Mass flow and hydrofracturing during Late Devensian moraine emplacement, NE Scotland

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7 Abstract

8 This paper presents the results of a detailed study of a sequence of Late Devensian (Weichselian) 9 sands, gravels and diamictons exposed within a recessional moraine near Loch Killin near Fort 10 Augustus, Monadhliath Mountains, NE Scotland. Macroscale sedimentological and structural field 11 observations are combined with micromorphological and micro-structural analysis to investigate the 12 ice-marginal processes which led to the construction of this landform. Microstructures present within 13 the stratified diamictons mantling the glacitectonised core of the moraine reveal a complex history of 14 microfabric development resulting from ductile shearing during the emplacement of these ice-15 marginal mass flow deposits. Shearing occurred throughout the entire mass flow with flowage 16 occurring towards the WNW. The laminated sediments which infill a number of steeply inclined 17 hydrofractures which cut the moraine are interpreted as having accommodated several phases of fluid 18 flow, with a palaeoflow direction towards the WNW. A detailed model of ice-marginal landform 19 development has been established involving glacitectonism as a result of ice-push during a readvance 20 of the glacier (Stage 1), followed by mass flow of sediments released as a result of melting of the snout 21 during a period of still stand (Stage 3), followed by hydrofracturing accompanying the escape of 22 pressurised meltwater from beneath the ice, probably during the initial stages of glacier retreat.

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24 Introduction

There are a range of processes, including bulldozing/pushing, squeezing, freeze on, melt-out and mass flowage of sediments, operating at the snouts of contemporary glaciers which result in the building of ice-marginal moraines on a variety of scales (e.g. Benediktsson *et al.*, 2008; Benn and Evans, 2010; Bradwell *et al.*, 2013). Ice marginal pushing leading to glacitectonism of penecontemporaneous or preexisting sediments is generally regarded as the dominant process in the formation of annual recessional moraines. Such moraines are formed in response to the minor readvance of the ice margin

31 during the winter, even though the glacier is undergoing overall retreat (e.g. Price, 1970; Sharp, 1984; 32 Kruger, 1995; Evans and Twigg, 2002; Benn and Evans, 2010; Bradwell et al., 2013). However, melting 33 of the ice at the snout during the summer months can lead to the deposition (dumping) of debris 34 released from the ice to form ice marginal aprons and fans, which can themselves become deformed 35 during a subsequent readvance (e.g. Hewitt 1967; Boulton and Eyles, 1979; Lukas, 2005, 2012). The 36 sediment being released from the ice through melt-out will be subjected to remobilisation by mass 37 flowage, gravity driven fall or even fluvial transport by meltwater streams. These so called "dump 38 moraines" form were the ice remains stationary during the accumulation of the debris and their size 39 will depend on the length of this still stand and volume of material being released from the ice (Benn 40 and Evans, 2010). Consequently, the dominant moraine forming process can change both spatially and 41 temporally along the ice margin leading to the construction of potentially complex ice-marginal 42 landforms comprising both undeformed and highly tectonised glacigenic sediments. As a result the 43 ice-marginal landforms preserved within the geological record may owe their origin to the complex 44 interaction of a number of processes.

45 Although micromorphology has become a well-established technique and increasingly used by 46 glaciologists and Quaternary geologists as a primary tool for the analysis of deformed glacigenic 47 sequences and as an aid to understanding the processes occurring beneath glaciers (e.g. Menzies and 48 Maltman, 1992; van der Meer, 1997; Menzies et al., 1997; Menzies and van der Meer, 1998; Khatwa 49 and Tulaczyk, 2001; van der Meer et al., 2003; Roberts and Hart, 2005; Hiemstra et al., 2005; Baroni 50 and Fasano, 2006; Larsen et al., 2006, 2007; Hart, 2007; Phillips et al., 2007, 2011, 2013a, 2018a, b; 51 Denis et al., 2010; Narloch et al., 2012, 2013, 2020; Vaughan-Hirsch et al., 2013; Neudorf et al., 2013; 52 Brumme, 2015; Spagnolo et al., 2016; Gehrmann et al., 2017; Evans, 2018), very few studies use this 53 method to investigate the processes occurring in ice-marginal settings (e.g. Lachniet *et al.*, 1999, 2001; 54 Menzies and Zaniewski, 2003; Phillips, 2006; Reinardy and Lukas, 2009; Skolasińska et al., 2016). 55 Consequently, our understanding of the microscale structures developed in response to ice-marginal 56 processes (e.g. mass flow, freeze-thaw, desiccation and dewatering, fluvial reworking) remains 57 limited. This is critical when these processes can strongly modify or even overprint any pre-existing 58 features present within the sediments released from within, or beneath, the retreating ice. 59 Furthermore, this lack of understanding becomes increasingly important when several published 60 studies have tried to use micromorphology to determine the depositional setting of massive 61 diamictons preserved within the geological record (van der Meer, 1987; Carr et al., 2000; Carr, 2001; 62 Carr et al., 2006; Menzies et al., 2006; Kilfeather et al., 2010).

This paper contributes to our knowledge of the processes which led to the development of a Late
 Devensian (Weichselian) recessional moraine near Loch Killin in the Monadhliath Mountains to the

65 east of Fort Augustus, NE Scotland (Fig. 1). Macroscale sedimentological and structural field 66 observations are combined with micromorphological and micro-structural analysis to investigate the 67 ice-marginal processes which led to the construction of this landform. Detailed mapping of the 68 microstructures within the stratified diamictons and sands mantling the glacitectonised core to the 69 moraine reveal a complex history of microfabric development formed as a result of ductile shearing 70 during the emplacement of these mass flow deposits. Furthermore, thin sections taken from a system 71 of sediment-filled hydrofractures which cut the moraine record the escape of pressurised meltwater 72 from beneath the ice. Combining the results of both the macro- and microscale studies has allowed a 73 detailed model of ice-marginal landform development to be established. This involved glacitectonism 74 as a result of ice-push during glacier readvance, followed by mass flow of sediments released as a 75 result of melting of the snout during a period of still stand, followed by hydrofracturing and water 76 escape accompanied by extensional fault on the up-ice side of the moraine probably during the initial 77 stages of renewed glacier retreat. The range of microstructures found within the mass flow deposits 78 (diamictons) are comparable to those found within subglacially deformed traction tills which has 79 important implications for anyone trying to use micromorphology, on its own, to establish the 80 depositional setting of glacigenic diamictons.

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82 Regional setting and location of study area

83 The exposed section examined during this study [NH 5190 1211] is located on eastern side of the River 84 Fechlin which flows out of the northern end of Loch Killin, located to the west of Fort Augustus, NW 85 Scotland (Fig. 1a and b). Loch Killin is an approximately NE-SW-trending, elongate lake filling a 86 prominent steep-sided glaciated valley (Fig. 1c and d) on the north side of the Monadhliath Mountains. 87 The bedrock geology in the study area is dominated by the polydeformed and metasedimentary rocks 88 of the Grampian Group (Stephenson and Gould, 1995). In the northern and central parts of the area 89 are underlain metamorphosed (amphibolite facies) sandstones belonging to the Loch Laggan 90 Psammite Formation. However, in the southern part of the area, these micaceous metasandstones 91 (psammites) are replaced by schistose metasiltstones (semipelites) of the Monadhliath Semipelite 92 Formation. To the south of the study area the Grampian Group is intruded by the Devonian in age Allt 93 Crom Granite.

In the Late Devensian, the Monadhliath Mountains occupied the central zone between corridors of
relatively faster flowing ice (ice streams) moving north-eastwards along the Great Glen, to the north,
and Strathspey, located to the south (Fig. 1c). During the early phases of the Late Devensian (28-22ka)
the Monadhliath Mountains were believed to be entirely submerged by ice with the British and Irish

98 Ice Sheet (BIIS) extending offshore to merge with the Scandinavian ice occupying the North Sea basin
99 (Bradwell *et al.*, 2008; Merritt *et al.*, 2013). However, ice on the Monadhliath massif itself is considered
100 by Merritt *et al.* (1995, 2013) to have been either slow moving or cold-based, consequently it is unclear
101 whether this area acted as an independent ice dispersal centre at any stage during the last glaciation.

102 During deglaciation, Boston and Lukas (2013) provided sedimentological evidence that suggested that 103 Glen Killin was occupied by an ice-damned lake (also see Charlesworth, 1956; Boston, 2012). The 104 modern day Loch Killin is constrained at its northern-end by a thick accumulation of unconsolidated 105 glacigenic sediments. Exposed sections through this sequence occur on both the western and eastern 106 banks of the River Fechlin [NH 524 113] (see Figs. 1d and 2). Immediately downstream of where the 107 river leaves the loch, a section exposed on the western side of the river reveals a c. 8-9 m of glacifluvial 108 outwash sands and gravels (Lithofacies (LFA) 1; Boston and Lukas, 2013) overlain by c. 1 m of laminated 109 glacilacustrine clays (LFA2; Boston and Lukas, 2013), which are in turn being capped by a clast-rich 110 diamicton which is interpreted as a subglacial traction till (LA3; Boston and Lukas, 2013). The mapped 111 extent of these glacifluvial and glacilacustrine deposits are shown on Fig. 1d with the hummocky upper 112 surface of the diamicton merging with the till covered slopes of the valley sides at approximately 400 113 m OD (Ordinance datum). A number of short (c. 50-100 m long), arcuate (convex down-valley), 114 approximately NE-SW-trending crest lines which occur perpendicular to the river have been identified 115 on the surface of these hummocky glacial deposits (Fig. 1d). Charlesworth (1956) argued that during deglaciation the lake formed as a result of damming the valley of the River Fechlin by ice flowing down 116 117 from the north (see fig. 37 of Boston and Lukas, 2013). However, the size of the lake is disputed with 118 Boston and Lucas (2013) arguing that it was large enough to drain into the valley of the River Eskin 119 over a col at 642 m OD at the top of Glen Markie and into the head of the Findhorn Valley (Fig. 1d; 120 also see Boston 2012). However, Merritt et al. (2013) concluded (based upon mapping by the BGS) 121 that the ice dammed lake was less far extensive, reaching an elevation of no more than c. 500 m OD 122 and that drainage occurred north-westwards through the valley of the River Fechlin.

Reconstructions of the younger, Younger Dryas ice sheet suggest the Monadhliath icefield terminated at the southern end of Loch Killin (Boston *et al.*, 2015). Therefore it seems likely that the sections examined during the present study were unaffected by this later phase of ice advance.

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127 Methods

Prior to sampling for micromorphology, the sedimentary sequence was logged and the macroscale characteristics, such as sedimentary lithofacies and architecture, and macroscopic deformation structures, were described and sketched in detail (Figs. 2 and 3), following the procedures prescribed 131 in Evans and Benn (2004), Phillips and Lee (2011) and Evans (2018). The samples were collected using 132 10 cm square, aluminium Kubiena tins, which were cut into the face of each exposure in order to limit 133 sample disturbance. The location, orientation, depth and way-up of the sample were marked on the 134 outside of the tin during collection. Orientated samples are collected so that kinematic indicators 135 (Passchier and Trouw, 1996; van der Wateren et al., 2000; Phillips et al., 2007), such as the sense of 136 asymmetry of folds and fabrics, as well as the sense of displacement faults, could be established and 137 used to provide information on the former stress regime. It is important that the orientation of the 138 samples relative to the presumed direction of ice-push is established, as only thin sections cut parallel 139 to this principal stress direction will exhibit the most complete record of deformation and its intensity. 140 A total of 6 orientated samples were collected from the site: three samples (N13916 to N13918) of 141 the finely laminated sands, silts and clays infilling a steeply inclined hydrofracture (Fig. 4a to e) which 142 cuts the glacitectonised lake sediments which form the core of the moraine (Fig. 3a); and a further 143 three samples (N13919 to N13921) were taken from a weakly stratified diamicton and underlying 144 bedded sediments which mantle the western side of the recessional moraine (Figs. 3b and 4f).

145 Sample preparation (c. 10 months) involved the initial replacement of pore-water by acetone, which 146 was then progressively replaced by a resin and allowed to cure. Large format orientated thin sections 147 were taken from the centre of each of the prepared samples, thus avoiding artefacts associated with sample collection. Each thin section was cut orthogonal to the main structures evident from the field 148 149 investigation. The thin sections were examined using a standard Zeiss petrological microscope. 150 Detailed analysis of a sediment-filled hydrofracture was also carried out with the infill being divided 151 into a number of lithological units (Figs. 5 to 10). Sedimentary logs through this laminated sand, silt 152 and clay vein were constructed in order to highlight any systematic variation in the sediment type, 153 sedimentary structures and layer thickness (Fig. 8). Further detailed microscale analysis of the clast 154 microfabrics (coarse silt to small pebble sized clasts) developed within the stratified diamictons (Figs. 155 11 to 13) was carried out using the methodology of Phillips et al. (2011) (also see Vaughan-Hirsh et al., 156 2013; Neudorf et al., 2013; Gehrmann et al., 2017; Phillips et al., 2013, 2018a, b; Brumme, 2015). The 157 clast orientation data are plotted on a series rose diagrams using the commercial software package 158 StereoStat by Rockware[™]. During the microstructural mapping process the relationships between 159 successive generations of clast microfabrics were determined, allowing the relative chronology of 160 fabric development to be established (see Phillips et al., 2011 for details). Successive generations of 161 fabrics (S1 or earliest to Sn last) were distinguished using the nomenclature normally used in structural 162 geological studies (c.f. Phillips *et al.*, 2007; Phillips and Lee, 2011).

164 Sedimentology and macroscale deformation structures within the moraine

The sedimentary and structural interpretation of the section exposed on northern-side of the River 165 Fechlin is shown in Fig. 2. The section cuts through a thin (2 to 4 m thick) sequence of variably 166 167 disrupted sands, gravels and diamictons, mapped as glacifluvial ice-contact deposits, which are 168 overlain by hummocky glacial deposits (Fig. 1d). At the ESE-end of section the lower part of the 169 sequence is composed of a folded and thrust sequence of sands and gravels (Figs. 2 and 3a). These 170 sands and gravels are thought to correspond to the glaciofluvial outwash (LFA1) of Boston and Lukas 171 (2013). The lowest exposed unit is a red-brown coloured, clast- to matrix-supported gravel composed 172 of rounded to subrounded pebbles and cobbles of schistose metamudstone (c. 60%), metasandstone 173 (psammite; c. 20%) and granite (c. 20%) within a matrix of coarse-grained micaceous sand. This is 174 directly overlain by a complex sequence of disrupted lenses to irregular blocks of finely laminated 175 (individual laminae 1 to 20 mm thick) sand and gravel (Figs. 2 and 3a). Although deformed, the sands 176 locally preserve a moderately to well-developed cross-lamination with bedding dipping at low to 177 moderate angles towards the SE (25° towards 134°). However, changes in the angle of dip and 178 orientation of the bedding surfaces within the sands and gravels reveals the presence of a number of 179 ESE-dipping thrusts (Fig 3a). The individual thrust planes are poorly defined and appear diffuse in 180 nature. However, offset of bedding across these structures records a sense of displacement towards 181 the WNW/NW; consistent with ice-push from the ESE/SE. In the centre of the exposure a sequence of 182 thinly bedded sands and silts is deformed a number of ESE-dipping normal (extensional) faults (Fig. 183 3a) which locally appear to cross-cut and therefore postdate the earlier developed thrusts. At the 184 eastern-end of the section the disrupted, lenticular bedding within the sands and gravels is deformed 185 by a moderately inclined, WNW/NW-verging asymmetrical fold (Figs 2 and 3a). Minor folding within 186 the core of this fold is complex to disharmonic suggesting that these sediments contained a high water 187 content during deformation. The deformation structures within this glacitectonised unit, including a 188 recumbent fold at the top of the deformed sequence, are truncated by the sharp, erosive base of a c. 189 60 cm thick unit of boulder gravel which fines upward into moderately to weakly bedded sand (Figs. 2 190 and 3a). The gravel locally contains imbricated pebbles and cobbles of metasandstone which record a 191 palaeoflow direction towards the NW.

The glacitectonised sequence is cut by a number of steeply inclined (50° to 70°) ESE/SE-dipping sediment-filled veins (Figs. 4a and b). They range from 2 to 6 cm thick and can be traced laterally for up to 2-3 m. The veins are composed of thinly laminated sand, silt and clay with the lamination, which is locally lenticular in form, occurs parallel to the walls of the fracture (Figs. 4c and d). The margins of the veins are sharp and range from planar to irregular in form. These sediment-filled veins, interpreted as hydrofracture fills, are most common on the ESE-side of the exposed section where they clearly

198 crosscut and therefore postdate the disruption as a result of glacitectonism. Comparable sediment-199 filled hydrofractures have also been recognised within the WNW-part of the section (see Fig. 2).

200 The central part of the section is composed of a massive, hard (overconsolidated) diamicton (possibly 201 equivalent to LFA 2 of Boston and Lukas, 2013) which is cut by a c. 50 cm to 1m wide, steeply inclined 202 to subvertical pipe-like feature composed of compact, closely packed (overconsolidated) gravel (Fig. 203 2). The contact between the diamicton and the adjacent glacitectonised sequence to the ESE is very 204 steeply inclined to subvertical and appears to have been modified by the introduction of the gravel 205 pipe. This boundary clearly crosscuts both bedding and the deformation structures within the 206 glacitectonised part of the section. The contact between the diamicton and the bedded sequence 207 exposed on the WNW-side of the section is observed by slope deposits and a cobble gravel; the latter 208 representing recent fluvial deposits mantling the base of the section.

209 The sediments exposed at the WNW-end of the section are less disturbed and comprises a well-210 bedded sequence of sands, gravels and diamictons (Figs. 2 and 3b). The upper part of the sequence, 211 however, is obscured by younger slope deposits (matrix-supported diamicton). The lowest part of the 212 bedded sequence is composed of a matrix-supported gravel containing thin, lenticular interbeds of 213 fine sand and clay which dip towards the NW. The gravel is poorly sorted and composed of sub-angular 214 to rounded clasts of metasandstone, schistose metamudstone and minor granite (< 1%). The overlying 215 lenticular unit (Fig. 2) is composed of laminated fine-grained sand with well-developed climbing ripple 216 drift lamination towards the top. This is directly overlain by a coarse gravely sand (Figs. 2 and 3b). 217 Bedding within this part of the sequence dips gently towards the NW (16° towards 319°). This 218 sequence of sands and gravels probably representing a least deformed equivalent to the 219 glacitectonised glaciofluvial outwash observed in the ESE-part of the section (see Figs. 2 and 3b). The 220 remainer of the sequence exposed in the WNW part of the section is composed of weakly bedded 221 sands, gravelly sands and stratified diamictons. The diamicton layers are up to 1 m thick and comprise 222 subangular to subrounded pebble sized clasts (same clast assemblage as the underlying gravels) within 223 an apparently massive (on a macroscale) silty sand matrix. No obvious striated or faceted clasts were 224 recognised within the diamicton. Bedding within this sequence is subhorizontal to very gently dipping 225 towards the WNW (see Fig. 3b). The stratified nature of the diamictons coupled with presence of 226 interbedded sands and gravels, and apparent absence of striated clasts has led to the conclusion that 227 they represent mass flow deposits rather than a subglacial traction till.

229 Microscale structures within the sediment-filled hydrofractures

Three samples (N13916; N13917; N13919) were collected from a steeply inclined sediment-filled 230 hydrofractures cutting through the glacitectonised glacilacustrine sequences within the core of the 231 232 moraine (Fig. 4e). All three thin sections are composed of finely laminated clay, silt and sand filling a 233 c. 3 to 8 cm wide, steeply ESE-dipping vein (75°ESE/019°; Fig. 4b) which cross-cuts an apparently 234 massive, micaceous, matrix-poor sand (Figs. 5 to 7). In thin section the sand is fine-grained with a 235 distinctive "mottled" appearance and lacking any obvious bedding or primary sedimentary structures. 236 The moderately sorted, matrix-poor, open packed sand has a high intergranular porosity which is 237 locally lined or filled by clay. These clay lined/filled pore spaces are most common immediately 238 adjacent to the margins of the hydrofracture with the brown coloured clay being lithologically similar 239 to the laminated silt and clay lining the walls of the fracture. The sand is composed of angular to 240 subangular, low sphericity monocrystalline quartz and subordinate guartz fragments. Needle-like to 241 tabular flakes of muscovite and biotite are a common minor detrital component, and exhibit a locally 242 well-developed preferred shape alignment defining an irregular to anastomosing fabric which is 243 apparently coplanar to the margins of the sediment filled vein (Figs. 5 to 7).

244 The sediment-filled hydrofractures are composed of finely laminated silt and clay along their margins 245 (units 1 and 3 on Figs. 5 to 7) with the central part of the vein composed of a slightly coarser grained 246 fill of sand and silt (unit 2 on Figs. 5 to 7). The margins of the vein are sharp, ranging from planar to 247 slightly irregular in form. However, if the sediment-fill was removed the margins of the hydrofracture 248 will not fit together suggesting that there has been some erosion of the side-walls. The clays 249 immediately adjacent to the wall of the hydrofracture possess a locally well-developed plasmic fabric 250 which occurs coplanar to the side-walls which is defined by optically aligned clay minerals. The clays 251 are also deformed by number of small-scale extensional (normal) faults defined by a well-developed 252 unistrial plasmic fabric. The sense of movement across these faults towards the ESE consistent with 253 sediment being displaced/collapsing into the open facture.

254 Detailed graphic logs through the sedimentary fill observed in thin section are shown in Fig. 8. The 255 laminated clay and silt along the structurally lower margin (unit 1) of the hydrofracture locally form 256 discrete couplets which fine upwards ("normal" grading) (see Figs. 8, 9 and 10). However, adjacent to 257 the upper margin (unit 3) this grading is reversed with both clay-silt-rich marginal sequences fining 258 towards the centre of the hydrofracture (see Fig. 8a). The thicker lenses and laminae of silt within the 259 marginal sequences and thicker sand layers within the centre of the vein are cross-laminated (Figs. 9 260 and 10) and record a consistent palaeoflow direction "upwards", towards the WNW (Figs. 5 to 8; also see Fig. 4b). The cross-laminated silt lenses within the clay-rich marginal sequences may represent 261 262 isolated ripples which migrated upwards along the open fracture. The foresets are locally deformed and possess a distinct S-shaped to curved geometry (see Figs. 9 and 10) with the asymmetry of these folded foresets recording an apparent WNW-directed sense of shear, consistent with the palaeoflow direction. The bases of the sand layers are sharp and vary from planar to irregular, with the latter clearly eroding into the underlying sediments (Figs. 8, 9 and 10). Small-scale load structures were also noted on the bases of some of the sand and silt layers. The composition of the sand laminae within the hydrofracture is comparable to that of the host sediments, with these host sands also filling small late stage veinlets which crosscut the larger hydrofracture (Figs. 5, 6 and 9a).

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271 Microstructures within the stratified diamictons and sands

272 In thin section sample N13919 is composed of weakly to moderately, thinly bedded coarse-sand, silty 273 and silty sand which can be divided into four main units (Fig. 11): (i) occurs at the bottom of the thin 274 section and comprises poorly sorted coarse silt with graded silt to clay laminae indicating that the 275 sequence is the right-way-up; (ii) the overlying unit of matrix-supported, poorly sorted and weakly 276 laminated coarse-grained silty sand; (iii) a laterally discontinuous, lenticular layer of laminated coarse 277 silt to fine sand; and (iv) a fining upwards unit of weakly laminated, poorly sorted sand and silty sand. 278 Angular to subangular, low sphericity sand to granule sized clasts within the coarser-grained layers are 279 mainly composed of monocrystalline quartz and metasedimentary rock fragments. Minor to accessory 280 detrital components include garnet, muscovite and biotite. The detrital assemblage within these sandy 281 sediments indicating that the sediment is locally derived from the Grampian Group. The stratified and 282 locally graded nature of these sediments is consistent with them being deposited by meltwater.

283 Samples N13920 (Fig. 12) and N13921 (Fig. 13) were taken from the overlying diamicton; sample 284 N13920 from near to the base and N13921 from higher up within this c. 1 m thick, apparently massive 285 (macroscopically) deposit. In thin section the diamicton is a coarse-grained, texturally and compositionally immature, open-packed and matrix-supported deposit containing angular to 286 287 subangular lithic clasts of locally derived metasedimentary rocks including garnet-biotite-schist, 288 biotite-metasandstone, hornfelsed biotite-schist and quartzite, as well as biotite-granite (Figs. 12 and 289 13). The fine silty sand matrix to the diamicton is micaceous with biotite and muscovite being common 290 minor detrital components. Sand to coarse silt grains within the matrix are mainly composed of 291 monocrystalline quartz with subordinate amounts of plagioclase. A moderately to well-developed 292 preferred shape alignment of the elongate sand grains and, in particular, detrital micas is locally 293 developed within the matrix. However, no obvious plasmic fabrics have been recognised probably 294 reflecting the relatively low modal proportions of clay minerals within the matrix to the diamicton. A number of the larger granule to pebble sized clasts are enclosed within a "halo" of finer grained, siltymatrix.

297 Microstructural analysis of the thin sections has revealed that the tills possess four successive 298 generations of clast microfabric defined by the preferred shape alignment of elongate coarse silt to 299 sand-grade clasts: (i) the earliest fabric (S1) is a subhorizontal to gently WNW-dipping (in the plane of 300 section represented by the thin sections) foliation (brown on Figs 12. and 13); (ii) this fabric is cross-301 cut by a moderately (S2a) to steeply (S2b) WNW-dipping foliation (dark green; Figs. 12 and 13); (iii) a 302 third (S3) moderately inclined ESE-dipping foliation (pale green; Figs. 12 and 13) which appears to 303 cross-cut both of the earlier foliations; and (iv) the latest fabric is a weakly developed subvertical 304 foliation (S4) (orange-brown; Figs. 12 and 13). The S1 and S3 fabrics are the dominant foliations with 305 the relative intensity of these microfabrics varying across the sample reflecting the heterogeneous 306 nature of deformation. The spacing of the microfabrics is controlled by the overall grain size of the 307 diamicton with the large, granule to pebble-sized clasts acting as rigid bodies and controlling the 308 partitioning deformation within the matrix. Asymmetrical (S-shaped) fabric geometries defined by 309 both S1 and S3 record a consistent sense of shear towards the NW (see Figs. 12 and 13). In contrast 310 to these earlier shear related fabrics, the later S4 foliation which clearly cross-cuts all the earlier 311 developed clast microfabrics is thought to have possibly formed during the dewatering of the 312 sediment. The rose diagrams on Figs. 12 and 13 indicate that although the relative intensity of S1, S2 313 and 3 vary in different parts of the thin section, the dip of these microfabrics appears to remain 314 relatively consistent throughout the c. 1 m thick deposit.

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316 Interpretation

317 Sedimentation in response to fluid flow within the hydrofractures

The laminated nature of the sediment-fill and the presence of locally well-developed/preserved 318 319 sedimentary structures (Figs. 8, 9 and 10) clearly indicate that the steeply inclined hydrofractures 320 which cut the ice-marginal moraine at the northern-end of Loch Killin accommodated several phases 321 of fluid flow. Comparable with other sediment-filled hydrofracture systems in glacial environments 322 (e.g. van der Meer et al., 2009; Phillips et al., 2013b; Phillips and Merritt, 2008; Phillips and Hughes, 323 2014) the earliest sediments laid down along the margins of the vein being a thinly laminated 324 sequence of clay and silt which fines towards the centre of the fracture (see Fig. 8). The presence of a 325 well-developed plasmic fabric within the clay immediately adjacent to the fracture wall has previously 326 been interpreted as recording the "plastering" of the clays onto the margins of the open/active 327 hydrofracture (Phillips et al., 2013; Phillips and Hughes, 2014). These laminated clay-rich layers may

328 be analogous to "mud cake" which form during drilling of hydrocarbon wells and boreholes (e.g. Feng 329 et al., 2015). Mud cake forms as fine particles present within the drill mud are filtered out and 330 deposited on the inside of a borehole as the suspending fluid seeps into the surrounding porous rock. 331 The two main conditions for mud cake development are: (i) a high solids content within the fluid being 332 injected; and (ii) initially high rates of fluid penetration through the wellbore into the surrounding rock. 333 or sediment (Feng et al., 2015). Once formed, however, mud cake forms a low permeability barrier 334 preventing further penetration and fluid loss. A similar model can be applied to the development of 335 the clay-rich layers lining the walls of hydrofracture systems in glacial environments. Leakage of fluid 336 during the early stages of hydrofracture development is suggested by the presence of clay within the 337 intergranular pore spaces of the sand immediately adjacent to the fracture. The development of these 338 clay linings and/or pore filling cements would have reduced the permeability of these matrix-poor 339 sediments. This reduction in porosity/permeability, coupled with the filtering and deposition of an 340 extremely low permeability clay layer along the walls of the hydrofracture, would have effectively 341 confined further fluid flow and/or subsequent flow events to within this evolving system.

342 The sand forming the walls of the hydrofracture possesses a well-developed, irregular to 343 anastomosing foliation defined by shape-aligned detrital biotite and muscovite (Figs. 11, 12 and 13). 344 Importantly this steeply inclined detrital mica foliation occurs parallel to the margins of the hydrofracture. Furthermore, at both a macro- (Fig. 4c) and microscale (Figs. 5 to 7) the sand adjacent 345 346 to the hydrofracture possess a distinctive mottled appearance, typically associated with the 347 liquefaction and homogenisation of unlithified glacial sediments (references). The sand also lacks of 348 any obvious bedding or any other primary sedimentary structures which were potentially overprinted 349 as homogenisation as a result of localised liquefaction. There is no clear relationship between the mica 350 foliation and any macro- or microscale soft-deformation structures (folds, faults and ductile shears) 351 which formed as a result of glacitectonism. As a result the mica foliation is interpreted as having 352 formed due of the realignment of the needle-like to tabular detrital grains in response to intergranular 353 fluid flow (see Figs. 5 to 7) which led to the overprinting of the primary (depositional) texture/structure 354 of the sand. Analysis of samples N13916, N13917 and N13918 suggests that the sediment-filled 355 hydrofracture cross-cuts and, therefore, postdates the formation of this mica foliation (Figs. 5, 6 and 356 7, respectively). Consequently, intergranular fluid flow through the sand may have occurred in 357 association with an earlier phase of water-escape from beneath the ice. The pressure of the 358 submarginal to subglacial hydrodynamic system is then thought to have changed, possibly increasing 359 dramatically, thereby exceeding the cohesive strength of the sand leading to hydrofracturing. 360 Subsequent, fluid flow and water-escape would have then been confined to within the clay-lined 361 hydrofractures.

362 Detailed logging of the sediment-fill has revealed the presence of both fining and coarsening upward 363 sequences (Fig. 14) thought to reflect changes in the velocity of fluid flow through the active hydrofracture system (cf. Phillips *et al.*, 2013; Phillips and Hughes, 2014). Cross-cutting relationships 364 365 between the sand and silt layers, coupled with the presence of erosive bases to these layers are 366 consistent with the hydrofracture having accommodated several phases or pulses of fluid flow and 367 accompanying sedimentation. As noted above, the cross-lamination within the silts and sands record 368 a consistent palaeoflow direction upwards through the hydrofracture towards the WNW (Figs. 4b, 5, 369 6, 7 and 8). The cross-laminated silt lenses within the clay-rich marginal sequences may represent 370 isolated ripples which migrated upwards along the open fracture; possibly reflecting changes in the 371 volume of sediment being transported through the system (cf. starved ripples?). The development of 372 sedimentary structures (graded bedding, cross-lamination...etc.) within the sedimentary fill to the 373 hydrofracture indicates that this system was "open" during the period of fluid flow with the 374 pressurised meltwater being able to escape its far end (Jeff Peakall, pers. comm. 2018), for example 375 onto the surface of the landform. Consequently, the hydrofracture can be viewed as acting as a 376 "confined" fluviatile-like system enabling a mix of pressurised meltwater and sediment to escape from 377 beneath the ice feeding a so called "burst out" structure of Benediktsson et al. (2008). The sediment-378 filled veins have not been tilted/deformed subsequent to their formation (see Figs. 4 a, c and d), 379 consequently the ripples were actively climbing up a steeply inclined (c. 75°), open hydrofracture (Fig. 380 14). The foresets typically dip at an angle of $< 30^{\circ}$ to the margin of the vein, i.e. at a lower angle than 381 the typical angle of repose (c. 30-35°) of foresets associated with climbing ripples (Figs. 9 and 10). This 382 lower angle of repose is thought to relate to the fact that the ripples are confined and climbing up the 383 steeply inclined hydrofracture. Locally the foresets are deformed and possess a distinct S-shaped to 384 curved geometry with the asymmetry of these folded foresets recording an apparent WNW-directed 385 sense of shear, i.e. consistent with the palaeoflow direction recorded by the cross-lamination.

386 Figure 14 is a conceptual model illustrating the progressive infilling of an active hydrofracture system 387 due to the stacking of individual layers or lenses of sand and silt. The lenticular nature of bedding 388 observed in thin section (see Figs. 9 and 10) suggests that deposition was localised with the cross-389 laminated sands migrating upwards along the active hydrofracture (Stage 1; Fig. 14), possibly taking a 390 form similar to that of starved ripples (Stow, 2007). Lenses of cross-bedded silt and/or sand may 391 represent individual packages of sediment or ripples which migrated upwards through the 392 hydrofracture with deposition occurring as a result of falling water pressure. The sedimentary 393 sequence within the hydrofracture is built up as a series of sediment packages with successive ripples 394 climbing up the lee-side of earlier formed deposits (Stages 2 to 4; Fig. 14). Each phase of deposition is 395 typically marked by a sharp, erosive surface at the base. The foresets are locally deformed by

396 WNW/NW-verging folds consistent with a sense of shear "upwards" along the hydrofracture. 397 Consequently, this localised soft-sediment deformation is thought to occur as a result of shear induced 398 by flow of overpressurised fluid (sediment and water) across wet, deformable sediment leading to the 399 localised folding of foresets within earlier formed cross-laminated units (Stage 3; Fig. 14). It is possible 400 that the laminated sediment fill may represent several phases of deposition during a single prolonged 401 flow event in which flow velocity/water pressure fluctuated leading to the observed changes in grain 402 size.....etc. Alternatively each unit represents a single flow event within the hydrofracture with the 403 entire sequence being built up over time as a result of several phases of fluid flow.

404 Synsedimentary deformation associated with mass flow emplacement

405 The macro- and microscale observations of the stratified diamictons and sand sequence which 406 mantles the north-western side of the moraine are consistent with these sediments being laid down 407 as a result of ice marginal sedimentation. The thinly bedded to laminated nature of the sand, silt and 408 clay observed in thin section (N13919) coupled with the presence of weakly developed fining upward 409 sequences (Fig. 15) may be consistent with these sediments being water lain. However, the matrix-410 supported, massive (no obvious crossbedding...etc.) nature of the poorly sorted, coarse to fine sands 411 (Fig. 11) may indicate that they were more likely to have been deposited as a water-rich slurry on the 412 surface of the moraine rather than from a body of water (e.g. river or lake). The composition and 413 coarse-grained nature of the overlying diamictons clearly indicates that these sediments were locally 414 derived and were being released as ice melted at the snout from the melting ice at the glacier snout. 415 The thin sections obtained from the diamicton provide a valuable insight into the processes occurring 416 during the emplacement of these deposits.

417 The clast microfabrics identified within the diamicton (N13920; N13921) are considered to have 418 developed as a result of the partitioning of deformation into the matrix of the mass flow deposit (see 419 Fig. 15). Although cross-cutting relationships have been identified between the various generations of 420 fabrics (Figs. 12, 13 and 15), it is likely that S1 to S3 developed in response to the same overall stress 421 regime. The relationships between these microfabrics clearly indicate that ductile shearing occurred 422 throughout the entire mass flow and led to the development of P and R-type Reidel shears (Fig. 15). 423 Consequently this microscale evidence may provide important evidence regarding the nature of the 424 mass flow and its mode of emplacement (see Lawson, 1982; Lachniet et al., 1999; Phillips, 2006; 425 Reinardy and Lukas, 2009). Lawson (1982) and Lachniet et al. (1999) recognised four different types 426 of mass flow formed within contemporary ice-proximal environments: Type 1 flows a have a water 427 content of 8-14% by weight, are lobate in shape and composed of a cohesive mass flowing over a few 428 centimetres thick basal shear zone; Type 2 flows, with a water content of 14–19%, are commonly 429 channelised, and move as a cohesive mass over basal and lateral shear zones; Type 3 flows have a

430 water content of 18–25%, are once again channelised, but flow by differential shear throughout; 431 whereas Type 4 flows contain a water content of >25% water, may be liquefied, and transport occurs 432 by laminar flow with shear throughout. Consequently, the occurrence of shear related microfabrics 433 throughout the River Fechlin diamicton may be used to tentatively suggest that these deposits can be 434 characterised as a wet sediment Type 4 flow of Lachniet et al. (1999) (also see Lawson, 1982). The 435 sense of shear recorded by the microfabrics is consistent with a direction of flow towards the WNW, 436 probably as a result of mass flowage down the inclined, down-ice dipping surface of the moraine. This 437 interpretation is consistent with the field observation that bedding within this part of the exposed 438 sequence dips gently towards the WNW/NW (see Figs. 2 and 3b). If correct then it suggests that the 439 ice mass providing the source of the mass flows was located to the ESE/SE.

440

441 Discussion

442 Interplay between glacitectonics, hydrofracturing and ice marginal sedimentation during

443 *construction of a recessional moraine*

The dominant moraine forming process can change both spatially and temporally potentially leading to the construction of complex ice-marginal landforms which owe their origin to the complex interaction of a number of processes. The results presented here of a macroscale (field) sedimentological and structural study, combined with a detailed micromorphological analysis, have provided valuable insights into the ice-marginal processes which interacted during the construction of the moraine exposed near Loch Killin.

450 The exposed section through the moraine reveals that it is composed of three main components and 451 that the complexity of deformation increases towards the ESE/SE (Fig. 2). The most intensely 452 deformed sediments occur on the ESE-side of the section (Figs. 2 and 3a). The geometry of a mesoscale 453 asymmetrical fold deforming bedding within the sands and gravels, coupled with the observed SE-454 directed sense of displacement across the thrusts records a direction of ice-push towards the 455 WNW/NW (Stage 1, Fig. 16). This indicates that ice advanced was from the SE with the deformed 456 sequence probably occurring close to the ice-contact slope. The complex, disharmonic nature of the 457 minor folds suggested that these sediments may have been water saturated at the time of 458 deformation. The core of the moraine is composed of a massive, compact (hard) diamicton which is 459 cut by a vertical pipe of over consolidated gravel (Fig. 2). The diamicton and deformed outwash sands 460 and gravels were probably stacked together within the moraine during the early stages of the 461 construction of this landform (Stage 1, Fig. 16). It is possible that the gravel was injected into the 462 diamicton and may have formed the feeder to a "burst out" structure associated with the escape of pressurised meltwater (c.f. Benediktsson *et al.*, 2008). However, due to the nature of the exposure it
has not been possible to establish the relative timing of this injection event.

465 The sediments of the WNW-side of the moraine are relatively undeformed with bedding on this side 466 of the landform gently dipping towards the WNW/NW (Fig. 2 and 3b). These sediments are interpreted as ice-marginal glacifluvial sand and gravels that may either: predate moraine construction and 467 468 represent the undeformed equivalents of the glacitectonised sequence located immediately to the 469 ESE; or alternatively, may be penecontemporaneous with moraine construction and deposited by 470 meltwater streams emanating from the snout (see Stage 2, Fig. 16). The coarse-grained nature of these 471 sediments coupled with the presence of climbing ripples within the sands is consistent with an ice-472 marginal position and relatively high sedimentation rates. If this interpretation is correct then the dip 473 of the bedding towards the WNW may preserve the palaeoslope located on the down-ice side of the 474 moraine (Stage 2, Fig. 16).

475 The stratified diamictons and gravelly sands which overlie the outwash are interpreted as ice-contact 476 mass flow deposits (Stage 2, Fig. 16). Thin sections obtained from the diamictons and interbedded 477 sands provide a valuable insight into the processes occurring during the emplacement of these 478 deposits. The thinly bedded to laminated nature of the sands (N13919) coupled with the presence of 479 weakly developed fining upward sequences (Fig. 15) are consistent with these sediments having been 480 water lain, possibly as a water-rich slurry flowing down the front of the moraine. The composition and 481 coarse-grained nature of the overlying diamictons clearly indicates that these sediments were 482 deposited in an ice-proximal setting, sourced by locally derived detritus being released due to melting 483 at the snout during a period of still-stand (Stage 2, Fig. 16). Clast microfabrics within the diamicton 484 (N13920; N13921) record the partitioning of soft-deformation within the matrix during emplacement 485 with ductile shearing occurring throughout the entire mass flow (Fig. 15). This microscale evidence, 486 when compared with the published literature (Lawson, 1982; Lachniet et al., 1999; Phillips, 2006; 487 Reinardy and Lukas, 2009), may be used to suggest that these deposits represent Type 4 wet sediment 488 (water-rich) flows of Lachniet et al. (1999) (also see Lawson, 1982). The kinematics recorded by the 489 shear related microfabrics are consistent with a direction of flow towards the WNW (see Fig. 15), 490 providing further evidence for the presence of a palaeoslope on the down-ice side of the moraine, 491 with the glacier snout located immediately to the ESE/SE (Fig. 16).

Both the glacitectonised sequence on the up-ice of the moraine and the undeformed sediments on its
WNW-side are cut by a number of ESE/SE-dipping sediment-filled hydrofractures (Figs. 2 and 16).
These features clearly crosscut the glacitectonic folds and thrusts indicating that they formed at a later
stage in the development of the moraine and record the release of pressurised meltwater from

496 beneath the ice (Stage 3, Fig. 16). The laminated nature of the sediment-fill clearly indicates that the 497 hydrofractures accommodated several phases of fluid flow with the locally well-developed/preserved 498 cross-lamination recording a palaeoflow direction towards the WNW consistent with pressurised 499 meltwater escaping upwards through the active/open fracture system. Studies of the subglacial 500 hydrogeology of modern glaciers and ice sheets have shown that meltwater discharge varies on a 501 range of scales from daily, to yearly, to longer decadal cycles (Hubbard *et al.*, 1995; Boulton, 2006; 502 Benn and Evans, 2010 and references therein). Consequently, the complexity of the sediment-fill may 503 indicate that the hydrofractures were active over a prolonged period, possibly days or even months.

504 The presence of a well-developed, irregular to anastomosing foliation defined by shape-aligned 505 detrital biotite and muscovite within the sands hosting the hydrofracture indicates that fluid flow was 506 initially intergranular led to the localised overprinting of the primary (depositional) texture/structure 507 of these sediments. The pressure of the hydrodynamic system then appears to have changed, possibly 508 increasing dramatically and exceeding the cohesive strength of the sand leading to hydrofracturing. 509 The thin sections reveal that fluid leaked into the host sand during the early stages of fracture 510 development blocking the pore spaces reducing its permeability. The associated filtering and 511 deposition of an extremely low permeability clay layer (cf. mud cake in hydrocarbon wells; Feng et al., 512 2015) lining the fracture walls would have confined further fluid flow and/or subsequent flow events 513 to within the hydrofracture system. On the up-ice side of the moraine the sediment-filled 514 hydrofractures are spatially related to a set of normal faults (see Fig. 3a). Consequently, it can be 515 argued that hydrofracturing may have accompanied extensional faulting and minor collapse of the up-516 ice side of the moraine possibly during the initial stages of retreat of the glacier (Stage 3; Fig. 16). 517 Extensional deformation would have also facilitated deposition of the sediment-fills by providing the 518 required accommodation space with the repeated movement (slip) on the faults promoting 519 reactivation of the hydrofractures.

520 In summary, combining the results of both the macro- and microscale studies has enabled a detailed 521 model of ice-marginal landform development to be established. Construction of the moraine located 522 to the north of Loch Killin can be divided into three stages: Stage 1 equates to the initial advance of 523 the glacier with the associated WNW/NW-directed ice-push leading to glacitectonism of a pre-existing 524 sequence of diamictons and glacifluvial outwash; this was followed by Stage 2 which led to the 525 deposition of a sequence of ice-marginal glacifluvial and mass flows deposits, possibly during a period 526 of still-stand which was accompanied by melting and down wasting of the snout; and finally Stage 3 527 which is characterised by the development of a network of sediment-filled hydrofractures which 528 allowed overpressurised meltwater to escape from beneath the ice onto the surface of the landform, 529 possibly during the initial stages of retreat (Fig. 16).

530 Implications for the deglaciation of the Loch Killin area

531 The glacigenic deposits at the northern-end of Loch Killin record part of the history of deglaciation 532 within the glen. Boston and Lukas (2013), following Charlesworth (1956), argued that during 533 deglaciation a large proglacial lake formed as a result of damming the valley of the River Fechlin by ice 534 flowing down from the north (also see Boston 2012). As highlighted above this interpretation was 535 contested by Merritt et al. (2013) who considered that this ice-dammed lake was less far extensive, 536 and that it drained north-westwards through the valley of the River Fechlin. Evidence presented here 537 clearly points to ice having occupied the glen to the south of the exposed sections on the banks of the 538 River Fechlin. The exposed glacigenic sediments and geomorphology appear to record the southward 539 retreat of this "Loch Killin glacier", with the proposed history of deglaciation of the Loch Killin area 540 being shown in Fig. 17.

541 During the early stages of retreat, melting of the glacier led to the deposition of a locally thick 542 sequence glacifluvial deposits exposed at the northern-end of Loch Killin. Deposition of these ice-543 marginal to proglacial sands and gravels was punctuated by several phases of readvance. A series of 544 linear to arcuate (convex down valley) crest lines, orientated across the glen (Figs. 1d and 17), are 545 interpreted as marking these minor readvance limits. The section examined during this present study 546 provides detailed evidence of the ice marginal process occurring during the construction of these 547 recessional landforms. Initial construction of the moraine occurred as result of ice-push towards the 548 WNW/NW (Stage 1, Fig. 16) consistent with ice occupying the valley to the ESE/SE (Fig. 17a). The 549 mapped distribution of the hummocky glacial deposits in this part of the glen (Fig. 1d) suggests that 550 the glacier may have expanded to fill the valley, possibly advancing north-eastwards up the relatively 551 gentle slope on this side of the valley (Fig. 17a). However, the absence of any obvious ice-marginal 552 landforms in this area means that the ice limit on this side of the valley is poorly constrained.

553 Initial advance was followed a period of still stand and ice-marginal sedimentation with the melting 554 ice releasing sediment which fed a sequence of mass flows and interbedded sands and gravels (Fig. 555 Stage 2, 16). The exposed section coincides with a crest line further up the valley side, as well as a 556 much longer linear crest line located on top of a bedrock cored spur on the west side of the valley (Fig. 557 17a, also see Fig. 17d). This spur forms a constriction in the valley and occurs at the point at which the 558 glen abruptly changes orientation from NW-SE to NE-SW (Fig. 1d). This narrowing and change in 559 orientation of the valley may have limited the readvance of the Loch Killin glacier, which may have 560 stabilised on the underlying spur (Fig. 17a), promoting a period of still-stand and observed ice-561 marginal sedimentation. As the ice began to retreat from this readvance limit, normal faulting on the 562 ice-contact side of the recessional moraine would have facilitated the escape of overpressurised 563 meltwater from beneath the ice (Stage 3, Fig. 16).

564 As the ice retreated it left behind a mixed sequence of glacigenic deposits composed of outwash sands 565 and gravels, subglacial traction tills and mass flow deposits; collectively mapped as hummocky glacial deposits (Figs. 1d and17b). A series of relatively closely spaced, arcuate crest lines identified on the 566 567 western side of the glen are thought to represent the crests of recessional moraines, possibly 568 representing minor (?seasonal) readvances during the overall southward retreat of the Loch Killin 569 glacier. The relatively thick sequence of glacial deposits laid down earlier with the narrow part of the 570 valley may have formed an effective barrier enabling the formation of a proglacial lake (Fig. 17b) as 571 the ice-margin retreated into the overdeepening now occupied by Loch Killin. This lake may have been 572 fed by meltwater streams emanating from ice retreating onto the higher ground to the east of the 573 glen, and would have expanded as the ice continued to retreat southwards (Fig. 17c). However, the 574 maximum size of this lake is uncertain due to the absence of any preserved palaeo-shorelines. 575 Eventually it is likely that the glacigenic sediments forming the dam to this lake were breached 576 enabling the lake to drain northwards via the valley now occupied by the River Fechlin (Fig. 17c). This 577 interpretation, therefore, agrees with the model of deglaciation proposed by Merritt et al. (2013).

578 Implications for using micromorphology to establish the depositional setting of glacigenic 579 diamictons

- 580 A number of the previously published studies have attempted to use this technique to discriminate 581 between diamictons deposited in different sedimentary environments by systematically recording the 582 type and frequency of microstructures (e.g. Carr 2001, 2004; Lee, 2001; Carr et al., 2001; Menzies et 583 al. 2006; Menzies and Whiteman 2009; Kilfeather et al., 2010; Linch et al., 2012). The resultant 584 summary tables have been used to compare the range of microfabrics and structures present within 585 diamictons laid down in radically different sedimentary environments. In particular, this approach has 586 been applied offshore in an attempt to discriminate between diamictons formed in glacimarine 587 environments (Carr 2001; Carr et al., 2001; Kilfeather et al., 2010). In these studies the context to the
- 588 thin sections taken from cores may only be provided by the lithological log of the borehole, with the 589 broader context being provided by either subsurface profiles (seismic data) and/or multibeam survey 590 data of the seabed. One significant drawback of the application of micromorphology to establish the 591 depositional setting of glacigenic sediments is the fact that the identification of the various 592 microstructures (see van der Meer, 1987, 1993; Menzies, 1998, 2000; Menzies et al., 2006) can be 593 rather subjective and dependent upon the experience of the person carrying out the analysis (see 594 Leighton *et al.*, 2012). Furthermore, sediment composition can have a profound effect on the range 595 of microstructures present; for example plasmic fabrics will only develop where clay minerals are 596 present within the matrix. Consequently, this can lead to the miss identification and/or 597 characterisation of the depositional setting of the diamicton.

598 Importantly the results of the present and previously published studies clearly indicate that the range 599 of microstructures present within mass flow diamictons (Lachniet et al., 2001; Phillips, 2006; Reinardy 600 and Lukas, 2009) are comparable to those found within subglacially deformed tills (see Phillips et al., 601 2011, 2013; 2018a and b; Vaughan-Hirsch et al., 2013; Neudorf et al., 2015; Brumme, 2015; Gehrmann 602 et al., 2017; Narloch et al., 2020). These structures include clast microfabrics, pressure shadows, folds, 603 laminations, shears, faults and water-escape structures, as well as 'turbate' structures. Lachniet et al. 604 (2001), in particular, emphasised the fact that while deformation microstructures in subglacial 605 sediments can be described in tectonic terms, some of the same structures occur in mass flow deposits 606 (unaffected by over-riding ice) were they are primary in origin and result from sedimentary processes. 607 This has important implications for anyone trying to use micromorphology, on its own, to establish 608 the depositional setting of glacigenic diamictons. So although micromorphology is providing valuable 609 insights into the processes occurring during the deposition/formation of both modern and ancient 610 glacigenic sedimentary sequences, this approach should not be used in isolation, but as part of a 611 multidisciplinary approach, involving sedimentological, geomorphological and structural field 612 techniques.

613

614 Conclusions

615 Macroscale sedimentological and structural field observations combined with micromorphological 616 and micro-structural analysis of a sequence of Late Devensian (Weichselian) sands, gravels and 617 diamictons exposed within a recessional moraine near Loch Killin (near Fort Augustus, NE Scotland) 618 have provided valuable insights into the ice-marginal processes which led to the construction of this 619 landform. Microstructures present within the stratified diamictons mantling the glacitectonised core 620 of the moraine provide evidence of clast microfabric development in response to ductile shearing 621 during the emplacement of these ice-marginal mass flows. Deformation was preferentially partitioned 622 into the matrix of the diamicton, with shearing occurring throughout the entire mass flow as it flowed 623 towards the WNW. This microscale evidence suggests that these deposits represent Type 4 wet 624 sediment (water-rich) flows (Lachniet et al., 1999). The moraine is cut by a number of steeply inclined 625 sediment-filled hydrofractures. These laminated infills are interpreted as having accommodated 626 several phases of fluid flow, with a palaeoflow direction towards the WNW. Construction of this 627 moraine has been divided into three stages: Stage 1 equates to a readvance of the glacier from the 628 ESE/SE with glacitectonism (folding and thrusting) of a pre-existing sequence of diamictons and 629 glacifluvial outwash resulting from WNW/NW-directed ice-push; Stage 2 is characterised by the 630 deposition of a sequence of the ice-marginal glacifluvial and mass flows deposits during a period of 631 still-stand, accompanied by melting and down wasting of the snout which lay immediately to the

632 ESE/SE; and Stage 3 leading to the development of a network of sediment-filled hydrofractures which

allowed overpressurised meltwater to escape from beneath the ice, probably during the initial stages

of retreat. This complex sequence of events leading to the construction of the recessional moraine are

- thought to have occurred during the early stages of the deglaciation of the study area and the
- 636 southward retreat of the "Loch Killin glacier".
- 637

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835 Figures

Fig. 1. (a) and (b) Maps showing the location of the study area; (c) Annotated Google Earth[®] image
showing the location of the Loch Killin Study area and principle ice movement directions within the
Great Glen and Strathspey; and (d) Simplified superficial geology and geomorphology map of the Loch
Killin area draped upon the NEXTMap hillshade Digital Elevation Model (DEM).

Fig. 2. Photomontage and interpretation of the sedimentary and structural architecture of theglacigenic sediments exposed on the northern-side of the River Fechlin [NH 524 113].

Fig. 3. (a) Annotated photograph showing the glacitectonic structures present within the ESE-side of
the exposed section shown in Fig. 2; and (b) Annotated photograph of the stratified sands, gravels and
diamictons exposed at the WNW-end of the section shown in Fig 2.

845 Fig. 4. (a) Photograph showing a steeply dipping sediment filled hydrofracture cutting the deformed, 846 thinly bedded sands and silts exposed towards the ESE-end of the section; (b) Lower hemisphere 847 stereographic plot showing the dip and strike of the hydrofracture margins, and palaeo-flow direction recorded by the cross-laminated sands and silts within the sediment fill; (c) and (d) Photographs 848 849 showing the laminated nature of the sediments filling the hydrofracture; (e) Photograph showing the 850 location of samples N13916, N13917 and N13918 collected to examine the microscale structure and 851 sedimentology of the fill within the hydrofracture; and (f) Photograph showing the location of samples 852 N13919, N13920 and N13821 through the sequence of stratified sands, gravels and diamictons 853 exposed at the WNW-end of the section.

Fig. 5. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section taken
from sample N13916 (see text for details). See Fig. 4e for details of the location of this sample.

Fig. 6. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section taken
from sample N13917 (see text for details). See Fig. 4e for details of the location of this sample.

Fig. 7. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section takenfrom sample N13918 (see text for details). See Fig. 4e for details of the location of this sample.

Fig. 8. Detailed graphic logs of the laminated sediments infilling the hydrofracture present withinsamples N13916, N13917 and N13918.

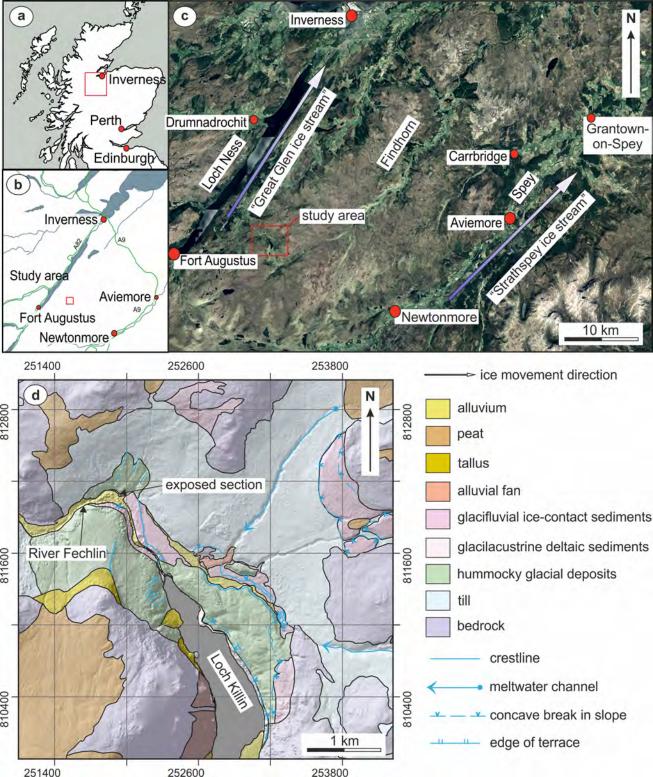
Fig. 9. (a) to (c) Annotated photomicrographs showing the details of the laminated sediment-fill to the

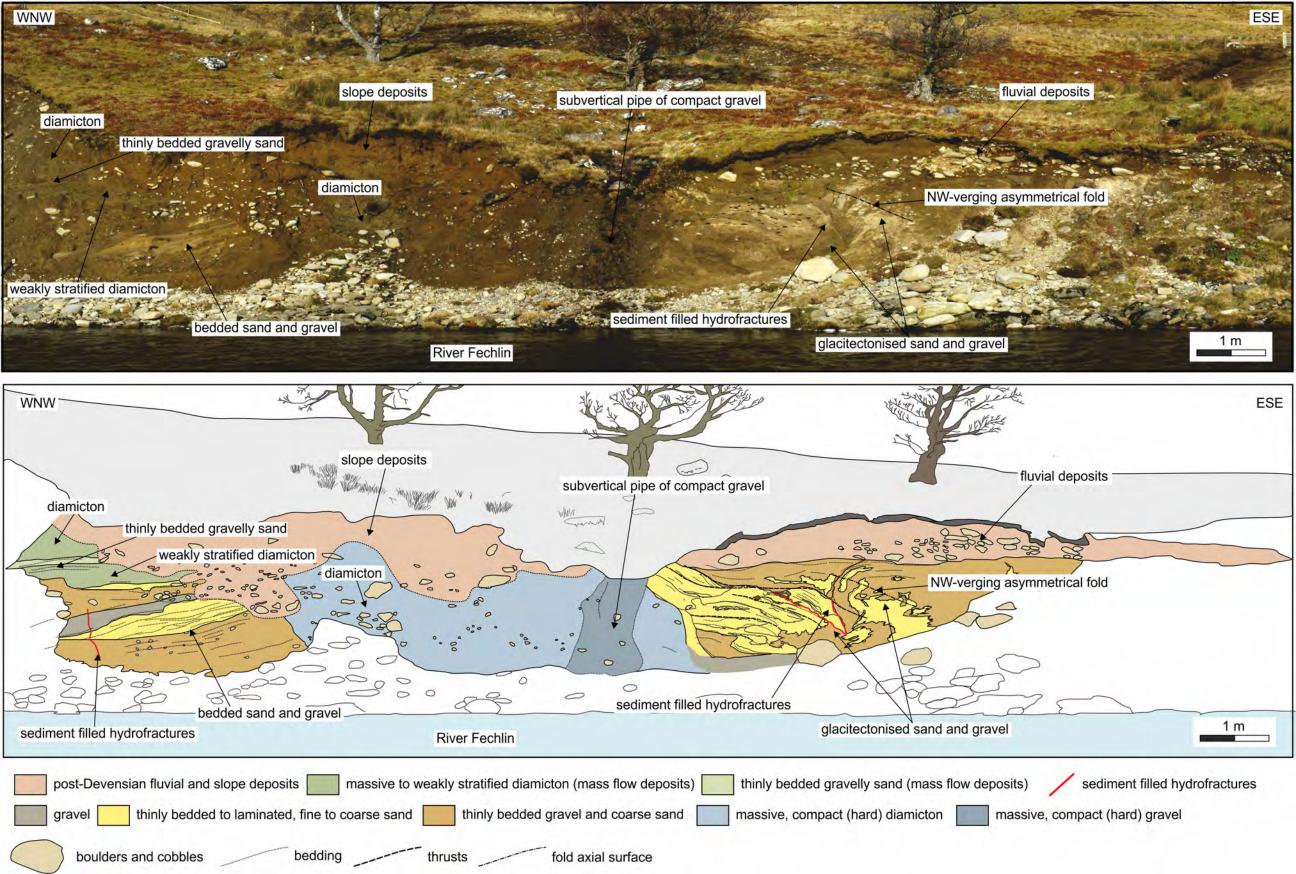
863 hydrofracture: (a) Clay-rich sequence developed adjacent to the margin of the hydrofracture, cut by

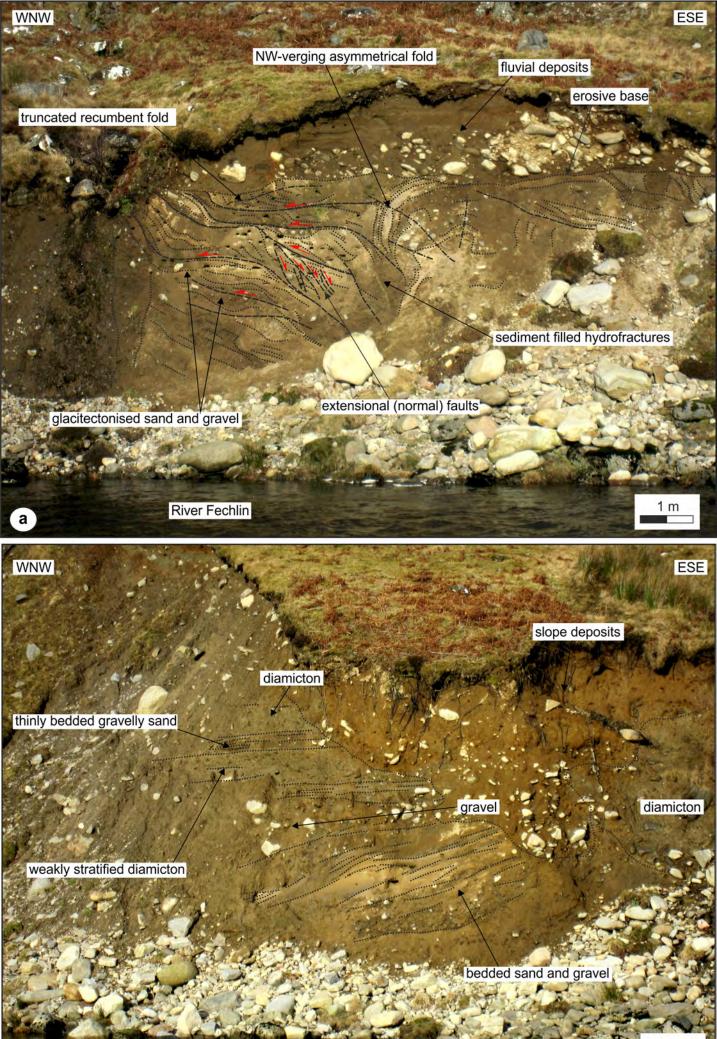
864 a later sand-filled vein (N13917); (b) Lenticular lamination within the sediment-fill to the hydrofracture

(N13917); and (c) Well-developed cross-lamination within the silt and sand laminae (N13917); and (d)

- 866 Interpretation of the laminated clay, silt and sand shown in (c) highlighting the change in angle of dip
- of the foresets within each of the sand laminae and the localised soft-sediment deformation (folding)of the cross-lamination.
- Fig. 10. Annotated photomicrographs and associated interpretation showing the details of the welldeveloped cross-lamination within lenticular sand and silt sand laminae (N13918).
- Fig. 11. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section taken
- 872 from sample N13919 (see text for details). See Fig. 4f for details of the location of this sample.
- 873 Fig. 12. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section taken
- 874 from sample N13920 (see text for details). See Fig. 4f for details of the location of this sample.
- Fig. 13. Annotated high-resolution scan and detailed interpretation of a large format thin section taken
- 876 from sample N13921 (see text for details). See Fig. 4f for details of the location of this sample.
- Fig. 14. Diagram showing the proposed model for the progressive infilling of the active hydrofracture
- 878 as a result of the migration of ripples upwards through the open fracture system (see text for details).
- Fig. 15. Diagram showing the detailed internal structure of the stratified diamictons and interbedded
 sands deposited on the down-ice slope of the recessional moraine. The figure shows the partitioning
 of ductile shearing into the matrix of the diamicton during mass flow with the larger clasts (rock
 fragments) acting as ridged bodies during this soft-sediment deformation.
- Fig. 16. Conceptual model for the evolution of the moraine located at the northern end of Loch Killin:
 Stage 1 records the readvance of the glacier leading to ice-marginal glacitectonism of a pre-existing
 sequence of sands, gravels and diamictons; Stage 2 a period of still-stand and the deposition of a
 sequence of outwash sands and gravels and ice-marginal mass flows on the down-ice side of the
 moraine; and Stage 3 hydrofracturing and release of overpressurised meltwater from beneath the
 ice possibly accompanying initial retreat of the glacier (see text for details).
- Fig. 17. Cartoon showing the deglaciation of the Loch Killin area with the possible extent of the "Loch
 Killin glacier", glacigenic sediments and proglacial lake draped upon the NEXTMap hillshade Digital
 Elevation Model (DEM).

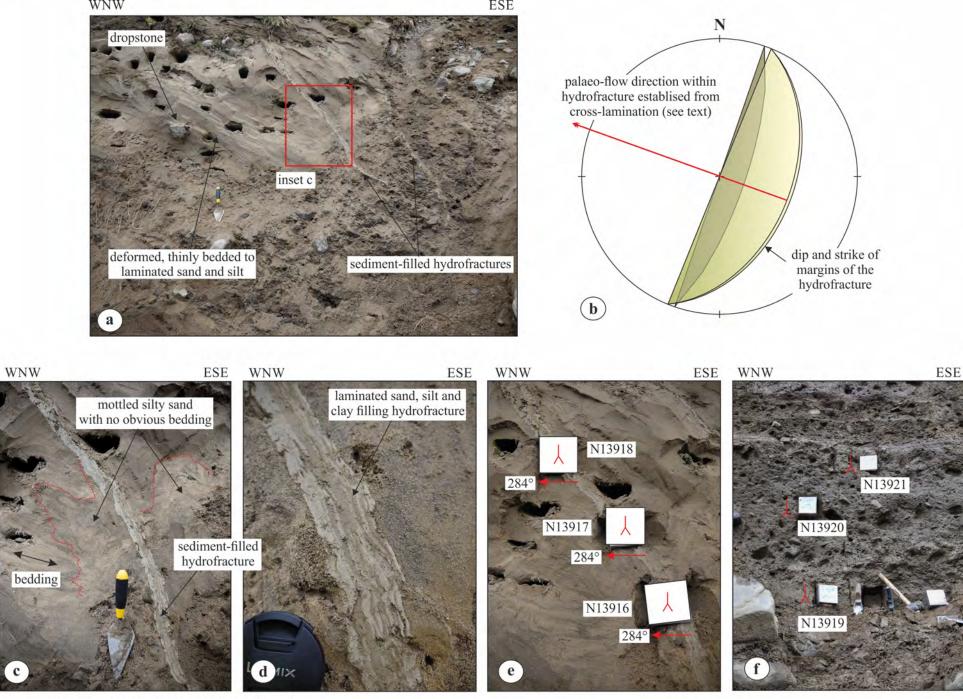




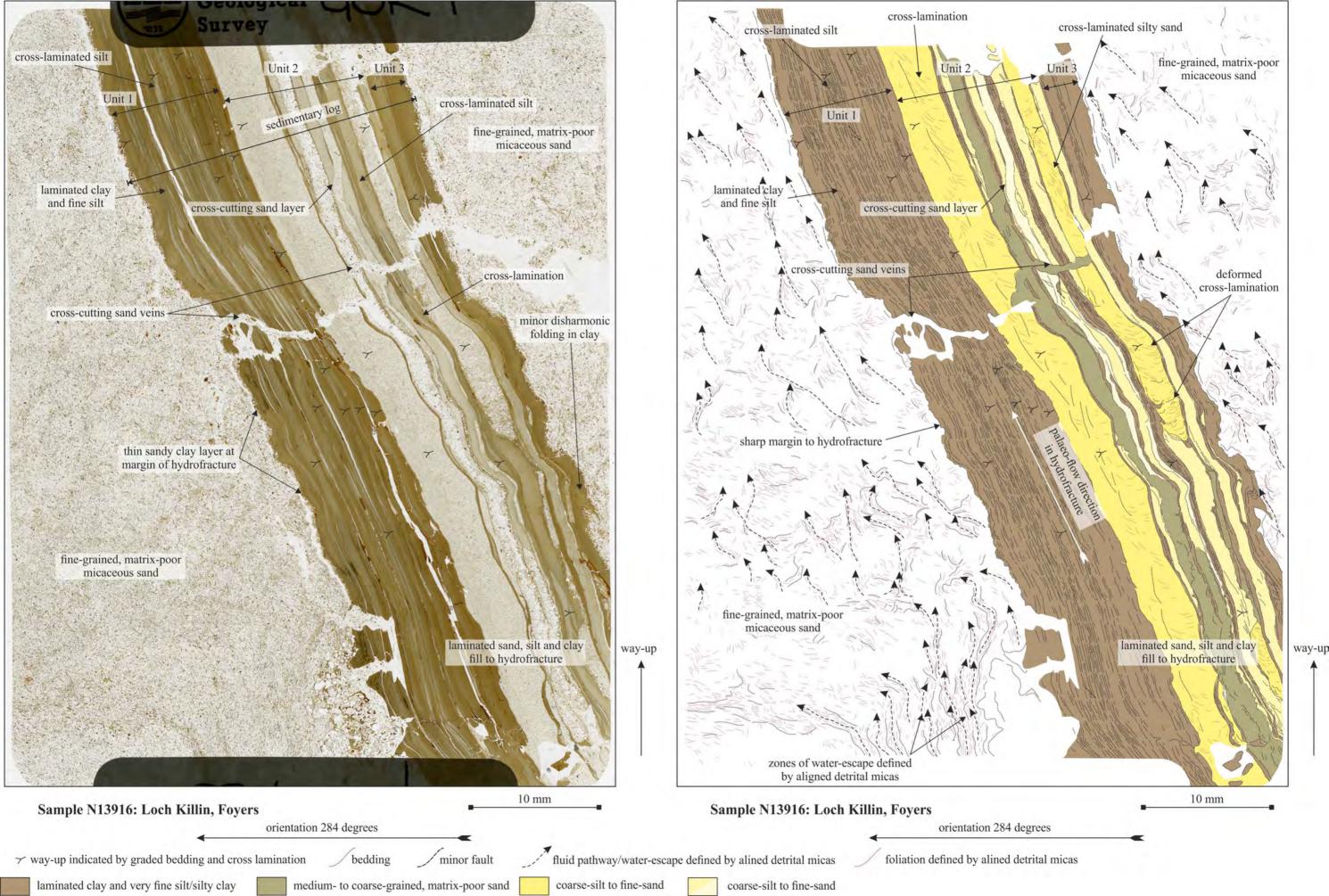


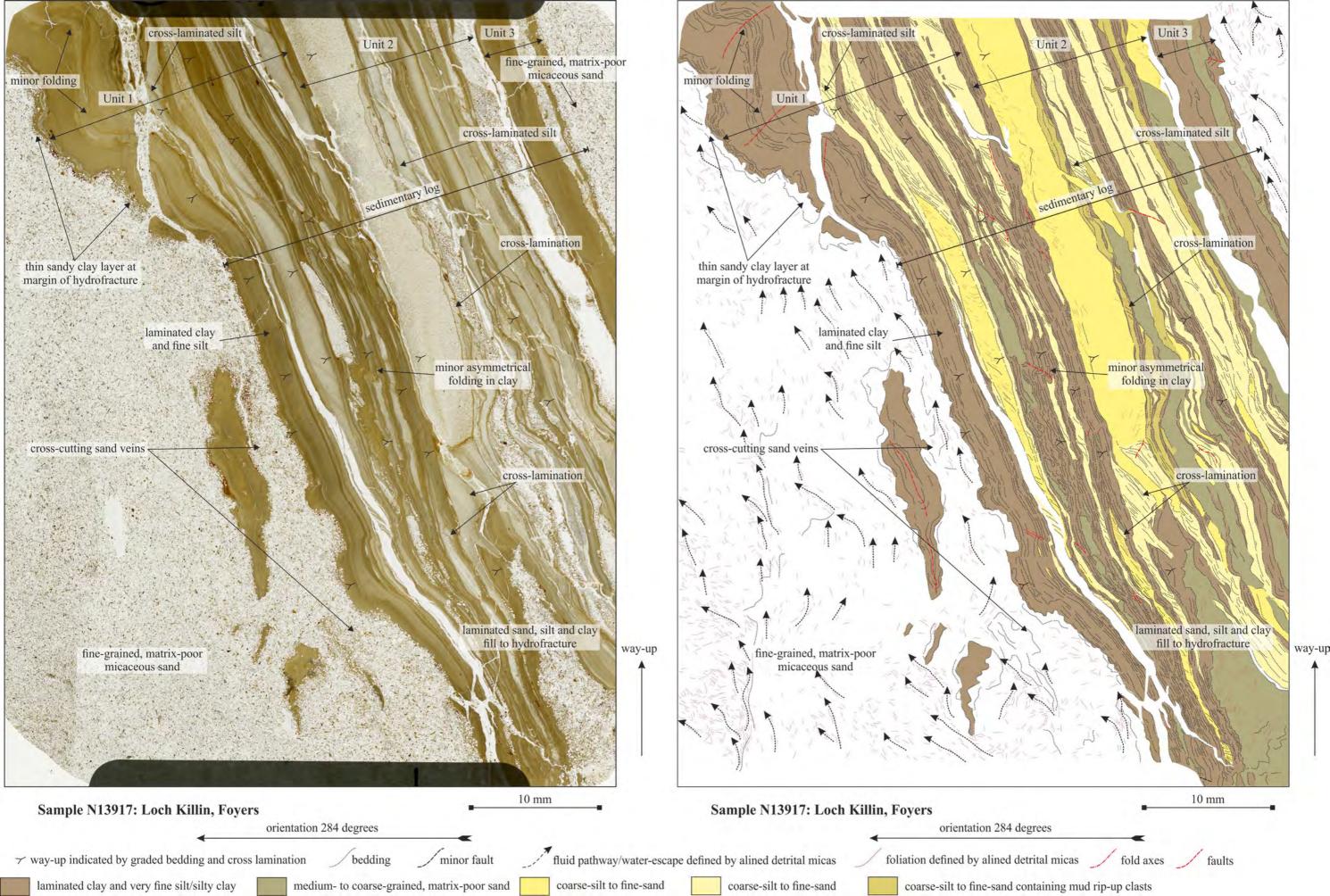
River Fechlin

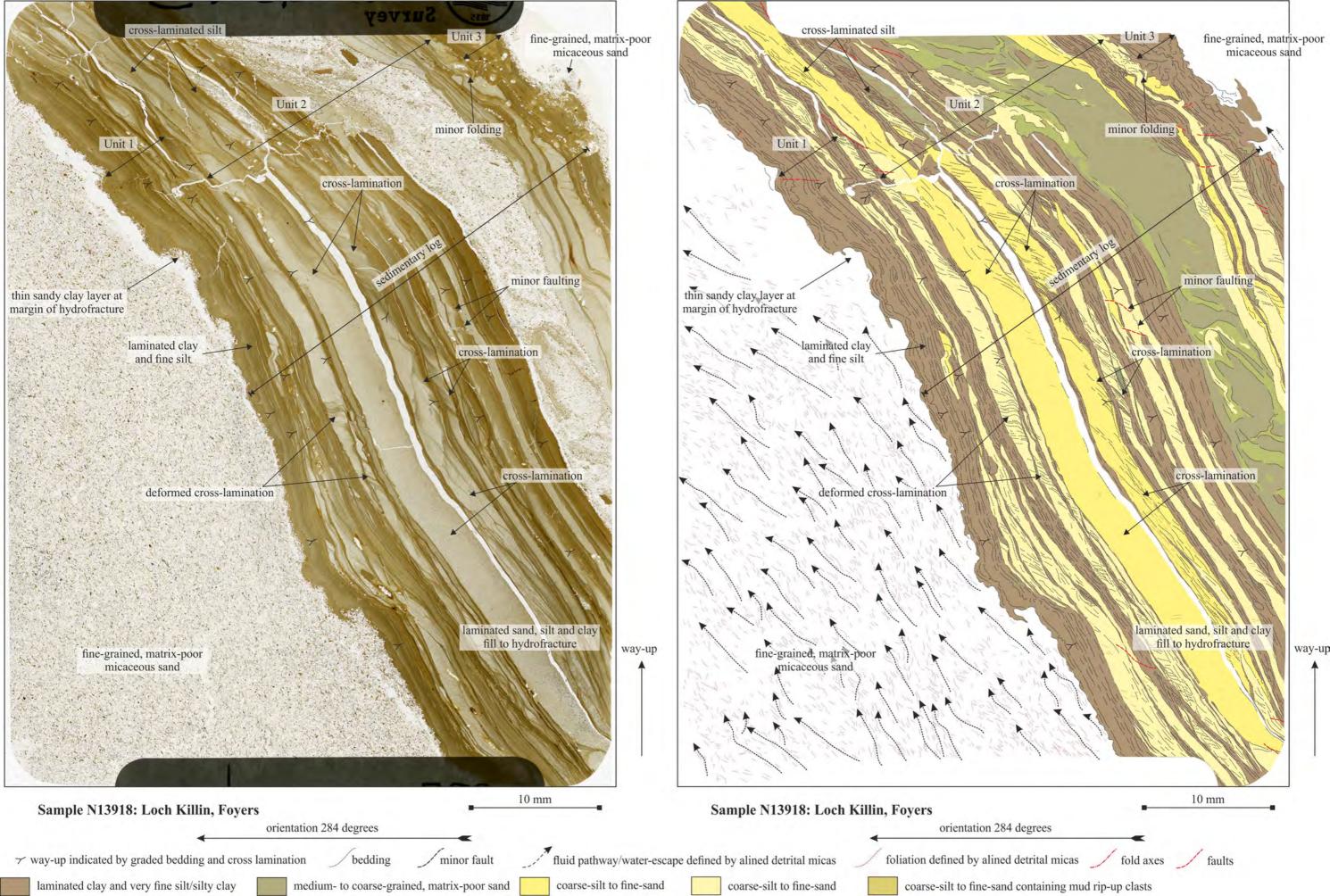
b

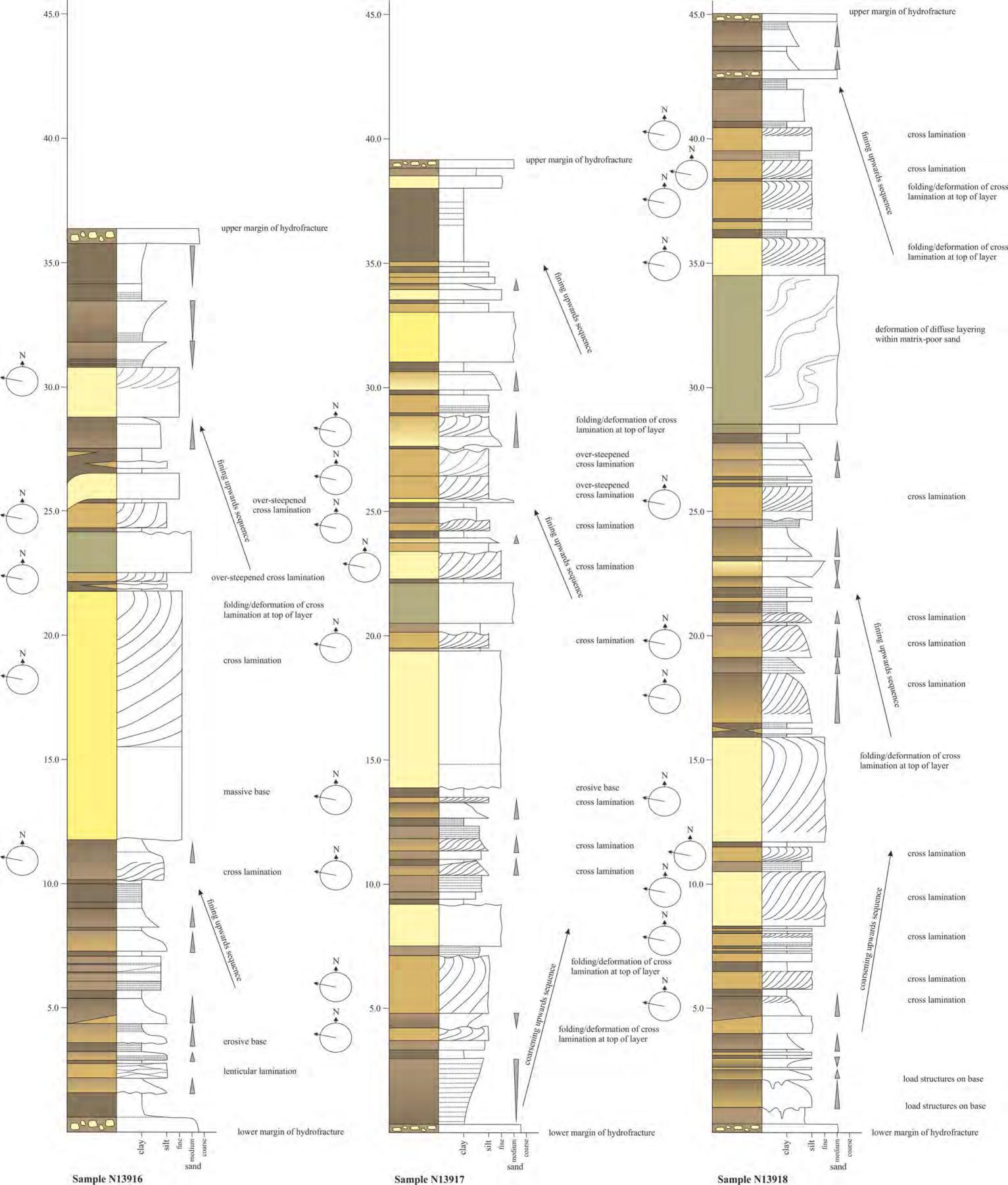


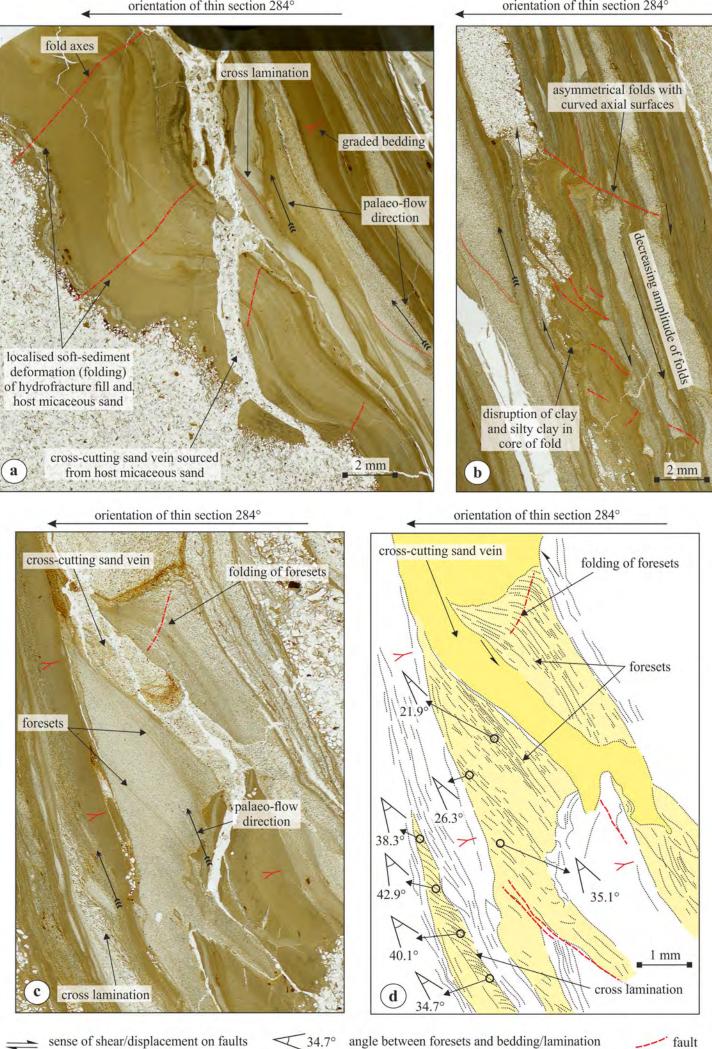
boundary between bedded sand and silt, and mottled silty sand with no obvious bedding







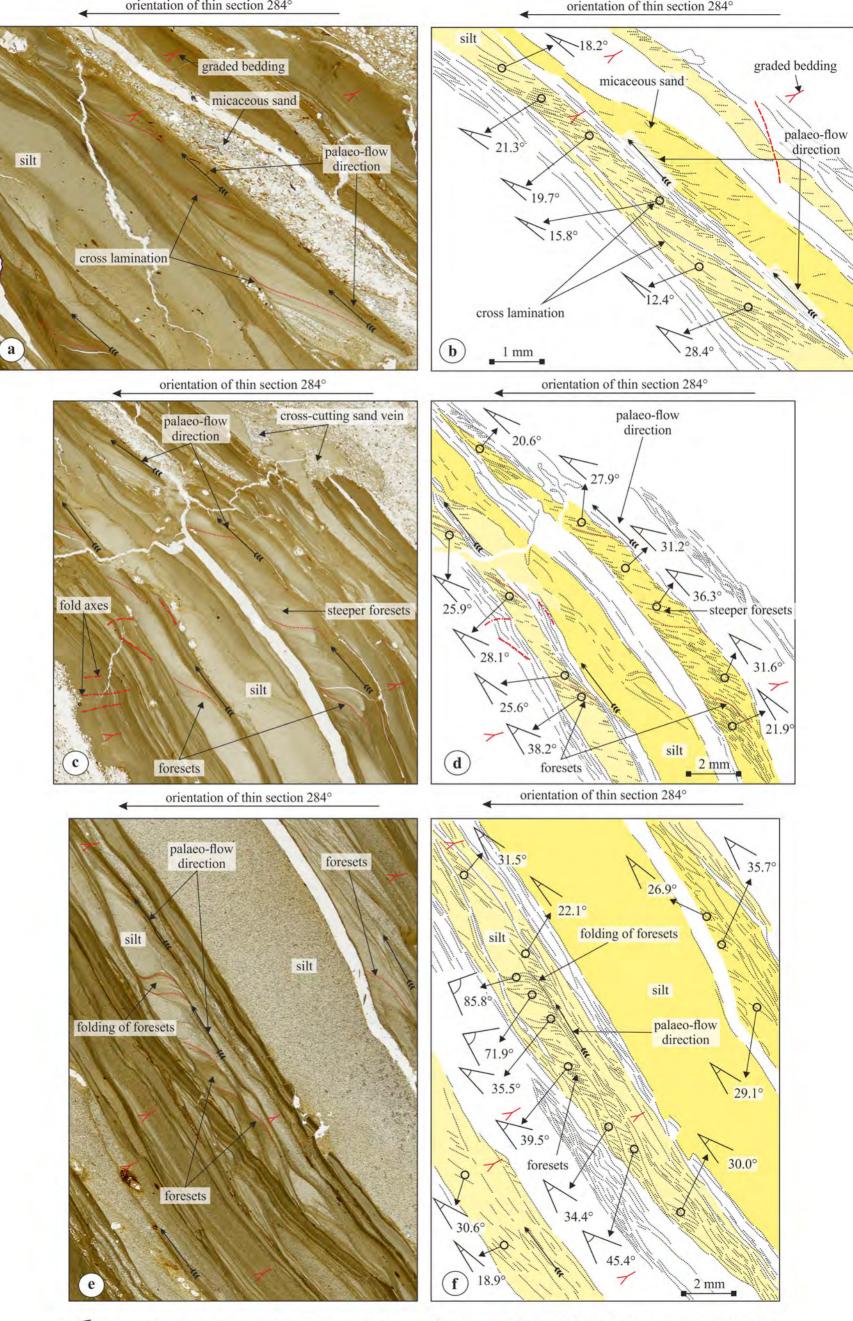




trace of fold axial plane

angle between foresets and bedding/lamination 34.7°

fault



34.7° angle between foresets and bedding/lamination

fault

-

trace of fold axial plane / graded bedding

