

1 **Microscale evidence of liquefaction and its potential triggers during** 2 **soft-bed deformation within subglacial traction tills**

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11 **Highlights:**

12 Subglacial traction tills undergo repeated phases of liquefaction and deformation

13 This process lowers the shear strength of the till, facilitating glacier movement

14 This soft-bed sliding occurs in a series of 'stick-slip' events

15 Soft-bed sliding may be partially facilitated by glacier seismic activity

16 **Abstract**

17 Published conceptual models argue that much of the forward motion of modern and ancient glaciers
18 is accommodated by deformation of soft-sediments within the underlying bed. At a microscale this
19 deformation results in the development of a range of ductile and brittle structures in water-
20 saturated sediments as they accommodate the stresses being applied by the overriding glacier.
21 Detailed micromorphological studies of subglacial traction tills reveal that these polydeformed
22 sediments may also contain evidence of having undergone repeated phases of liquefaction followed
23 by solid-state shear deformation. This spatially and temporally restricted liquefaction of subglacial
24 traction tills lowers the shear strength of the sediment and promotes the formation of "transient
25 mobile zones" within the bed, which accommodate the shear imposed by the overriding ice. This
26 process of soft-bed sliding, alternating with bed deformation, facilitates glacier movement by way of
27 'stick-slip' events. The various controls on the slip events have previously been identified as: (i) the
28 introduction of pressurised meltwater into the bed, a process limited by the porosity and
29 permeability of the till; and (ii) pressurisation of porewater as a result of subglacial deformation; to

30 which we include (iii) episodic liquefaction of water-saturated subglacial traction tills in response to
31 glacier seismic activity (icequakes), which are increasingly being recognized as significant processes
32 in modern glaciers and ice sheets. As liquefaction operates only in materials already at very low
33 values of effective stress, its process-form signatures are likely indicative of glacier sub-marginal tills.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Deformation of the soft, unconsolidated sediments occurring beneath many glaciers is thought to
37 account for a substantial component of their forward motion (e.g. Alley *et al.*, 1986; Boulton and
38 Hindmarsh, 1987; Clarke, 1987; Alley *et al.*, 1987a, b; Alley, 1989a, b; Humphrey *et al.*, 1993; Boulton
39 *et al.* 2001). This concept of a “deforming bed” was first proposed following experiments carried out
40 upon the till beneath the margin of Breiðamerkurjökull in SE Iceland (Boulton, 1979; Boulton and
41 Hindmarsh, 1987; Boulton and Dobbie, 1998) and further supported by high resolution seismic
42 surveys beneath Ice Stream B in Antarctica (Blankenship *et al.*, 1986, 1987). Subsequent field studies
43 and geotechnical experiments have identified a range of possible subglacial deformation responses
44 to glacier basal shear stresses which give rise to increasing cumulative shear strain upwards through
45 the till profile towards the ice base (Boulton *et al.*, 1974; Boulton and Jones; 1979; Boulton, 1986;
46 Hindmarsh, 1997; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2000a, b; Kavanaugh and Clarke, 2006). The water content,
47 lithological composition and thickness of the tills, along with temporal and spatial changes in the
48 porewater pressures that occur within the subglacial environment, are all considered to exert a
49 strong control on the style and intensity of deformation (see Evans *et al.*, 2006 and references
50 therein). However, the exact nature of the response of tills during subglacial deformation remains a
51 subject of significant debate (cf. Boulton and Hindmarsh, 1987; Benn and Evans, 1996; Boulton 1996;
52 Hindmarsh, 1997; Murray, 1997; Piotrowski and Kraus; 1997; Piotrowski *et al.*, 1997; Tulaczyk, 1999;
53 Fuller and Murray, 2000; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2000a, b; van der Meer *et al.*, 2003; Piotrowski *et al.*, 2004,
54 2006; Kavanaugh and Clarke, 2006; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Damsgaard *et al.*, 2016), especially the
55 responses that are likely to arise through changing water pressures. For example a number of
56 studies of marine terminating ice streams in West Antarctic have suggested that tidal movements
57 effecting the floating part of the glacier can influence the upstream distribution of pore water
58 pressure leading to variations in the velocity of ice flow (e.g. Winberry *et al.*, 2011; Walker *et al.*,
59 2013; Thompson *et al.*, 2014; Rosier *et al.*, 2015).

60 Boreholes through the Trapridge Glacier (NW Canada) indicate that subglacial deformation is
61 driven by changes in shear stress due to the variation in ice-bed coupling and water pressure as well
62 as possible changes in deforming layer thickness (Blake, 1992; Blake *et al.*, 1992; Kavanaugh and

63 Clarke, 2006). Iverson *et al.* (1994, 1995) used investigations at Storglaciären in northern Sweden to
64 emphasize the complexity of subglacial deformation, concluding that the till acts as a “lubricant”
65 with forward motion being dominated by basal sliding and ploughing of large clasts embedded in the
66 base of the ice. Some subglacial experiments have revealed that, instead of increasing coupling at
67 the ice-bed interface, ploughing clasts actually weaken sediment by elevating porewater pressures
68 (PWP) in sediment prows (Iverson *et al.*, 1994; Iverson, 1999; Fischer *et al.*, 2001; Iverson, 2010).
69 Hindmarsh (1996) suggested that the till itself may slide over an underlying hard substrate, giving
70 rise to polished/striated bedrock surfaces. Similarly Truffer *et al.* (2000) and Kjær *et al.* (2006) have
71 also argued for deformation having occurred deep within or beneath subglacial tills as a potential
72 mechanism for rapid ice flow. Alternatively, Fuller and Murray (2000) recorded basal sliding over
73 soft-sediments at the base of Hagafellsjökull in Iceland, associated with only a very thin (< 16 cm)
74 layer of deformed sediment.

75 Reconciling these process studies with interpretations of the subglacial conditions recorded
76 in ancient sedimentary sequences is particularly challenging, because palaeo-ice sheets and glaciers
77 have left a legacy that comprises complex assemblages of deposits whose sedimentological and
78 structural signatures are ambiguous. Consequently, our current understanding of the conditions
79 encountered within the subglacial environment relies heavily upon theoretical models stemming
80 from a modest number of glaciological process case studies and laboratory experiments. From this
81 comes an understanding that increased porewater pressure (PWP) within the glacier bed, when it is
82 at steady state consolidation, results in the “dilation” of the sediment and a fall in its shear strength
83 (Fig. 1). Fluctuations in PWP will lead to repeated phases of “dilation” followed by “collapse” as the
84 water pressure falls, the latter leading to an increase in the shear strength of the sediment (also see
85 Damsgaard *et al.*, 2016; Winberry *et al.*, 2011); this response may be dampened by materials with
86 lower diffusivity (Iverson, 2010). The computer simulations of the deformation of subglacial tills by
87 Damsgaard *et al.* (2016) have demonstrated that creep in these modelled simple granular materials
88 keeps porosities somewhat elevated between failure events. At the highest values of PWP the ice
89 may become decoupled from its bed and there may be a significant fall in the shear stress translated
90 to the underlying sediments, effectively switching off subglacial deformation and promoting basal
91 sliding as the dominant mechanism of glacier forward motion. This stick-slip style of motion
92 operating in soft glacier beds has been reported by Fischer and Clarke (1997) and Fischer *et al.*
93 (1999) for the Trapridge Glacier, where decoupling of the ice takes place during periods of high
94 water pressure. Boulton *et al.* (2001) also propose a stick-slip motion, operating diurnally, to explain
95 their observations at Breiðamerkurjökull, Iceland, where rising water pressures initiate till dilation,
96 followed by the reduction in ice-bed friction and then ice-till decoupling. Falling water pressures

97 then return the till to a deforming state and re-couple the ice-bed interface; a continued fall in water
98 pressure below the threshold for failure causes the bed to stick and enhanced ice-bed traction.
99 However, dilation increases the connectivity between intergranular pore spaces, temporarily
100 increasing the permeability of the till promoting the dewatering of the sediment and dilatant arrest
101 (Youd, 2003) or dilatant hardening (Iverson *et al.*, 1998; Moore and Iverson, 2002; Damsgaard *et al.*,
102 2015). Consequently repeated phases of till dilation, in the absence of a mechanism to reintroduce
103 water into these subglacial sediments, will cause an increase in ice-bed friction.

104 The above case studies notwithstanding, some significant uncertainties still exist in our
105 understanding of till deformation processes and forms including: the spatial and temporal patterns
106 of subglacial deformation, the variability of subglacial sediment rheology, and the inter-relationships
107 of sediment deformation and subglacial hydrology, as well as the inter-relationships between sliding
108 over soft-sediments with bed deformation. Given the constraints inherent within the discoveries
109 outlined above, we should expect all subglacial tills to show at least some evidence of deformation.
110 However, the massive nature of many subglacial tills exposed at the margins of contemporary
111 glaciers and in the geological record has been used to question the pervasive nature of deformation,
112 at least at the macroscale, even though shear-induced mixing has been invoked to explain such
113 massive appearances (Piotrowski and Tulaczyk, 1999; Hooyer and Iverson, 2000). Due to this
114 macroscopically massive nature of many tills, micromorphology is increasingly being used in the
115 analysis of subglacial sediments (see Menzies and Maltman, 1992; van der Meer, 1993; Menzies *et*
116 *al.*, 1997; Khatwa and Tulaczyk, 2001; van der Meer *et al.*, 2003; Roberts and Hart, 2005; Hiemstra *et*
117 *al.*, 2005; Baroni and Fasano, 2006; Larsen *et al.*, 2006, 2007; Phillips *et al.*, 2011; Neudorf *et al.*,
118 2013; Spagnolo *et al.*, 2016). In particular, this approach has been used to unravel the complex
119 deformation histories recorded by glacial sequences (van der Meer, 1993; Phillips and Auton,
120 2000; van der Wateren *et al.*, 2000; Menzies, 2000; Phillips *et al.*, 2007; Lee and Phillips, 2008; Denis
121 *et al.*, 2010; Vaughan-Hirsch *et al.*, 2013; Narloch *et al.*, 2012, 2013) as well as to investigate the role
122 played by pressurised meltwater during deformation events (Hiemstra and van der Meer, 1997;
123 Phillips and Merritt, 2008; van der Meer *et al.*, 2009; Denis *et al.*, 2010; Phillips *et al.*, 2013a, b;
124 Narloch *et al.*, 2012, 2013). The development of a quantitative microstructural mapping technique
125 (Phillips *et al.*, 2011) has the potential to increase our understanding of subglacial processes by
126 highlighting the relationships between the various microstructures developed within tills, thereby
127 allowing a detailed relative chronology of events to be established.

128 This paper presents the results of a number of detailed micromorphological and
129 microstructural studies carried out on subglacial tills and identifies significant structures indicative of

130 liquefaction events during till production. It is argued that this evidence is entirely consistent with
131 the stick-slip processes that appear to be operating during soft-bed sliding/ploughing (Brown *et al.*,
132 1987; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2001; Clark *et al.*, 2003; Podolskiy and Walter, 2016) and, moreover, could
133 record the impacts of glacier seismic activity that are now widely reported from modern glacier and
134 ice sheet systems.

135

136 **2. Microscale evidence of subglacial deformation processes and** 137 **liquefaction (Scotland and Switzerland case studies)**

138 Intensive micromorphological analyses of the subglacial traction tills from two case studies are here
139 reported as examples of subglacial process-form products from one lowland (Nairn, Scotland) and
140 one upland (Galmis, Switzerland) setting. Previous investigations at both locations have
141 demonstrated the subglacial genesis of the tills and hence we concentrate here on the microscale
142 evidence for the interactions between bed shearing and porewater fluctuations.

143 Figure 2 shows the compiled results of a micromorphological study of subglacial traction tills
144 exposed at a number of sites in the Nairn area of NE Scotland (Fig. 3). All the sites occur to the north
145 of the Cairngorm plateau and comprise a sequence of brown sandy and silty tills (up to 10 m thick)
146 interstratified with sands and gravels (outwash) containing a high proportion of locally-derived
147 sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic rock fragments (Auton *et al.*, 1990; Phillips *et al.*, 2011;
148 Merritt *et al.*, 2017). The tills were deposited by ice flowing northwards from the Central Highlands
149 towards the coast (Fig. 3) during the main phase of the Late Devensian (Late Weichselian; Marine
150 Isotope Stage 2) glaciation of NE Scotland (see Auton *et al.*, 1990; Phillips *et al.*, 2011; Phillips *et al.*,
151 2013; Merritt *et al.*, 2017). Typical of subglacial traction tills (*sensu* Evans *et al.*, 2006), the
152 diamictons used in this study have developed in a zone of enhanced glacier bed deformation,
153 termed the 'mobile' or 'active' layer by Evans *et al.* (2006). From hereon we use the term 'transient
154 mobile zone' (TMZ) in order to emphasize the spatial and temporal variations in subglacial
155 deforming bed processes proposed by a number of researchers (cf. Piotrowski and Kraus, 1997;
156 Boyce and Eyles, 2000; van der Meer *et al.*, 2003; Larsen *et al.*, 2004, 2007; Piotrowski *et al.*, 2004,
157 2006; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Meriano and Eyles, 2009).

158 In thin section, the Scottish tills are composed of coarse-grained, poorly-sorted, matrix-
159 supported, massive to weakly-stratified, sandy diamictons containing angular to subangular granule
160 to pebble-sized rock fragments. Sand grains are mainly composed of monocrystalline quartz and
161 subordinate amounts of feldspar which exhibit preferred shape alignments (see rose diagrams on
162 Figs. 4 to 11). Detailed microstructural mapping of the thin sections has revealed a complex, but

163 systematic, array of deformation fabrics developed within the diamictons (Figs. 2, 4 to 11). These are
164 interpreted as having formed by the passive rotation of sand grains into the planes of the foliations,
165 defining a number of clast microfabrics (Phillips *et al.*, 2011). Although from different localities
166 across NE Scotland, the tills show a remarkably similar range of microstructures (see Figs. 4 to 11)
167 indicating that there are a number of common processes occurring during their formation, and that
168 subglacial deformation was dominated by foliation development.

169 Three successive generations of microfabric of varying intensity have been identified,
170 reflecting the heterogeneous nature of subglacial deformation (cf. Phillips *et al.*, 2011). The spacing
171 of these microfabrics is controlled by the grain size of the diamicton matrix and spatial distribution
172 of larger clasts (Figs. 2, 4 and 5), which acted as rigid bodies during foliation development. The
173 earliest fabric (S1) dips down-ice (purple on Figs. 2 and 4 to 11) and is either crenulated (folded) (Fig.
174 6) or cross-cut (Fig. 7) by a more pervasive, up-ice dipping second (S2) foliation (green on Figs. 2 and
175 4 to 11). Both S1 and S2 are cross-cut by a heterogeneous third (S3) fabric (dark green on Figs. 2 and
176 4 to 11) which is thought to record the progressive partitioning of deformation into narrow
177 subhorizontal and down-ice dipping shear zones formed during the later stages of deformation. The
178 geometry of the microfabrics is consistent with the formation of a conjugate set of Riedel shears
179 (Passchier and Trouw, 1996) and subhorizontal shear foliation (Fig. 2) in response to shearing
180 imposed by the overriding ice (cf. Phillips *et al.*, 2011; Spagnolo *et al.*, 2016). The orientation,
181 geometry and kinematic indicators (e.g. asymmetry of S-shaped microfabrics) recorded by the
182 fabrics (Figs. 2 and 4 to 11) are consistent throughout the tills and record a north-directed sense of
183 shear, coincident with the regional ice flow pattern across this part of NE Scotland (see Fig. 3).

184 Microstructures formed in response to the rotation of granule and pebble-sized clasts
185 (arcuate grain alignments, small-scale crenulations) during deformation are preserved within the
186 matrix immediately adjacent to these larger clasts, as well as within the microlithons separating the
187 S1 and S2 microfabrics (Figs. 2, 4 and 5). Rotational structures, including turbate structures (van der
188 Meer, 1993, 1997; Menzies, 2000; Hiemstra and Rijdsdijk, 2003), are truncated by the clast
189 microfabrics, indicating that they formed prior to, or during the early stages of foliation
190 development. Comparable rotational structures have also been identified in mass flow deposits
191 where they have been interpreted as forming in response to turbulent flow during emplacement
192 (Lachniet *et al.*, 2001; Phillips, 2006). Turbate structures form where clasts rotate through angles of
193 up to, and greater than 360°, entraining the adjacent finer-grained matrix (van der Meer, 1993;
194 Menzies, 2000). This requires either very high shear strains or the lowering of the shear strength of

195 the till due to liquefaction, allowing the rotation of the clasts at much lower strains (Evans *et al.*,
196 2006).

197 In samples N7126 and N7128 the style and relative intensity of the fabrics is highly variable
198 (Figs. 2, 6 and 7). In the more matrix-rich areas, although both S2 and S3 are present, the earlier S1
199 fabric is relatively weak or absent. In sample N7128 (Fig. 7), S1 is most pronounced within the upper
200 part of the thin section where it is deformed by an open fold and its associated up-ice dipping axial
201 planar S2 fabric. In the slightly sandier core of this fold, however, S1 is apparently absent. The finer
202 grained areas are interpreted as veins and patches of liquefied sediment injected into the till during
203 deformation, between the imposition of S1 and the later S2 and S3 foliations (Phillips *et al.*, 2011).
204 Variation in the overburden pressure exerted in the TMZ by the overlying ice may have resulted in
205 the collapse of the till and “squeezing out” of the liquefied sediment which is then injected into
206 lower strain areas to form cross-cutting veinlets and/or patches of massive till. Deformation of the
207 relatively weak till within the TMZ appears to have been associated with expansion (volume
208 increase) and resulted in localised folding of S1. Subsequent shearing within the TMZ would then
209 lead to renewed foliation development and deformation of the recently injected veins (see Fig. 2).
210 Engineering studies have shown that the inherent density contrasts between an injected fluid and
211 the host material will result in the escaping water-sediment mix being driven upwards towards the
212 surface (Abou-Sayed *et al.*, 1984). In the subglacial environment this means that the liquefied till will
213 be preferentially injected upwards towards the top of the TMZ and the ice-bed interface (Fig. 2; also
214 see Fig. 14), as long as water pressures at the ice-bed interface are not elevated due to strong
215 surface melting.

216 Although the majority of the tills from the Nairn area, like many other subglacial traction
217 tills, appear massive in the field, a subhorizontal stratification is locally apparent in thin section
218 where it is defined by laterally impersistent, wispy-looking lenses composed of slightly darker, more
219 matrix-rich diamicton (N12280, N12281; Figs. 2, 8 and 9). The margins of these lenses are highly
220 irregular to flame-like in nature and are gradational over several millimetres (Fig. 8), resulting in a
221 distinctive “diffuse” to “mottled” appearance to the diamicton. Samples N12280 and N12281 were
222 collected from the same till unit (N12281 collected 50 cm above N12280) and demonstrate that the
223 stratification is variably developed/preserved. The shear related microfibrils clearly cross-cut the
224 layering (Figs. 2, 8 and 9) indicating that their imposition post-dated this stratification.

225 The simplest interpretation of the highly complex stratification present within these two thin
226 sections is that they record the progressive overprinting of the primary layering (e.g. bedding) within
227 this till (Fig 2). Rather than being a product of deformation, the complexity of this stratification is

228 indicative of the disruption typically associated with liquefaction (Phillips *et al.*, 2007; Phillips *et al.*,
229 2013b). Localised saturation of the till may have occurred in response to either the migration of
230 porewater through the sediment and/or the introduction of pressurised meltwater into the bed
231 from the overlying ice. The migration and/or introduction of pressurised meltwater into the bed is
232 supported by a number of studies on modern glaciers (Hooke, 1984; Engelhardt and Kamb, 1997;
233 Hooke *et al.*, 1997; Bartholomaeus *et al.*, 2008; Schoof *et al.*, 2014; Andrews *et al.*, 2014) which have
234 shown that subglacial water pressures are extremely variable over space and time. Loading
235 (compression) or shear (simple shear) of these water-saturated sediments will lead to an increase in
236 intergranular PWP, lowering of the shear strength of the till, and ultimately a loss in the integrity of
237 the sediment. The increase in intergranular PWP forced the constituent grains apart, leading to a
238 reduction in intergranular contacts, lowering the density of the packing of the constituent sand
239 grains, and increasing the volume of the sediment, which ultimately led to localised liquefaction. The
240 increase in the connectivity of the intergranular pore spaces during this process would result in an
241 increase in permeability, enabling the porewater to move/disperse through the sediment and drain
242 away from the liquefied till, leading to “collapse” and solidification the sediment. Repeated phases
243 of liquefaction, potentially coupled with the mobilisation/displacement of the liquefied sediment,
244 would result in a loss of integrity of the original compositional layering, leading to mixing and
245 eventual homogenisation of the till. The shear related microfabrics clearly cross-cut the layering
246 (Figs. 2, 8 and 9), indicating that their imposition post-dated liquefaction and the disruption of this
247 stratification.

248 Two samples of till from the Nairn area (N12278, Fig. 10 and N1279, Fig. 11) are cut by
249 irregular, down-ice dipping veins of silty sand (Fig. 2). The sand is lithologically similar (contains the
250 same range of clast types) to the matrix of the host diamicton indicating that they were derived from
251 the same source. Rather than being sharp planar features, the vein margins are highly complex to
252 gradational, suggesting that they were introduced into the till whilst it was still relatively weak
253 (water-rich/saturated). The veins are coplanar to S3 (Fig. 11) and the down-ice dipping Riedel shears
254 (R-type shears; see inset Fig. 2). Extension occurring across these narrow ductile shear zones aided
255 hydrofracture propagation and the simultaneous injection of the liquefied sand (c.f. cut-and-fill of
256 hydrofractures proposed by Larsen and Mangerud, 1992), indicating that liquefaction was also
257 occurring during the imposition of S3 and the final stages of subglacial deformation. Shear induced
258 by the injection of the pressurised liquefied sediment may have resulted in the observed complex,
259 soft-sediment deformation along the walls of the vein.

260 Further evidence for the liquefaction, mobilisation and injection of till within the subglacial
261 environment is provided by a detailed microstructural and sedimentological study of thinly stratified
262 tills exposed at Galmis, Switzerland (van der Meer, 1979; 1982; Phillips *et al.*, 2013b). Phillips *et al.*
263 (2013b) interpreted the micromorphology of the Galmis till as recording a complex history of
264 deformation, liquefaction and sedimentation during repeated phases of basal sliding as the ice
265 overrode a soft-sediment bed (Fig. 12). The till comprises alternating layers of massive to weakly
266 foliated diamicton and variably deformed laminated silt and clay. It is argued that elevated
267 porewater contents encountered immediately prior to, and during, basal sliding promoted localised
268 liquefaction of the underlying diamicton, with the decoupling of the glacier from its bed enabling the
269 injection of this liquefied sediment along the ice-bed interface and/or into the laminated sediments.
270 Phillips *et al.* (2013b) concluded that the laminated sediments record the settling out of fines (clay,
271 silt) from meltwater trapped along the ice-bed interface after an individual phase of basal sliding has
272 ceased. Injection of the pressurised till into the locally water-saturated silts and clays resulted in
273 partial liquefaction and incomplete mixing ('vinaigrette-like' texture) of these fine-grained sediments
274 with the diamicton (Fig. 12). Recoupling of the ice with its bed led to bed deformation and localised
275 folding and thrusting of the laminated sediments, as well as incipient microfabric development
276 within the diamicton layers. Initial estimates of the strains imposed on these stratified tills indicates
277 that the amount of shear transmitted into the soft-sediment bed during basal sliding are relatively
278 low, allowing the preservation of the fine-scale stratification within the Galmis tills.

279 **3. Soft bed deformation/sliding and the potential for till liquefaction**

280 The concept of subglacial till-forming mosaics, in which the processes of deformation and soft bed
281 sliding/ploughing operate as a spatial and temporal continuum, has been widely promoted (e.g.
282 Piotrowski and Kraus, 1997; Boyce and Eyles, 2000; van der Meer *et al.*, 2003; Larsen *et al.*, 2004,
283 2007; Piotrowski *et al.*, 2004, 2006; Evans *et al.*, 2006; Lee and Phillips, 2008; Meriano and Eyles,
284 2009) and is encapsulated herein by our transient mobile zone (TMZ). This recognition of the spatial
285 and temporal variations in subglacial deforming bed processes also acknowledges that changing
286 water pressures, even at diurnal temporal scales, may result in cycles of decoupling and coupling of
287 the glacier from its bed (e.g. Boulton and Dobbie, 1998; Boulton *et al.*, 2001) and the operation of
288 stick-slip ice motion (e.g. Fischer and Clarke, 1997). The spatial variability in sliding versus
289 deformation also gives rise to the development of 'sticky spots' on the glacier bed (Alley, 1993;
290 Stokes *et al.*, 2007).

291 The stick-slip cycle of sliding and deformation proposed by Boulton *et al.* (2001) accounts for
292 the soft-bed sliding (ploughing) process (Brown *et al.*, 1987; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2001; Clark *et al.*, 2003),
293 when shear stress and water pressure build to the point where till dilates, ice-bed friction is reduced

294 and ice-till decoupling takes place. When water pressures in the dilatant till fall, deformation and ice-
295 bed coupling take over and there is a reduction in the amount of sliding. A continued fall in water
296 pressures then consolidates the dilatant till, enhancing the transmission of strain through this
297 sediment and deeper into the bed, thereby causing the shear zone to migrate downwards through
298 the till. Deformation may stop once the water pressure falls below the critical level for failure,
299 forming a sticky spot. The diurnal changes in water pressure are thought to lead to repeat cycles of
300 dilation and collapse so that the classic curvilinear till displacement curve, which represents
301 cumulative strain, becomes more pronounced with time.

302 Given the important role of variable porewater pressure cycles in driving the stick-slip
303 motion observed at modern glacier beds, the evidence for potential multiple liquefaction events in
304 the subglacial traction tills reported in the Scotland and Switzerland case studies is highly-significant
305 with respect to the exact modes of operation of the subglacial deforming layer and till production.
306 The micromorphological evidence for repeated phases of liquefaction followed by solid-state shear
307 deformation, indicates that the operation of the TMZ involves slip events driven by not only the
308 already widely acknowledged processes of pressurised meltwater and porewater but also the
309 episodic liquefaction of water-saturated till.

310

311 **4. Potential controls on liquefaction and soft-bed deformation/sliding**

312 As identified above, rather than being a continuous uninterrupted cyclical process, the generally
313 accepted view of the forward motion of a glacier is in terms of a series of 'stick-slip' events (Fischer
314 and Clarke, 1997; Fischer *et al.*, 1999; Wiens *et al.*, 2008). One major controlling factor responsible
315 for the glacier 'sticking' to its bed is the downward force imposed by the overlying ice. This
316 overburden pressure results in an increase in the packing of the sediments (consolidation),
317 increasing their shear strength, which in turn restricts forward motion of the glacier as a result of
318 soft-bed sliding. The individual slip events will likely be relatively short-lived, but over time allow the
319 glacier to move forward without becoming unstable. Importantly the slip events occur repeatedly
320 throughout both the summer and winter months requiring that any potential control on soft-bed
321 sliding needs to operate throughout the year. Three potential controls on soft-bed sliding appear to
322 be operating in glacial systems, one of which we hypothesize to be the now widely recognized
323 phenomenon of glacier-related seismicity.

324 **4.1. Control 1: pressurised meltwater**

325 The most commonly cited control on enhanced bed deformation is the introduction of pressurised
326 meltwater into the subglacial environment (e.g. Bartholomaeus *et al.*, 2008). This hypothesis is

327 supported by a number of studies of modern glacier systems which have clearly demonstrated that
328 higher meltwater production during the spring and summer months coincide with an increase in ice
329 surface velocity (Iken *et al.*, 1983; Iken and Bindschadler, 1986; Nienow *et al.*, 2005). This spring-
330 summer 'speed-up' is subsequently followed by a decrease in velocity during the autumn and winter
331 as meltwater production declines and the subglacial hydrogeological system in many glaciers begins
332 to shut down. It is possible that the decrease in surface velocity towards the end of the spring-
333 summer 'speed-up' is also governed by the increased maturation of the subglacial drainage system
334 (e.g. Werder *et al.*, 2013) and the formation of channels which help drain the bed. The porosity and
335 permeability of subglacial sediments will directly affect the rate at which meltwater can penetrate
336 into and migrate through the bed. Several micromorphology studies (Kilfeather and van der Meer,
337 2006; Tarplee *et al.*, 2010) have demonstrated that porosity in tills plays a much more important role
338 in bed deformation than previously thought, confirming the relationship between porosity and bed
339 deformation proposed by Tulaczyk *et al.*, (2000b) in his undrained plastic bed model.

340 Although clay-rich sediments possess a high intergranular porosity, they typically act as an
341 aquitard forming an impermeable barrier at the base of the glacier, leading to the concentration of
342 meltwater and therefore displacement at, or close to, the ice-bed interface (Boulton, 1996a, b;
343 Engelhardt and Kamb, 1998; Tulaczyk, 1999). For example, at one location at the base of Ice Stream
344 B (Whillans Ice Stream), Engelhardt and Kamb (1998) demonstrated that glacier flow was controlled
345 by sliding over a clay-rich till. The clay-rich nature of the till retards water migration allowing the
346 build-up of high porewater pressures and leading to glacier decoupling and thereby promoting
347 forward motion due to basal sliding. This periodic decoupling of the glacier from its bed due to
348 increased basal water pressures prevents the transmission of stress to the substrate (cf. Fischer and
349 Clarke, 1997; Winberry *et al.*, 2009; Iverson, 2010) effectively switching off bed deformation and/or
350 soft-bed sliding, and promoting basal sliding. This has been proposed in order to explain the
351 apparent lack of pervasive subglacial deformation structures within a number of till sequences found
352 in the geological record (Brown *et al.*, 1987; Clark and Hansel, 1989; Piotrowski and Kraus, 1997;
353 Piotrowski and Tulaczyk, 1999; Piotrowski *et al.*, 1999, 2001, 2002; Hoffmann and Piotrowski, 2001;
354 Lee and Phillips, 2008; Phillips *et al.*, 2013b; Lee *et al.*, 2016).

355 In contrast to clay-rich subglacial sediments, highly-permeable sands and gravels provide an
356 ideal fluid pathway which can promote dewatering of the bed, effectively switching off soft-bed
357 sliding and basal-slip. This illustrates the potential lithological control on not only the subglacial
358 hydrological system but also the mechanism for glacier motion across its bed. In a theoretical
359 overview of the deformation process, Boulton (1996) suggested that clay-rich tills do not couple to

360 the ice base as well as coarse-grained tills and will only deform to a shallow depth. This implies that
361 the relative importance of sliding versus deformation will vary according to the granulometry of the
362 glacier bed. Consequently, it is possible that the presence of coarse-grained, permeable sediments
363 beneath glaciers could represent a major factor governing the formation of “sticky spots” beneath
364 the overriding ice. However, a study by Salamon (2016) on the subglacial conditions beneath the
365 Weichselian Scandinavian ice sheet in southern Poland suggests that despite the high permeability
366 of the coarse-grained sediments within its bed, ice sheet movement was not impeded. In this case
367 forward motion is believed to have been accomplished by a combination of basal slip and localised
368 shallow bed deformation due to high basal water pressures resulting from permafrost restricting
369 subglacial groundwater outflow. Consequently the potential for soft-bed sliding to be initiated is not
370 only dependent on the permeability of the substratum, but also the connectivity of the aquifer and
371 the presence of hydraulic pathways which facilitate/promote the dewatering of the bed.

372 One potential way to promote soft-bed sliding would be to increase the volume of
373 meltwater reaching the bed. However, where the bed is composed of low to moderately permeable
374 sediments this is more likely to overwhelm the rate at which these sediments can transmit large
375 volumes of fluid. The direct result would be the development of a stable (channelized) subglacial
376 drainage system. This highly efficient drainage system would rapidly remove any excess meltwater
377 from the subglacial environment, leading to the dewatering of the bed. Furthermore several studies
378 suggest that during periods of low flow, the lowering of the water levels within subglacial drainage
379 channels leads to the development of a hydrostatic gradient towards these open conduits,
380 promoting the dewatering of the sediments adjacent to the channel walls (Hubbard *et al.*, 1995;
381 Boulton *et al.*, 2007a, b; Magnússon *et al.*, 2010).

382 An alternative approach to increasing the volume of meltwater reaching the base of glacier
383 is to increase the pressure of the subglacial meltwater system. An increase in the effective pressure
384 (ice overburden minus water pressure) would help drive water from the ice-bed interface into the
385 bed, overcoming the limiting factor presented by the permeability of the till. However, if the
386 pressure exceeds the shear strength of the sediment it will result in hydrofracturing of either the bed
387 and/or overlying ice. Hydrofracture systems are increasingly being recognised in glacial
388 environments and provide clear evidence for the movement of pressurised meltwater through
389 subglacial to ice-marginal settings (Dionne and Shilts, 1974; Christiansen *et al.*, 1982; von Brunn and
390 Talbot, 1986; Burbridge *et al.*, 1988; Dreimanis, 1992; Larsen and Mangerud, 1992; McCabe and
391 Dardis, 1994; Dreimanis and Rappol, 1997; van der Meer *et al.*, 1999; Rijdsdijk *et al.*, 1999; Le Heron
392 and Etienne, 2005; Boulton, 2006; Goździk and van Loon, 2007; van der Meer *et al.*, 2009; Phillips

393 and Merritt, 2008; Phillips *et al.*, 2013a; Phillips and Hughes, 2014). They record marked changes in
394 hydrostatic pressure within the subglacial meltwater system, leading to brittle fracturing and
395 penecontemporaneous liquefaction and the introduction of a sediment-fill, and can occur in both
396 soft (sedimentary) and/or hard (bedrock) beds (see van der Meer *et al.*, 2009; Phillips *et al.*, 2013a).
397 Due to the pressurised nature of the meltwater, the sediment-fill can be introduced from
398 structurally above (downward injection) or below (upward injection) the developing hydrofracture
399 system (Dreimanis, 1992; Rijdsdijk *et al.*, 1999; Le Heron and Etienne, 2005; Goździk and van Loon,
400 2007; van der Meer *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, it is becoming increasingly apparent that the
401 introduction of pressurised meltwater can have a profound effect on subglacial to ice-marginal
402 deformation. It can, for example, aid the development of water-lubricated detachments within the
403 sediment pile (e.g. Phillips *et al.*, 2002; Benediktsson *et al.*, 2008; Vaughan-Hirsch and Phillips, 2016)
404 and thereby promote rapid ice movement (e.g. Kjær *et al.*, 2006), and aid the initial detachment and
405 transport of sediment and/or bedrock rafts (e.g. Moran *et al.*, 1980; Broster and Seaman, 1991;
406 Phillips and Merritt, 2008; Burke *et al.*, 2009; Vaughan-Hirsh *et al.*, 2013). Several studies have
407 shown that once formed, hydrofracture systems can be reactivated on multiple occasions (Phillips
408 and Merritt, 2008; Phillips *et al.*, 2013a; Phillips and Hughes, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2015) and as a result
409 have the potential to profoundly influence subglacial drainage. The overpressurised states required
410 to reactivate an existing hydrofracture system are likely to be much lower than those required
411 during its initial formation, in effect forming the “pressure release valve” proposed by van der Meer
412 *et al.* (2009). Consequently, the introduction of pressurised meltwater into the sediments beneath
413 the ice as a trigger for bed deformation and/or soft-bed sliding will be controlled by their
414 permeability and shear strength. Both of these factors will have a direct impact on the magnitude of
415 the fluid pressures which can be achieved before the onset of hydrofracturing, leading to draining of
416 the bed and depressurisation of the system.

417 **4.2. Control 2: glacitectonism**

418 A second potential control on increasing the intergranular porewater pressure leading to
419 liquefaction in subglacial sediments is glacitectonism. Compression resulting from folding and/or the
420 stacking/imbrication of fault-bound slabs of sediment during thrusting can lead to a localised
421 increase in overburden pressure. This in-turn can lead to an increase in porewater pressure and
422 potential liquefaction in response to the glacitectonic thickening of the bed. However, the thrust
423 planes or ductile shear zones responsible for this imbrication have the potential to act as fluid
424 pathways, helping to transmit water through the deforming sediment pile (Benediktsson *et al.*, 2008;
425 Lee and Phillips, 2008; Phillips *et al.*, 2008; Vaughan-Hirsch and Phillips, 2016). Migration of
426 meltwater along these potentially laterally extensive glacitectonic structures is driven by the

427 hydropotential gradient, resulting from the increased overburden pressure and/or compression
428 deeper within the deforming sequence. This could lead to the dewatering of the sediment and
429 transition from initial ductile shearing to subsequent brittle deformation.

430 Importantly, thrusting and stacking of detached slabs of till is only likely to occur at the
431 glacier margin where the ice is thinnest (Evans and Hiemstra, 2005; Hiemstra *et al.*, 2007; Lee *et al.*,
432 2016; Vaughan-Hirsch and Phillips, 2016). Further up-ice, large-scale tectonic thickening of the bed is
433 less likely as not only is this an area of low driving stress but also the process requires the glacier to
434 be lifted vertically to overcome the relatively high overburden pressures and to provide the required
435 accommodation space for the stacking (imbrication) of the detached thrust slices. Consequently, the
436 thickening of the bed in response to large-scale glaciectonic thrusting is less likely to be a
437 contributing factor to triggering liquefaction and soft-bed sliding.

438 **4.3. Control 3: glacier related seismicity**

439 A third and potentially more important control on liquefaction, and thereby soft-bed sliding, which
440 has yet to be considered by the glaciological community is the seismicity caused by icequakes or
441 glacier quakes. Recent studies in modern glacial environments (e.g. Ekstrom *et al.*, 2003; Ekstrom *et*
442 *al.*, 2006; Tsai and Ekstrom, 2007; Wiens *et al.*, 2008; Peng *et al.*, 2014; Lipovsky and Dunham, 2016;
443 Podolskiy *et al.*, 2016) have demonstrated that modern glaciers are seismically active with icequakes
444 occurring in response to movement on faults within the glacier or underlying bed, crevasse/fracture
445 propagation, iceberg calving, seracs toppling in ice-falls, opening and closing of englacial drainage
446 conduits and/or slip events at the ice base. These processes are an integral part of glacier flow and
447 as such can occur along the entire length of the glacier and also throughout the year. Seismic events
448 related to these processes are therefore continually releasing energy into the surrounding ice and
449 underlying bed. Wiens *et al.*, (2008) have shown that these events can release over a prolonged
450 period of time (e.g. up to 30 minutes) the same amount of energy as a moment magnitude 7
451 earthquake. However, the seismic amplitudes are modest (M_s 3.6–4.2) due to the long source
452 duration of these events (Wiens *et al.*, 2008). The energy released from an ice-quake can also travel
453 in all directions, and therefore migrate both up- and down-ice from its hypocentre (focus).
454 Consequently the seismic effects of, for example, a large iceberg calving event at the glacier margin
455 has the potential to have an impact several kilometres up-ice. Seismic signals can also be generated
456 by slip initiation at the glacier bed (Wiens *et al.*, 2008; Walter *et al.*, 2011; Lipovsky and Dunham,
457 2016).

458 The liquefaction of unconsolidated sediments as a result of the seismicity caused by
459 earthquakes is well-known and represents a major geological hazard (Holzer *et al.*, 1989; Youd,

2003; Miwa *et al.*, 2006). Evidence of palaeoseismic induced liquefaction (seismites) has also been reported from the geological record (Obermeier, 1998; Menzies and Taylor, 2003; Green *et al.*, 2005; Obermeier *et al.*, 2005). Seismically induced liquefaction depends upon several factors, including earthquake moment magnitude (i.e. total energy released), shaking duration, peak ground motion, depth to groundwater table, susceptibility of sediments to liquefaction, and water saturation (Youd, 1978; Youd, 2003 and references therein). Liquefaction is typically observed associated with earthquakes of magnitude 5 or above. However, it can also occur in water-saturated sediments at much lower magnitudes, for example during the 1865 Barrow (UK) earthquake, a very shallow focus low moment magnitude (Mw 3) quake generated localised liquefaction and formation of sand volcanoes in the saturated tidal sands of Morecambe Bay (R. Musson pers. comm.). Importantly, this instability may remain after the initial event which triggered liquefaction has passed/dissipated with subsequent, smaller aftershocks potentially leading to further/renewed liquefaction of the superficial deposits even at lower magnitudes.

A direct link between glacier seismicity and the localised liquefaction of the soft, unconsolidated sediments within the bed has yet to be demonstrated in contemporary glacial environments. However, the magnitude and duration of icequakes reported in the literature (e.g. Ekstrom *et al.*, 2003) do compare favourably with earthquakes which are known to have induced liquefaction. Furthermore, the sediments forming the bed of a glacier meet the criteria required for seismically induced liquefaction, in particular: they are typically composed of unconsolidated, granular sediments which have the potential to undergo liquefaction; they can possess a high water content and are at, or near saturation; and the water table within subglacial environments is high or even perched, being constrained within the soft bed by the underlying less permeable bedrock and the overlying ice. Consequently, it is feasible that the energy released during the larger icequakes has the potential to result in liquefaction and sliding within the underlying soft-sediment bed. It is important to stress that seismically induced liquefaction of the bed would be localised in nature as a direct consequence of the spatial and temporal variation in sediment grain size, composition, porosity, permeability and water content. Furthermore, the consolidation of subglacial sediments is very variable. Subglacial sediments are typically consolidated, with lower consolidation ratios in actively deforming "slippery spots" within the bed (Clarke, 1987; Boulton and Dobbie, 1993; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2000; Leeman *et al.*, 2016). Basal freeze-on can also further elevate consolidation ratios by removing water from the till (Christoffersen and Tulaczyk, 2003a, b) further adding to the localised nature of the potential for soft-bed sliding. The confining pressure exerted by the ice can also prevent dilation and/or liquefaction of the sediments within the bed, effectively applying a 'breaking mechanism' to glacier motion. Consequently, liquefaction and soft-bed sliding is likely to only occur

494 in response to icequakes over a certain magnitude, once again promoting a “stick-slip” style of
495 glacier motion.

496

497 **5. Seismically induced soft-bed sliding in subglacial sediments?**

498 During an icequake the pulse of energy released passes through the ice and into the underlying
499 water saturated sediments and has the potential to provide a ‘trigger’ for dilation and transient
500 liquefaction, and soft-bed sliding (Figs. 13 and 14). On a granular scale this relatively short duration
501 pulse of energy causes the individual clasts within the sediment to vibrate, modifying the packing of
502 the grains and leading to the pressurisation of the intergranular porewater (Fig. 13). Seismicity will
503 cause liquefaction if it results in the effective stress becoming zero or negative, so that porewater
504 completely relieves the granular skeleton of its compressive stresses (Zhang and Campbell, 1992; Xu
505 and Yu, 1997). The effect of this sudden increase in PWP is to reduce the number of grain to grain
506 contacts, allowing the individual clasts to move (slide or rotate) past one another. The net effect is to
507 reduce sediment shear strength, leading to dilation and thereby allowing soft-bed sliding to occur.
508 This seismically induced ‘vibrating’ effect would propagate away from the focus of the ice-quake as a
509 pulse or series of pulses (i.e. shear waves or ‘S-waves’). Thus, if the porewater pressure anomaly is
510 sufficiently large, areas of the subglacial bed would initially undergo localised soft-bed sliding,
511 followed by stabilisation outwards away from the icequake focus as a result of dewatering. Youd
512 (2003) describes how the oscillating ground motion caused during an earthquake results in repeated
513 reversals in the direction of shear releasing the effects of dilative arrest and resulting in repeated
514 episodes of liquefaction and flow deformation as well as the arrest process. If applicable to the
515 subglacial environment, this cyclic liquefaction (Youd, 2003) would potentially aid in maintaining
516 soft-bed sliding during the duration of the icequake (potentially up to several minutes). However,
517 dilative arrest (Youd, 2003) will result in the collapse and increased packing of the sediment
518 (compaction) in effect switching off soft-bed sliding.

519 Due to the highly-heterogeneous nature of the sediments beneath glaciers, liquefaction
520 leading to soft-bed sliding will be localised in nature, probably occurring within discrete, laterally
521 discontinuous patches or narrow zones in the order of only a few centimetres or even millimetres
522 thick. As liquefaction operates only in materials already at very low values of effective stress, it is
523 most likely to take place only in glacier sub-marginal settings and hence its process-form signatures
524 are indicative of glacier sub-marginal tills. The accompanying dilation will lead to a temporary
525 increase in the connectivity between intergranular pore spaces within the sediment and therefore
526 the permeability of the bed, enabling the transmission of porewater through the till (Fig. 13). This in

527 turn could facilitate the migration of flow deformation (soft-bed sliding) through the TMZ (Fig. 14).
528 The amount of forward movement accommodated/achieved during an individual icequake induced
529 'slip event' is likely to be relatively small. However, this displacement may, in itself, trigger further
530 smaller seismic events within the bed or at the ice-bed interface (see Fig. 14), and thereby help to
531 maintain soft-bed sliding after the initial seismic trigger has passed. As soon as the energy released
532 by the icequake has been dissipated (probably taking only a few minutes), the fall in intergranular
533 PWP and increase in sediment shear strength will result in the cessation of flow deformation, and
534 hence forward movement will stop.

535 Spatial variation in, for example, ice thickness will lead to the variation in the magnitude of
536 the overburden pressure being exerted on the underlying bed. The resultant hydrostatic pressure
537 gradients will facilitate or even promote the displacement (mobilisation) of the liquefied sediment
538 and its injection into relatively lower pressure areas within the bed (Fig. 14). As a result, flow
539 deformation and soft-bed sliding would migrate through the bed (labelled 1 to 4 on Fig. 14). The
540 positive buoyancy of liquefied sediments means that migration will occur both laterally and
541 vertically, with the fluidised sediment preferentially migrating upwards through the bed where it will
542 be confined at, or close to the ice-bed interface (Fig. 14; also see Fig. 2). This may lead to the
543 effective dewatering of the structurally lower parts of the bed and an increase in the height of the
544 water table toward the base of the glacier. Over time the net result will be for forward motion of the
545 glacier due to soft-bed sliding, preferentially concentrated within the upper part of the bed (Fig. 14).
546 The presence of a less permeable or more cohesive (i.e. clay-rich) layer or even an overridden
547 (buried) permafrost layer within the bed, however, may impair the upward migration of the
548 liquefied sediment, trapping it at a lower structural level and leading to forward motion being
549 accommodated at this deeper level (Fig. 14).

550 **6. Feedback mechanism leading to glacier motion**

551 In reality glacier movement due to soft-bed sliding will be controlled by subglacial PWP, glacier
552 seismic activity and deformation (Fig. 15a). The interplay between these factors is thought to lead to
553 a feedback mechanism which helps maintain glacier motion (Fig. 15b). The cycle begins with an
554 icequake associated with ice deformation, potentially leading to localised liquefaction of the
555 underlying sediments, triggering soft-bed sliding within the bed. This forward movement leads to
556 further extensional deformation (crevassing) within the ice and continued seismic activity, which in
557 turn triggers further sliding and the cycle starts again (Fig. 15b). Importantly, ice deformation and
558 the associated seismicity is a relatively continuous process that occurs throughout the year, enabling
559 forward motion of the glacier to be maintained. In addition, seasonal increases in meltwater
560 productivity can potentially facilitate movement by increasing the saturation of the bed, leading to

561 either increasing amounts of soft-bed sliding and/or basal sliding. However, dewatering of the bed,
562 either due to the development of a stable subglacial drainage system and/or hydrofracturing, will
563 disrupt this feedback loop and “switch off” forward movement.

564 Fast flowing glaciers and ice streams are characteristically highly crevassed (see Benn and
565 Evans, 2010 and references therein) and are therefore likely to be more seismically active, leading to
566 an increase in the rate at which they pass through the feedback loop (Fig. 15b). Large-scale (decadal)
567 fluctuations in subglacial hydrogeology (Clarke, 2005) may promote a periodicity within this
568 feedback mechanism potentially leading to surge-type behaviour. Alternatively, if conditions
569 conducive to soft-bed sliding and basal sliding are maintained then the repeated “cycling” of the
570 feedback loop has the potential to result in fast ice flow and ice streaming. Tidal modulation of
571 subglacial stresses and stick-slip motion has also been proposed for tidewater or floating glacier
572 snouts by Bindschadler *et al.* (2003a, b) and Walker *et al.* (2013). Such external controls on stick-slip
573 motion, and indeed on icequake activity, are likely to play a more dominant role than those
574 operating under thicker ice, where basal driving stress predominantly exceeds sediment strength so
575 that deformation is a continuous uninterrupted process (e.g. Schofield and Wroth, 1968; Iverson *et*
576 *al.*, 1998; Tulaczyk *et al.*, 2000a; Damsgaard *et al.*, 2013, 2015). In contrast, the sticky spots
577 identified on ice stream beds represent the very few places where till strength is sufficiently high
578 enough to exceed driving stress (e.g. Alley, 1993; Joughin *et al.*, 2004) and hence arrest deformation.
579 The higher effective pressures beneath such areas of thicker ice make it unlikely that liquefaction
580 could operate in the subglacial deforming till mosaic. But the existence of materials already at low
581 values of effective stress for at least part of the time in glacier sub-marginal settings make this a
582 prime location for the operation of liquefaction in response to glacier seismicity (cf. Zhang and
583 Campbell, 1992; Xu and Yu, 1997) and hence its process-form signatures are likely indicative of
584 glacier sub-marginal tills.

585 **7. Conclusions**

586 This paper provides a review of the theoretical models of glacier forward motion involving
587 deformation of the soft-sediments within the underlying bed. The results of several detailed
588 microstructural studies clearly demonstrate that this deformation results in the development of a
589 range of ductile and brittle structures as these potentially water-saturated sediments accommodate
590 the shearing being applied by the overriding glacier. The geometry of the clast microfabrics
591 developed within matrix of these polydeformed subglacial traction tills are consistent with the
592 development of Riedel shears within a subhorizontal or very gently dipping shear zone located
593 within the bed of the overriding ice. Furthermore, these studies also reveal that tills may also
594 contain evidence of having undergone repeated phases of liquefaction prior to a final phase of solid-

595 state shear deformation as this subglacial shear zone begins to lock up. Liquefaction within the bed
596 is short-lived and results in the lowering of the shear strength of the till. This leads to the formation
597 of spatially and temporally restricted “transient mobile zones” within subglacial traction tills,
598 effectively resulting in decoupling within the glacier bed, likely concentrated in glacier sub-marginal
599 zones where materials are at low values of effective stress. This process is referred to as “soft-bed
600 sliding” and forms part of a continuum with bed deformation and basal sliding that facilitate glacier
601 movement. The spatial and temporal variations in the physical properties of subglacial traction tills
602 means that the dominant mechanism responsible for their forward motion will also vary across the
603 bed (spatial) and will change over time (temporal). Rather than being a continuous uninterrupted
604 process, the generally accepted view is that glacier motion occurs in a series of ‘stick-slip’ events.
605 Consequently it is essential for there to be a specific control built into the glacier system which
606 enables forward motion to take place. The individual slip events resulting from liquefaction and soft-
607 bed sliding are relatively short-lived, but over time allow the glacier to move forward without
608 becoming unstable. Three potential controls are proposed: (i) the introduction of pressurised
609 meltwater into the bed; (ii) the pressurisation of pore water already present within the till as a result
610 of subglacial deformation; and (iii) the periodic liquefaction of water-saturated subglacial traction
611 tills in response to glacier seismic activity (icequakes). In reality soft-bed sliding is likely to result as a
612 consequence of the interplay between deformation, meltwater content/pressure and glacier seismic
613 activity, and leading to a cyclic feedback mechanism that promotes the continued forward motion of
614 the overriding ice mass.

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625

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1034

1035 **Figures**

1036 **Fig. 1.** Diagram showing the zonation of a relatively homogeneous subglacially deforming till and its
1037 relationship to “dilation”, displacement, sediment volume, shear strength, connectivity and pore
1038 water pressure (after Evans *et al.*, 2006).

1039 **Fig. 2.** Diagram showing the compiled results of a detailed micromorphological and microstructural
1040 study carried out on a series of subglacial traction tills exposed in the Nairn-Inverness area of NE
1041 Scotland (see text for details).

1042 **Fig. 3.** Map showing the location of the Meads of St. John, Riereach Burn, Drynachan Burn, Dalcharn
1043 Burn, Cothall, Easterton farm and ‘stream’ sites in the Nairn-Inverness area of NE Scotland. Also
1044 shown are the generalized ice-movement directions within the Moray Firth Ice Stream and ice
1045 flowing northwards from the Cairngorm plateau across Lochindorb and down the valley of the River
1046 Findhorn.

1047 **Fig. 4.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N7126), the sandstone-
1048 rich Dalcharn Lower Till exposed in a river section at Dalcharn West [NH 8144 4528], NE Scotland
1049 (after Phillips *et al.*, 2011).

1050 **Fig. 5.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N7128), the basal grey-
1051 brown metasandstone and granite-rich till exposed at Riereach Burn [NH 83903 43151], NE Scotland
1052 (after Phillips *et al.*, 2011).

1053 **Fig. 6.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N7129), the basal grey-
1054 brown metasandstone and granite-rich till exposed at Riereach Burn [NH 83903 43151], NE Scotland
1055 (after Phillips *et al.*, 2011).

1056 **Fig. 7.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N7132), the basal grey-
1057 brown metasandstone and granite-rich till exposed at Riereach Burn [NH 84503 44132], NE Scotland
1058 (after Phillips *et al.*, 2011).

1059 **Fig. 8.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N12278) exposed at
1060 Cothall [NJ 04463 54103], NE Scotland.

1061 **Fig. 9.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N12279) exposed at
1062 Cothall [NJ 04463 54103], NE Scotland.

1063 **Fig. 10.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N12280) exposed at
1064 Nairn (stream) [NJ 04162 54102], NE Scotland.

1065 **Fig. 11.** Microstructural map of a polydeformed subglacial traction till (sample N12281) exposed at
1066 Nairn (stream) [NJ 04162 54102], NE Scotland.

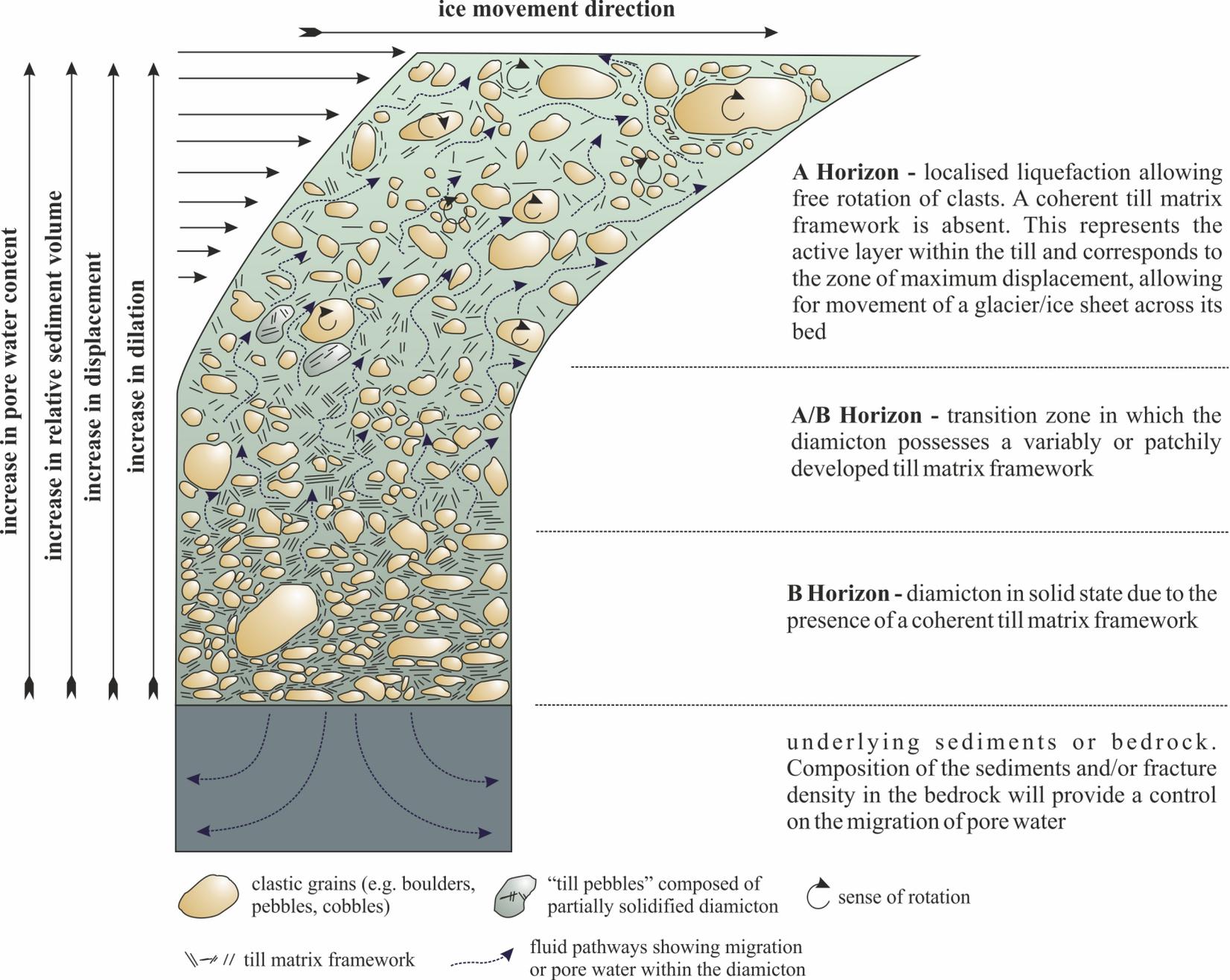
1067 **Fig. 12.** Diagram showing the microstructural maps constructed for a series of thin sections taken
1068 from a thinly stratified till exposed at Galmis, Switzerland (Phillips *et al.*, 2013).

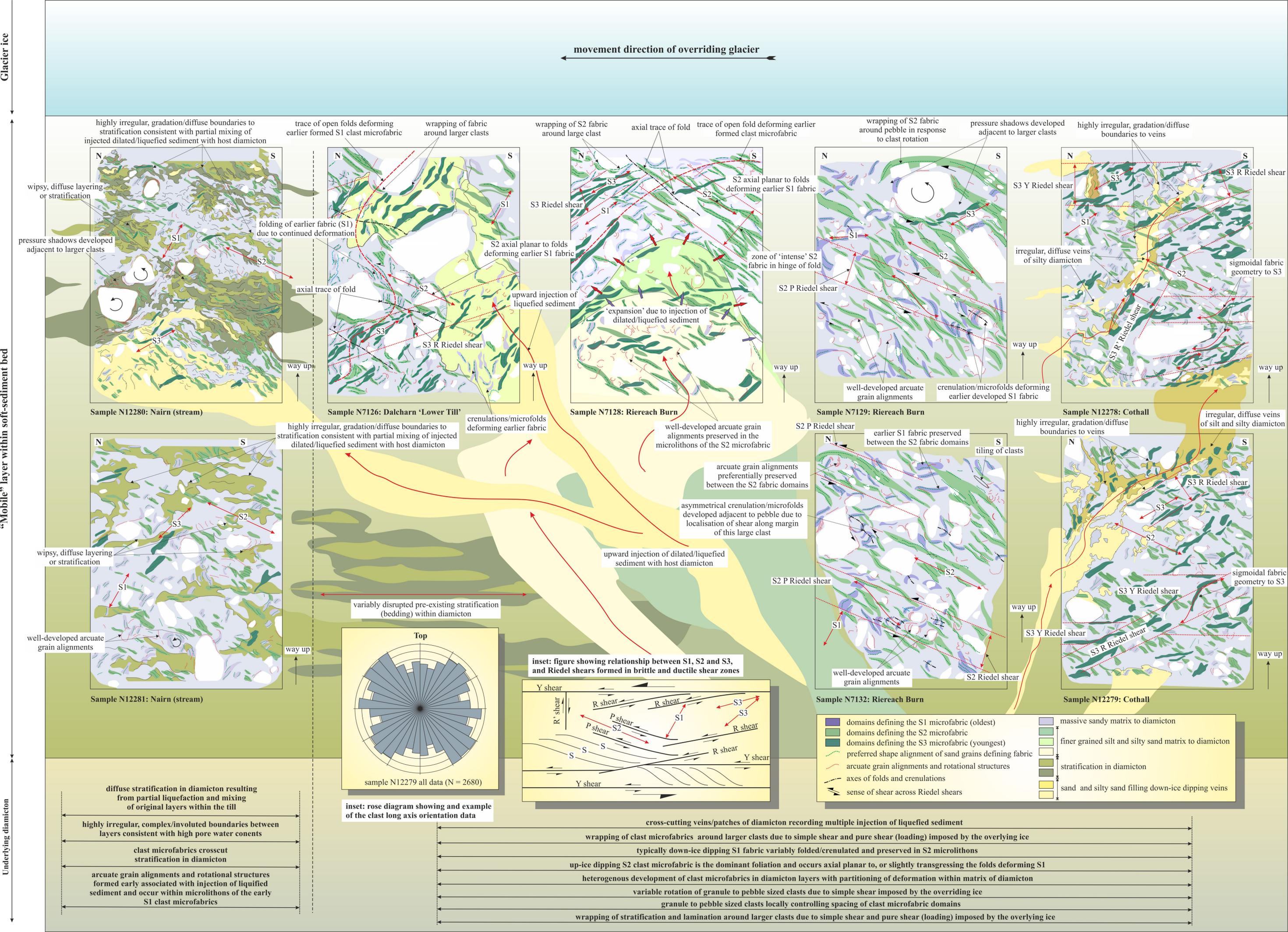
1069 **Fig. 13.** Diagram illustrating the effects of the seismic waves generated during an icequake on the
1070 unconsolidated sediments within the bed (see text for details).

1071 **Fig. 14.** Diagram showing the proposed conceptual model leading to the development of a “transient
1072 mobile zone” (TMZ) within the bed of glacier in response to an icequake (see text for details).

1073 **Fig. 15.** (a) Schematic ternary diagram showing the relative effects of deformation, increased
1074 meltwater and ice quakes as potential triggers for soft-bed sliding versus bed deformation versus
1075 basal sliding as the main mechanism for glacier motion; and (b) Flow-chart showing the proposed

1076 feedback mechanism responsible for promoting forward glacier motion as a result of soft-bed sliding
1077 induced by icequake activity.



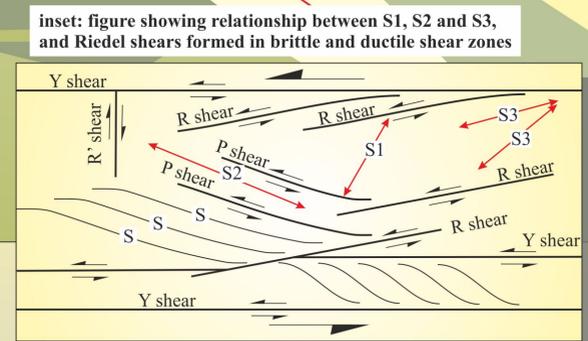
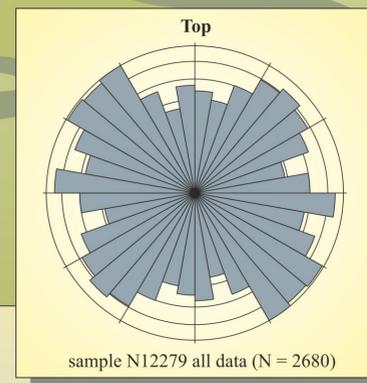
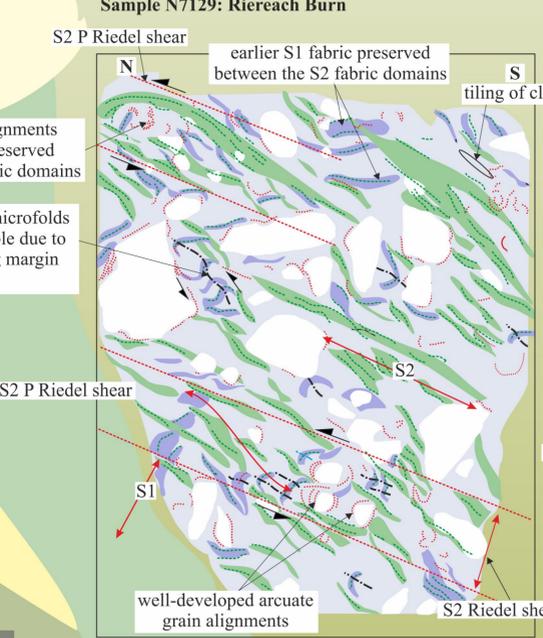
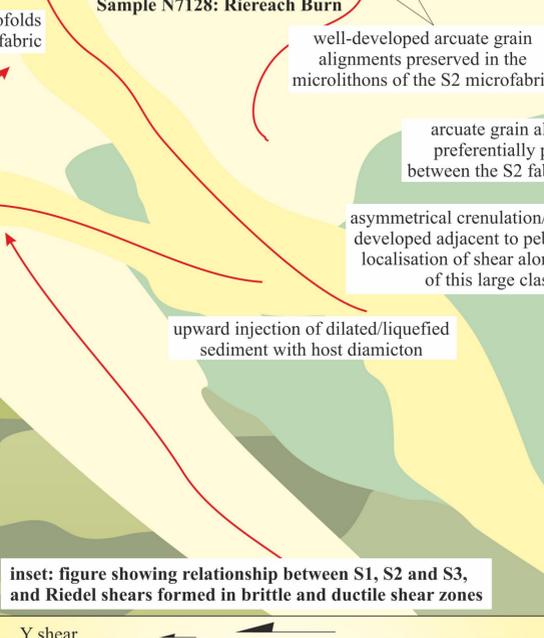
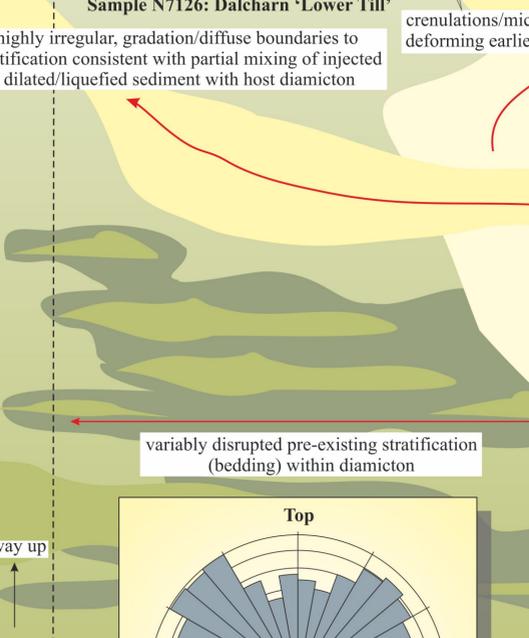
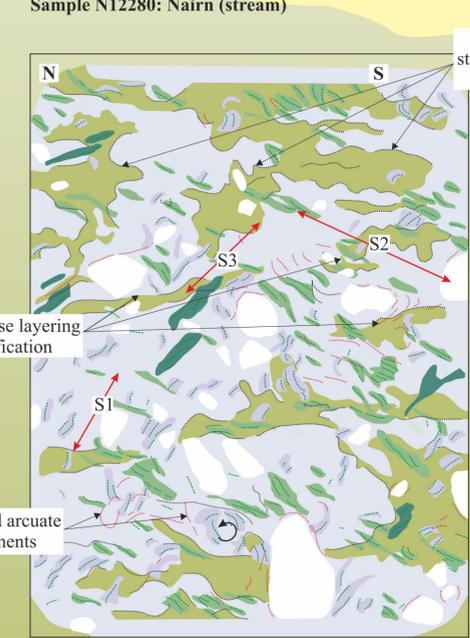
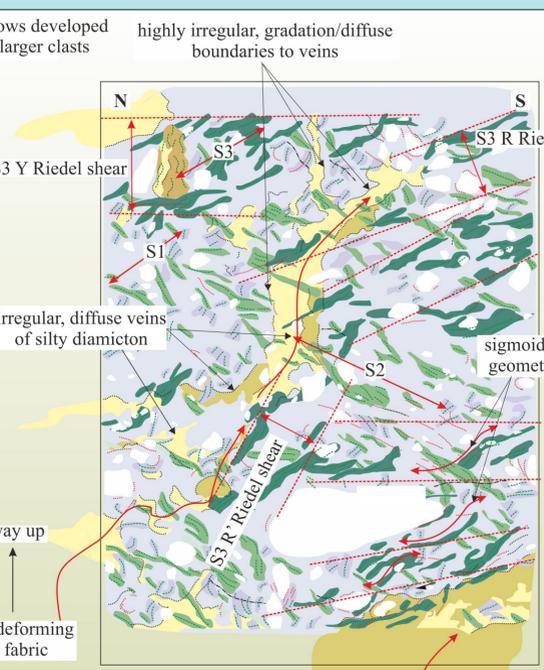
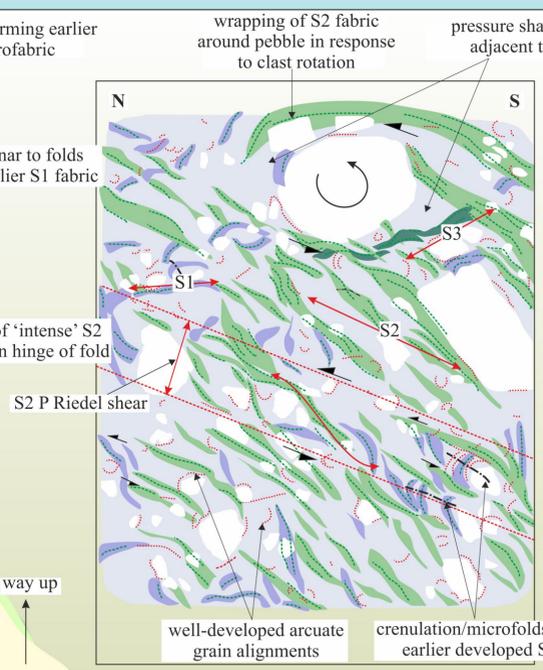
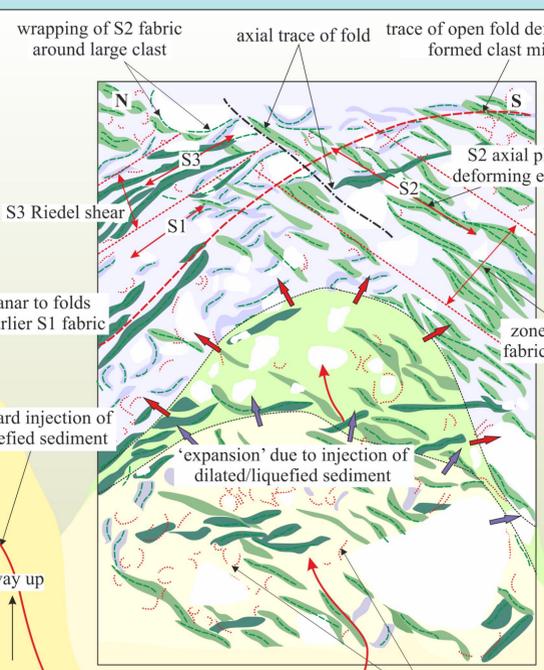
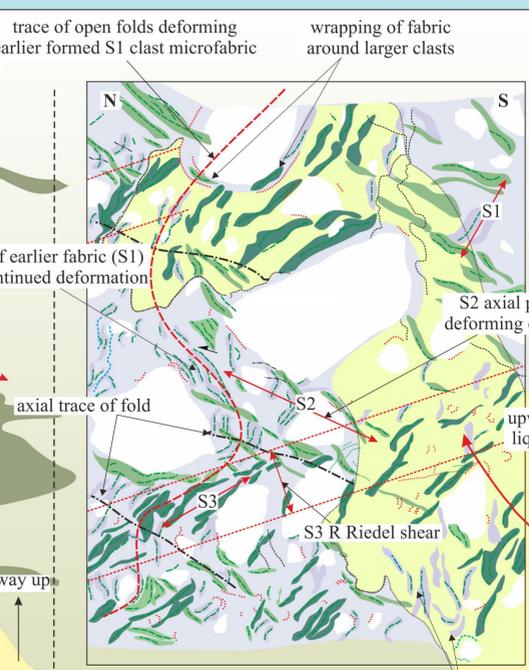
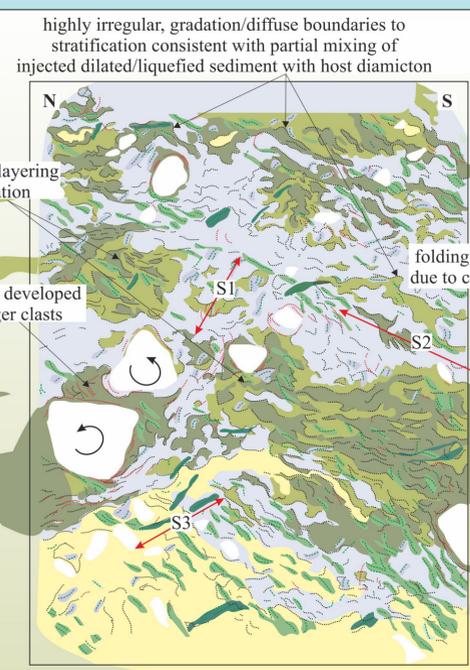


movement direction of overriding glacier

Glacier ice

“Mobile” layer within soft-sediment bed

Underlying diamicton



- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)
- preferred shape alignment of sand grains defining fabric
- arcuate grain alignments and rotational structures
- axes of folds and crenulations
- sense of shear across Riedel shears
- massive sandy matrix to diamicton
- finer grained silt and silty sand matrix to diamicton
- stratification in diamicton
- sand and silty sand filling down-ice dipping veins

diffuse stratification in diamicton resulting from partial liquefaction and mixing of original layers within the till

highly irregular, complex/involuted boundaries between layers consistent with high pore water contents

clast microfabrics crosscut stratification in diamicton

arcuate grain alignments and rotational structures formed early associated with injection of liquified sediment and occur within microlithons of the early S1 clast microfabrics

inset: rose diagram showing and example of the clast long axis orientation data

cross-cutting veins/patches of diamicton recording multiple injection of liquefied sediment

wrapping of clast microfabrics around larger clasts due to simple shear and pure shear (loading) imposed by the overlying ice

typically down-ice dipping S1 fabric variably folded/crenulated and preserved in S2 microlithons

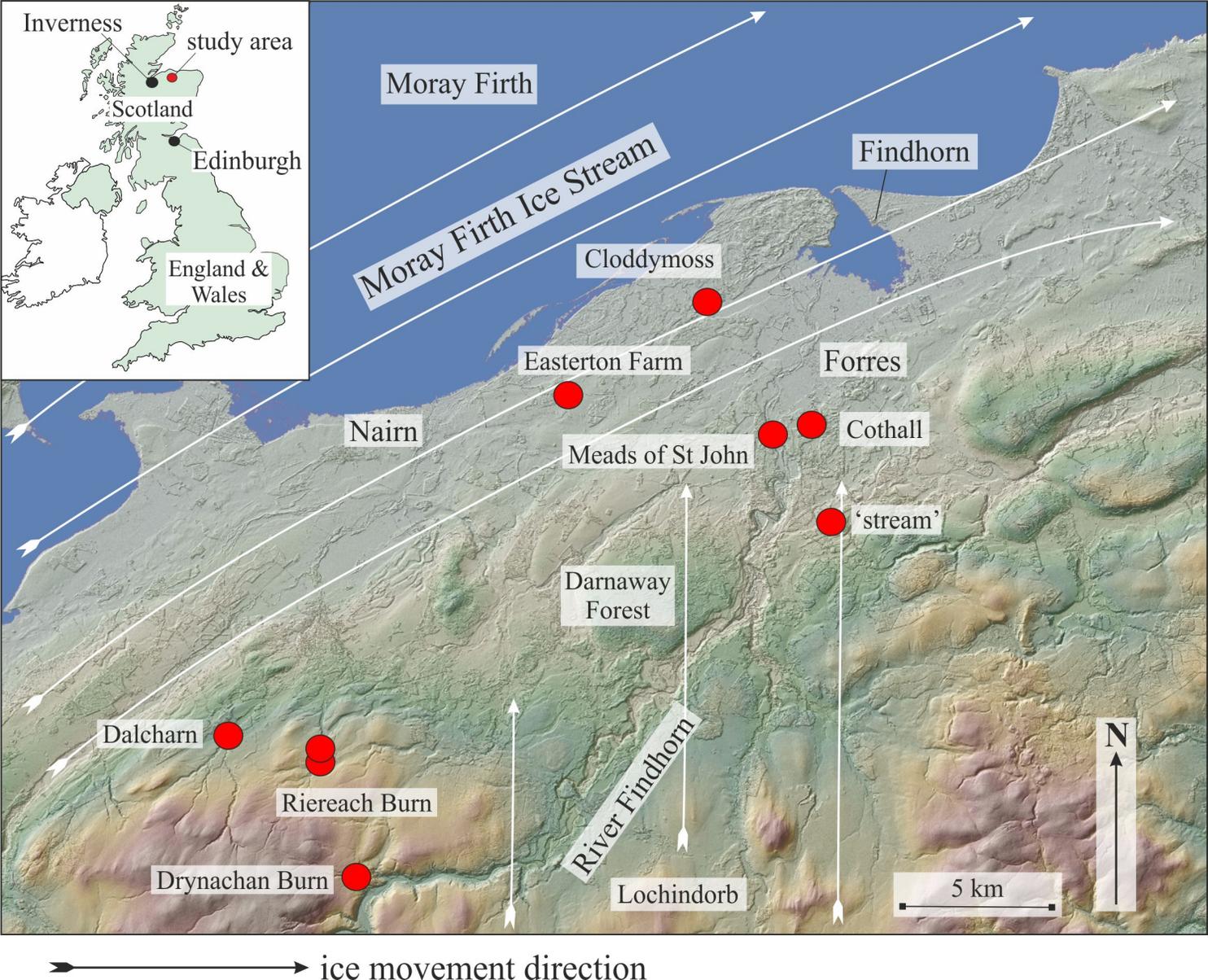
up-ice dipping S2 clast microfabric is the dominant foliation and occurs axial planar to, or slightly transgressing the folds deforming S1

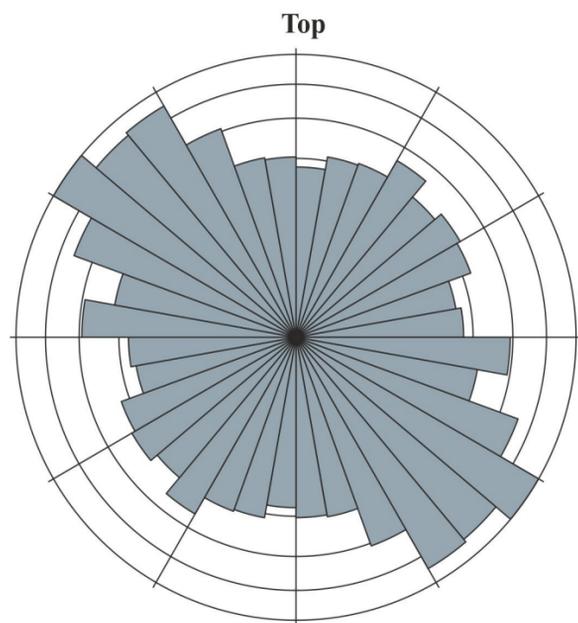
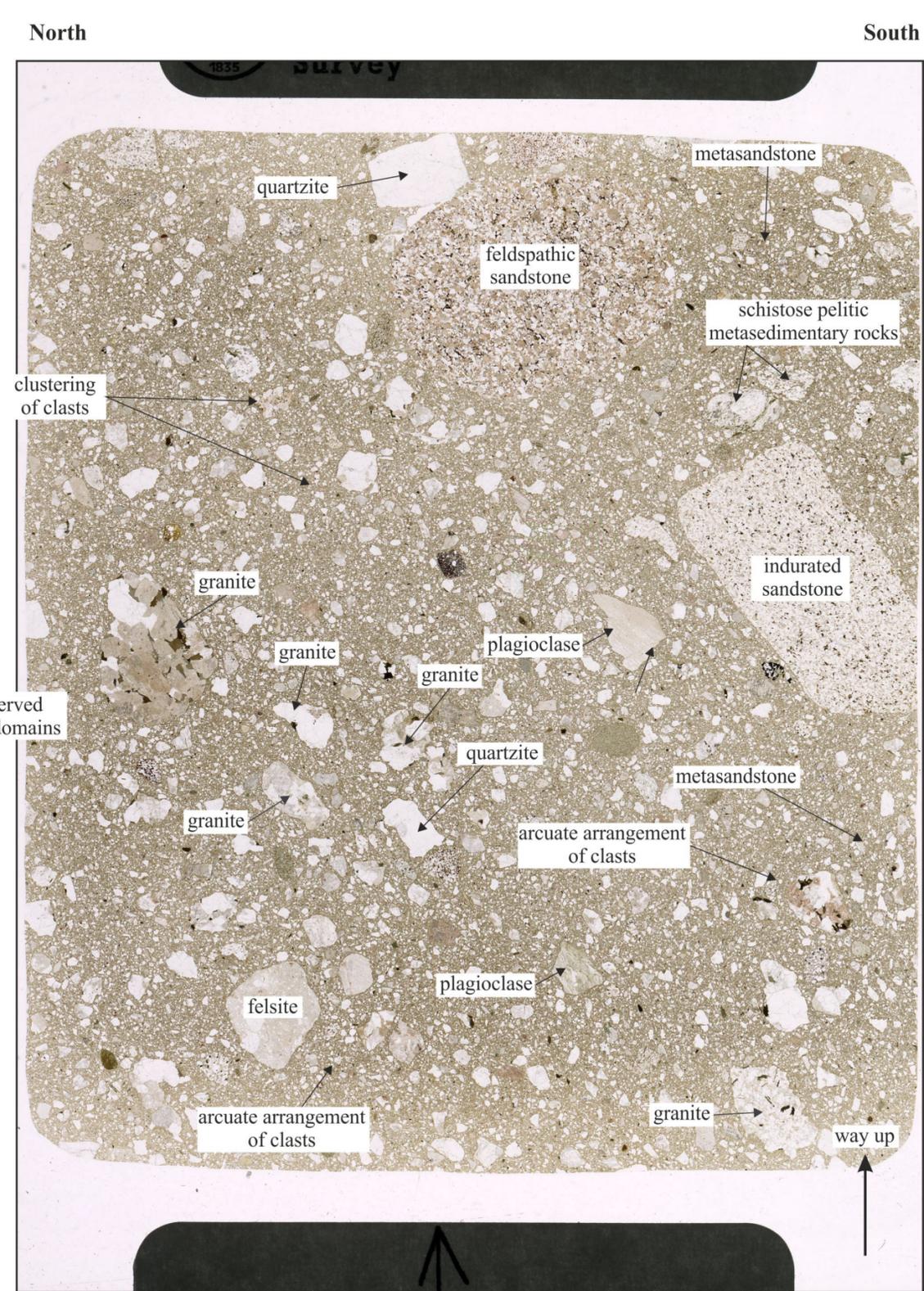
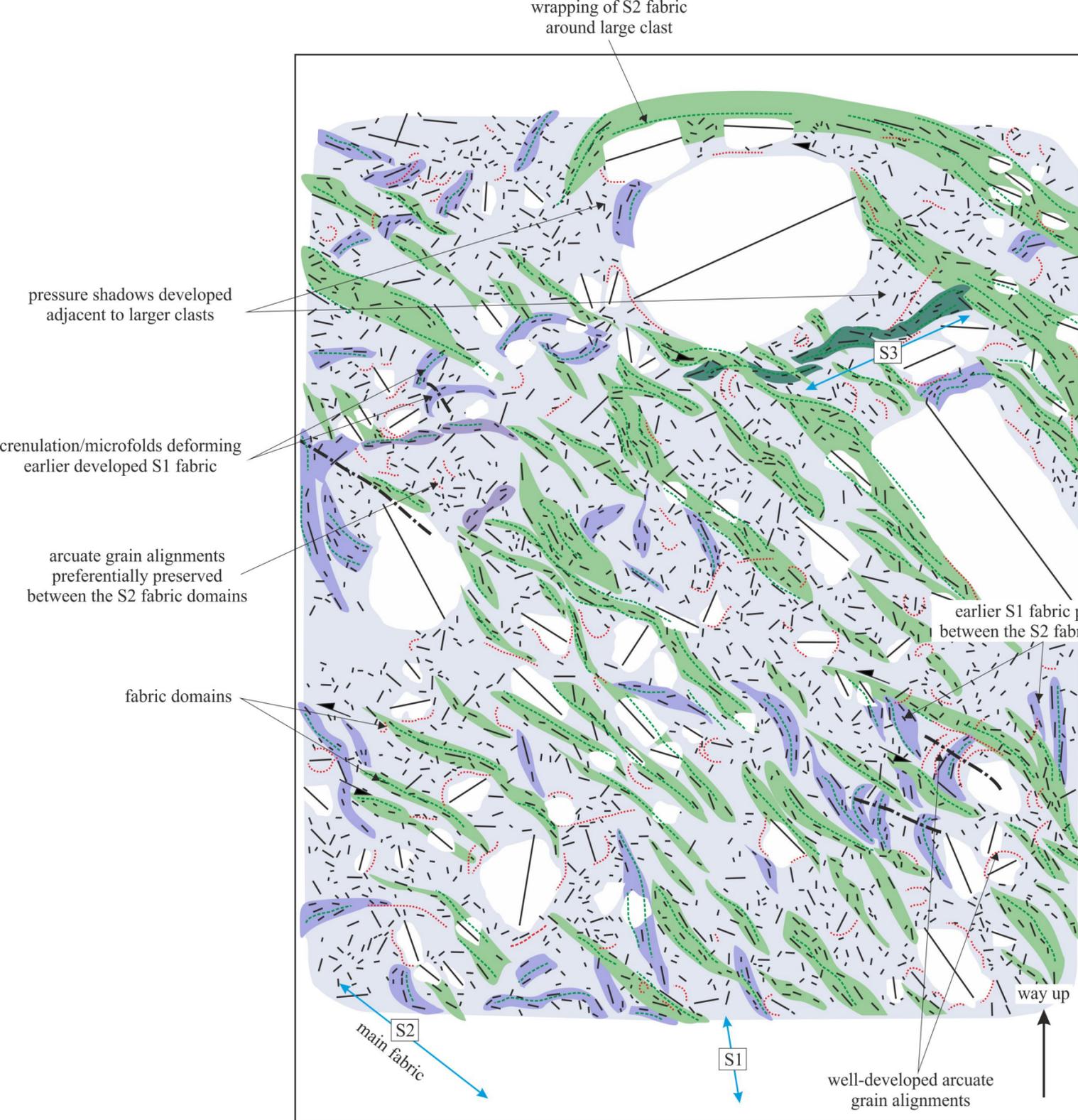
heterogenous development of clast microfabrics in diamicton layers with partitioning of deformation within matrix of diamicton

variable rotation of granule to pebble sized clasts due to simple shear imposed by the overriding ice

granule to pebble sized clasts locally controlling spacing of clast microfabric domains

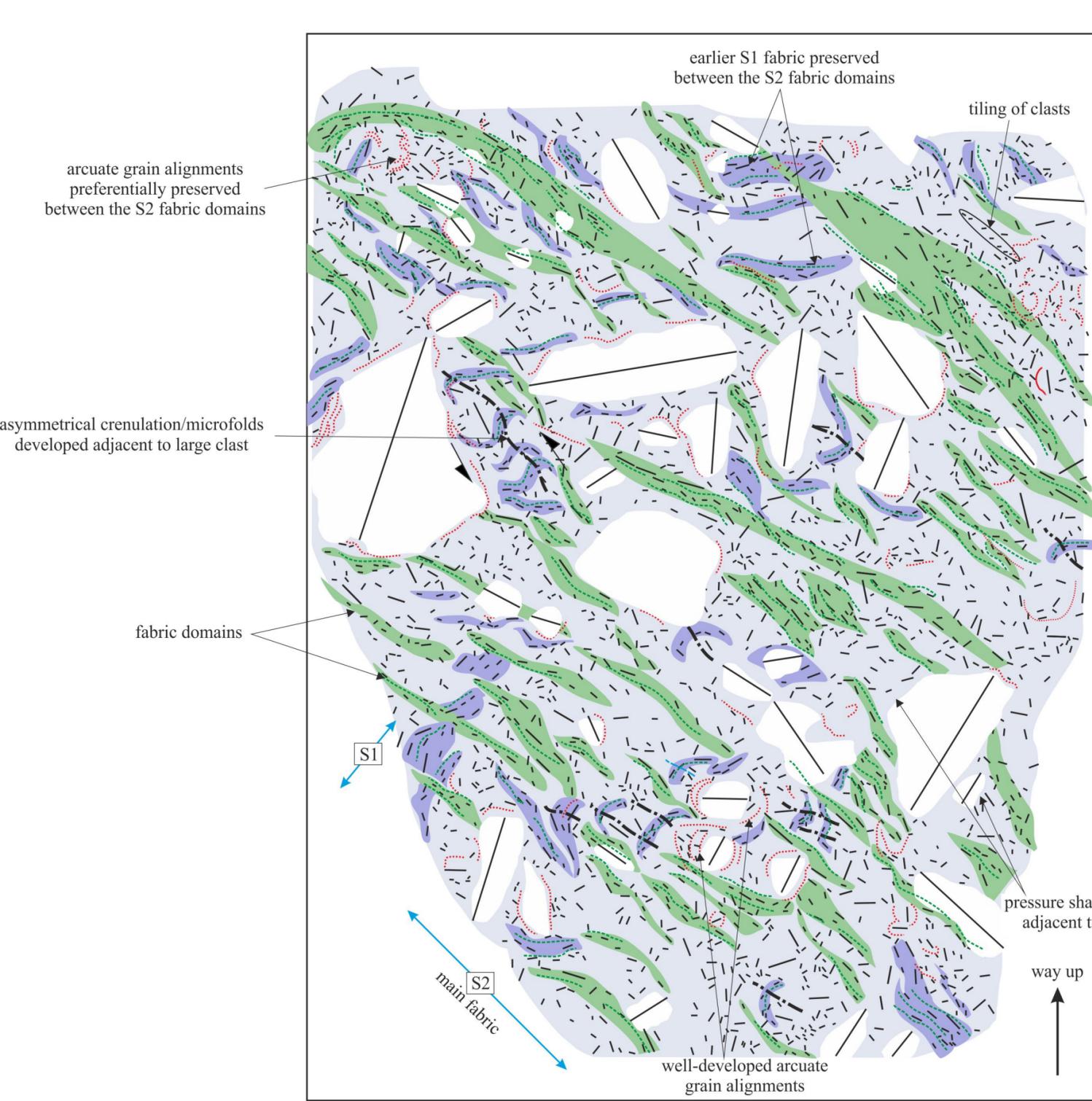
wrapping of stratification and lamination around larger clasts due to simple shear and pure shear (loading) imposed by the overlying ice



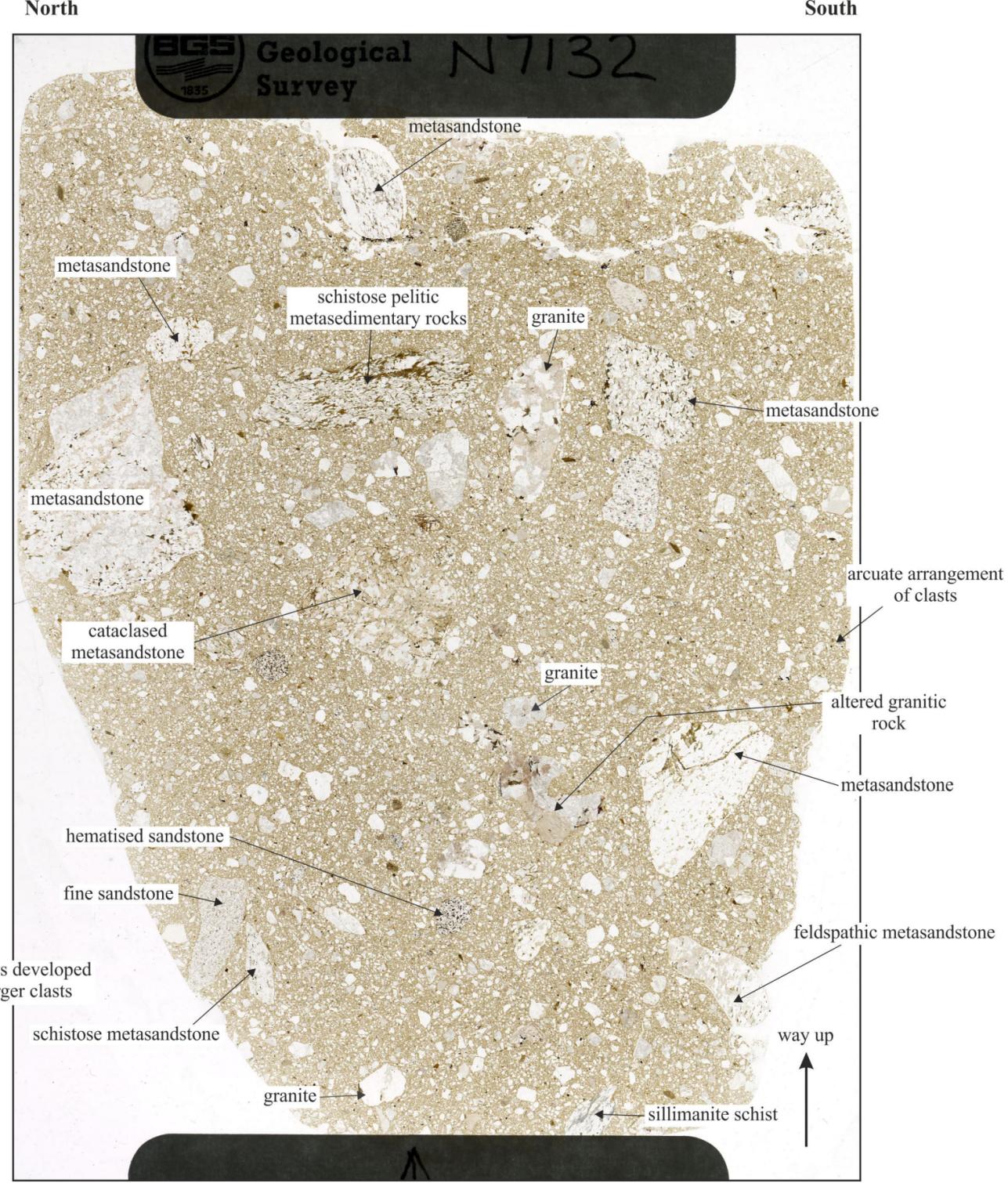


- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)

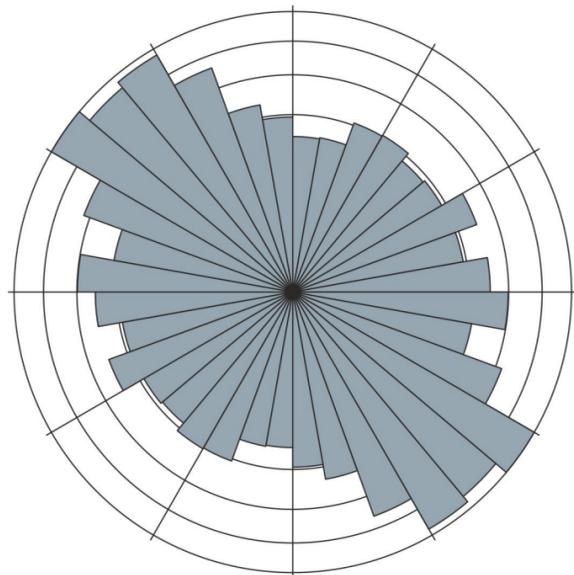
- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)



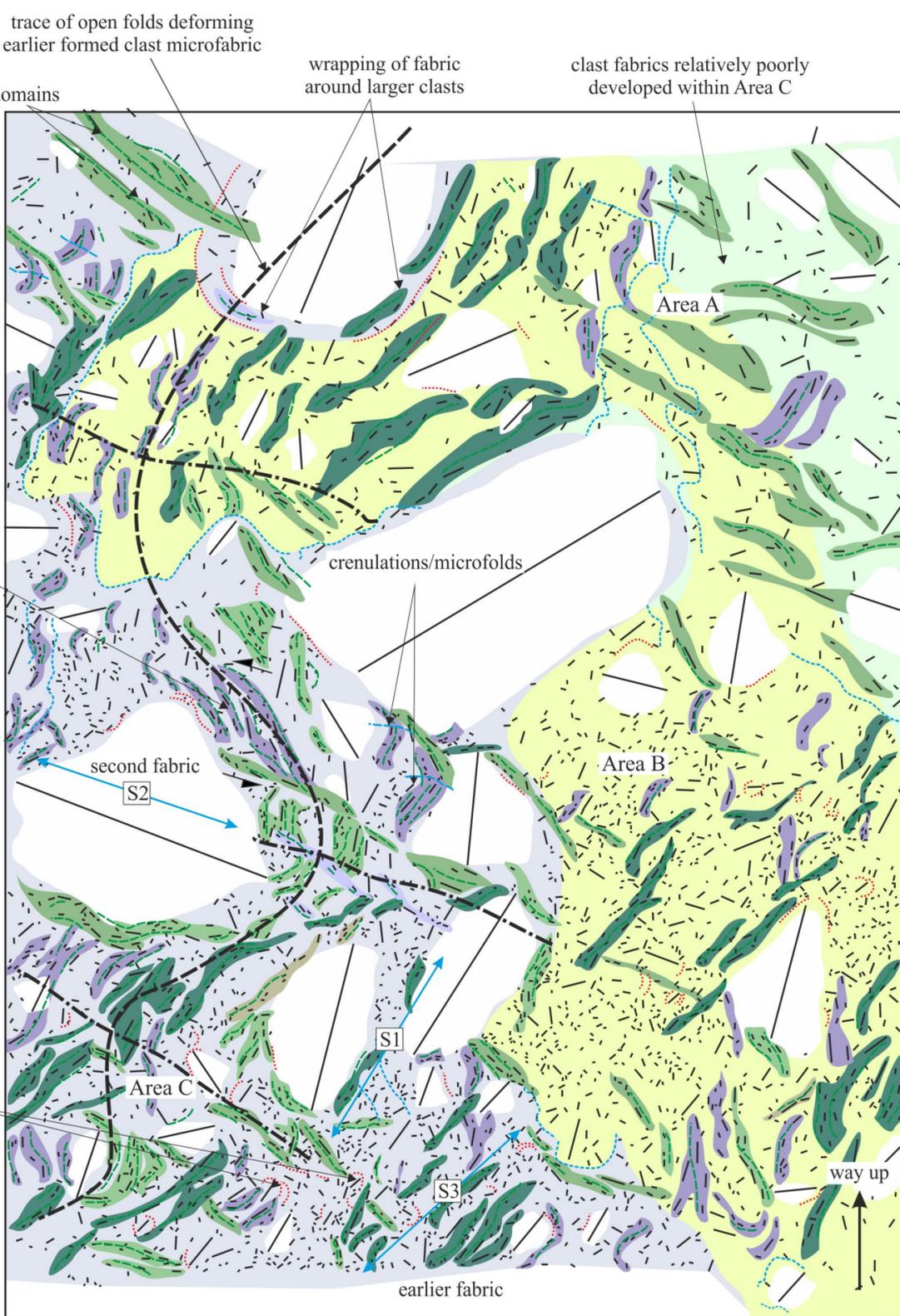
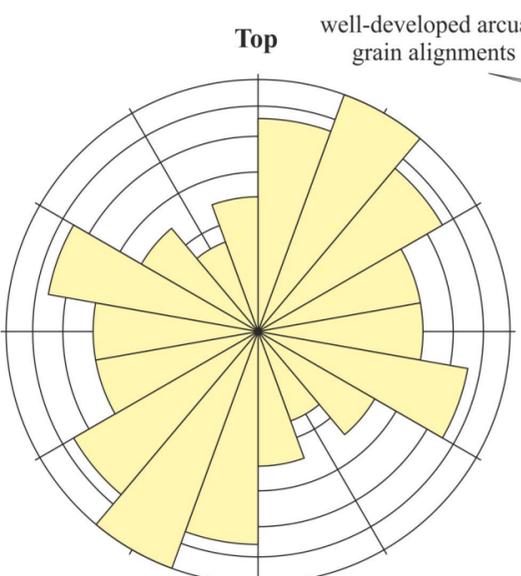
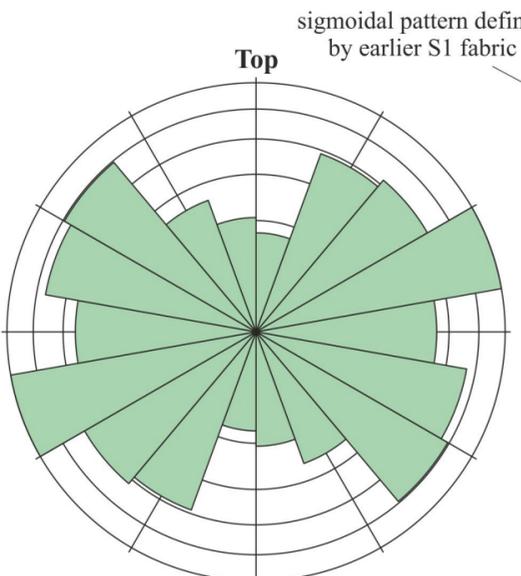
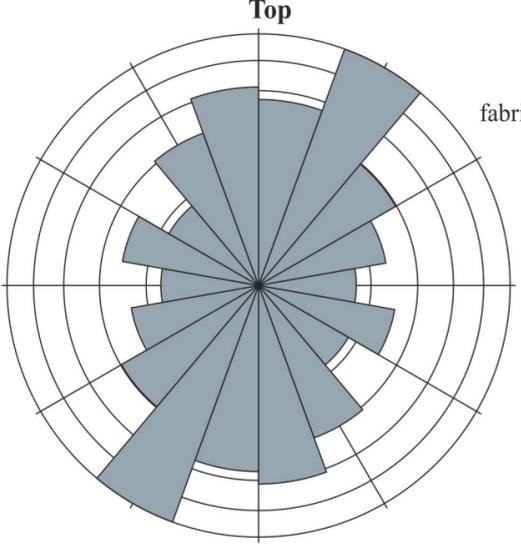
Sample N7132: Riereach Burn Top



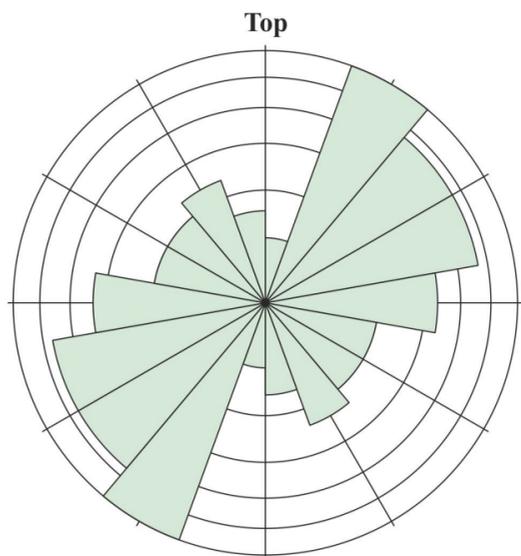
Sample N7132: Riereach Burn



- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
 - axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
 - axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
 - arcuate to linear grain aggregates
 - patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
 - trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
 - domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
 - domains defining the S2 microfabric
 - domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)
- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
 - sense of shear
 - orientation of fabric(s)



Sample N7126: Dalcharn 'Lower Till'



sample N7126 area C (N = 57)

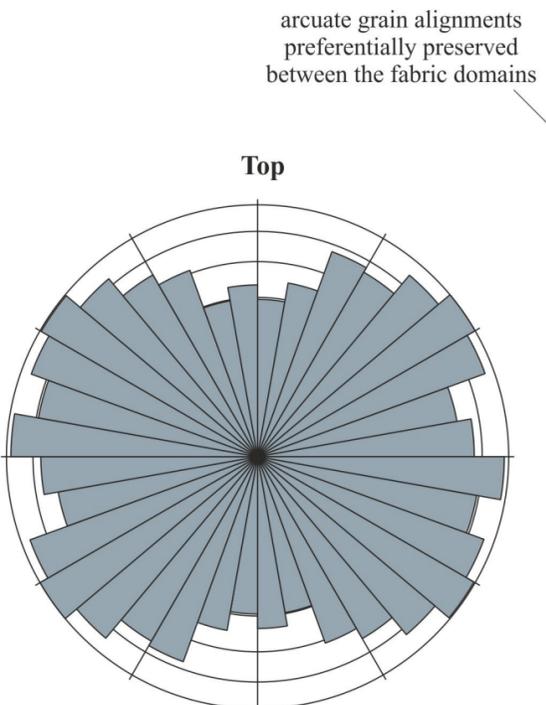
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric

- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)

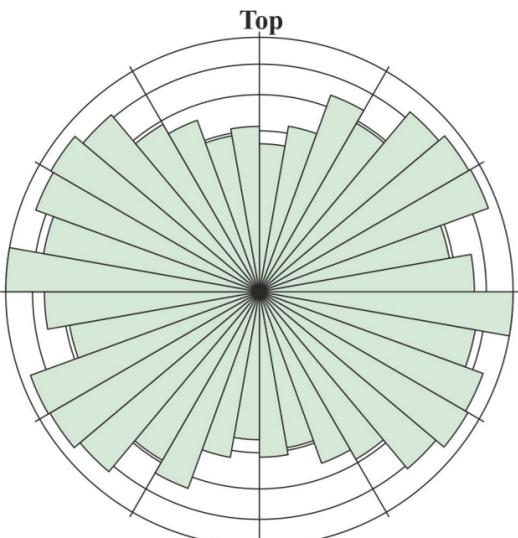
- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)
- different phases of diamicton



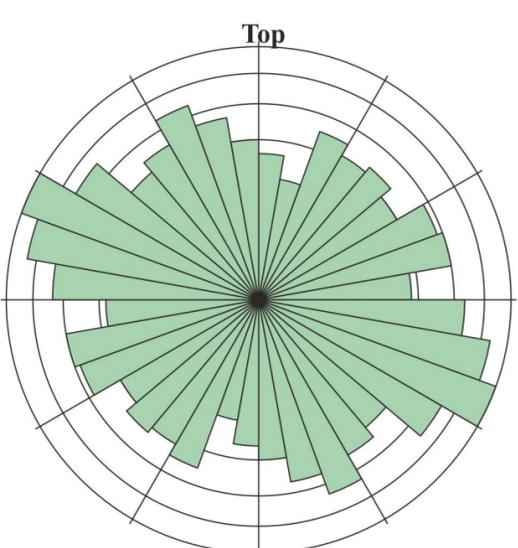
Sample N7126: Dalcharn 'Lower Till'



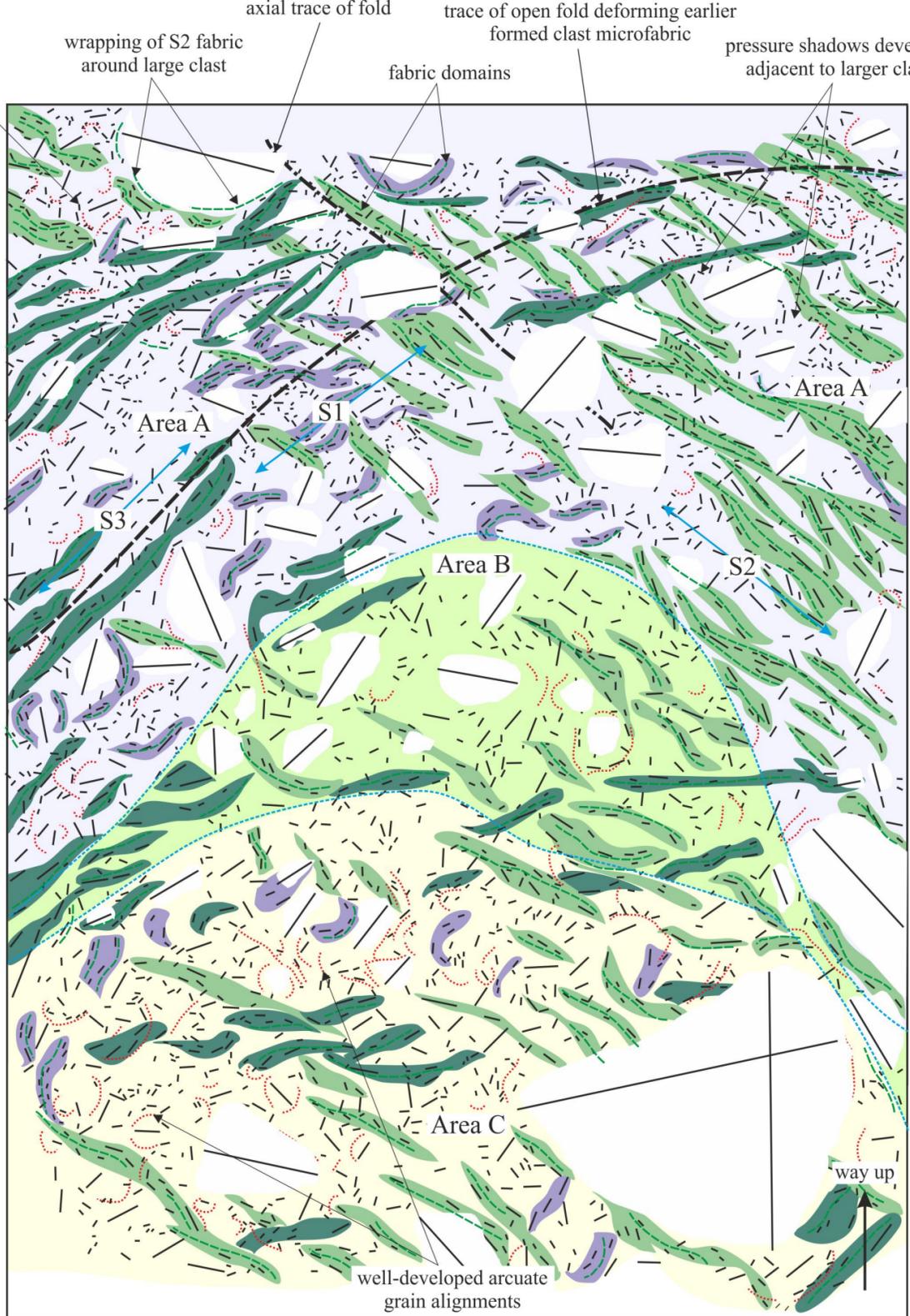
sample N7128 all data (N = 2648)



sample N7128 area A (N = 1742)

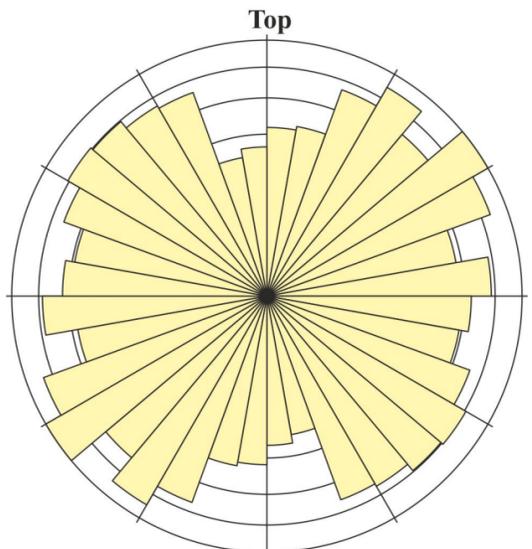


sample N7128 area B (N = 290)



Sample N7128: Riereach Burn

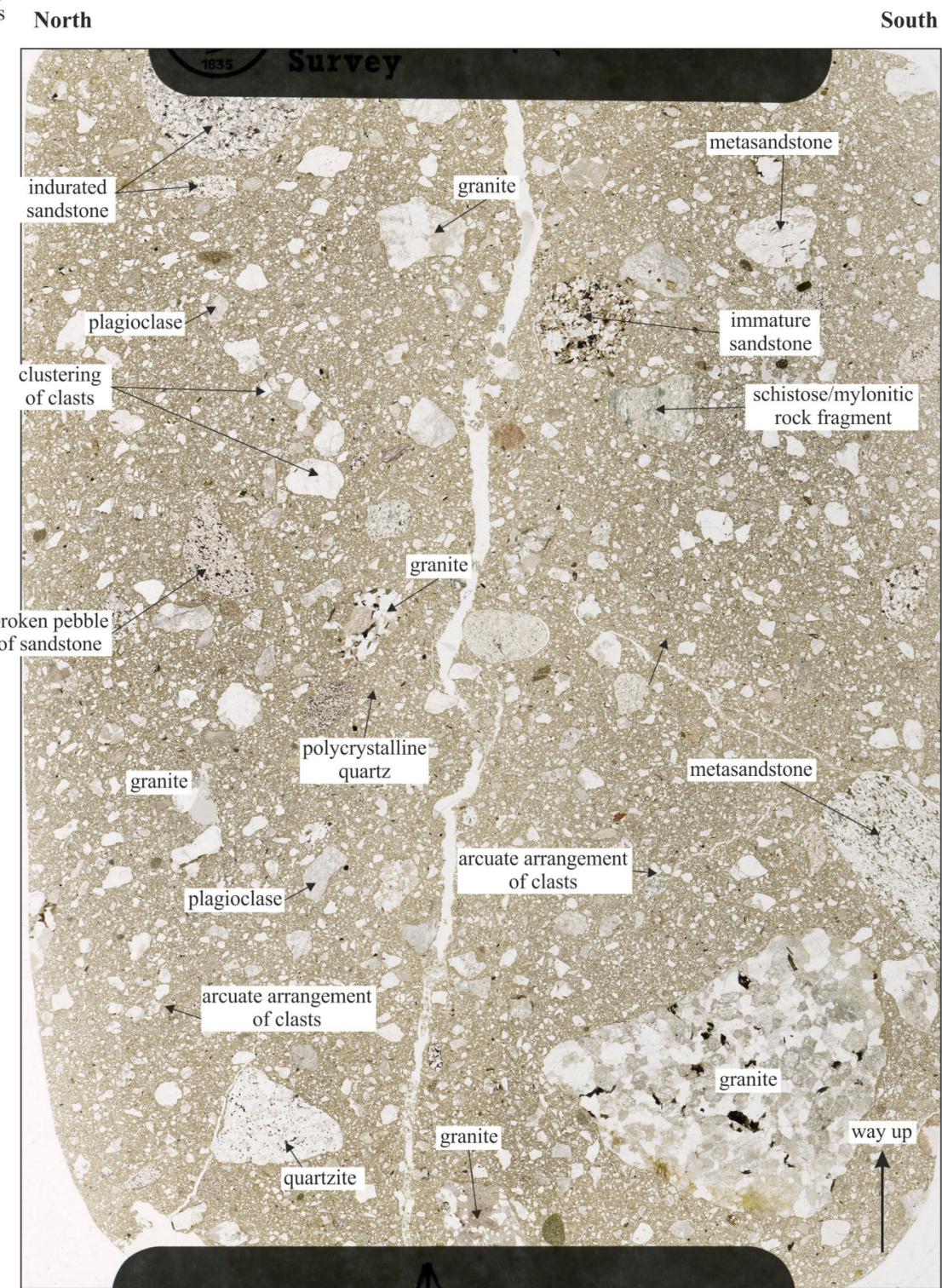
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sample N7128 area C (N = 638)

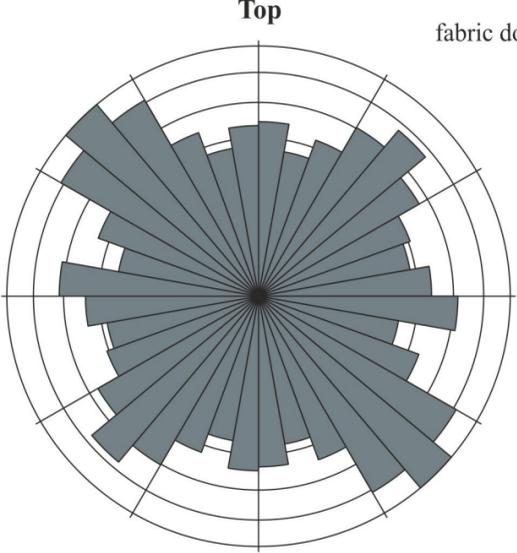
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)

- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)
- different phases of diamicton

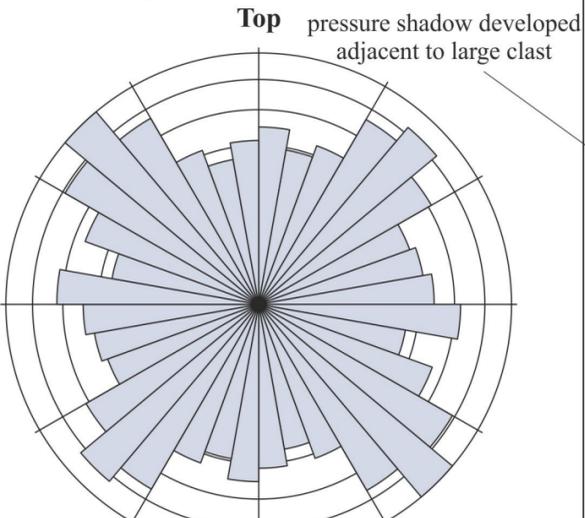


Sample N7128: Riereach Burn

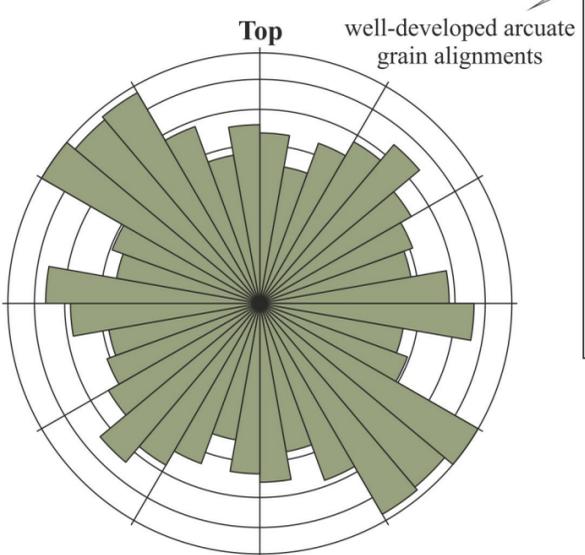
10 mm



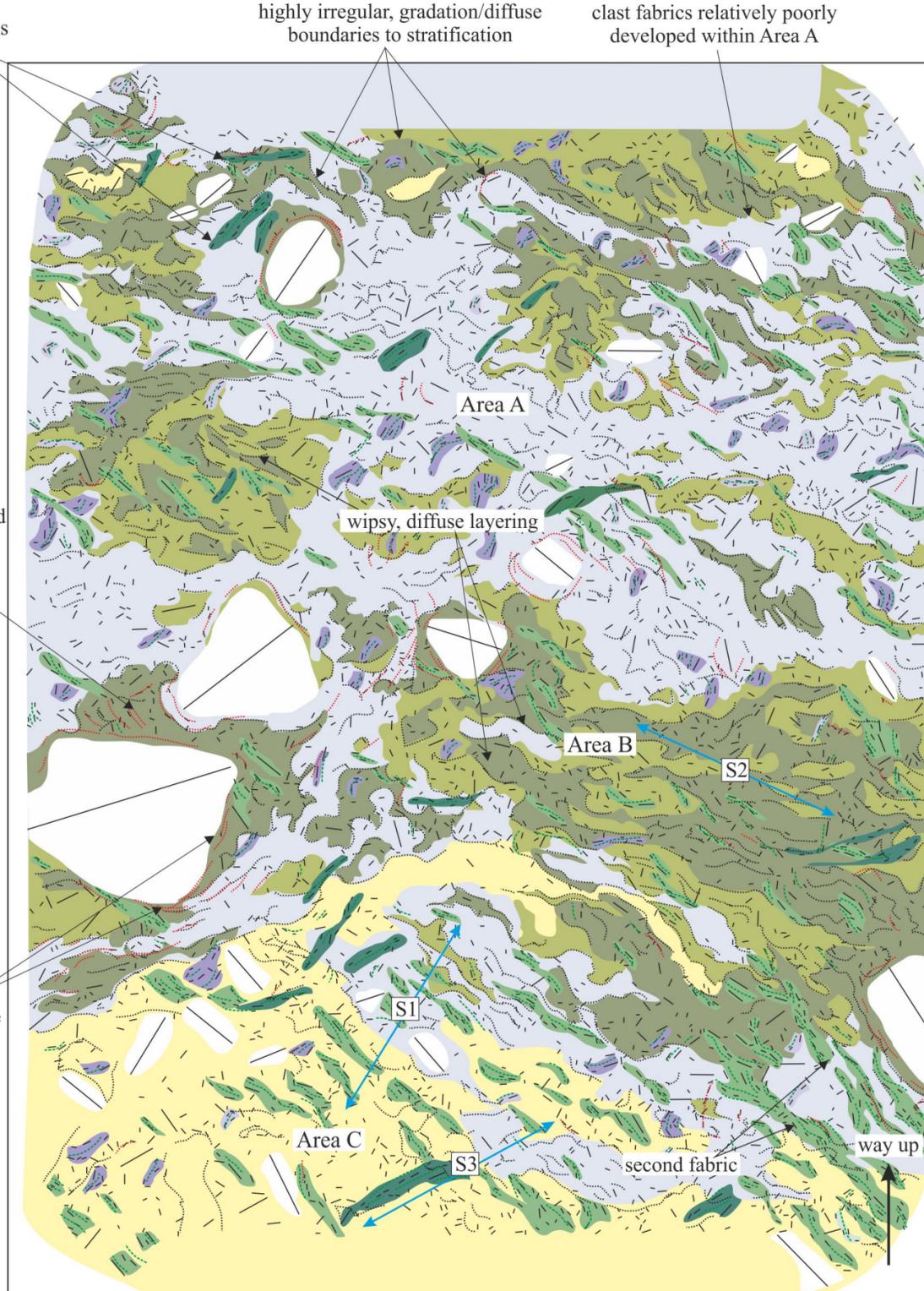
sample N12280 all data (N = 3618)



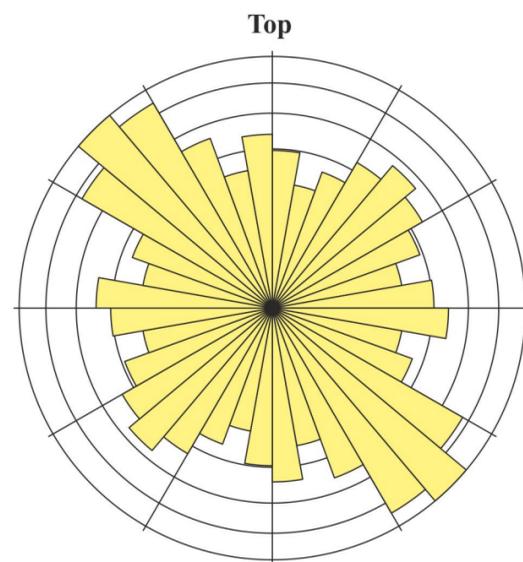
sample N12280 area A (N = 1943)



sample N12280 area B (N = 1085)



Sample N12280: Nairn (stream)

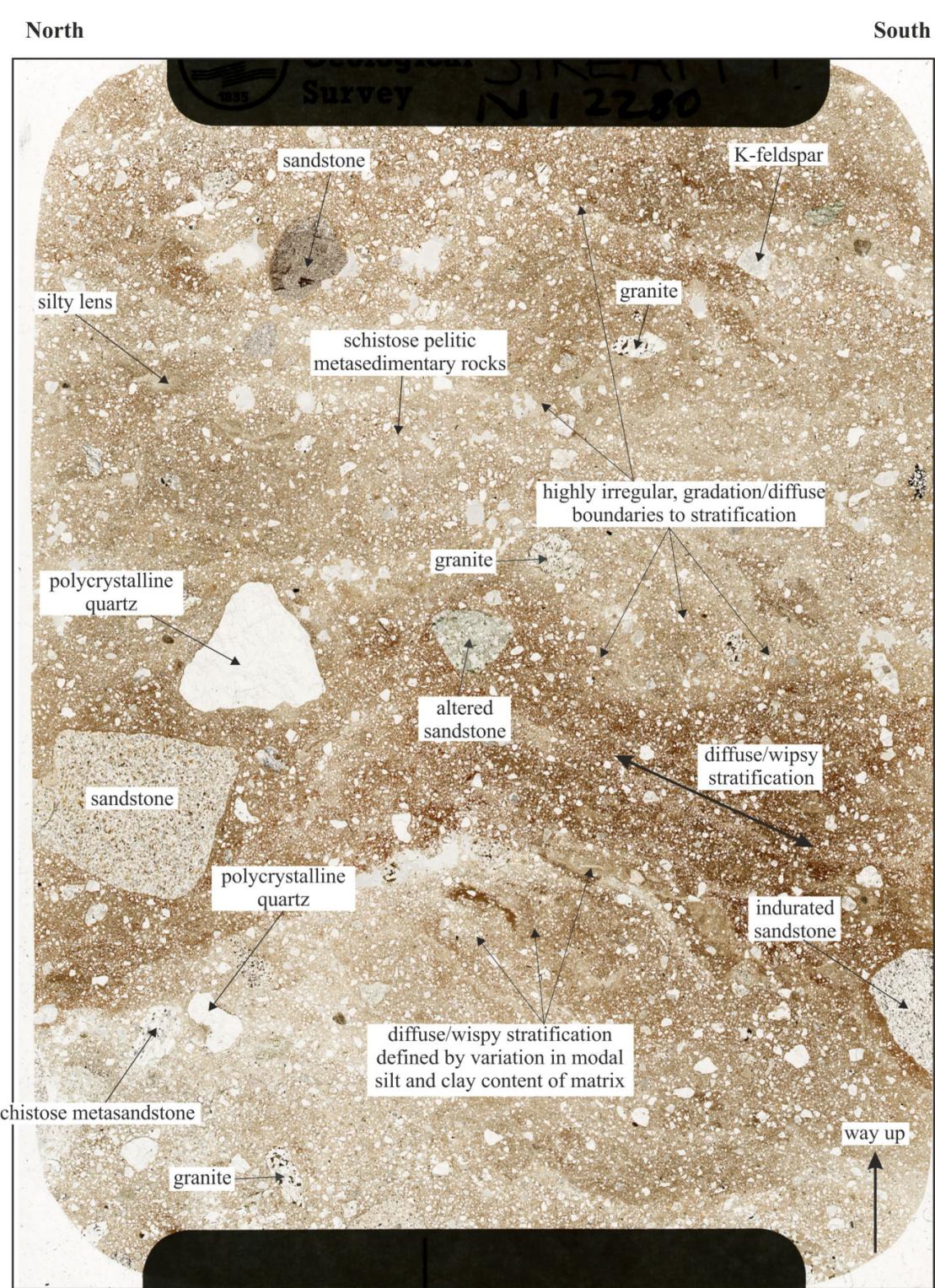


sample N12280 area C (N = 1109)

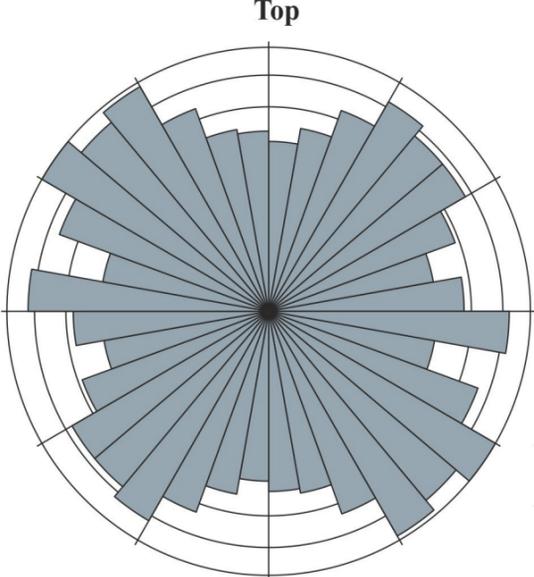
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)

S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)

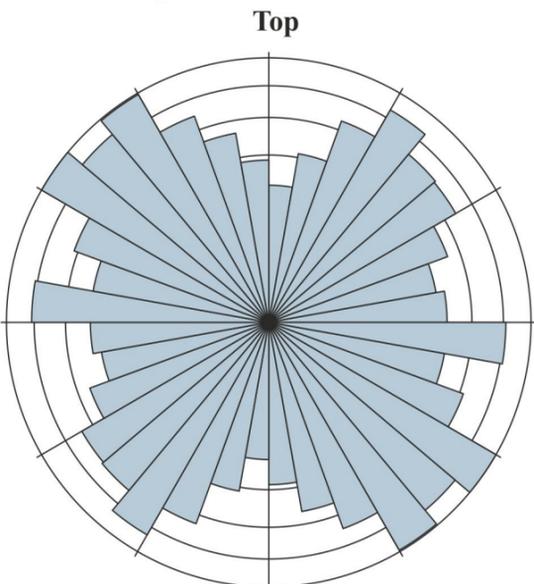
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)
- different phases of diamicton



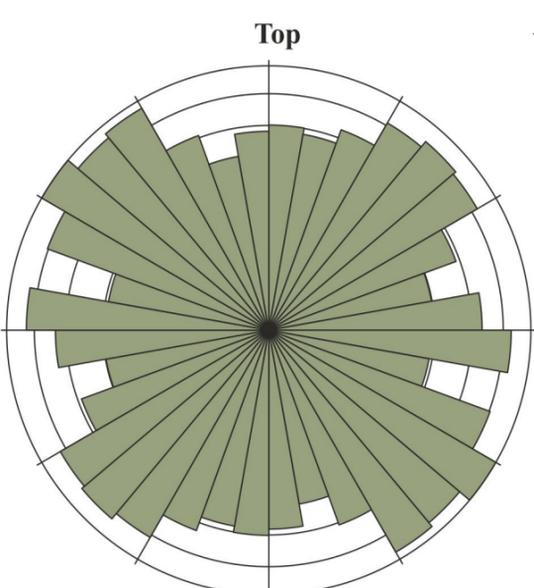
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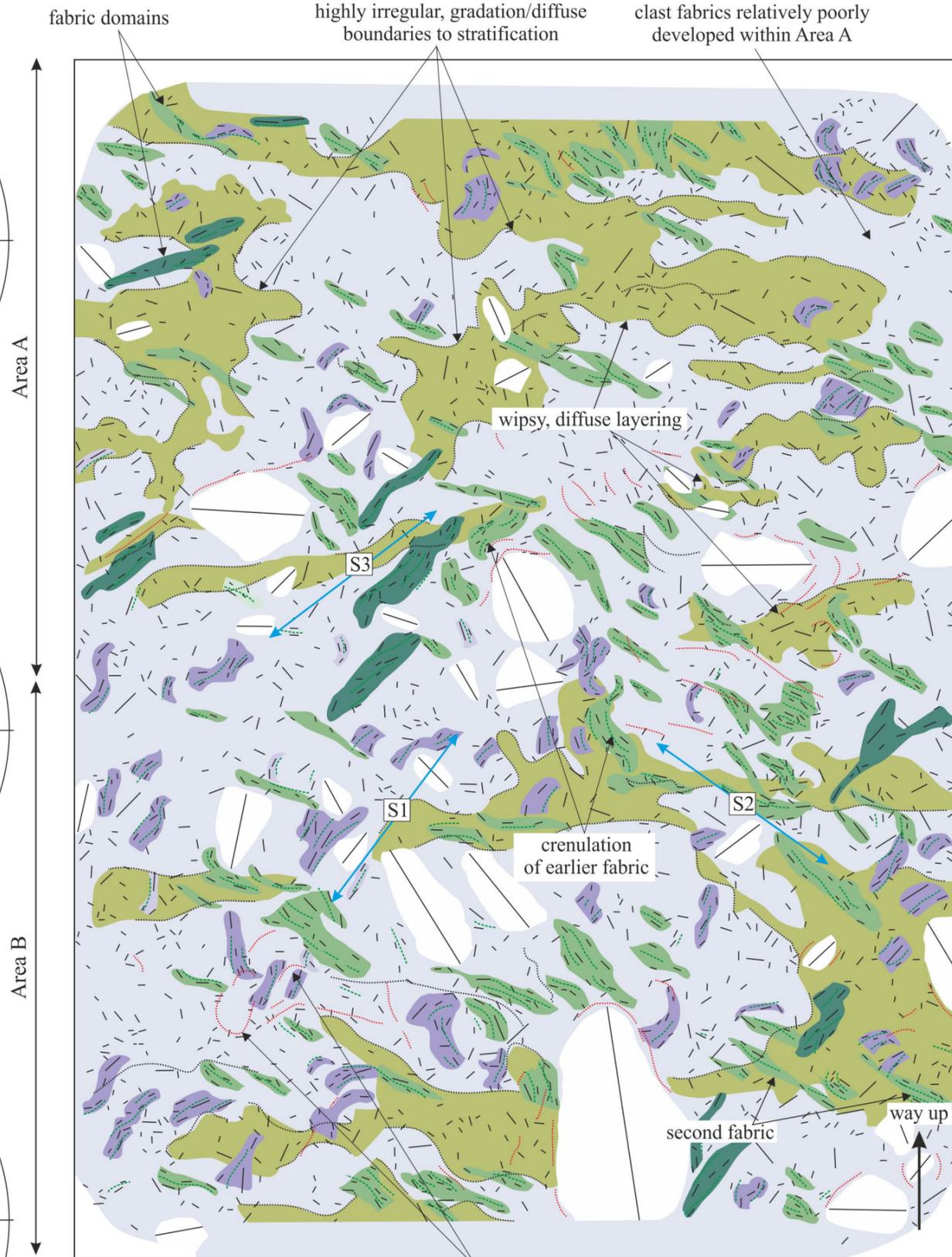
sample N12281 all data (N = 2069)



sample N12281 area A (N = 1053)



sample N12281 area B (N = 1038)

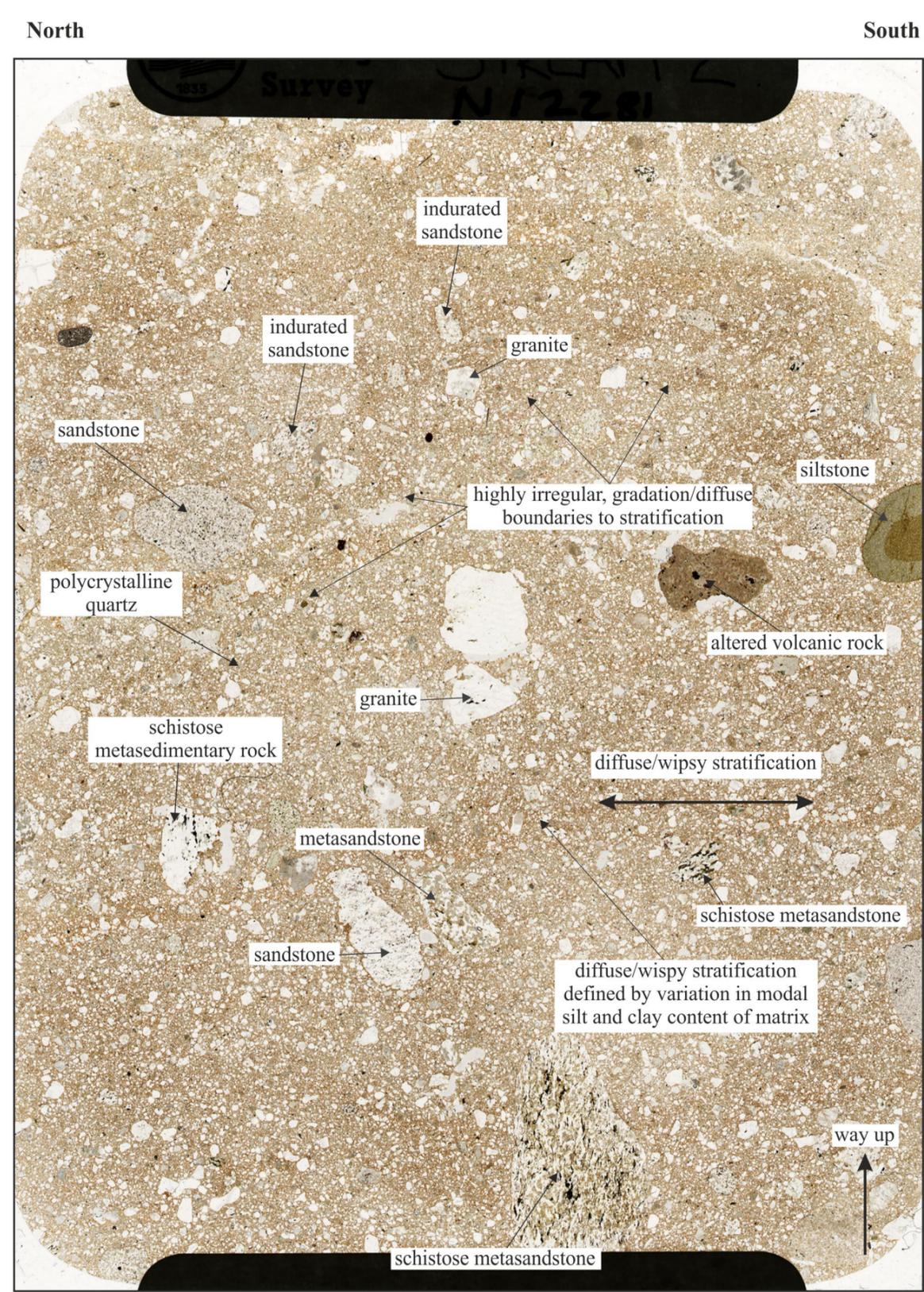


Sample N12281: Nairn (stream) well-developed arcuate grain alignments

10 mm

- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)
- different phases of diamicton

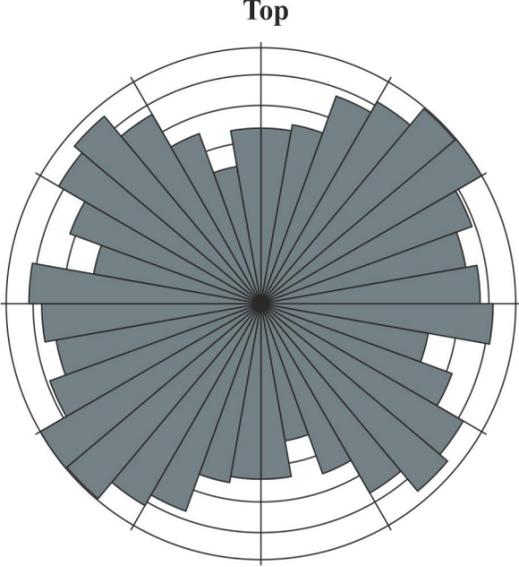
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric



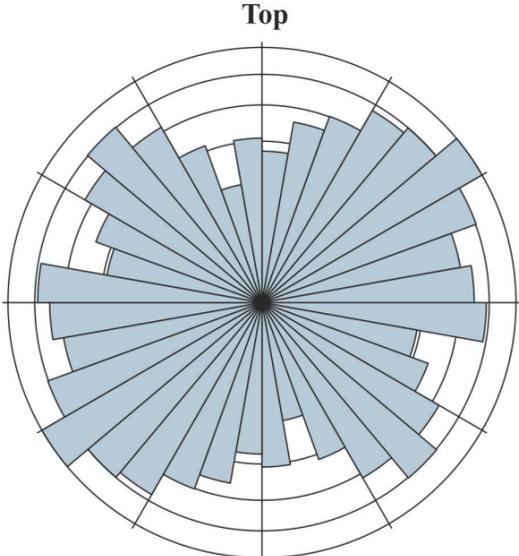
Sample N12281: Nairn (stream)

10 mm

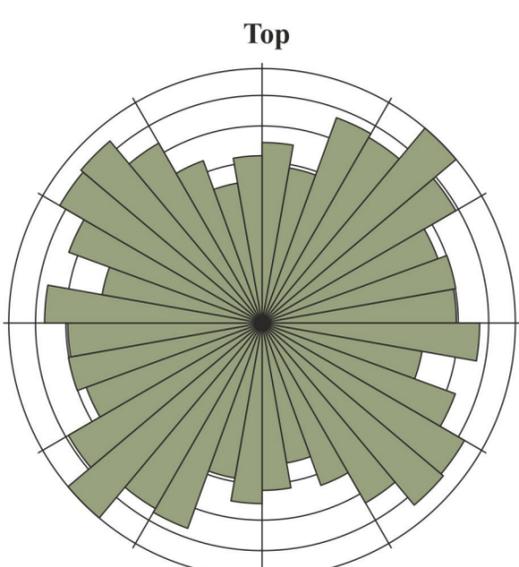
- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)



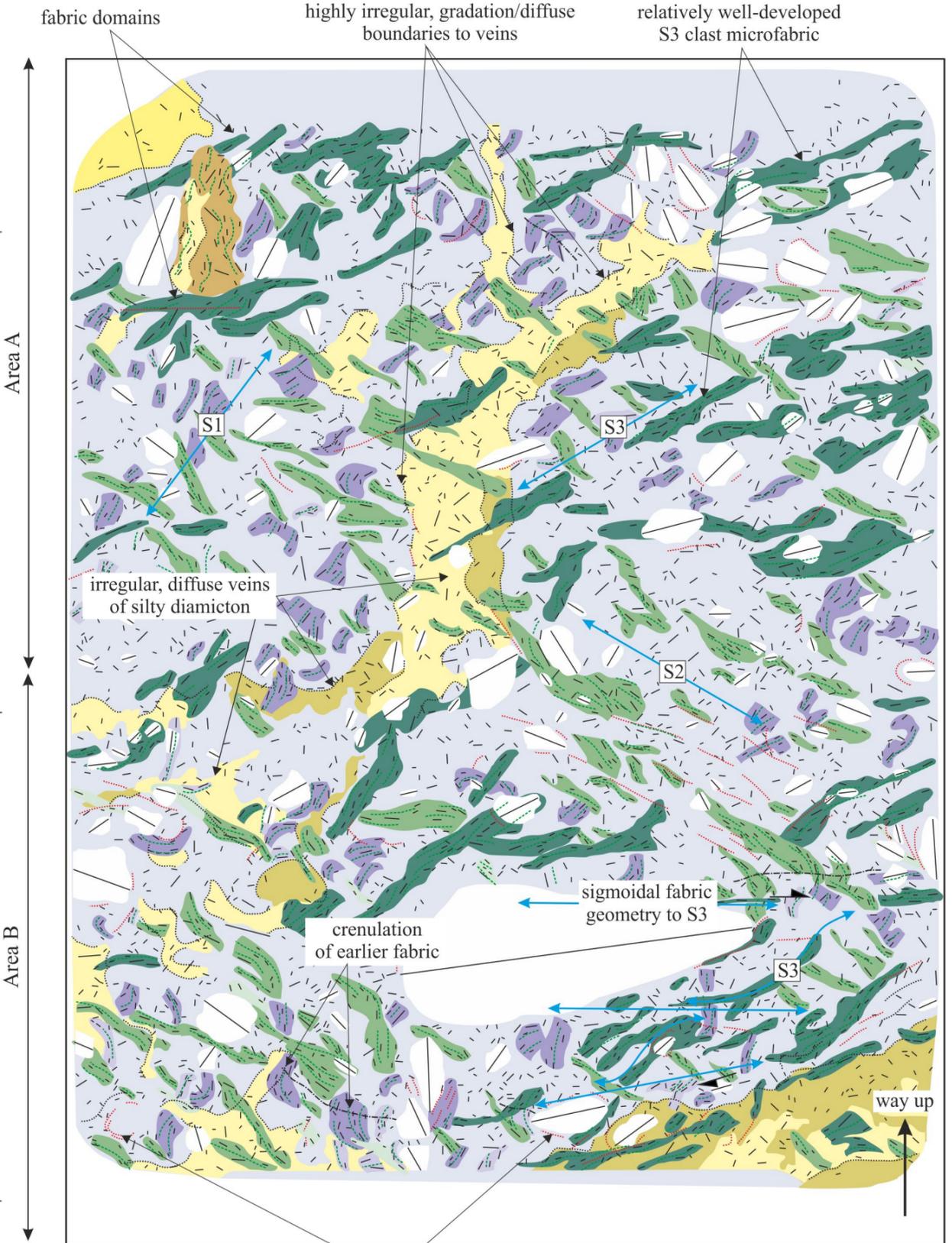
sample N12278 all data (N = 3344)



sample N12278 area A (N = 1741)



sample N12278 area B (N = 1587)



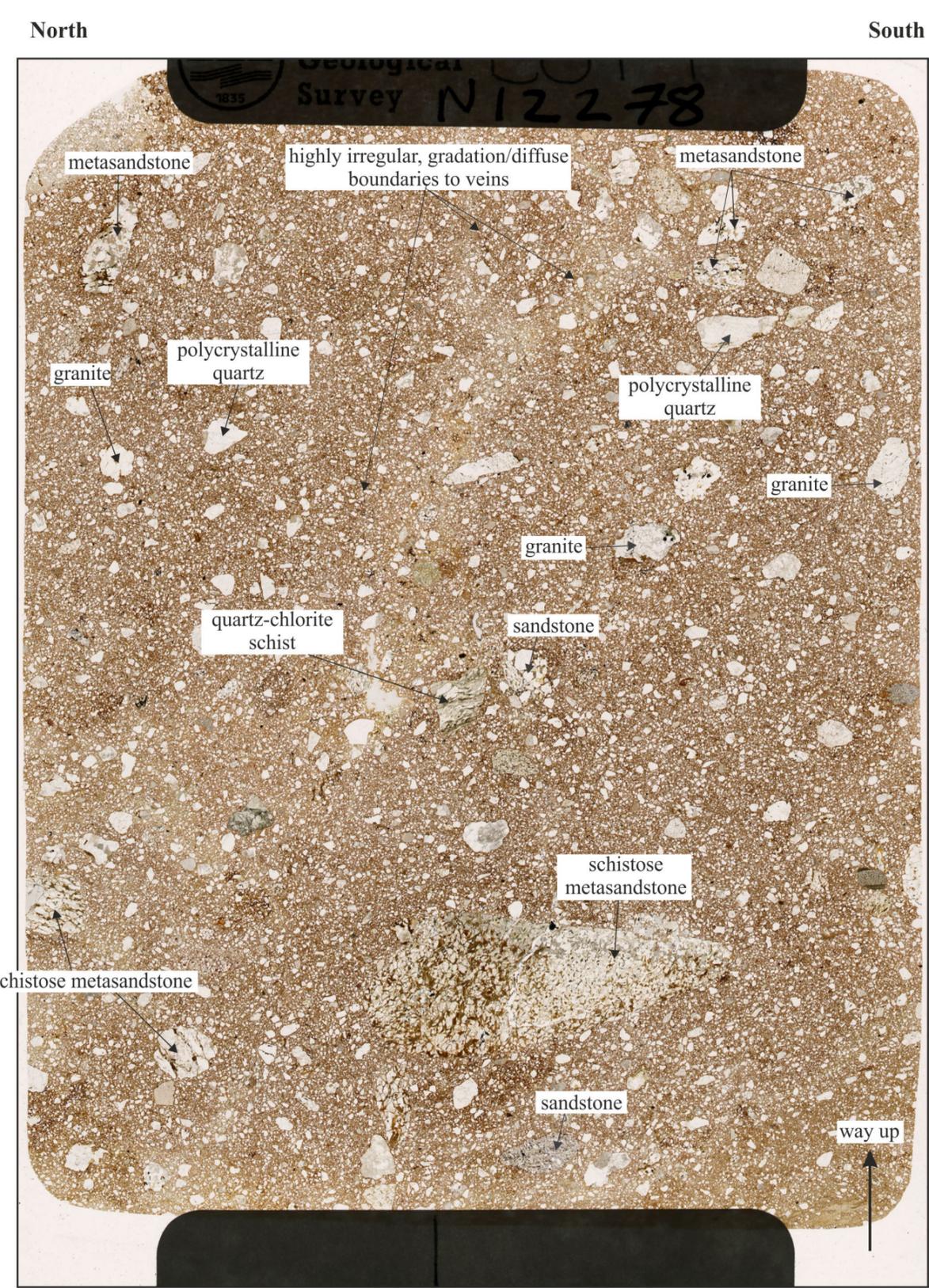
Sample N12278: Cothall

10 mm

- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)
- sand and silt filling hydrofractures

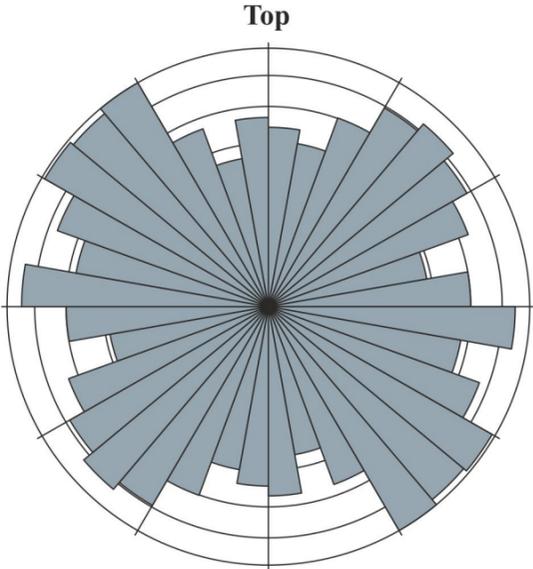
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric

- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)

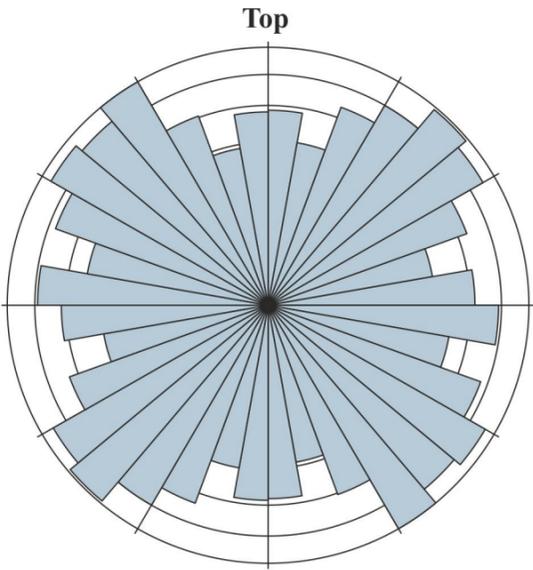


Sample N12278: Cothall

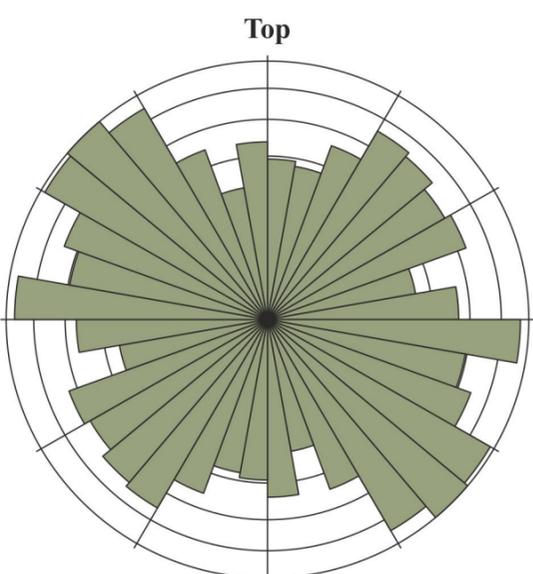
10 mm



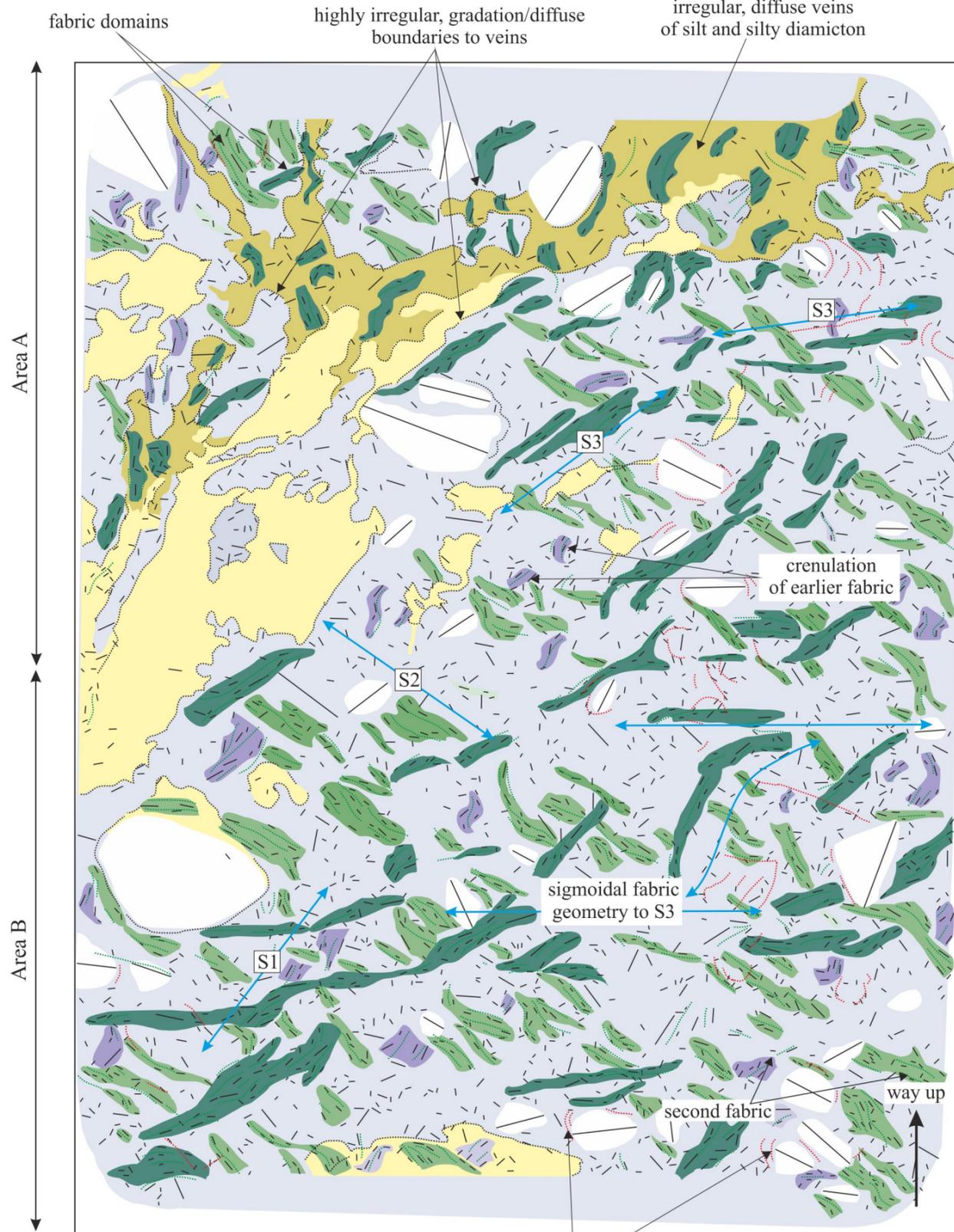
sample N12279 all data (N = 2680)



sample N12279 area A (N = 1302)



sample N12279 area B (N = 1407)

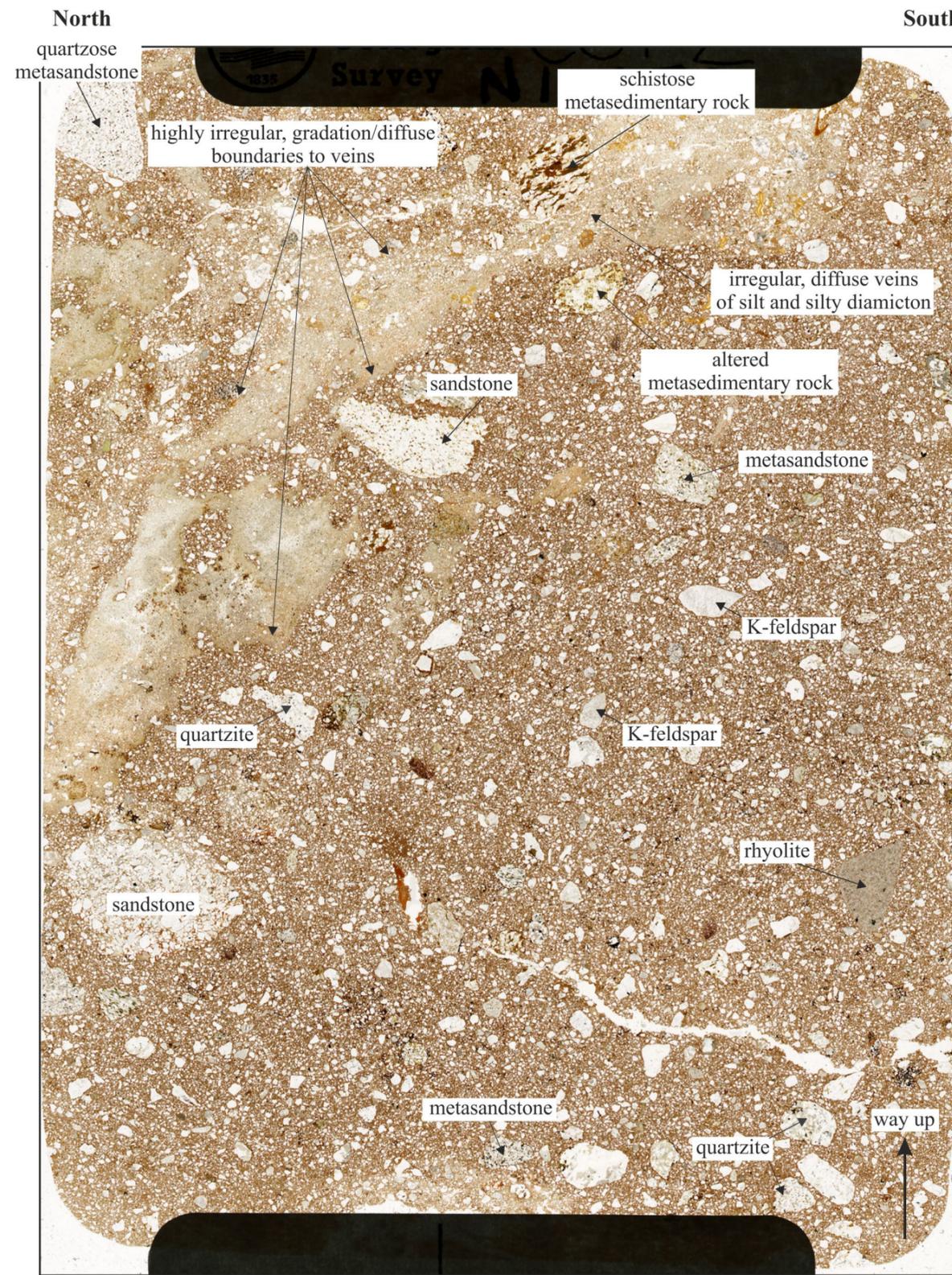


Sample N12279: Cothall

- domains defining the S1 microfabric (oldest)
- domains defining the S2 microfabric
- domains defining the S3 microfabric (youngest)
- sand and silt filling hydrofractures

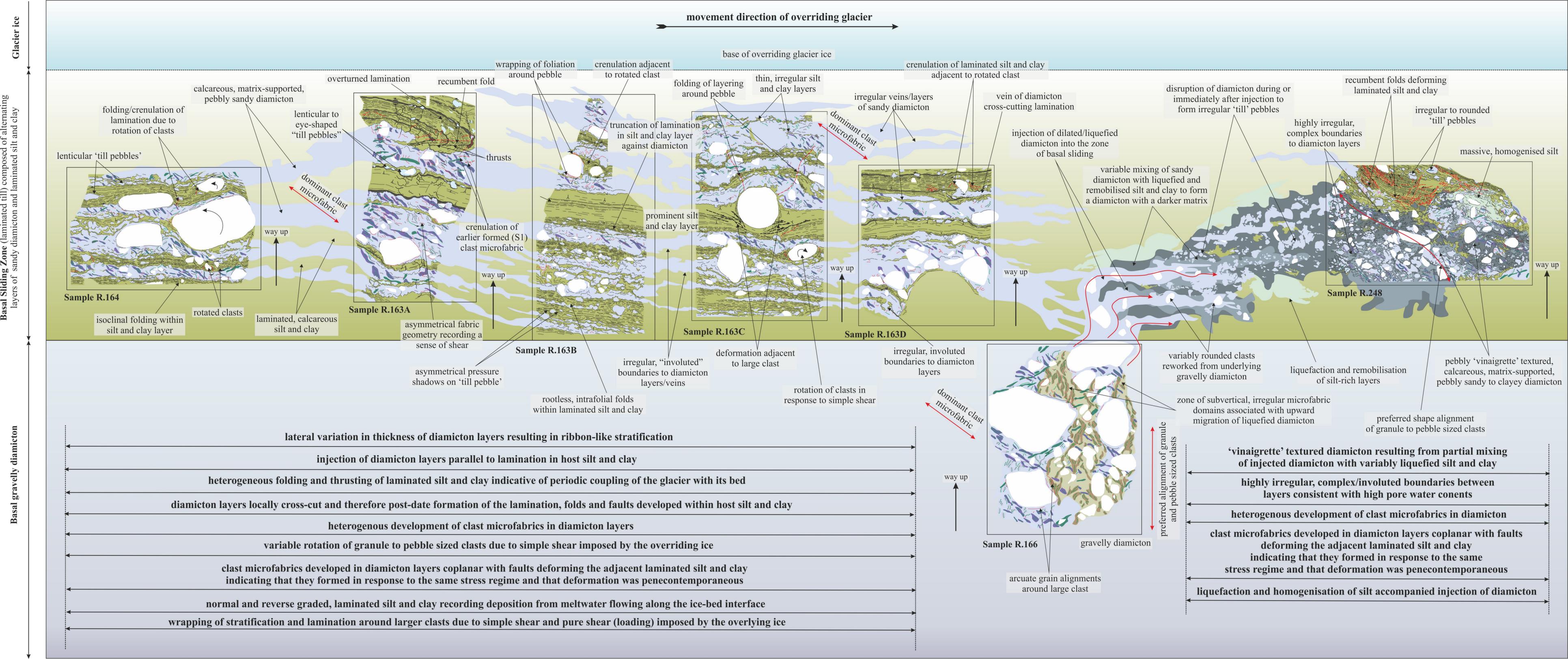
- microclast fabric defined by clast long axes
- axial traces of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric
- axial surfaces of crenulations/microfolds
- arcuate to linear grain aggregates
- patchily developed boundary between dark and pale matrix
- trace of folds deforming earlier formed S1 clast microfabric

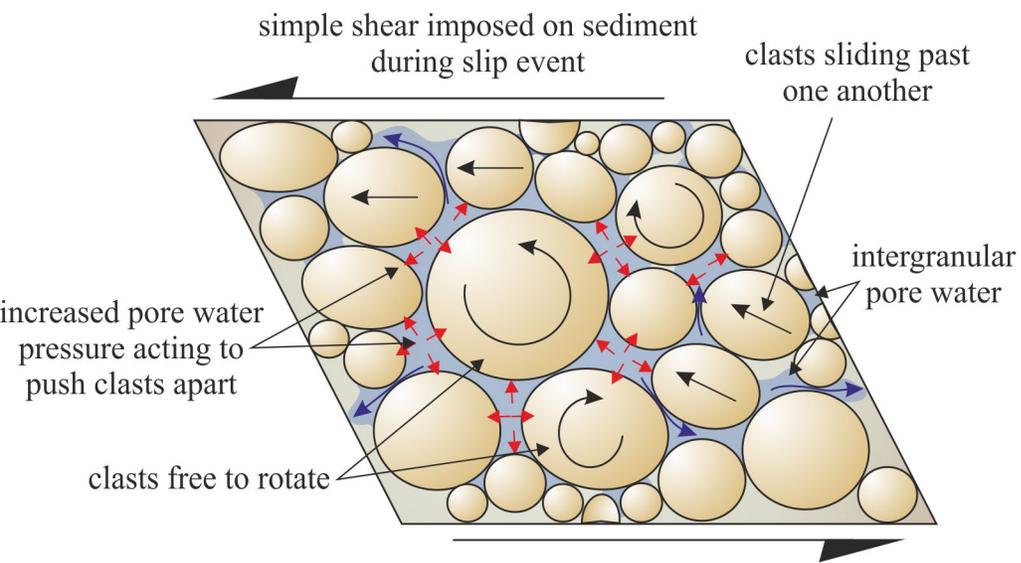
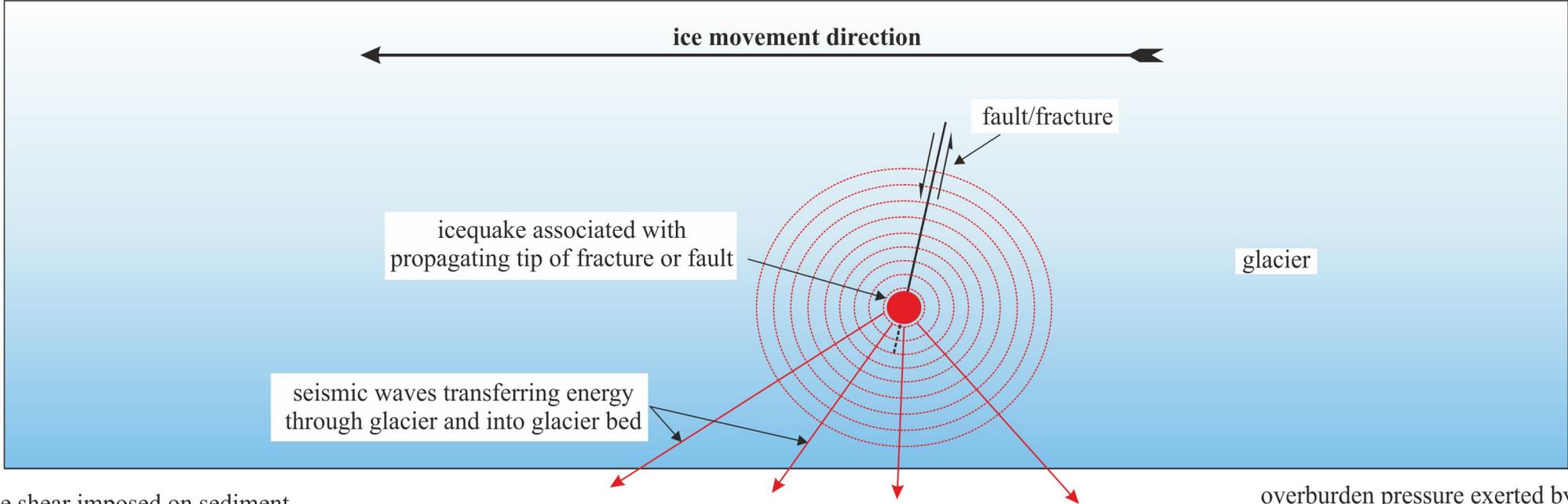
- S1 to n relative age of fabric(s)
- long axis of clasts
- sense of shear
- orientation of fabric(s)



Sample N12279: Cothall

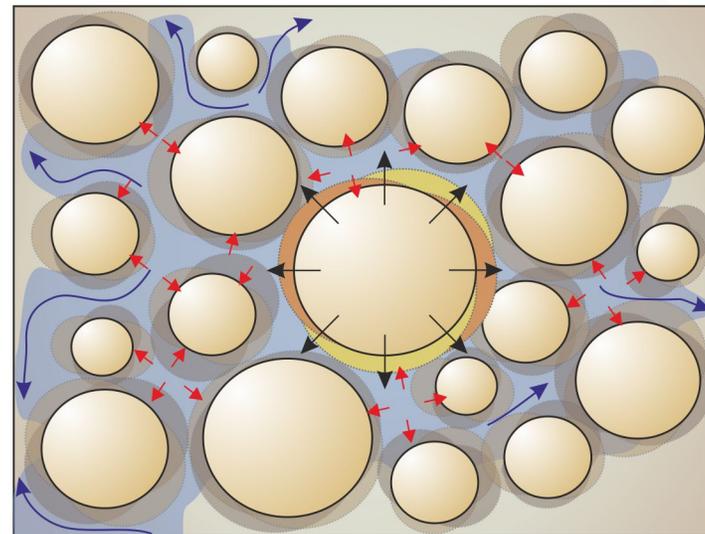
10 mm





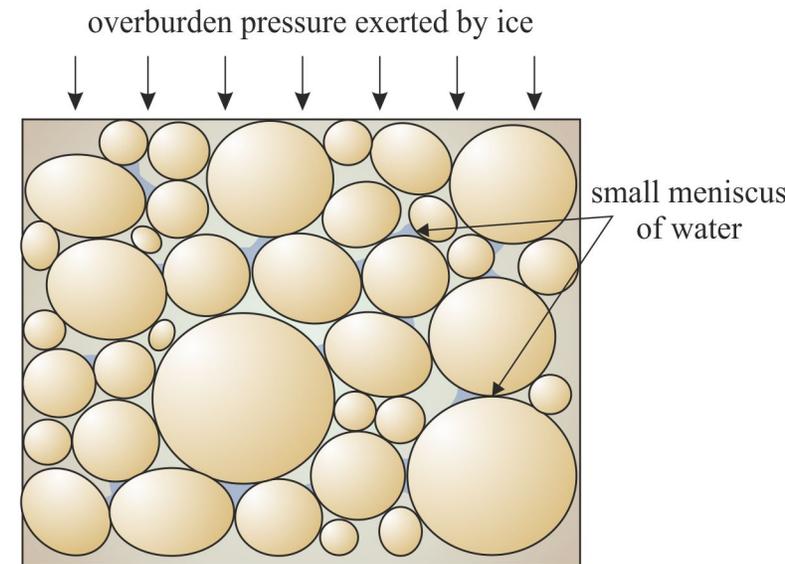
increased pore water pressure reducing grain to grain contacts, reducing sediment cohesion leading to weakening of bed, resulting in flow deformation accommodating forward motion (slip) of overriding glacier

**sediment at or near saturation
= liquefaction
= slippery spot initiation**



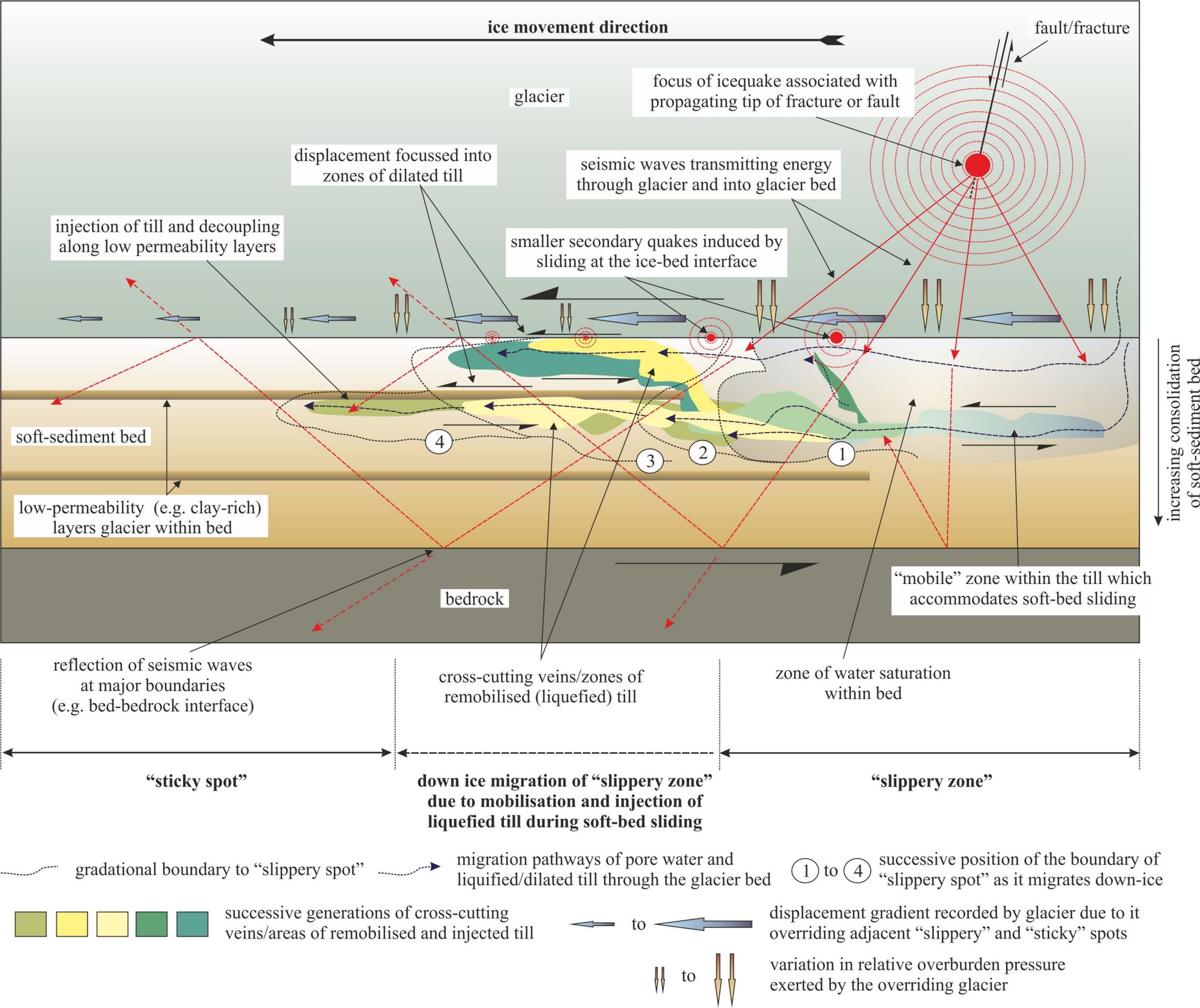
individual clasts vibrate increasing pore water pressure reducing grain to grain contacts, and reducing sediment cohesion leading to liquefaction, dilation leads to the temporary increase in sediment porosity/permeability facilitating intergranular migration of pore water,

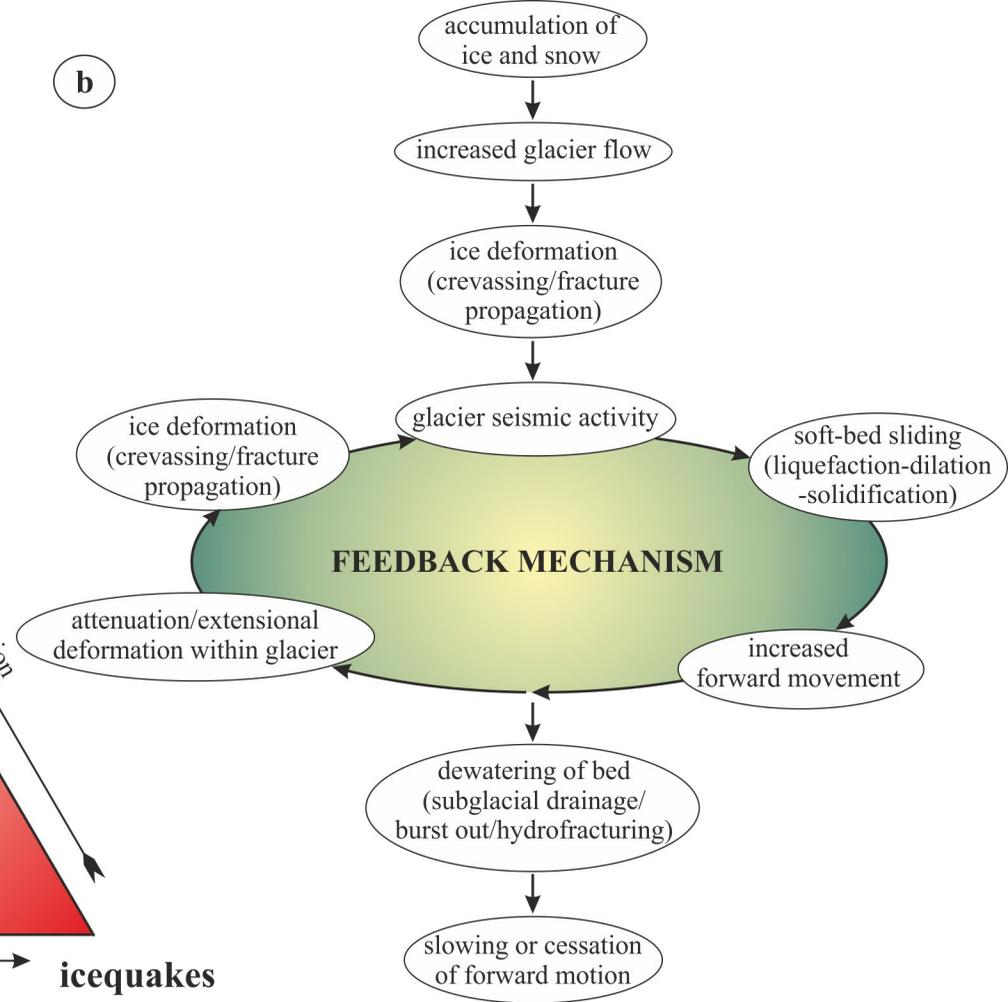
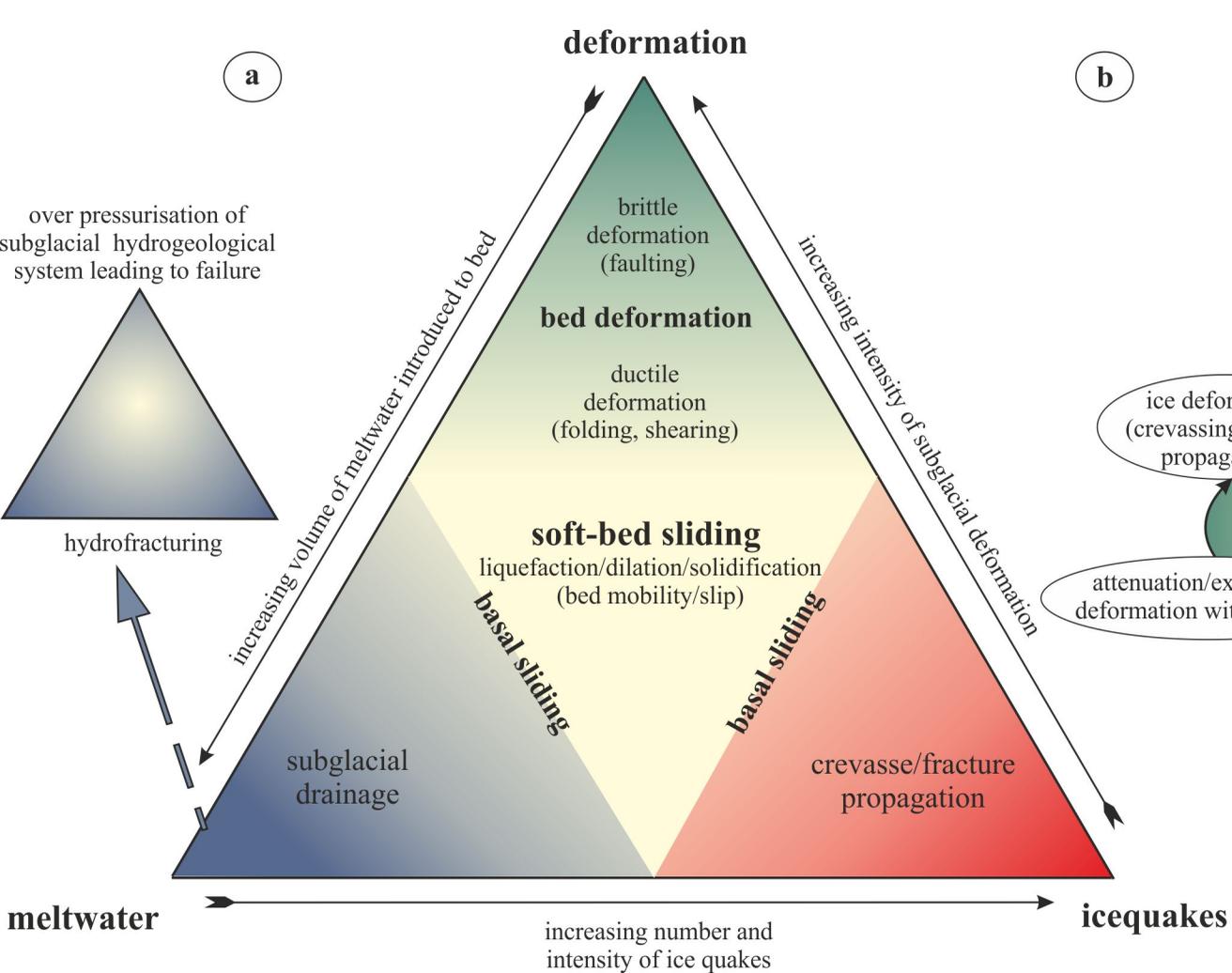
during icequake



high proportion of grain to grain contacts, clast vibration caused during icequake induces further compaction and overconsolidation

**sediment under saturated or dry
= consolidation
= sticky spot**





Highlights

- Subglacial traction tills undergo repeated phases of liquefaction and deformation
- This process lowers the shear strength of the till, facilitating glacier movement
- This soft-bed sliding occurs in a series of 'stick-slip' events
- Soft-bed sliding may be partially facilitated by glacier seismic activity