

Sedimentology and architecture of De Geer moraines in the western Scottish Highlands, and implications for grounding-line glacier dynamics

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Abstract

Sedimentary exposures in moraines in a Scottish Highland valley (Glen Chaorach), reveal stacked sequences of bedded and laminated silt, sand and gravel, interspersed or capped with diamicton units. In four examples, faults and folds indicate deformation by glaciotectonism and syndepositional loading. We propose that these sediments were laid down in an ice-dammed lake, close to the last ice margin to occupy this glen. Individual units within cross-valley De Geer moraine ridges are interpreted by comparison with examples from similar environments elsewhere: stratified diamictons containing laminated or bedded lenses are interpreted as subaqueous ice-marginal debris flows; massive fine-grained deposits as hyperconcentrated flows, and massive gravel units as high-density debris flows. Using an allostratigraphic approach we argue that glaciotectonically deformed coarsening-upward sand and gravel sequences that culminate in deposition of subglacial diamicton represent glacier advances into the ice-marginal lake, whereas undisturbed cross-bedded sand and gravel reflects channel or fan deposits laid down during glacier retreat. A flat terrace of bedded sand and gravel at the northern end of Glen Chaorach is interpreted as subaerial glaciofluvial outwash. On the basis of these inferences we propose the following three stage deglacial event chronology for Glen Chaorach. During glacier recession, ice separation and intra-lobe ponding first led to subaqueous deposition of sorted and unsorted facies. Subsequent glacier stabilisation and ice-marginal oscillation produced glaciotectonic structures in the ice-marginal sediment pile and formed De Geer moraines. Finally, drainage of the ice-dammed lake allowed a subaerial ice-marginal drainage system to become established. Throughout deglaciation, deposition within the lake was characterized by abrupt changes in grain size and in the architecture of individual sediment bodies, reflecting changing delivery paths and sediment supply, and by dynamic

margin oscillations typical of water-terminating glaciers.

KEYWORDS: De Geer moraine; ice-dammed lake; grounding line; Younger Dryas; Scotland

SHORT TITLE: De Geer moraines in western Scotland

‘Water-terminating glaciers’ are those whose margins are at least partially floating, either in a marine setting or in an ice-marginal lake. They play a key role in ice sheet mass balance by facilitating episodic calving of potentially large volumes of ice – a process evident at the periphery of modern polar ice sheets (Rignot & Kanagaratnam, 2006) – and may be responsible for greater mass loss from the glacier system than terrestrial margins (Reeh, 1968; Paterson, 1994). Consequently there is a clear need for effective recognition of their signature in the geological record if we are to fully appreciate the behavioural dynamics of former ice masses, and any connection these may have to the climatic or internal forcings that gave rise to them (e.g. Peck *et al.*, 2007).

Glaciers terminating in water become buoyant where the depth of water is sufficient to counter the thickness-dependent normal stress of the ice margin, according to the difference in their relative densities. Extensional flow towards the margin, due to reduced basal drag, as well as flexuring induced by water-level fluctuation, leads to the development of both basal and surface crevasses. Calving occurs when surface crevasse depths equal the height of the ice cliff above water level, and it is the pattern of these major crevasses – or rifts – that controls the location of slab or block detachment (Benn *et al.*, 2007a,b). As a consequence of these specific conditions, floating margins are susceptible to rapid and cyclical fluctuations in the location of their grounding line, giving rise to distinctive landform suites known as De Geer moraines, the form and composition of which reflect the dynamics of the glacier under which they formed. Accurate identification of these diagnostic landforms and sediments therefore plays an important role in identifying water-terminating glacier margins in all previously glaciated terrains, regardless of whether the water body is marine or lacustrine.

Terrestrial De Geer moraines within the limits of the last British Ice Sheet have more-or-less escaped attention until now, especially those formed by Younger Dryas age glaciers. Dix & Duck (2000) present the only description of such landforms from Scotland, based on seismic stratigraphic data from a sea loch on the Isle of Skye. They conclude that at least one of the marine-terminating glaciers draining the Younger Dryas Skye ice cap reworked earlier deposits and formed push moraines at its grounding line during a period of oscillatory retreat early in deglaciation. As yet, however, no published studies specifically describe De Geer moraines from mountainous areas of Scotland, despite the very likely occurrence of such landforms in areas of high relief

35 where separating or retreating ice margins flowed against reverse slopes and impounded
36 meltwater (e.g. Borgström, 1979; Benn *et al.*, 2003; Heyman & Hättestrand, 2006).

37

38 Whilst some workers differ in their interpretations of De Geer moraine genesis, most
39 are agreed on the general scale, context and morphology of these landforms (Table 1).
40 Typically these moraines are less than 10 m high, a few tens of metres in width, and sev-
41 eral hundreds of metres long. They form subaqueously at or near ice margins, and are
42 aligned transverse to iceflow. Originally described by De Geer (1889), and named after
43 him by Hoppe (1959), these features are also known as ‘minor moraines’ (Lee, 1959;
44 Smith, 1982), ‘washboard moraines’ (Mawdsley, 1936), ‘transverse eskers’ (Virkkala,
45 1963) and ‘cross-valley moraines’ (Andrews & Smithson, 1966; Heyman & Hättestrand,
46 2006). Although the origin of De Geer moraines is widely debated, two main interpre-
47 tations are favoured. One explanation for these linear, closely spaced moraines is that
48 they formed subglacially in crevasses at the glacier bed, some distance behind a calving
49 margin (Zilliacus, 1989). Surge advance of a glacier margin produces stresses parallel
50 to the ice front, leading to the development of basal crevasses. Where the advanced
51 margin is initially floating, subsequent settling of the crevassed glacier sole into un-
52 consolidated sediment leads to bi-directional squeezing and infilling of the cavity. A
53 variation on this interpretation is favoured by Sollid (1989) and Beaudry & Prichonnet
54 (1991), who invoke subglacial deposition from meltwater within the basal crevasses in
55 preference to sediment squeezing to explain the glaciofluvial sediment within De Geer
56 moraines in northern Norway and southeast Canada, respectively. Both mechanisms
57 necessitate rapid lift-off and almost instantaneous recession of the glacier in order to pre-
58 serve these landforms and avoid any reworking during subsequent marginal oscillations.

59

60 TABLE 1

61

62 Others have suggested a quite different mode of formation. This alternative model
63 requires deposition of sorted sediments beyond the grounding line of a water-terminating
64 glacier, and subsequent deformation of these sediments into transverse ridges by ice-
65 marginal advance (Larsen *et al.*, 1991; Blake, 2000; Dix & Duck, 2000; Lindén & Möller,
66 2005). In this scenario, stacked sequences of fine-grained sediments are common, and
67 diamicton units are interpreted as redeposited (water-lain) till, lodgement till, or sub-
68 aqueous debris-flow deposits. Characteristically, De Geer moraines are seen to form at

69 the grounding line of a glacier, whether the margin is a floating tongue, an overhanging
70 cliff, or is completely grounded and only calving above the waterline. Few workers
71 claim chronological inferences from De Geer moraines, as originally proposed (De Geer,
72 1889), but many accept that the accurate genetic interpretation of their sedimentary
73 and geomorphological characteristics can be highly instructive with respect to under-
74 standing former glacier dynamics at retreating margins.

75

76 Here we describe a series of sedimentary exposures in the De Geer moraines of Glen
77 Chaorach in the western Scottish Highlands, in order to better understand sedimento-
78 logical processes and glacier dynamics at water-terminating margins. Exposed sections
79 at nine localities are interpreted by comparing their constituent facies with those from
80 other deglaciated environments. By coupling the sedimentology with architectures sug-
81 gestive of glaciotectonic deformation, we present an allostratigraphic interpretation in
82 which we make inferences with respect to the dynamics of the former outlet glacier
83 during overall ice-cap recession. The resulting event chronology identifies three key
84 stages of deglaciation – glacier separation, intra-lobe lake development with ice-margin
85 fluctuation, and final lake drainage associated with deglaciation.

86

87 Study area

88 In the western Scottish Highlands climatic deterioration during the latter stages of the
89 Windermere (Allerød) Interstadial (c. 14.5-12.9 ka BP) instigated the regrowth of an
90 ice cap that extended 150 km from north to south and around 50 km from east to west
91 (Sissons, 1980; Thorp, 1986; Ballantyne, 1997) (Fig. 1). The ice cap consisted of a
92 major dome over Rannoch Moor feeding outlet glaciers south to Loch Lomond, west to
93 Loch Awe, Loch Etive, and Glen Coe, north through Loch Ericht, and eastwards via
94 Loch Rannoch, Glen Lyon and Glen Dochart (Thompson, 1972; Sissons, 1979; Horsfield,
95 1983; Thorp, 1986; Golledge, 2006, 2007). Separate icefields accumulated around the
96 fringes of the main ice mass, and fed topographically constrained valley glaciers that
97 deposited suites of ‘hummocky moraine’ and other ice-marginal landforms during their
98 retreat (Bennett & Boulton, 1993; Lukas, 2005; Benn & Ballantyne, 2005; Bradwell,
99 2006; Finlayson, 2006).

100 FIGURE 1

During the Younger Dryas glaciation a major eastward-flowing outlet glacier – the Dochart Glacier – drained a significant part of the main ice cap by connecting Strath Fillan to Loch Tay, where the glacier is thought to have terminated (Thompson, 1972; Sissons, 1979). Glen Chaorach is a south-trending tributary valley of Glen Dochart (Fig. 2), and during deglaciation it hosted an embayed marginal lobe of the Dochart Glacier. At its northern end, the valley is characterised by abundant morainic landforms, valley-side till cover, and spreads of glaciofluvial sand and gravel. Higher ground to the south has a somewhat sparser distribution of moraines, with thinner, less extensive till cover and with more widespread evidence of bedrock at or near surface.

111

112 FIGURE 2

113

114 **Geomorphology and context of exposures**

The landforms of Glen Chaorach are predominantly elongate ridges that trend obliquely across the axis of the valley from approximately southwest to northeast (Fig. 2). The ridges are linear or weakly curvilinear and are convex either up- or down-valley. They are typically less than 10 m high, 20 to 35 m wide, and up to 100 m in length. Inter-ridge spacing varies between 30 and 400 m, and individual ridges are typically asymmetric with a steeper southern side (Table 1). In Glen Dochart, rounded mounds up to 20 m high and 150 m long rise above the present valley floor. These typically larger features are less elongate than those in Glen Chaorach. Between these two groups of mounds are terraces, the flat surfaces of which are locally punctuated with discrete rounded mounds up to 5 m high. Several large channels up to 500 m long incise the terraces, in many cases originating above the terraces on till or bedrock slopes, and in all cases descending to the northeast. Many of the higher slopes flanking Glen Chaorach are free of superficial deposits, and largely consist of approximately flat-lying metasedimentary bedrock. The rock is ice-scoured at elevations up to c. 550 m, and hosts perched boulders in some areas (Fig. 2). At these higher levels, glacial meltwater has exploited structural weaknesses in the bedrock and incised northeast-trending channels up to c. 5 m deep.

132

The sedimentary sequences described here are all located in the lower, northern part of Glen Chaorach. The nine sections described were identified and logged during

resurvey of the area by the British Geological Survey in 2006. All of the sections except NRG 216 and 213 occur within the cross-valley ridges described above. NRG 216 is cut into a terrace contiguous with one of these ridges, while NRG213 incises a considerably more extensive terrace at the confluence of Glen Chaorach and Glen Dochart. In addition to these key sections, a number of smaller or less well-exposed sections in stratified sediments were also noted (Fig. 2). Table 2 summarises the facies present and the basis for their interpretation, drawing on examples from both relict and active glaciofluvial, glaciolacustrine and glaciomarine environments. Figure 3 shows the stratigraphic relationships of these facies types at each of the nine key localities, in an approximately south to north sequence. An allostratigraphic approach, based on the recognition of distinct ‘events’ within a depositional sequence (Walker, 1990; Lønne, 1995), is used to infer the glaciodynamic episodes shown in Figure 3. These include periods of ice-margin advance or recession when variability in sediment input is likely to be at its greatest (Teller, 2003).

TABLE 2

FIGURE 3

Sedimentological interpretation

Section NRG 212

This exposure occurs on the side of the valley rather than the valley floor, at an elevation of approximately 310 m. The massive to weakly laminated silt and sand (Facies 10/11) at the base of the exposed sequence (Fig. 3 A) was probably deposited relatively rapidly, perhaps from repeated hyperconcentrated flows that partially liquified previous flow deposits and dropped isolated ‘floating’ clasts. This requires subaqueous rather than subaerial deposition and suggests a minimum water level at the altitude of deposition (c. 310 m a.s.l. (above sea level)). The fine grain-size of the material may indicate a long transport path and deposition some distance from the glacier margin, or may simply be a function of sediment availability. Rhythmic deposition of overlying sorted gravel (Facies 5) represents a shift to a more episodic depositional environment (or at least a less turbulent water column), whilst the coarser grain size could reflect either more proximal deposition, or a switch in sediment supply. Basin muds (Facies 11)

168 are succeeded by coarse-grained trough cross-bedded sand (Facies 9) and subsequently
169 gravel (Facies 4); the sand was a product of higher-energy, channelised, transport, and
170 the gravel was probably laid down by medium to high-density turbidity currents per-
171 haps sourced from a subglacial meltwater conduit. Development on a fan surface of
172 channels, such as indicated by the sediments described above, indicates (at least tem-
173 porary) stabilisation of the fan / apron system.

174

175 Upward-coarsening throughout the section culminates in the diamicton that caps
176 the sequence (Facies 2). The subangular and subrounded clasts in the deposit suggest
177 derivation from subglacial sources (Benn & Ballantyne, 1994), but the high variability
178 of matrix composition and consolidation argues against it having been deposited sub-
179 glacially, since such deposits are likely to be more-or-less homogeneous. Instead, this
180 diamicton is interpreted as subglacial substrate that has been redeposited as a sub-
181 aqueous debris flow. This inference is supported by the presence of lenses of laminated
182 clay within the otherwise variable matrix, suggesting settling-out of suspended mate-
183 rial between flow events. That the deposition of this diamicton was associated with
184 an advance of the ice margin is further supported by the compressional deformation
185 (thrusting) observed in the underlying sediments (Fig. 4A). Section NRG 212 therefore
186 appears to preserve evidence of subaqueous deposition that initially occurred some dis-
187 tance from the glacier front, but was succeeded by more proximal sedimentation and
188 ultimately by ice-contact glaciotectonism. There is no evidence (such as overconsolidation)
189 that the sequence was overridden by the advancing ice, however.

190

191 FIGURE 4

192

193 Section NRG 211

194 The sequence at NRG 211 is shorter and shows more restricted facies variability (Fig.
195 3 A). The lowest diamicton (Facies 2) lacks the degree of cohesion typical of subglacial
196 tills and its friable sandy matrix is more consistent with emplacement by debris-flow
197 processes, although no reverse-grading typical of debris-flow deposition is apparent.
198 That it is overlain by poorly sorted gravel (Facies 4/5) suggests the later presence of
199 meltwater, but it remains uncertain whether the diamicton was deposited subaerially or
200 subaqueously. The weakly stratified gravel unit is indicative of a flow regime with suffi-

ciently high-energy to entrain material of a coarse grade, and if deposited subaqueously, may have been emplaced by episodic high-density turbidity currents. The laminated silt and fine sand that overlie it (Facies 8) reflect subsequent non-turbulent conditions in which settling-out of suspended sediment occurred, probably in a subaqueous overbank environment beyond the margins of the main debris-flow channel. The degree of sorting of the sediments is consistent with transport to the ice margin as suspended load via subglacial meltwater conduits. The uppermost stratified diamicton (Facies 2) and the single large boulder at the top of the section probably relate to ice-proximal debris avalanches. In summary, NRG 211 can be interpreted as recording ice-marginal sedimentation most probably in a subaqueous environment dominated by input from emerging subglacial streams, and punctuated by periodic avalanching of unsorted sediments from the glacier margin.

Section NRG 216

This section is characterised by facies bounded by conformable planar contacts with numerous abrupt changes in grain size (Fig. 3 A). The poorly sorted gravel (Facies 4) at the base of the section was probably deposited from high-density turbidity currents forming a subaqueous fan or apron (Table 2). That it does not grade into the overlying silt and sand (Facies 8), however, suggests that the two units represent separate depositional events, and not different stages of a single event. The higher energy flow required to transport the gravel may have arisen during periods of seasonal melt when subglacial water volume and glaciohydrostatic pressure was high. The abrupt switch to rhythmic sedimentation of silt and sand suggests a period of lower-energy flow, perhaps as a result of decreased melt or, given the likely fan or apron-type environment, as a result of channel-switching that directed the dominant meltwater input elsewhere. Similar stratigraphic relationships are evident throughout the sequence, and together give an impression of a highly variable sedimentation regime perhaps controlled by meltwater and sediment supply routes and by their seasonal fluctuations. The trough cross-bedded sand unit (Facies 9) indicates that at least some of this sediment and meltwater input took place in migrating channels, which is consistent with a palaeo-fan / apron environment.

Localised deformation occurs in discrete horizons within the section. Near the base

of the exposure the silt and sand (Facies 8) is cut by gravel-filled fractures (Facies 4). Large blocks of silt and sand within the gravel are plastically deformed, with the geometry of the deformation structures being consistent with the downward injection of the fluidised gravel (van der Meer *et al.*, 1999) (Fig. 4 B). This is interpreted to have occurred as a result of loading (either by increasing water depth or rapidly accumulating sediment) and increasing pore-water pressure in the overlying gravel. Higher in the section a bedded sand unit (Facies 9) at approximately 0.8 m depth is intruded by a dyke of massive silt, also interpreted as indicative of high pore-water pressure that in this case led to sediment liquefaction, fluidisation and hydrofracturing. Normal and reverse faults in the sand unit, in some instances forming conjugate pairs, provide further evidence of loading-induced deformation (Fig. 4C). Thus the overall sequence seems to reflect variable sedimentation, under abruptly changing conditions, that was accompanied by loading-induced synsedimentary deformation, the latter perhaps reflecting high sedimentation rates. The location of this section in the valley bottom (Fig. 2) is consistent with these sediments having been laid down on the floor of a former lake.

Section NRG 222

Massive silt and sand (Facies 7/10) at the base of NRG 222 (Fig. 3 A) suggests rapid deposition from hyperconcentrated flows, probably as underflow turbidity currents (Table 2). A high-density turbidity current carrying gravel and coarse sand (Facies 4/5) eroded into the massive sand unit, suggesting that the gravel was transported by channelised rather than sheet flow. The graded diamicton (Facies 2/8/11) above this unit fines upwards and reflects the gradual settling out of suspended sediment following initial input of a poorly sorted sediment mass. This may have occurred in a channel under waning flow conditions. Continued input of silt and sand (Facies 8/11) which settled in non-turbulent or distal water produced the laminated unit in the middle of the section, and was initially followed by periodic input of variably well-sorted coarser-grained sediments (Facies 4/5/7/9) and later by renewed hyperconcentrated flows that laid down the uppermost massive silt and sand unit (Facies 7/9/10).

The section exhibits lateral variability in the sedimentary sequence, with greatest facies variation occurring at the western end (Fig. 4 E). The complex architecture of the units in this part of the section, and the orientation of the exposure perpendicular to

the valley axis, presents difficulties in genetic interpretation, but a few possibilities may be proposed. The interdigitating relationship of the silt and sand (Facies 8/11) with gravel and diamicton (Facies 2) may be the result of liquefaction and intrusion of the latter into the finer-grained substrate. This could have occurred under self-weight and hydrostatic stresses (static loading) or as a result of glacier advance and the propagation of stress through proximal sediments. Normal and reverse faulting of bedded sand (Facies 8) in the section may lend some support to these proposals. Alternatively, the irregular contacts between facies may be the result of glacier-induced shearing along a plane normal to the face, brought about by compression of the sediment as the ice margin advanced. A third possibility is that this part of the section slumped at some stage, and the interfingering facies are the result of post-depositional deformation. This may have taken place following recession of the ice margin when support for the sediment pile was removed. The final consideration is that the architecture could reflect primary sedimentation variabilities, that is, localised and abrupt switching in sediment supply and deposition. Whilst all four may have played a role to some extent, the interpretation favoured here involves a combination of loading, liquification and slumping, on the basis that the contacts between facies do not appear to be either primary sedimentary features or the result of compressional glaciotectonism. These uncertainties aside, it is clear that the sediments represented in section NRG 222 reflect glaciolacustrine deposition of sediments sourced from both glaciofluvial and ice marginal environments.

Section NRG 221

The section NRG 221 lies close to, and perpendicular to, NRG 222, but occurs within a different cross-valley ridge. The majority of the section is dominated by bedded sand units (Facies 8), with minor laminated silt (Facies 11) and beds of massive gravel (Facies 4) (Fig. 3 B). The reverse-graded diamicton (Facies 1/2/5) that caps the sequence is silty and cohesive near the top, and resembles a submarginal till possibly originating as a debris flow deposit but subsequently compacted. The most striking features of the exposure, however, are the deformation structures in the sediments (Fig. 5). The gross structure is a broad southward-verging asymmetric open or overturned fold, cut by south-directed thrusts indicating that folding preceded thrusting (but not necessarily in a separate event). Folded bedding is clearly visible in the sand (Facies 8/9), and to a lesser extent in the laminated silt (Facies 11). This ductile deformation occurs

in close association with brittle deformation in the form of thrusts and minor reverse faults. The largest thrust can be traced laterally for approximately 3.5 m and offsets the bedding within the sands and silts by up to 0.25 m (Fig. 5). Gravel (Facies 4) infills this discontinuity, and thickens in the central part of the section and towards the south. Smaller structures are present in the section, notably disruptions to bedding in the sand and silt units. The silt and sand dykes that punctuate, but do not offset the bedding, are interpreted as water-escape features, in which sediments with high water content were fluidised and remobilised. Their high pore pressures first led to hydrofracturing of the surrounding substrate, and subsequently to infilling of the discontinuities when pore-water pressures subsided. This evidence of saturated sediments lends further support to their being deposited subaqueously. That the water-escape features cross-cut the folded beds suggests that they formed after the episode of compressional deformation.

313

314 FIGURE 5

315

316 On the basis of the deformation architecture exhibited by the sediments exposed
317 in this section, the following scenario can be proposed. Initial glaciolacustrine and/or
318 glaciofluvial sedimentation that deposited the interbedded silt, sand and gravel se-
319 quence (Facies 4/8/9/11) was succeeded by a period of lateral compression that pro-
320 duced the open folding seen in the sediments. Continued lateral stress led to the devel-
321 opment of thrusts and an increase in pore-water pressure in the gravel unit. Hydrofrac-
322 turing of the confining strata then occurred and water-escape took place, remobilising
323 sediment and subsequently infilling the discontinuities (thrusts). The most likely mech-
324 anism to produce this sequence of events is the steady advance of the Dochart Glacier,
325 from which avalanching debris (Facies 6) and deposition of submarginal till (Facies 1/2)
326 produced the uppermost diamicton (Fig. 6).

327

328 FIGURE 6

329

330 Section NRG 220

331 NRG 220 exposes an overall coarsening-upward succession of silt, sand, gravel and
332 diamicton in a cross-valley ridge (Fig. 3 B). The silt at the base of the exposure is

massive and very firm (Facies 10) and has a convolute contact with the overlying sand (Facies 7) (Fig. 4F). The lack of lamination or bedding in the silt suggests that it may have been deposited rapidly, perhaps from a hyperconcentrated flow (Table 2), and was subsequently loaded prior to dewatering to produce partial liquefaction and convolutions interpreted as flame structures that intrude the overlying sediments. As with NRG 221, the evidence of liquefaction suggests high porewater contents consistent with subaqueous conditions. The gravel unit (Facies 4) suggests higher energy meltwater deposition, perhaps in the form of turbidity currents, and is succeeded by a sandy diamicton (Facies 1/2) at the top of the sequence. It is likely that this sequence represents the encroachment of an ice margin into a glaciolacustrine sediment pile, producing stresses sufficient to engender liquefaction and bringing unsorted ice-marginal debris into the sequence. Normal faulting in the sand unit may have resulted from slumping on the ice-distal side of the moraine.

Section NRG 219

Near the confluence of Glen Chaorach with Glen Dochart, the tributary valley widens and section NRG 219 exposes sediments in a cross-valley ridge. Laminated silt (Facies 11) at the base of the sequence reflects suspension settling in non-turbulent water, which was followed by episodic but sustained input of gravel (Facies 8/9), possibly via debris flows from an emerging subglacial stream. This sequence of gravel overlying laminated silt is repeated throughout the rest of the section, indicative of abrupt changes in sedimentation style (Fig. 3 B). This may have been the result of possibly seasonal fluctuations in meltwater flux, or may reflect channel switching within the glaciofluvial / glaciolacustrine system. None of the sediments show evidence of deformation, although the upper silt units are very firm and may have been subjected to high overburden pressures. Overall, the sedimentary sequence at this locality represents a relatively stable ice-marginal glaciolacustrine setting in which periodic high-discharge events punctuated background sedimentation.

Section NRG 218

Alternating units of sand (Facies 8/9/11) and gravel (Facies 4/5) in NRG 218 attest to variations in transport capacity of the glaciofluvial or glaciolacustrine system that deposited them. An overall sense of normal grading dominates the sequence, and only

366 where coarser sediments overlie finer-grained material do erosional contacts occur (Fig.
367 3 B). The poor sorting of each sediment unit suggests a turbulent or short transport
368 path, and may be reflective of a debris-flow origin from emerging subglacial streams.
369 Despite the sediments forming an elongate cross-valley ridge, suggesting ice-contact
370 formation, no evidence of glaciotectonism is apparent. The sequence is therefore best
371 interpreted as reflecting ice-marginal sedimentation at a stable or receding margin.

372

373 **Section NRG 213**

374 The short section exposed at NRG 213 is composed of well-sorted, bedded sediments
375 (Fig. 3 B) that form a flat extensive terrace at the mouth of Glen Chaorach. The
376 basal gravel (Facies 4) is well-sorted and has little sand in its matrix, consistent with
377 prolonged, relatively high-energy fluvial transport. Suspension settling in a glaciola-
378 custrine environment laid down the overlying silt (Facies 11), which is succeeded by
379 coarsening units of sand (Facies 8). One of these sand units is cross-bedded and reflects
380 flow to the southeast, probably in a fan or channel environment. The uppermost unit
381 is poorly sorted gravel (Facies 4) that may have been deposited in a highly turbulent
382 fluvial environment, or as a high-density turbidity current in a glaciolacustrine setting.
383 That the sequence composes part of an extensive terrace suggests that the sediments
384 may best be interpreted as products of glaciofluvial deposition, probably laid down in
385 a sub-aerial ice-proximal environment.

386

387 **Discussion**

388

389 Sediment is supplied to glacier margins predominantly by two key mechanisms –
390 subglacial deformation of unconsolidated unsorted material (till), and meltwater trans-
391 port either through or on the ice that delivers sorted sediments in suspension and as
392 traction bed-loads (Edwards, 1986; Lønne, 1995; Benn & Evans, 1998). The dominance
393 of sorted and bedded or laminated sediments over unsorted diamictons in all of the Glen
394 Chaorach sections provides convincing evidence that deposition from glacial meltwater
395 was particularly important, probably in a glaciolacustrine or glaciofluvial setting. This
396 was brought about by separation of a major outlet lobe of the Younger Dryas ice cap
397 that drained eastward along Glen Dochart (Golledge, 2007) from a mountain icefield to
398 the south. Sedimentary evidence at NRG 212 suggests a former water level at around

399 310 m a.s.l., and since the valley floor below this site lies at 250 m a.s.l. it is likely
400 that, at its maximum, the depth of the former lake was c. 50 - 60 m. The lake most
401 probably drained and refilled throughout its life, as is known to have occurred in former
402 glacial lakes elsewhere in Scotland (Ballantyne, 1979; Brazier *et al.*, 1998), possibly as
403 ice-marginal crevasses and subglacial conduits either opened or closed.

404
405 The exposed sediments commonly exhibit abrupt, but not necessarily erosional con-
406 tacts, and reflect a highly variable sedimentary environment. Laminated sediments
407 indicative of suspension settling under non-turbulent conditions are often juxtaposed
408 with poorly sorted coarse gravel units typical of high-density turbidity currents or un-
409 sorted diamictons more commonly associated with ice-proximal avalanching of sub-
410 and supraglacial material (Fig. 6). Blake (2000) suggests that compositional variation
411 within De Geer moraines may be related to the location of outlets of subglacial streams,
412 a notion that echoes earlier sedimentary investigations of ice-contact submarine fans
413 (Lønne, 1995). Others suggest that advection of subglacial sediments towards the
414 ice margin, and their intercalation with glaciofluvial canal-infill sediments, forms the
415 proximal part of subaqueous moraines, and that more distal sediments are deposited by
416 prograding sediment gravity-flows that interfinger with glaciolacustrine deposits (Benn,
417 1996; Lindén & Möller, 2005). Since clastic sedimentary sections are thought to be re-
418 liable archives of ‘short-lived internally controlled events’ (Fard, 2001, : p145), whether
419 climatically induced or not, both scenarios may help to explain the localised nature of
420 the sedimentary record produced in such environments, and the facies variability seen
421 in the Glen Chaorach examples described here.

422
423 Where glaciotectonic deformation occurs in these examples, it is always uni-directional
424 (south-vergent) and provides evidence of ice-marginal oscillations after accumulation of
425 the sediment pile. The presence of both brittle and ductile deformation features is com-
426 mon in sediments found at ice margins (Benn & Evans, 1998; Menzies, 2000; Golledge,
427 2002; Phillips *et al.*, 2002), and results from the propagation of glacier-induced stresses
428 through the glacier bed. The glacier advances associated with sediment deformation
429 and deposition of diamictons appear to have been the final events. This may indi-
430 cate that whilst marginal advance was relatively slow, its recession was probably more
431 rapid. This is typical of water-terminating margins that lose the majority of their mass
432 through calving (Paterson, 1994), particularly where glacier thinning occurs (van der

433 Veen, 1996). Since none of the recorded sedimentary sequences is capped by drapes of
434 glaciolacustrine silt and clay commonly associated with widespread suspension settling,
435 it may be speculated that the majority of sediment delivery into the glacial lake was as
436 focussed underflows rather than as diffuse plumes, probably governed by the locations
437 of emerging subglacial meltwater conduits.

438

439 Event chronology

440 During the Younger Dryas glacial episode, Glen Chaorach was occupied by ice from
441 two confluent glaciers (Fig. 7, A). Northward ice flow from the Ben More glacier con-
442 tributed to the much larger, eastward-flowing Dochart glacier, which acted as one of
443 the principal southern outlets of the ice cap centred over Rannoch Moor (Fig. 1). Thin-
444 ning of these glaciers during the initial stages of deglaciation led to the creation of an
445 intralobe lake, and deposition of laminated and bedded fine-grained sediments. Con-
446 tinued separation of the glaciers was accompanied by an increase in the area and depth
447 of the ice-dammed lake, and by changes in the flow pattern of the two ice masses (Fig.
448 7, B). Southward-directed deformation structures preserved in the lake sediments indi-
449 cate that during this phase, minor oscillations of the Dochart Glacier formed De Geer
450 moraines by tectonising glaciolacustrine sediments at successive grounding lines (Fig.
451 7, B). The locations of such grounding lines were probably governed by high points
452 on the valley floor, such as bedrock knolls, that acted as ‘pinning points’. Further
453 deglaciation following this period of stability led to recession of the ice margin towards
454 Glen Dochart until Glen Chaorach became ice free, eventually removing the dam that
455 had previously impounded supraglacial and subglacial meltwater. Consequently, an
456 ice-marginal, subaerial glaciofluvial environment was established in which the exten-
457 sive, channelled terraces composed of bedded, well-sorted sediments were formed (Fig.
458 7, C). Subsequent retreat of the glacier front formed the large morainic mounds in Glen
459 Dochart (Fig. 2), prior to final disappearance of the ice sometime after $11.6 \text{ ka} \pm 1.0$
460 ka BP (Golledge *et al.*, 2007).

461

462 FIGURE 7

463

464 Conclusions

465 Geological and geomorphological mapping has identified a population of elongate lin-

ear cross-valley ridges in Glen Chaorach, a tributary valley of the much larger Glen Dochart. During the Younger Dryas, Glen Dochart accommodated a major outlet glacier of the west Highland ice cap, formerly centred over Rannoch Moor, and Glen Chaorach was filled with confluent ice sourced on the east side of Ben More. After initially feeding ice into the main glacier, the tributary valley glacier thinned and the two ice masses separated. Moraines formed in Glen Chaorach as the glaciers retreated, and melt-waters accumulated to form an ice-dammed lake. Sedimentary characteristics of the moraines, together with their geomorphology and context, strongly suggest that they formed at the grounding line of a water-terminating glacier margin that occupied a quasi-stable position in the valley during intial deglaciation. Sediments were deposited in the ice-marginal lake primarily through focussed delivery in subglacial conduits and from ice-front debris-flows. Oscillations of the glacier margin led to deformation of the sediment pile but were followed by rapid recession to pinning points lower in the valley. When glacier thinning had proceeded to the extent where an ice dam could no longer confine meltwater in Glen Chaorach, ice-marginal glaciofluvial sedimentation ensued, followed by frontal retreat of the Dochart Glacier.

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614 **Figure and Table captions**

615
616 Table 1: Characteristics of De Geer moraines from published examples, as well as data from
617 the features described in this study.

618
619 Table 2: Facies interpretation for the range of sediments recorded in Glen Chaorach, based on
620 examples from both presently and formerly glaciated areas.

621
622 Figure 1: The location of the study area in a Scottish context, and in relation to the extent of
623 Younger Dryas glaciation (shaded area) in the western Highlands (from various sources). Note
624 the position of the site at the margin of a key eastward-draining outlet glacier. Abbreviations:
625 GD - Glen Dochart, LL - Loch Lomond, LA - Loch Awe, LE - Loch Etive, GC - Glen Coe,
626 LEr - Loch Ericht, LR - Loch Rannoch, GL - Glen Lyon, SF - Strath Fillan.

627
628 Figure 2: The physiography and simplified geology of Glen Chaorach and its confluence with
629 Glen Dochart, showing the positions of numbered locations described in the text and other
630 localities where sediments were observed. Topographic contours are at 10 m vertical interval,
631 derived from Ordnance Survey Profile data, © Crown Copyright

632
633 Figure 3: Scaled sedimentological logs illustrating vertical sections through the nine exposures
634 described in this study, presented in order as described in the text. The logs show key facies
635 types and the nature of bounding contacts, and are only generalised where units exhibit high
636 lateral variability in thickness and / or character. The composition of each unit, their strati-
637 graphic relationships, and the nature of their upper and lower contacts provide the basis of
638 the genetic interpretations and allostratigraphic significance. Facies codes from Eyles & Miall
639 (1984); Eyles *et al.* (1984).

640
641 Figure 4: Examples of facies types from some of the sections described. A: Bedded sand
642 and gravel exhibiting southeasterly directed thrusts and minor folding, NRG 212. B: Lam-
643 inated and bedded silt and sand unit disrupted by hydrofracturing, NRG 216. C: Faulted
644 trough-cross-bedded and planar-bedded sand intruded by a massive silt dyke, NRG 216. D:
645 Conformable planar sequence of massive sand overlain by thin diamicton and laminated silt,
646 NRG 216. E: Complex intercalation of sorted and bedded sediments with unsorted gravel
647 diamicton units, NRG 222. F: Flame structures in silt intruding into overlying sand, NRG
648 220.

650 Figure 5: Field photograph of the folded, sorted sediments described at NRG 221, and tracing
651 of principal facies and their structures. Note 1) the close association of ductile deformation
652 (folding), with brittle deformation (fractures and thrusts), and 2) bed-thickening in the lower
653 limb of the folded and fluidised gravel unit.

654
655 Figure 6: Schematic illustration of the ice-marginal environment thought to have existed in
656 Glen Chaorach during Younger Dryas deglaciation. Sediment input to the ice-dammed lake
657 occurred 1) through debris flows from emerging englacial debris bands, 2) via subglacial melt-
658 water conduits, 3) from iceberg rainout, and 4) as submarginal till. Oscillation of the glacier
659 at the grounding line tectonised the adjacent sediment pile and generated the transverse ridges
660 interpreted as De Geer moraines. Not to scale.

661
662 Figure 7: Key stages in ice-margin evolution during deglaciation of the study area. A: Glen
663 Chaorach is filled by confluent ice of the Dochart and Ben More glaciers. Thinning leads
664 to separation of the ice masses which leads to early development of an ice-dammed lake and
665 deposition of fine-grained sediments. B: continued recession produces a lake deep enough to
666 enable calving of the grounded glacier, and the margin is stable enough to oscillate at its
667 grounding line and thereby form De Geer moraines. C: During the final stages of ice-marginal
668 ponding, the confining glacier no longer oscillates or tectonises the sediments, and ultimately
669 thins to the mouth of Glen Chaorach enabling free marginal drainage that gives rise to sub-
670 aerial glaciofluvial deposition. Topographic contours are at 10 m vertical intervals, derived
671 from Ordnance Survey Profile data, © Crown Copyright

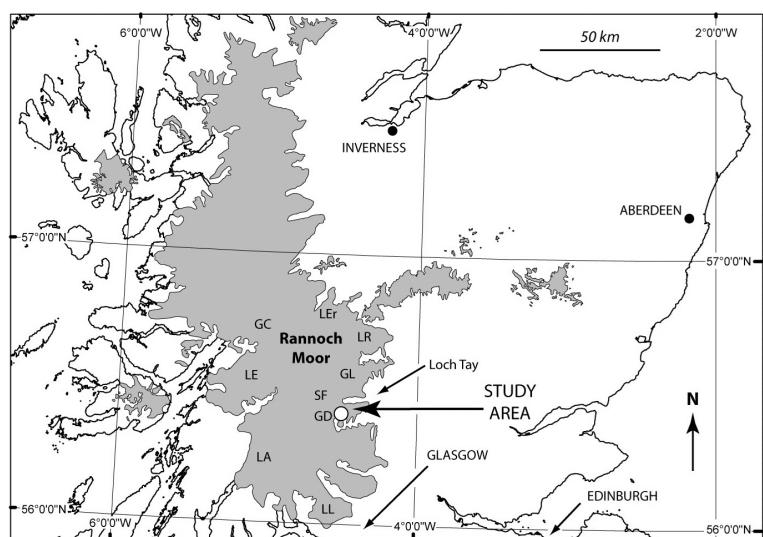


Figure 1:

Table 1:

Study site	Orientation	Scale Height	Width	Length	Spacing	Slope	Facies & architecture	Interpretation	Reference
Glen Chaorach, western Scottish Highlands	Broadly perpendicular to valley axis and presumed ice flow	<10m	20-35m	50-100m	30-400m	Asymmetric, steeper distal slope	Diamicton, silt, sand and gravel; intercalated, stratified, folded, thrust	Ice-marginal subaqueous debris flows, lake floor deposits, deformation by oscillating ice margin	This study
Raudvassdalen Northern Norway	Perpendicular to ice flow; oblique to valley slope	0.5-5m	1-30m	<300m	25-240m, av. 86m	Symmetrical, 20deg, some slightly steeper down-ice	Till, glacioluvial sediments, marine sediments; folded, stacked, deformed	Overridden grounding line deposits	Blake (2000)
Norrbotten, Northern Sweden	Transverse to iceflow, upflow concave in topographic lows, convex on elevated ground	1-3m	av. 30m	100m-3km	50-200m	Asymmetric, steeper distal slope	Diamictons, silt, sand, gravel and cobbles; stratified, interfingered, stacked, folded, thrust	Intercalated deforming bed diamictons and glacioluvial canal-infill sediments, syn- and post-depositional deformation, distal slope prograding sediment gravity flows	Linden & Moller (2005)
Loch Ainort, western Scotland	Perpendicular to valley axis and presumed ice flow	0.2-12m	<30m	40-470m	<70m	Asymmetric, steeper proximal slope (18deg vs 11deg distal)	Poorly-sorted sandy muddy gravel interpreted as glacigenic diamicton	Subaqueous grounding line moraines	Dix & Duck (2000)
More, western Norway	Perpendicular to ice flow, slightly convex or concave	3-6m	20-30m	250m-10km	50-1200m	N/A	Sandy diamicton, sorted sediments, isolated clasts; stacked, sheared, faulted, liquified, diapir structures	Formation at a retreating glacier grounding line	Larsen et al. (1991)
Swedish mountains	Cross-valley, straight or slightly convex downvalley	1-10m	N/A	10's-1000's m	N/A	N/A	N/A	Formed at terminus of water-terminating glaciers flowing up-valley	Heyman & Hattestrand (2006)
Quebec, Canada	Perpendicular to ice flow, some chevron shaped	1-10m	N/A	N/A	60-400m	Symmetrical or asymmetrical	Predominantly glacioluvial sediments, often glaciotectonised	Deposition from meltwater flowing through transverse subglacial cavities	Beaudry & Prichonnet (1991)
Swedish mountains	Transverse to iceflow, straight or slightly concave up-valley	<4m	1-20m	<200m	30-50m	Symmetrical or asymmetrical	Mainly firm, sandy till, rare glacioluvial material	Subaqueous moraines formed at or near the ice margin	Borgstrom (1979)
Pasvik, north Norway	Transverse to iceflow	<10m	50m	1km	10's-100's m	Steeper distal side	Proximal side - homogeneous sandy material, distal side - interbedded till and sorted sediments	Subaqueous glacioluvial deposition along ice margin, from debouching central conduit	Solid (1989)
Finland	Straight, transverse to iceflow	1-3m	10-20m	100m-2km	60-180m	Symmetric or steeper distal side	Sandy and poorly sorted till	Squeezing of subglacial till up into subglacial crevasses following surge advance	Ziliacus (1989)

Table 2:

Composition	Character	Facies	Description and Code	Interpretation	Environment	References
Diamicton	Massive	1	Diamicton, matrix or clast-supported, massive (Dmm/Dcm)	Debris flow or submarginal	Subglacial deposition /emplacement directly from the glacier sole	Zielinski et al (1996); Brazier et al (1998); Blake (2000)
	Stratified	2	Diamicton, matrix or clast-supported, stratified (Dms/Dcs)	Debris flow	Ice-marginal, high energy, episodic	
Gravel	Massive, sorted	3	Gravel, massive, sorted (Gms)	Debris flow	Ice-proximal, high energy, episodic. Subaerial or subaqueous. Iceberg overturning	Lowe (1982); Lonne(1993, 1995); Nemec et al (1999); Blake (2000); Winsemann et al (2004)
	Massive, unsorted or openwork	4	Gravel, massive or openwork (Gm/Go)	High-density debris flow, or subaerial glaciofluvial		
	Normally graded	5	Gravel, fining-upwards (Gfu)	Low-density debris flow		
	Reverse graded	6	Gravel, coarsening-upwards (Gcu)	Debris flow		
Sand	Massive	7	Sand, massive (Sm)	Hyperconcentrated flow	Relatively high velocity, turbulent flow; ice-proximal fan lobes or aprons, possibly with channelised surface	Blake (2000); Fard (2001); Bennett et al., (2002); Etienne et al., (2006)
	Planar cross-bedded	8	Sand, planar, horizontal, or cross bedded, upwards-fining, or laminated (Sp/Sh/Sc/Suf/Si)	Apron or fan deposits (overbank)		
	Trough cross-bedded	9	Sand, trough-cross bedded or upward-coarsening (St/Su)	Channel sediments		
Silt & clay	Massive	10	Fines, massive (Fm)	Hyperconcentrated flow	Distal runout from ice-proximal source	Lonne (1993); Bennett et al. (2002); Thomas and Chiverrell (2006)
	Laminated	11	Fines, laminated or varved (Fl/Flv)	Basin muds	Suspension settling distal to ice margin basin muds; proximal sedimentation in quiet water, low sedimentation rate	

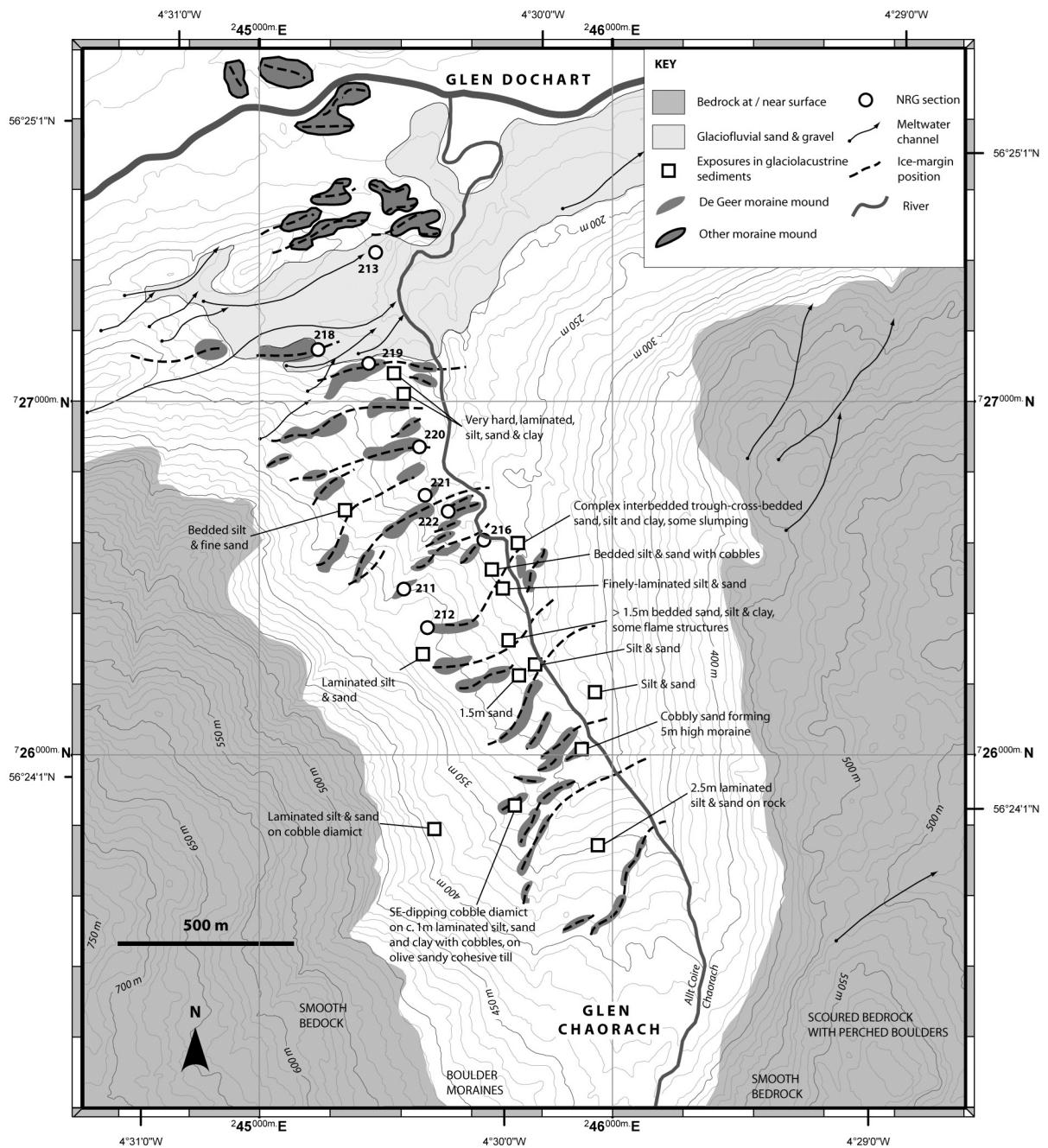


Figure 2:

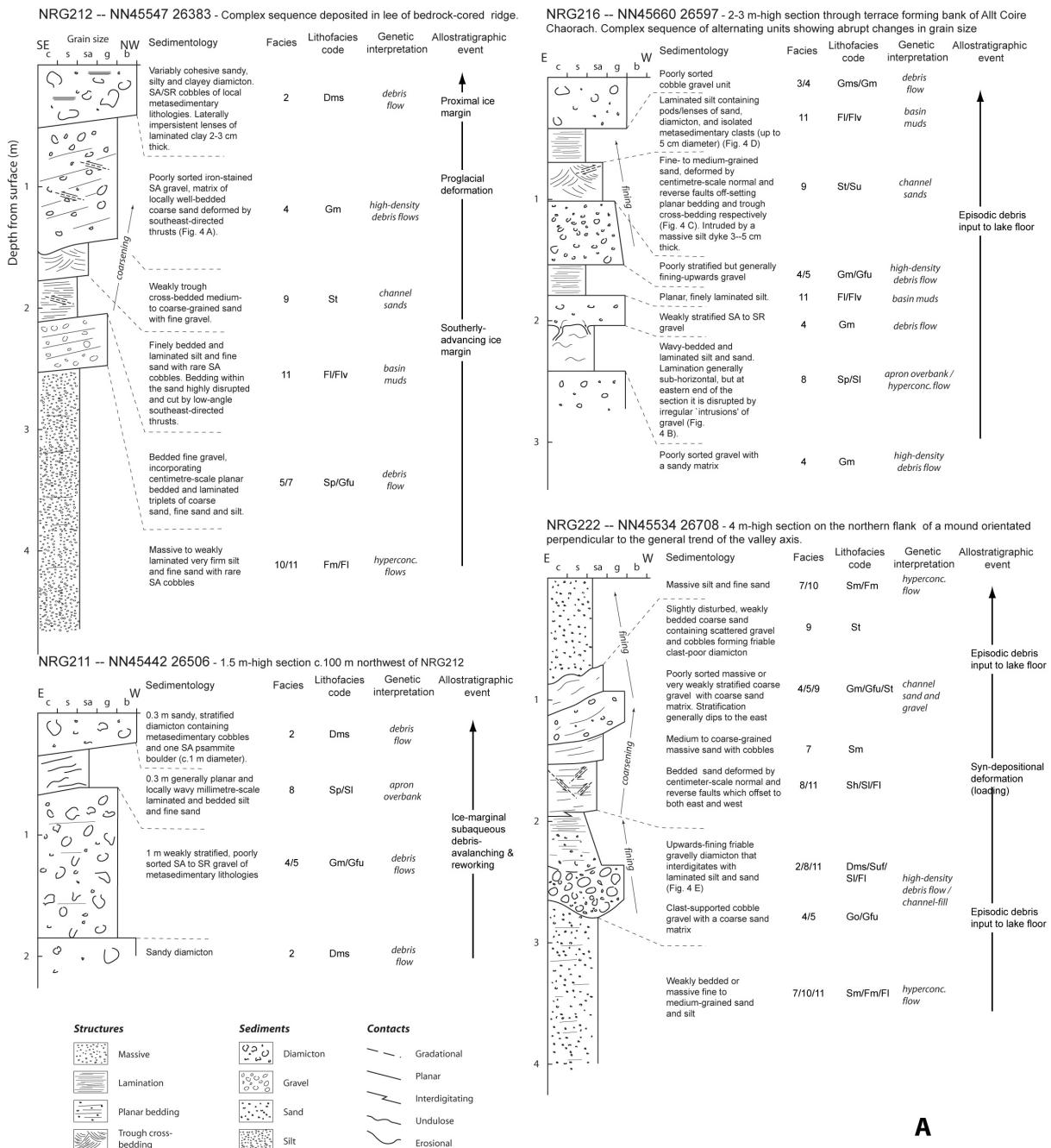


Figure 3: A

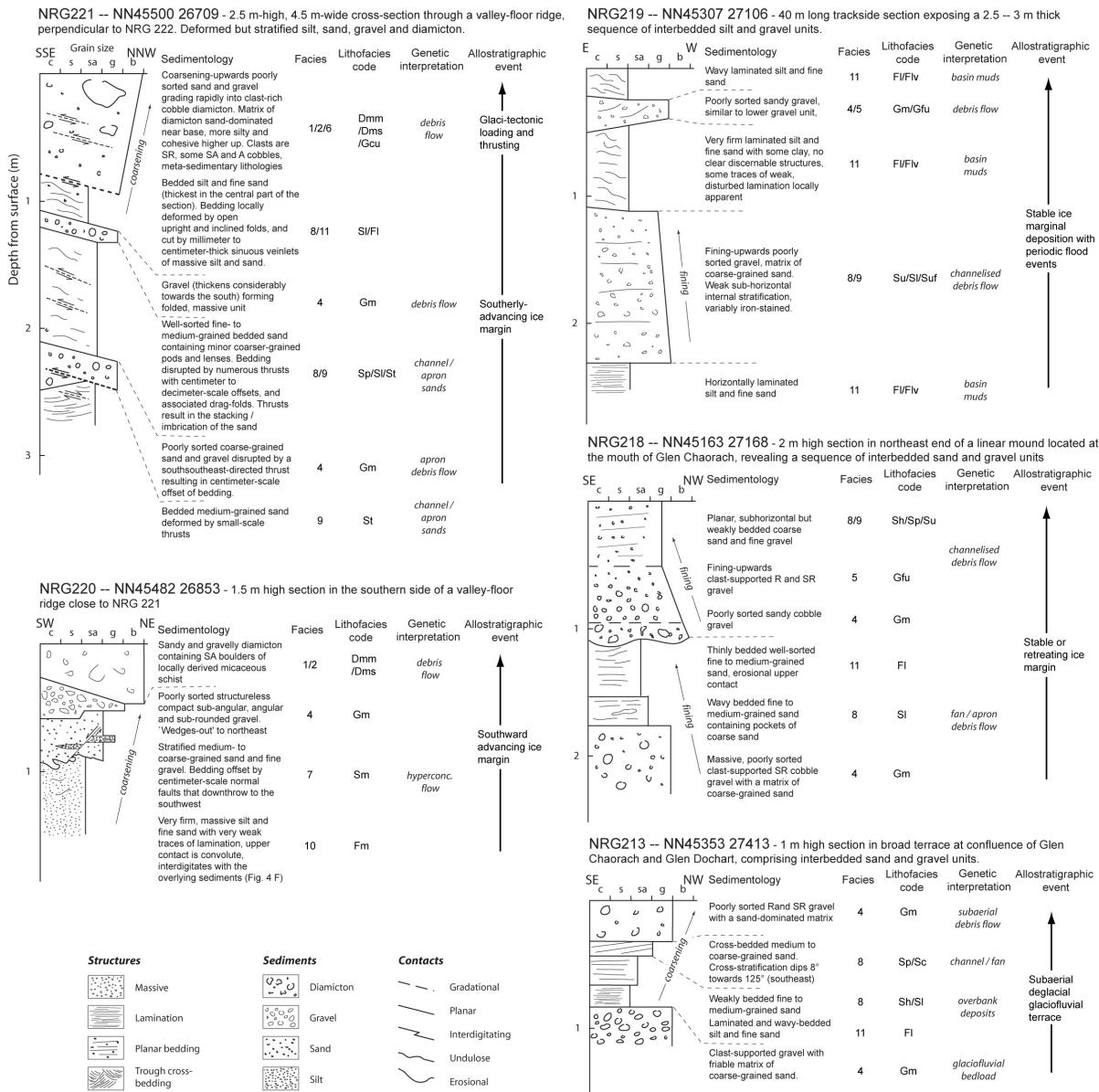
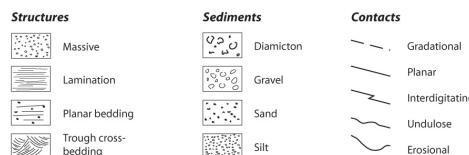


Figure 3: B



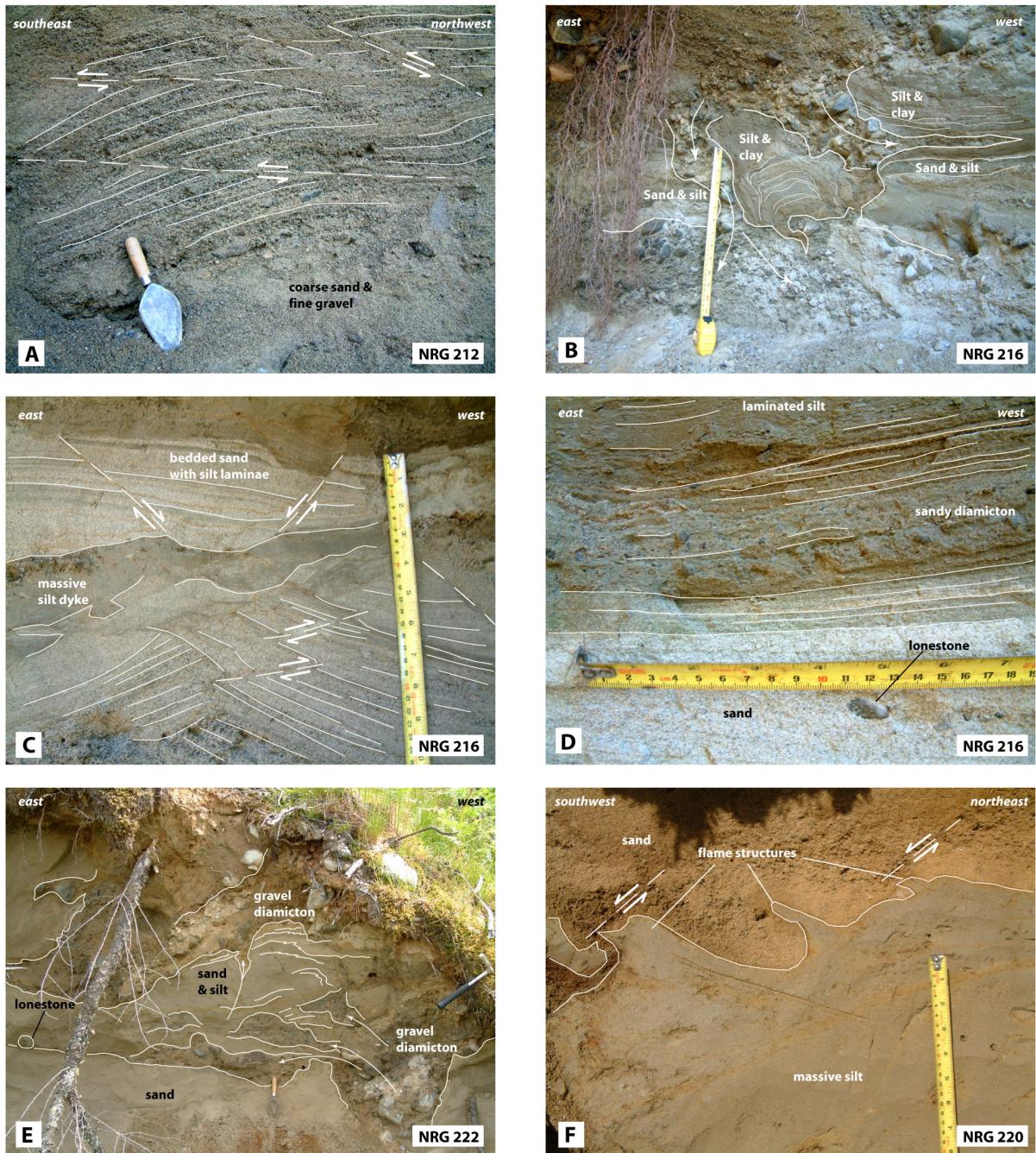


Figure 4:

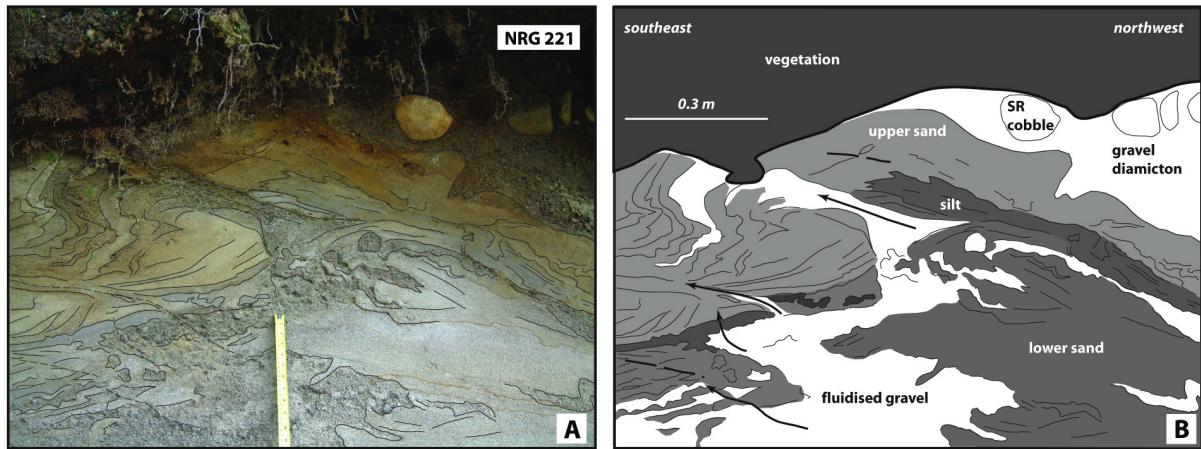


Figure 5:

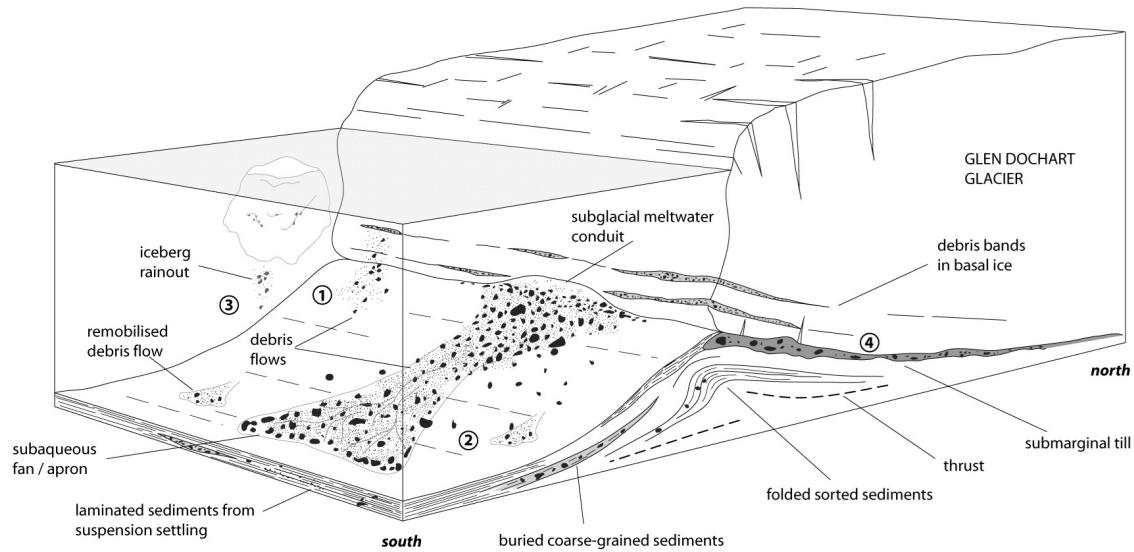


Figure 6:

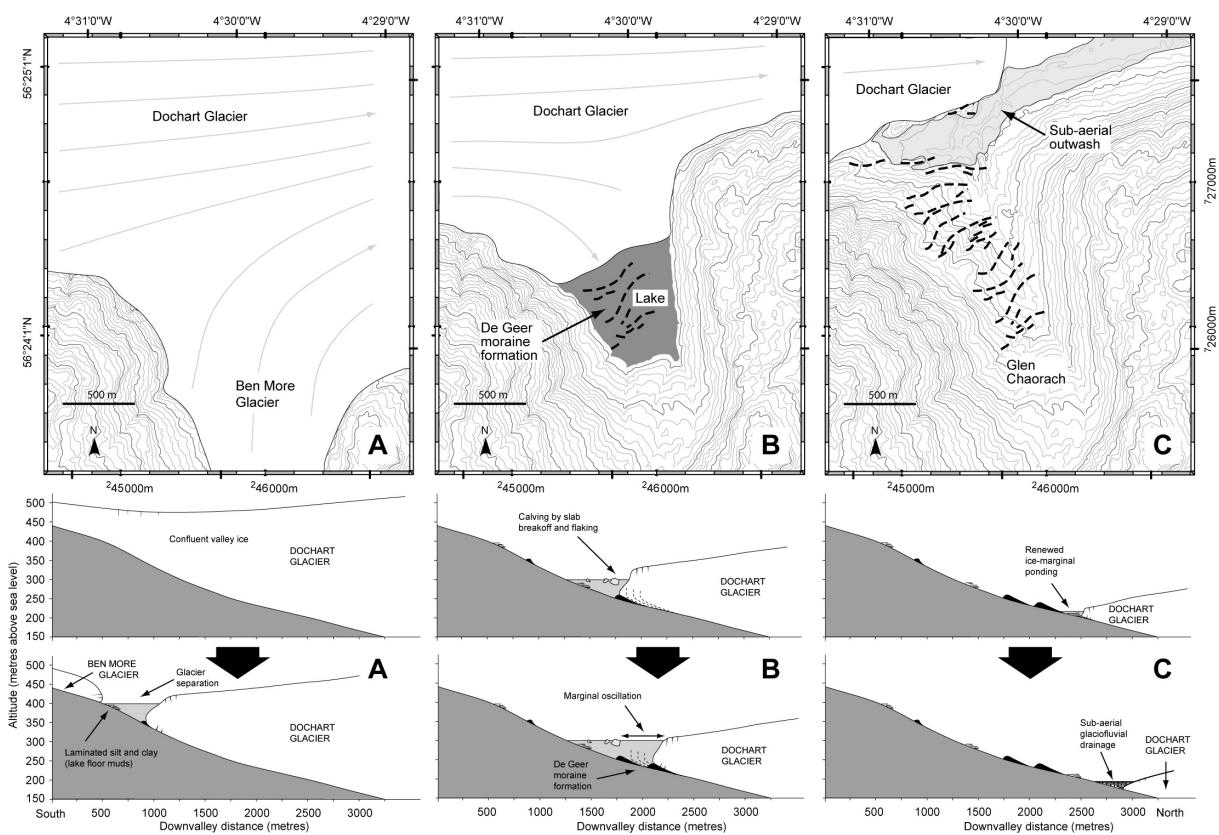


Figure 7: