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Published in:

Earth Surface Processes and Landforms

DOI:

[10.1002/esp.5932](https://doi.org/10.1002/esp.5932)

Publication date:

2024

Document version:

Peer reviewed version

Link:

[Link to publication in PEARL](#)

Citation for published version (APA):

Westoby, M., Jones, R., & Miller, L. (2024). How can geomorphology facilitate a better understanding of glacier and ice sheet behaviour? *Earth Surface Processes and Landforms*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/esp.5932>

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1 **How can geomorphology facilitate a better understanding of**
2 **glacier and ice sheet behaviour?**

3
4 **Abstract**

5
6 Glaciers and ice sheets are an integral part of Earth's system, advancing
7 and retreating in response to changes in climate. Clues about the past,
8 present, and future behaviour of these ice masses are found throughout
9 current and former glaciated landscapes. In this commentary, we outline
10 recent scientific advances from a collection of articles in which
11 geomorphological evidence is used to inform us about the behaviour of
12 glaciers and ice sheets across a range of spatial (landform to continent)
13 and temporal (seasons to millennia) scales. Through a diversity of
14 approaches including field measurements, remote sensing and numerical
15 modelling, these studies build on an extensive background literature to
16 deepen our understanding of how ice flows, how glaciers and ice sheets
17 respond to climate change, and of the processes of ice advance and
18 retreat and the stability of the system. Further integration of knowledge
19 across the fields of geomorphology and glaciology will have tangible
20 benefits for managing the societal and environmental impacts of glacier
21 change, and for improved projections of sea-level rise over the coming
22 decades to centuries.

23
24 **Keywords:** glaciology, glacier, ice sheet, glacial geomorphology,
25 sedimentology, glacial geology, modelling, remote sensing, landforms,
26 climate change

27 **1. INTRODUCTION**

28

29 Glaciers and ice sheets cover 12.5% of the Earth's surface. They are
30 found on most continents, and in temperate, continental and polar
31 climatic zones (Bamber et al., 2018). Changes in their size (i.e. length,
32 area, volume, mass) and dynamics (e.g. ice flow direction, speed, thermal
33 state) serve as key indicators of climate change and affect global sea
34 level, regional water resources, and local geohazards and biodiversity
35 (Cauvy-Fraunié & Dangles, 2019; Ding et al., 2021; Huss & Hock, 2018;
36 Pörtner et al., 2019; Zemp et al., 2015).

37

38 Whilst changes in the size of glaciers and ice sheets have been observed
39 for over a century (e.g. Cruikshank, 2001; Esmark, 1824), recent
40 measurements and numerical modelling reveal unprecedented states and
41 trends. Near-synchronous global glacier retreat and ice sheet mass loss
42 has occurred over the last 50 years, and human influence on the climate
43 has very likely contributed to ice loss in Greenland and was the main
44 driver for mountain glacier retreat (Bamber et al., 2018; Fox-Kemper et
45 al., 2021; Malles & Marzeion, 2021; Otosaka et al., 2023). Together,
46 glaciers and ice sheets were the primary contributors to global mean sea-
47 level rise over the last two decades, and are expected to continue losing
48 mass over the coming decades to centuries, and possibly millennia (Fox-
49 Kemper et al., 2021).

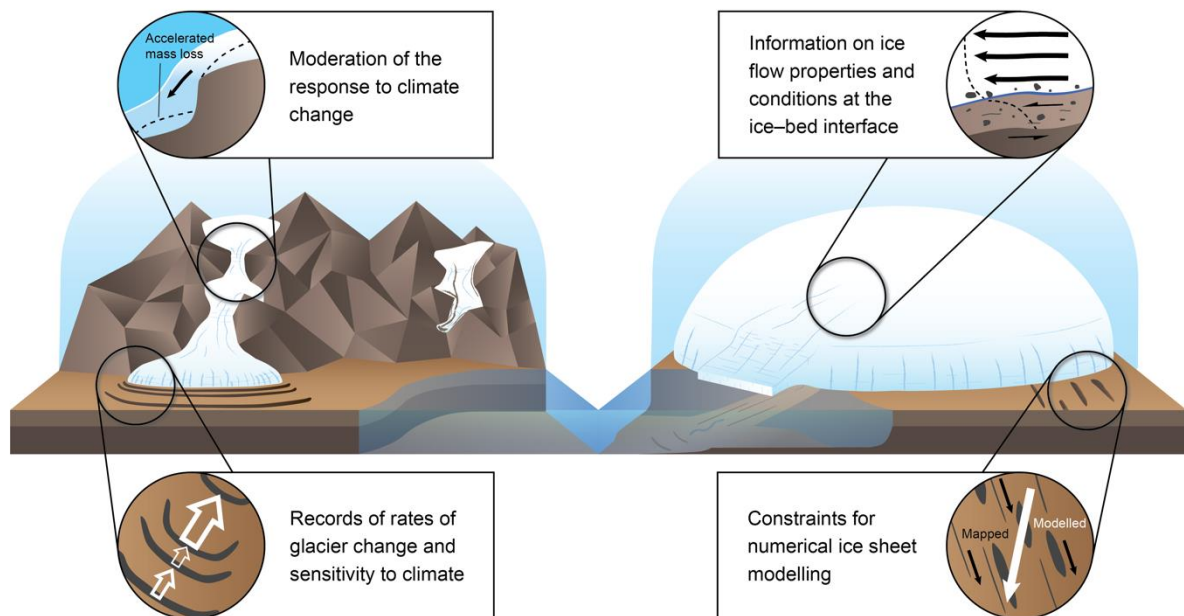
50

51 There is an urgent need to better understand both past and contemporary
52 glacial systems, principally to enhance our ability to predict future
53 changes and their associated impacts. Knowledge of the past and present
54 behaviour of glaciers and ice sheets can be gleaned from large swaths of
55 Earth's surface as glacial ice is a principal agent of landscape evolution
56 through the processes of erosion, transport, reworking and deposition of
57 sediments (Herman et al., 2021). 'Glacial geomorphology'—broadly
58 defined here as landform- to landscape-scale features produced by glacial
59 ice, and their associated sediments (akin to 'glacial geology' in some
60 literature)—describes this interaction between ice and the Earth's surface,
61 reflecting the physics of ice flow and recording how glaciers and ice sheets
62 respond to climate change.

63

64 The field of glacial geomorphology has typically focused on providing
65 physically-based explanations for how glaciers and ice sheets contribute
66 to landform and landscape development (e.g. Harbor, 1993). However,
67 we reflect on how geomorphology can improve our understanding of
68 glacier and ice sheet behaviour, and the role geomorphology may have in
69 future ice mass change (Figure 1).

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Figure 1. Geomorphology can facilitate a better understanding of glacier and ice sheet behaviour in several ways: by moderating glacial response to climate change; by providing rates of glacier change and sensitivity to climate; as information of ice flow properties and basal conditions; and as constraints for ice sheet modelling.

2. A BRIEF HISTORY OF GLACIAL GEOMORPHOLOGY

Our current understanding of glaciers and ice sheets, and arguably the field of glaciology broadly, can be traced back to early studies of glacial geomorphology. While speculations that glaciers modified the landscape have existed for centuries (e.g. Cruikshank, 2001), it was the scientists of the 19th Century that established the foundation of glacial geomorphology as we know it today (cf. Boulton, 1987; Clarke, 1987; Krüger, 2013). In particular, the 'Ice Age' theory stemmed from the recognition that glaciers could erode rock, transport erratic boulders and deposit poorly-sorted sediment (e.g. Agassiz, 1840; Esmark, 1824). Further discoveries in subsequent decades include (i) the recognition that glaciers moved as a result of internal flow and basal sliding, leading to subglacial abrasion (Forbes, 1842); (ii) that multiple glacial and interglacial periods existed due to oscillations in the climate (e.g. Croll, 1864; Geikie, 1863); and (iii) that glaciation impacted both global and local sea level (Jamieson, 1865; Whittlesey, 1868).

Building on these early ideas, the field of glacial geomorphology has grown substantially over the last 150 years. Much of this growth came from the refinement of existing methods and application of new technologies. For example, field-based mapping and sedimentology was carried out in increasing detail to better characterise current and former glaciated environments, resulting in the birth of the 'glacial landystem' approach (Evans, 2003; Fookes et al., 1978). Meanwhile, the advent of

103 the satellite era enabled higher-precision field measurements with the use
104 of Global Positioning Systems (GPS), and remote sensing of ice masses
105 and glacial landscapes (cf. Chandler et al., 2018; Gao & Liu, 2001).
106 Numerical models also emerged as vital tools for understanding glacier
107 and ice sheet behaviour (e.g. Oerlemans, 1986; Pattyn et al., 2017), with
108 a rapidly rising number of glaciological and glacial geomorphological
109 applications (e.g. Huybrechts, 1990; Tarasov et al., 2012).

110

111 **3. SCIENTIFIC ADVANCES**

112

113 Here we outline recent advances in the field of glacial geomorphology,
114 with reference to new articles published as part of this collection (Table
115 1). These contributions highlight the role of geomorphology in glacier and
116 ice sheet change over time—from a year (e.g. Lally et al., 2023) to
117 decades (e.g. Evans et al., 2023) and centuries and millennia (e.g.
118 Carrivick et al., 2023; Stutz et al., 2023)—and across space—landforms
119 to landsystems (e.g. Balaban et al., 2024; Ben-Yehoshua et al., 2023),
120 and individual glaciers to continental ice sheets (e.g. Kavan et al., 2024;
121 McKenzie et al., 2022).

122

123 We identify three principal themes pertinent to our knowledge of current
124 and future change: (1) the response of glaciers and ice sheets to climate
125 change, (2) processes that could influence their behaviour, and (3) new
126 methodological developments and their application that will further build
127 this knowledge.

128

129 **3.1 Glacier and ice sheet response to climate change**

130

131 Glacier mass balance is sensitive to air temperature, and to a lesser
132 degree precipitation (Oerlemans, 2001), and so glaciers advance and
133 retreat in response to a changing climate. The glacial geomorphological
134 record has long been utilised for improving our knowledge of the climate
135 system (e.g. Nye, 1965; Porter, 1975; Schaefer et al., 2006; Shakun et
136 al., 2015), particularly when combined with modern observations and
137 numerical modelling (Mackintosh et al., 2017).

138

139 Moraines serve as archives of past glacier change, thus acting as proxies
140 of past climate conditions. However, a comprehensive understanding of
141 the relationship between climate and moraine formation is crucial for
142 extracting accurate information from these records. Research by Rowan
143 et al. (2022) shows that interannual climate variability can lead to
144 moraine formation, while Boston et al. (2023) suggest that moraine
145 spacing may be influenced by bed topography, complicating the
146 interpretation of climate signals from these landforms. Nevertheless,
147 moraines still record transient and equilibrium changes in ice volume, and
148 the spatial characteristics (e.g. geometry, number and position) of

149 moraines represent the rate of climate change relative to glacier response
150 time (Rowan et al., 2022).

151

152 Geomorphological records can also shed light on how different parts of
153 the glacial system could moderate the response to a warming climate. For
154 example, two new studies (Carrivick et al., 2023; Stutz et al., 2023)
155 combined mapped geomorphology or dated deposits with ice-flow
156 modelling to identify how the glacier thermal regime affects ice dynamics.
157 Perhaps counterintuitively, Carrivick et al. (2023) indicate that some
158 Greenlandic outlet glaciers have transitioned towards a cold-based
159 thermal regime during a warming climate, and Stutz et al. (2023)
160 similarly suggest that reduced basal sliding occurred at an Antarctic outlet
161 glacier at a time of rapid thinning.

162

163 Furthermore, specific geomorphological features can moderate glacial
164 response to climate change. Davies et al. (2022) show that ice fields can
165 have a non-linear response due to glacier hypsometry; topographic steps
166 cause disconnections between glacier accumulation zones, leading to
167 reduced downstream ice flow and increased rates of retreat. Similarly,
168 Balaban et al. (2024) use a landsystems approach to identify a disconnect
169 between glacier and plateau ice, attributing this uncoupling to the shape
170 and elevation of topography as well as burial from excessive glacial
171 debris. In the presence of rapid climate warming, Evans et al. (2023)
172 show that such debris cover can ultimately lead to stagnation of the
173 glacier snout within years to decades. Even on seasonal timescales,
174 geomorphological factors could influence glacier dynamics. For example,
175 Kavan et al. (2024) show that the snout of a lake-terminating glacier
176 changed due to the subglacial bed topography as well as debris cover;
177 over-deepenings encourage increased ice flow, mass loss and further lake
178 expansion, whereas increased surface debris insulates some parts of the
179 terminus, reducing ablation.

180

181 **3.2 Processes of advance/retreat and stability/instability**

182

183 Geomorphology influences glacier and ice sheet behaviour via feedbacks
184 at the ice–bed interface, and provides insights into the processes
185 governing the mass balance and broader stability of the system. For
186 example, the potential for bed topography to accelerate retreat (e.g.
187 Jones et al., 2015; Weertman, 1974), the dependence of glacier surging
188 on thermal regime (e.g. Benn et al., 2019; Raymond, 1987), and the
189 reliance of ice stream activity on subglacial conditions (e.g. MacAyeal,
190 1989; Stokes et al., 2007) are now well established through a shared
191 glaciological and geomorphological understanding.

192

193 The geomorphological record at the margins of glaciers and ice sheets is
194 indicative of styles of advance, retreat and even shutdown. A new study
195 by Lane et al. (2023) examined the deglacial landsystem of a Greenland

196 ice stream, revealing evidence of rapid ice shelf disintegration concurrent
197 with or just before ice stream retreat, underscoring the important role of
198 ice shelves for ice stream stability. Lee et al. (2024) find that ice flow and
199 retreat patterns evolved differently during the advance and retreat phases
200 of a marine-based ice sheet. Mapping and sedimentological analysis by
201 Aradóttir et al. (2023) and Ben-Yehoshua et al. (2023) shed light on
202 locations of crevasse-squeeze ridges formation and how they reflect
203 stresses within the ice. These features are interpreted as indicators of
204 surge behaviour, where an ice stream advance is followed by stagnation,
205 melting and down-wasting. Iverson et al. (2023) also propose that ice
206 sheet lobes can undergo stagnation and down-wasting during periods of
207 quiescence.

208
209 Processes at the bed of glaciers and ice sheets are difficult to directly
210 observe in contemporary systems, and subglacial landforms and
211 sediments can provide novel signatures of ice-bed conditions and bed-
212 modulated ice flow. Ely et al. (2023) describe a continuum of ice sheet
213 behaviour reflected in subglacial landforms; ribbed moraines initially occur
214 following an instability, which can evolve into drumlins under consistent
215 sheet flow conditions or in ice stream onset zones, while mega-scale
216 glacial lineations result from the elongation of drumlins under ice stream
217 conditions. The degree of elongation and the density of such streamlined
218 landforms could also reflect a combination of lithology and bed
219 topography (McKenzie et al., 2022), and the presence of certain
220 landforms (e.g. drumlins) may indicate a climate-driven advance of an ice
221 stream (Iverson et al., 2023). Using subglacial landforms to reconstruct
222 laminar ice-flow patterns, Kamleitner et al. (2024) propose that basal ice
223 can flow at relatively high velocities despite varied bed topography, whilst
224 McCerery et al. (2023) suggest that surge behaviour of ice streams could
225 occur in oil sands due to enhanced slipperiness at the bed.

226
227 Additionally, process-based information about meltwater drainage within
228 and beneath glaciers and ice sheets can be gained from the
229 geomorphological record (Simkins et al., 2022). A new study by Lally et
230 al. (2023) suggests that glacier meltwater drainage systems are likely
231 more complex than previously considered, as englacial eskers are not
232 always preserved in the geomorphological record. Where ice scour lakes
233 are found, Mastro et al. (2023) propose that the density and orientation
234 of these lakes is evidence for ice flow direction and locations of ice
235 divides; an abundance of ice scour lakes in an area under a contemporary
236 ice sheet could signify that an ice divide has migrated.

237 238 **3.3 New methods to improve understanding of glaciers and ice** 239 **sheets**

240
241 Continued progress in understanding glacier and ice sheet change will
242 occur in hand with methodological developments. Remote sensing

243 continues to evolve rapidly, offering new technologies and supporting
244 quantitative analyses in glacial geomorphology (cf. Chandler et al., 2018).
245 For example, air- and space-borne Light Detection and Ranging (LiDAR) is
246 being increasingly applied to generate regional-scale topographic datasets
247 at high resolution (~ 1 m), enabling detailed geomorphological
248 assessments (e.g. Carrivick et al., 2023; Iverson et al., 2023; McKenzie
249 et al., 2022). To help optimise this resource, Eyles et al. (2023) provide a
250 semi-automated, stepwise approach to utilise LiDAR databases for
251 mapping of subglacial landsystems. Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV)
252 support the acquisition of even higher spatial resolution (< 0.1 m)
253 datasets, and are becoming a standard part of the geomorphological field
254 toolkit (Chandler et al., 2018). Best suited to a glacier or glacial foreland,
255 UAV technology enables relatively small spatial and/or temporal changes
256 to be identified due to the resolution and repeatability of the
257 measurements (e.g. Carrivick et al., 2023; Kavan et al., 2024; Lally et
258 al., 2023). Investigating novel geomorphological or glaciological patterns
259 in these higher-resolution geospatial datasets will also require new
260 analytical methods and frameworks. Mastro et al. (2023), for example,
261 used semi-automated morphometric analysis to characterise ice scour
262 lakes at a national scale.

263
264 In addition to morphological characteristics, the sedimentology of a glacial
265 landsystem can reflect glaciological processes (e.g. of transport,
266 deposition, advance and retreat), and can influence ice dynamics (e.g.
267 slipperiness at the bed). An emerging application of investigation is
268 geochemical fingerprinting to glacial sediments. Kirkbride et al. (2023)
269 use XRF-enabled sediment fingerprinting to understand the provenance
270 and source of supraglacial debris, providing a method to assess
271 glaciological changes within a high-mountain system over time. Similarly,
272 McCerery et al. (2023) use geochemical fingerprinting to investigate oil
273 sand mobilisation at the bed of a former ice stream, proposing that
274 naturally-occurring hydrocarbons at the ice-sediment interface could
275 enhance basal slipperiness.

276
277 Finally, applications of numerical modelling to investigate the
278 relationships between geomorphology and glacier or ice sheet behaviour
279 have been limited to date, largely due to the complexity of representing
280 coupled glaciological and geomorphological processes. Adequately
281 incorporating these processes in models, whilst leveraging ever-improving
282 computational infrastructure, is already enabling scientific advances.
283 Rowan et al. (2022) and Ely et al. (2023) exemplify, respectively, how
284 glacial landscape modelling, and coupled ice-, water- and subglacial
285 sediment-modelling can deepen our understanding of climate change and
286 ice dynamics.

287
288 Despite such advances, the field of ice sheet modelling has not yet fully
289 utilised the geomorphological record, instead relying largely on

290 geochronological constraints and/or glaciological observations (e.g.
291 Goelzer et al., 2017; Lecavalier et al., 2023). A study by Archer et al.
292 (2023) introduces a new data-model comparison tool to quantitatively
293 assess models against mapped subglacial landforms. Following this
294 approach, records of glacial geomorphology can now be used to
295 determine best-fit simulations of past ice sheet behaviour.

296

297 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

298

299 In recent decades, the fields of glacial geomorphology and glaciology
300 have operated somewhat independently. There are, however, numerous
301 advantages to be gained by these research communities working more
302 closely together if we are to better understand current and future glacier
303 and ice sheet change (cf. Bingham et al., 2010; Ely et al., 2021;
304 Mackintosh et al., 2017; Simkins et al., 2022).

305

306 High-precision reconstructions of past glacier change that utilise
307 geomorphological observations and numerical modelling will extend our
308 understanding of glacier behaviour over timescales relevant to the 21st
309 century and beyond. This could include bounds on possible rates of
310 change, conditions under which glaciers may elude retreat in a warming
311 climate, or glacier sensitivity to different environmental factors.

312

313 Further imaging of contemporary ice sheet beds in combination with
314 knowledge gained from formerly glaciated landscapes could help identify
315 regions vulnerable to future ice mass change. These could include
316 locations susceptible to ice streaming or stagnation, ice divide migration,
317 or englacial and subglacial meltwater drainage. Additionally,
318 geomorphological landforms in front of, or beneath, contemporary ice
319 sheets can now be leveraged to improve the predictive capability of ice
320 sheet models that are projecting future sea-level rise.

321

322 Sustained climate warming will continue to prompt dramatic glacier and
323 ice sheet changes, resulting in substantial societal and environmental
324 impacts. This commentary, alongside the new findings published in this
325 collection, underscore the important role of geomorphology in
326 understanding how these ice masses could change into the future.

327

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Table 1. Articles published as part of this Special Issue.

SI paper	Region	Process domain(s)	Landforms of interest (non-exhaustive)	Methodological approach	Temporal scale
Aradóttir et al. (2023)	Europe (Iceland)	Subglacial (ice stream)	Streamlined subglacial bedforms, crevasse-squeeze ridges	Remote sensing	Millennia
Archer et al. (2023)	Hypothetical, Europe (UK, Ireland)	Subglacial (ice sheet)	Subglacial lineations	Modelling	Millennia
Balaban et al. (2023)	Europe (Romania)	Landsystem (ice cap, mountain glacier)	Moraines, ice-moulded bedrock, meltwater channels, protilus ramparts, rock glaciers	Remote sensing, field mapping	Millennia
Ben-Yehoshua et al. (2023)	Europe (Svalbard)	Landsystem (outlet glacier)	Crevasse-squeeze ridges, flutes	Remote sensing, field mapping	Year-decades
Boston et al. (2023)	Europe (Norway)	Foreland (outlet glacier)	Moraines, subglacial bedforms (various)	Remote sensing, field mapping	Decades-centuries
Carrivick et al. (2023)	Europe (Greenland)	Foreland (outlet glacier)	Moraines, outwash fans, kames, eskers	Remote sensing, field mapping	Millennia
Davies et al. (2022)	N. America (USA, Canada)	Landsystem (icefield, outlet glacier)	Moraines, glacial lakes, trimlines, flutes, cirques	Remote sensing	Decades
Ely et al. (2022)	Hypothetical	Subglacial (ice stream)	Streamlined subglacial bedforms (various)	Modelling	Centuries
Evans et al. (2023)	Europe (Iceland)	Landsystem (outlet glacier)	Outwash fans, moraines, overdeepenings, eskers	Remote sensing, field mapping	Decades
Eyles et al. (2022)	N. America (USA)	Subglacial (ice sheet lobe)	Drumlins, mega-scale glacial lineations	Remote sensing	Millennia
Lee et al. (2024)	Antarctica	Subglacial (ice stream)	Streamlined subglacial bedforms, grounding-zone wedges	Field surveying/mapping	Millennia
Iverson et al. (2023)	N. America (USA)	Subglacial (ice sheet lobe)	Drumlins	Remote sensing	Millennia
Kamleitner et al. (2023)	Europe (Switzerland, Germany, Austria)	Subglacial (outlet glacier)	Streamlined subglacial bedforms (various)	Remote sensing	Millennia
Kavan et al. (2024)	Europe (Iceland)	Proglacial (outlet glacier)	Glacier surfaces, glacial lakes	Remote sensing, field mapping	Decades
Kirkbride et al. (2023)	South Asia (Nepal)	Landsystem (mountain glacier)	Supraglacial debris cover	Field sampling, modelling	Millennia
Lally et al. (2023)	Europe (Iceland)	Englacial, subglacial (outlet glacier)	Eskers	Field mapping	Year-millennia
Lane et al. (2023)	Europe (Greenland)	Landsystem (ice stream)	Blockfields, erratics, moraine, hummocky topography	Remote sensing, field mapping	Millennia
Mastro et al. (2023)	Europe (Iceland)	Subglacial (ice sheet)	Ice-scour lakes, streamlined subglacial bedforms	Remote sensing	Millennia
McCerery et al. (2023)	N. America (Canada)	Subglacial (ice stream)	Till, moraines, subglacial landforms (various)	Field sampling, laboratory	Year-millennia
McKenzie et al. (2022)	N. America (USA, Canada), Europe (Iceland, Norway, Sweden)	Subglacial (ice sheet, ice stream)	Streamlined subglacial bedforms (various)	Remote sensing	Millennia
Rowan et al. (2022)	Hypothetical	Landsystem (mountain glacier)	Moraines	Modelling	Millennia
Stutz et al. (2023)	Antarctica	Landsystem (ice sheet, outlet glacier)	Nunataks, erratics	Field sampling, laboratory, modelling	Millennia