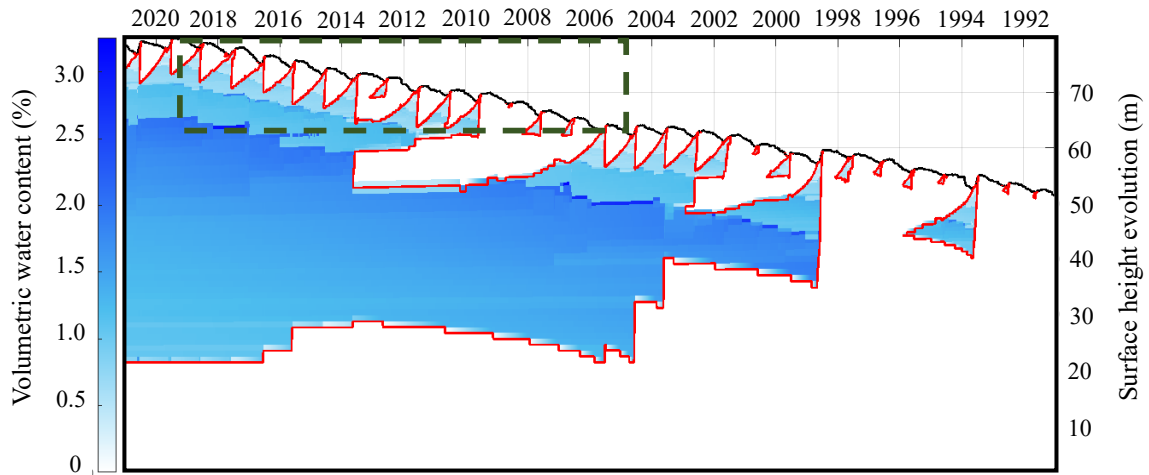


557 **Figure 4.** Modeled meteorological conditions at the Holtedahlfonna shallow core drilling site (1150
 558 m a.s.l.) from 1991 to 2019 at seasonal resolution. a) winter (DJF - blue), spring (MAM - green),
 559 summer (JJA - red) and fall (SON - brown) temperatures, with increasing trend line for the period
 560 investigated. b) annual PDD value (grey). c) annual melting (in mm w.e in red). d) annual total
 561 precipitation (in mm w.e. - blue)
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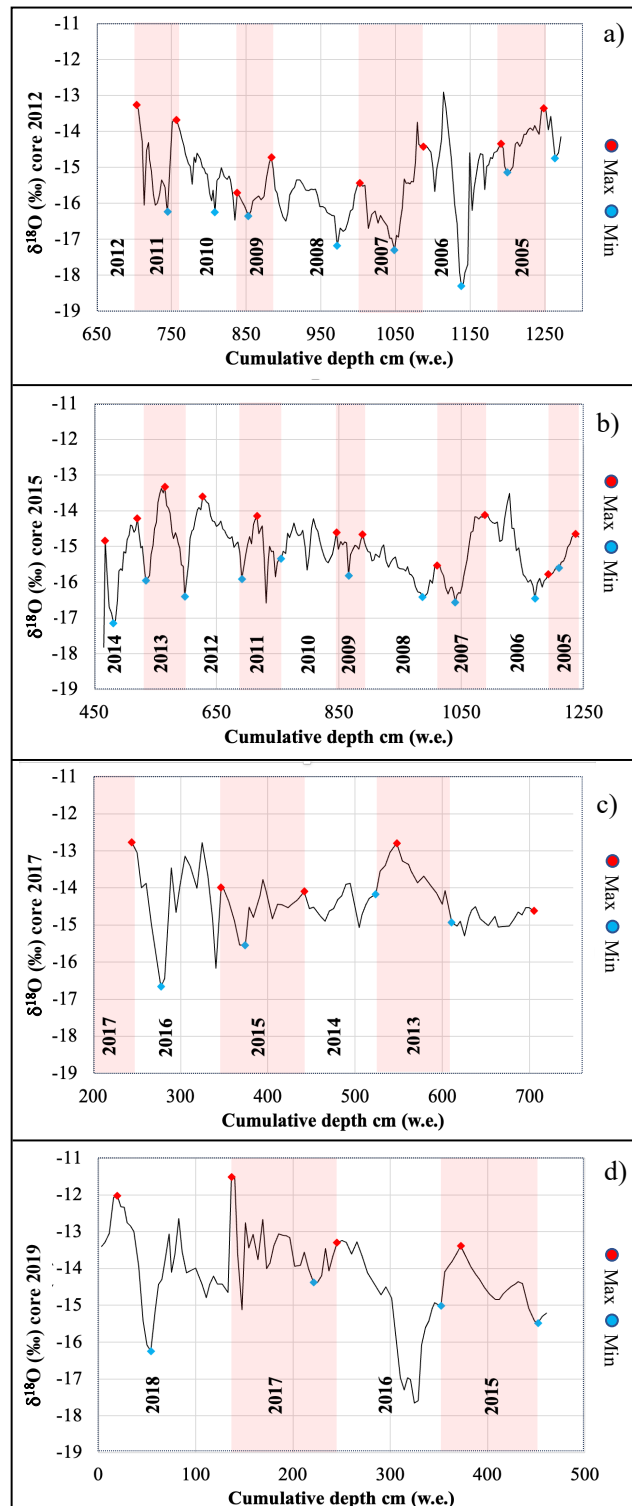
568 **Figure 5.** Evolution of the water content in the snowpack at the top of Høltedahlfonna estimated by
569 model simulation between 1990 and 2020. The chart shows the volumetric water content (%) in the
570 snow/firn (white to blue color), surface height evolution (black line), 0° C isotherm (red). Dashed
571 lines show the period covered by the four shallow cores.
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596 **Figure 6.** Identification of the annual minimum and maximum values of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (red and blue points)
597 based on the annual mass balance dating for the four shallow cores (panel a – 2012 core, panel b –
598 2015 core, panel c – 2017 core, panel d – 2019 core).



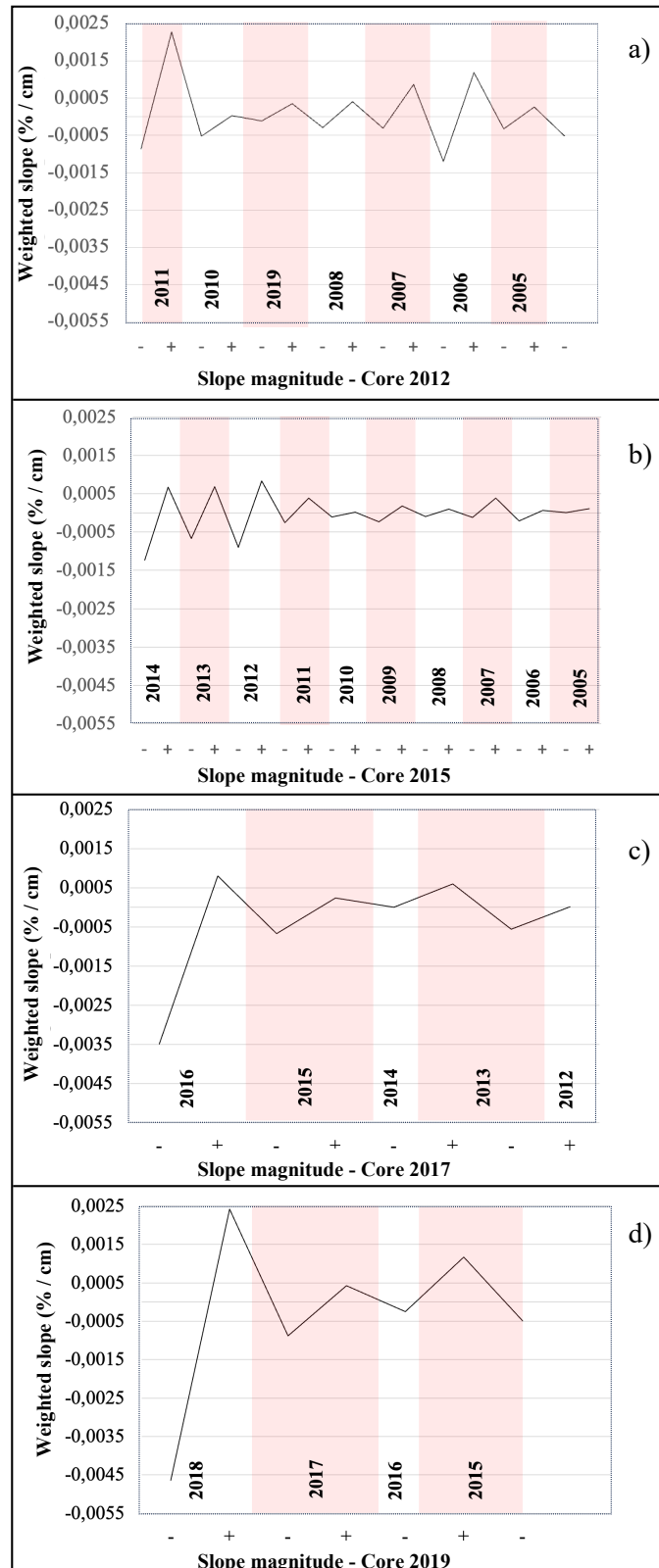
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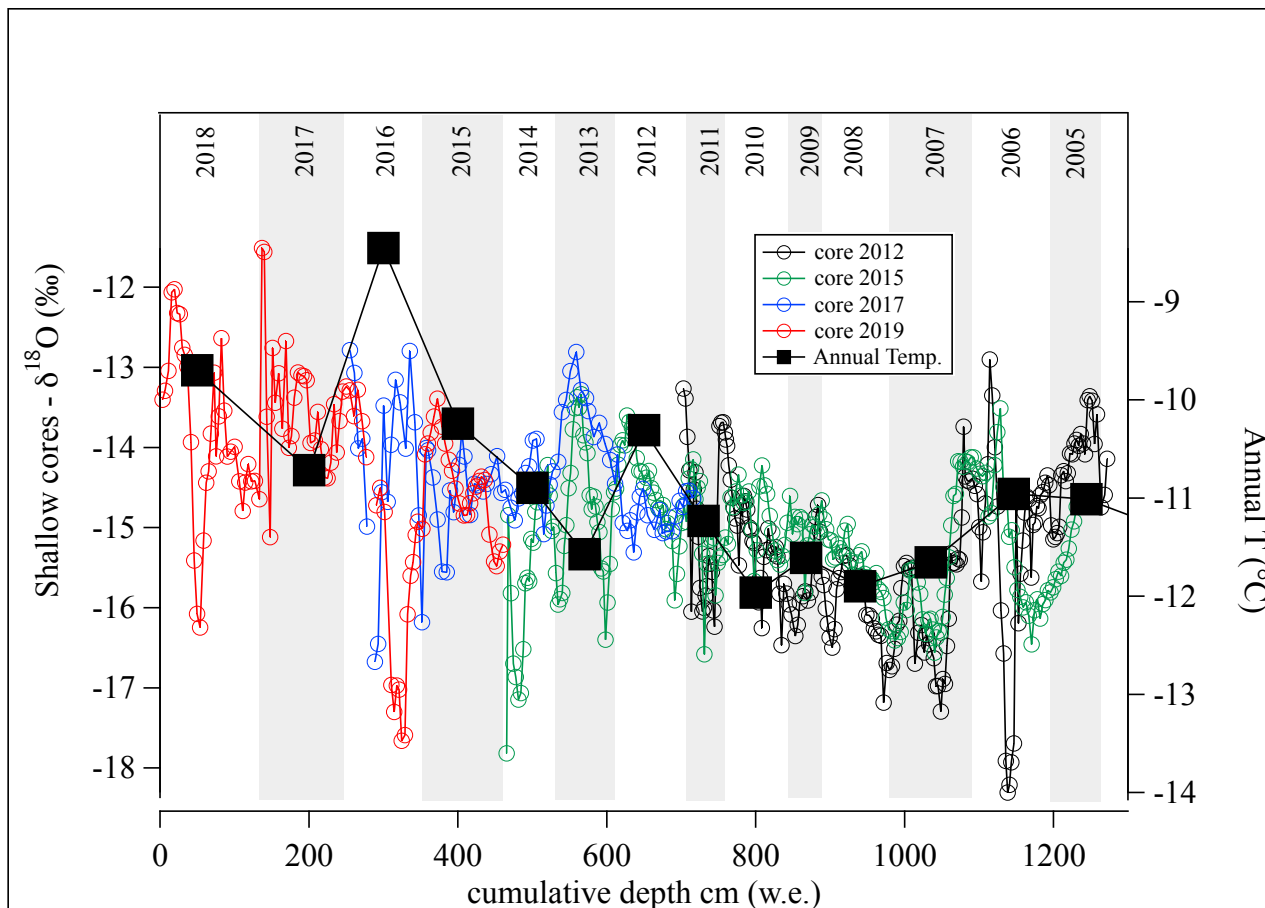
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603 **Figure 7.** Representation of the slope between the annual maximum and minimum value of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$
 604 weighted on the percent difference in the value of $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ for each annual mass balance for the four
 605 shallow cores. The black line represents the trend of weighted slope change along the years (panel a
 606 – 2012 core, panel b – 2015 core, panel c – 2017 core, panel d – 2019 core).



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610 **Figure 8.** Estimated annual average temperature at the top of Holtedahlfonna ice field (black square)
 611 obtained from the monthly atmospheric re-analysis data as describe in section 2.5 and presented in
 612 figure S4. The circles representing the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signal of the four shallow cores (black circle for the 2012
 613 core, green circles for the 2015 core, blue circle for the 2017 core and red circle for the 2019 core).
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637 **TABLES**

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639 **Table 1.** Shallow ice core descriptions. The table reports the length expressed in cm and in water
 640 equivalent (w.e.) and the estimated (Est. start year\Est. end year) time coverage. The average density
 641 of the cores is also reported.

642

Core ID	Length (cm)	Length (cm w.e.)	Ave density (kgL ⁻¹)	Est. Start year	Est. End year	Drilling period	Reference
2019	769	461	0.60	2018	2012	April 2019	This work
2017	736	466	0.63	2016	2010	April 2017	<i>Burgay et a. 2021</i>
2015	1185	832	0.70	2014	2005	May 2015	<i>Ruppel et al. 2017</i>
2012	954	575	0.60	2011	2005	April 2012	<i>Spolaor et al. 2013</i>

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