

Response to reviewers and revised manuscript

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Introduction

We would like to thank Dr. Ely and an anonymous reviewer for reviewing the manuscript. Below is our responses to the reviewer comments and the steps we took to address their comments. Attached at the end is the manuscript, marked with the changes made.

- 5 One main thing is that we changed the title of the paper to "Geology datasets in North America, Greenland and surrounding areas for use with ice sheet models" to reflect the fact that Greenland, Iceland and surrounding areas are also included in the dataset.

We also revised the dataset to include a sediment distribution dataset for Saskatchewan by Simpson (1997). The figures have been changed to reflect this (relatively minor) change. We also have now included data coverage shapefiles to the dataset, to
10 show where there is mapped grain size and distribution information directly from surficial geology maps. Figures showing this are included in the main manuscript.

Response to reviewer #1

We would like to thank the reviewer for his or her or their comments. We have responded to the comments below. The comments from the reviewer is in italics, while our response is in normal font.

General comments

- 5 *This paper presents three geologic maps spanning northern North America and Greenland, showing quantities related to sediment at the ice-bed interface. As discussed, sediment has important effects on basal sliding and hydrology in ice sheet models of Quaternary glacial cycles. The effect of these maps is illustrated using the PISM ice sheet model, comparing simulations at LGM to those using uniform sediment properties. The geological data sources, methods of assimilation and resulting maps are well described, although that is mostly outside my experience, and the points below are from an ice-sheet modeling perspective.*
- 10 *The datasets themselves (Figs. 1-3) may be a worthwhile contribution for this area of ice-sheet modeling. However, the relationship to model parameters and usage presented in the paper is not as useful. An alternative would be not to include any linkage at all with physics and modeling, and just to present Figs. 1 to 3 as descriptions of the real world, and leave it to users to make the links to ice-sheet models. But the former is included here (Table 3, Eq. (1) and the PISM runs), and its physical basis could be improved and made more useful, as discussed below.*
- 15 In creating this paper, we had discussions about the appropriateness of including some ice sheet simulations using the datasets in this paper. The target of this journal is purely to describe the datasets, which could then be used by ice sheet modellers to improve their ice sheet simulations. The lead author (Evan J. Gowan) decided to include the simulations with the purpose of demonstrating "if you change the basal conditions on the basis of these maps, there will be an impact on resulting ice sheet, so they should be considered". We feel a more thorough analysis on the parameters that should be chosen is beyond the
- 20 scope of the paper. The default PISM model does not have the capabilities to implement the various parameters described in the paper (namely, discontinuous sediment cover), and were only included here as a guide as to what could be implemented into the ice sheet model if the maps presented here are to be used. The values of ϕ , with the except of the sediment grain size maps, were selected only to show contrasts between the different map units, on the basis of expected impact on the ice sheet, and do not have any physical meaning. The sediment distribution, for instance, should be parameterized in a way that
- 25 sediment deformation no longer has as much impact on the ice sheet dynamics. In PISM, there is no way to do this (although as mentioned late in the paper, we are in the process of incorporating this).

Upon reading the ice sheet modelling section, we realize that we were not explicit enough with the purpose of the ice sheet modelling (since both the reviewers have brought this up). Although we attempted to articulate this in third paragraph of section 3.2, we have rewritten the introductory paragraph in section 3.2 to clarify our intentions:

To show the utility of the dataset, we incorporate the information for use with the ice sheet model PISM 1.0 (Bueler and Brown, 2009; PISM authors, 2017), with the addition of an index forcing scheme described in Niu et al. (2017). In the standard version of PISM, the model for basal sliding has an assumption that there is a continuous layer of sediments underlying the ice sheet. Obviously, in areas where sediment coverage is discontinuous, this is not a valid model. Therefore the purpose of the following simulations are simply to demonstrate that if there is a contrast in the basal conditions based on the underlying geological parameters, there will be an impact on the resulting ice sheet simulation. The simulations are not necessarily reflective of actual basal conditions of the ice sheet.

Specific comments

1. A Coulomb rheology model is adopted as used in the PISM model (Eq. 1), and one parameter (shear friction angle ϕ) is chosen to be related to the geologic quantities mapped here. There is little discussion (section 3.1, pg. 7) on the physics of how the map properties in Figs. 1-3 are related to the model's ϕ , and why ϕ is chosen over other model parameters such as those involved with N for instance (in Eq. 1, involving basal hydrology). The values chosen for the range of ϕ (10, 20, 30 degrees, pg. 8 lines 28-29) are not justified well; a reference could be given for how those relate to extremes of hard bed vs. deformable sediment (see (5) below). More discussion would be helpful on how the 3 quantities mapped here (sediment distribution, grain size, bedrock type) relate physically to sliding, why three maps are useful rather than one, and how they relate to other parameters in sliding models and not just ϕ . As a bonus, relations to Weertman sliding coefficients could be provided as well as to Coulomb parameters.

As mentioned above, the Coulomb rheology model that we use in these simulations is not realistic to describe the actual basal conditions of the ice sheet. It does not truly describe a hard versus soft bed situation, since it does not include parameters on how sediment distribution affects ice sheet flow (as mentioned in paragraph 2 in section 3.1), or how bedrock could drain water underneath the ice sheet (as mentioned in paragraph 3 of section 3.1). As mentioned above, these simulations are only to illustrate that if you change the basal conditions on the basis of these maps, there is an impact on the ice sheet.

For the sediment distribution maps, we justified the parameters (see lines 28-30 on page 8) by setting "hard bedded" regions with the rock classification to have a high shear angle (which increases the strength of the base), and a low value where there is continuous sediments where it would be suspected to be weak.

The sediment grain size dataset used values that were based on measured values of the shear friction angle (lines 6-8 on page 9)

In the geology dataset, we changed the friction angle based on how easily the bedrock can erode to produce glacial sediments (lines 17-19 on page 9).

We do not wish to comment on Weertman parameters, as it is not clear that the Weertman sliding law is valid (Fowler, 2010), and there are few observations of what the bed roughness parameter is to attempt such a discussion (see section 7.2.2.1 in Cuffey and Paterson (2010)). The ice sheet model we use (PISM), also does not include a Weertman sliding law.

2. In section 2.3 discussing sediment properties, the text says "Glacial sediments tend to be very poorly sorted, so these values should be assessed as being an average composition" (pg. 5 lines 12-13). Confusingly, the rest of the section seems to discuss grain-size properties only of the fine-grained material (matrix) that enclose pebbles and boulders (clast), and exclude the pebbles+boulders themselves. (Grain-size values in Table 3 are sub-millimeter). Do the clay and silt classes (pg. 5, lines 18-19) have significant fractions of pebbles+boulders, which is only mentioned for sand (line 21)? If so, what are the ranges of that fraction for each class? Do pebbles+boulders significantly influence the bulk(?) physical properties in Table 3? Both clast and matrix play crucial roles in sediment deformation in Evans et al.'s comprehensive review (referenced here: *Earth-Sci. Rev.*, 2006), especially their sections 5.1 to 5.4 on the "till-matrix framework".

In retrospect, we agree that it is confusing that the discussion only refers to the fine components of the glacial sediment. Glacial sediment has a bimodal grain size distribution, no glacial geology map used in this compilation describes the coarse fraction. We agree, having a quantitative assessment of the fraction of the till that is coarser than sand size would be a useful parameter to know, as having more coarse material will make the till stronger. Quantitative measurements simply do not exist in most areas. The qualitative classifications are also dependent on the author/organization, which is why we simplified the dataset to just three unit types. We have revised the first paragraph of section 3.2 to emphasize that that grain size is referring only to the fine component of the sediment.

The map of generalized grain size of glacial sediments is shown on Figure 5. A glacial sediment, diamiction or till (the later has a definitive glacial origin) is an unsorted material with grain size ranging from clay to boulder. Glacial sediments generally have a bimodal grain size distribution, with peaks in the course (pebble to boulder) and fine (clay to sand) fractions (Dreimanis and Vagners, 1971). The relative amount of course to fine is dependent on the distance from the source of the course material, so on glacial geology maps and datasets, glacial sediments are described in terms of the fine fraction only. To simplify the classification, we only have three main classification types, based on the dominant grain size of fine fraction. This classification scheme is based on the Surficial Materials in the Conterminous United States map (Soller and Reheis, 2004), and we attempted to unify this scheme with maps and data in Canada. The grain size of the sediments tends to have geographical dependence. As an example, in the map by Soller and Reheis (2004), clay rich glacial sediment exists in areas around the Great Lakes, where source material was derived from lake sediments, and sandy glacial in mountainous regions where there are extensive rock outcrops. The relative fraction of the sediment that is coarser than sand is not possible to quantify, since most of the data sources only give qualitative descriptions of the coarse fraction.

3. Another perhaps naive physical question: if sedimentary till has been transported over long distances under the ice in previous glacial cycles, wouldn't the sediment properties be related to parent bedrock type(s) far upstream, and not to the local bedrock type as assumed here? This seems to be addressed by lines 26-28 on pg. 5 referring qualitatively to Fulton (1989), but isn't large-scale sediment transport a major feature of Quaternary glaciations?

Although it seems intuitive that glacial transport will strongly influence sediment composition, it actually isn't as large as one might think. For example, some of the lobes in the southern Laurentide region were sampled for zircons by Kassab et al. (2017), and they found that even though there was ice streaming from the Canadian Shield, the age of the zircons indicated that the source of the till still largely reflected the underlying Michigan Basin rocks. At any rate, the target of this paper is to represent the sediments for the last glaciation, in previous glaciations it was likely different.

4. (related to (1) above). The spatial patterns of the 3 datasets in Figs. 1-3 are all quite similar. That is, roughly speaking they all show mainly one value for Hudson Bay and the outer regions of the former LGM Laurentide, and mainly another value for Canadian Shield regions surrounding Hudson Bay, the Canadian Rockies, and Greenland. So not surprisingly the patterns of model LGM $\Delta(\text{ice-thickness})$ sensitivities shown in Figs. 4d-6d are all quite similar to each other.

10 Although the patterns are similar, the magnitudes of ϕ in Figs. 4b-6b differ. For instance, the values over Hudson Bay vs. Canadian Shield regions are generally ~ 10 vs. 20 degrees in Fig. 4b using map #1, ~ 20 vs. 30 degrees in Fig. 5b using map #2, and ~ 10 vs. 30 degrees in Fig. 6b using map #3. It is left for ice-sheet modelers to choose which map is best for ϕ , for which no guidance is given.

For the glacial sediment composition, the values of ϕ are probably well justified as it is based on actual values from (Cuffey and Paterson, 2010) (as noted in the text). For the rest of the properties, a completely different basal condition model should be used, as changes in basal conditions due to sediment distribution (for instance) are not based the till friction angle, but rather changes in the basal hydrological system. We are working on this (as noted on lines 14 and 15 on page 8 of the original manuscript). The experiments shown here are simply to show in a qualitative sense that changing the basal conditions on the basis of the maps affects the evolution of the ice sheet (as addressed above).

20 5. Model ice-thickness results in Figs. 4-6 are compared with those using a uniform value of $\phi=30$. The $\Delta(\text{thickness})$ magnitudes in the (d) panels seem smaller and much less extensive than in early Laurentide studies exploring sediment vs. hard-bed effects, such as Fisher et al. (1985) and Licciardi et al. (1998) referenced here on pg. 2, line 14. Perhaps this is due to smaller contrasts in yield stress here than in the earlier studies, and a larger range of ϕ could be used than 10 to 30 degrees.

As noted on lines 9-13 on page 8 of the original manuscript, the impact on the ice sheet is limited only to areas where there is sufficient ice flow to cause melting at the base, and where that is not true, changing the shear friction angle has no effect. The figure added below for point #8 shows this. There is little change over most of the ice sheet because there is not enough water produced in the model to saturate the sediments. Further changing the shear friction angle in those regions will have no effect on the outcome. The range of shear friction angles used here fall within the range of realistic values for till, no geological material will have shear friction angles less than 10° . This is why we are working on creating a new basal conditions model to better incorporate the geological parameters in a realistic way (as noted on lines 14 and 15 on page 8).

6. In several places the text mentions or implies stratigraphic relationships between the underlying bedrock, layers of glacially derived sediment, perhaps layers of earlier (or Holocene?) non-glacial sediment, and water bodies; for instance on pg. 3 lines 1-3, pg. 4 lines 1-4, pg. 4 line 19. For a non-geologist, it is challenging to conceptualize this clearly, and to keep straight what

the stratigraphic relationships are (for glacial vs. non-glacial sediment), and whether they are important. I suggest slightly expanded discussion in places. Also a simple diagram would be helpful that shows the various idealized stratigraphic cases, with labeled horizontal rectangles one on top of each other. The cases would always have underlying bedrock, then one case with bedrock covered by glacial sediment (perhaps with horizontal breaks indicating patchiness), another with bedrock + non-glacial sediment, another with bedrock + glacial sediment + water body, etc.

We have added the following illustration showing the relationship between bedrock, glacial sediments, water bodies, and post-glacial sediments:

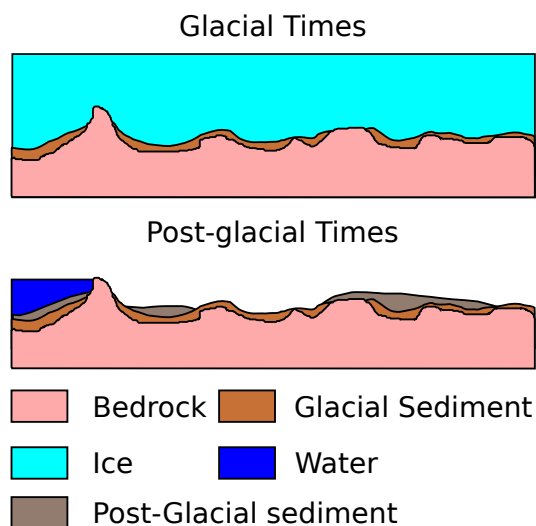


Figure 1. Illustration showing the relationship between the bedrock, glacial sediments and postglacial sediments. In glacial times, the ice sheet is in contact with glacial sediments created by the ice sheet itself, and bedrock. In post-glacial times, the bedrock and glacial sediments can be obscured by water bodies and post-glacial sediments.

We have added the following figure which shows the relationship between the sediment and bedrock in the distribution classes:

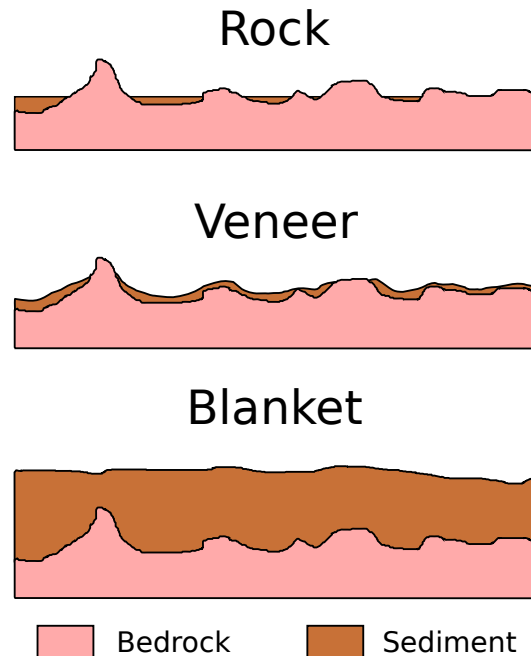


Figure 2. Illustration of how the sediment distribution relates to the underlying bedrock and thickness of the sediments. The rock class has only isolated patches of sediment, the veneer class has a thin sediment layer with bedrock outcrops and a visible influence of bedrock topography on the surface, while with the blanket class, the sediments completely obscure the bedrock surface.

7. *If possible, ranges of thickness values for each type of layer could be shown in the diagram suggested above. These are mentioned in places in the text, and could be gathered there. The paper says (pg. 7 line 14) "it is not possible to give a detailed quantitative estimate of (sediment) distribution and thickness", but even rough ranges would be helpful. Melanson et al. (QSR, 2013, Fig. 1), and Hildes et al. (QSR, 2004, Fig. 4) produced sediment thickness maps based on Fulton et al. (2005) referenced here; could a guide be provided here? Maps of sediment thickness are not so important for models of LGM or the last glacial cycle, but are more helpful for longer-term studies of Plio-Pleistocene variations involving sediment evolution, such as Ganopolski et al., Clim. Past, 2011.*

For the distribution dataset, the important parameter is not necessarily sediment thickness (although we have included some quantitative values in the description of the units), but rather the percentage of surface is covered in sediments versus bare rock. It would be difficult to put hard numbers on this, since many surficial geology maps only give qualitative categories, and the definition also varies depending on the author of the map (as mentioned in the text of section 2.2). To emphasize this point, we have added the following to the intro paragraph of section 2.2:

Many maps used in this dataset only give qualitative descriptions of the distribution, and the definition often varies between mappers. As a result, it is not possible to give an exact range for sediment thickness or percentage sediment cover. We recommend modellers explore a range of values.

The classification scheme used by Melanson et al. (2013) and Hildes et al. (2004) for defining the distribution of sediments is essentially the same as ours, which is to say it is a qualitative assessment of sediment distribution. We have added the following to section 2.2:

A scheme similar to this has been used in the studies by Hildes et al. (2004) and Melanson et al. (2013) for use in the modelling of sediment transport. The difference in our dataset is that we explicitly do not include post-glacial sediments, and instead try to fill these gaps with supplemental information.

10 As for thickness maps, they produced these using an empirical formula based on those same qualitative descriptors. In order to get a quantitative assessment of sediment cover in longer-term studies, it would be necessary to first to have data on the amount of sediment has actually been transported glacially. From that, and inverse model could perhaps be applied. Such a dataset does not currently exist, but from some discussions the lead author (Evan Gowan) has had with geologists, such a dataset is under construction for some areas in the United States.

8. The areas in Figs. 4d-6d where model LGM delta(ice thicknesses) are appreciable occur mostly around the margins of the ice sheet. The paper suggests this is controlled in part by areas where the bed is sufficiently warm and wet to allow sliding in the PISM model (pg. 8 line 35). This could be corroborated by showing a model map of basal temperature or basal melt rate for 21 ka.

We added the following plot that shows the basal heating.

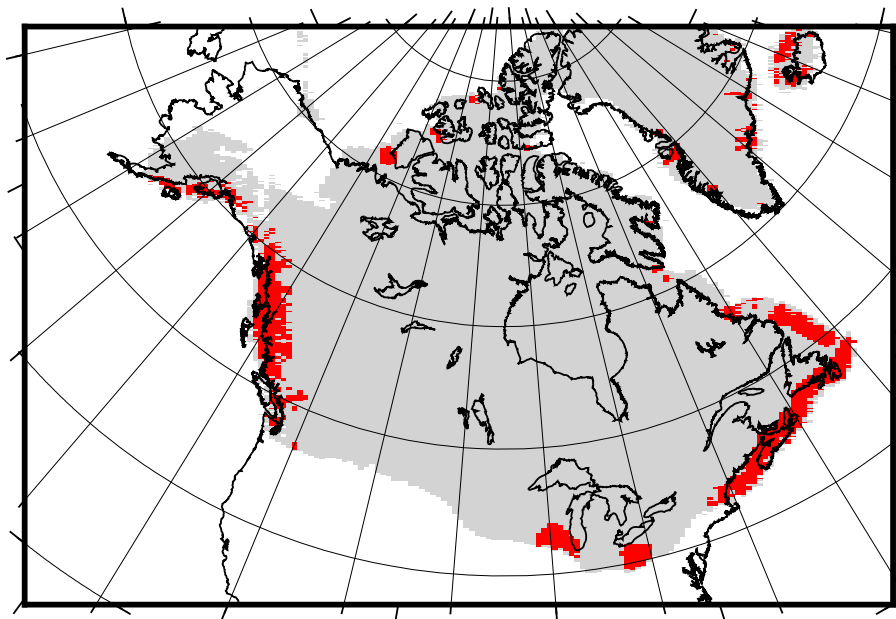


Figure 3. Areas in the default simulation where basal frictional heating exceeds 0.01 W/m^2 (shown in red). The grey region is where there is grounded ice.

Technical points:

pg. 5 lines 30-33: The classification relating bedrock to grain size is given for silt (line 30) and sand (line 32), but seems to be missing for clay.

10 We did not include a clay unit here, because as mentioned on lines 14-16 on page 5, clay rich glacial sediments are likely derived from lake sediment, rather than bedrock.

pg. 6 line 11: The name "Felsic volcanic" is used twice. Possibly the 2nd should be "Mafic volcanic".

This has been fixed.

pg. 7 line 4-6: Table 3 is discussed in section 3.1, before Eq. (1) and shear friction angle and cohesion (quantities in the table) are discussed in section 3.2. This could be resolved easily by referring to Eq. (1) and following text in the table caption.

We added a reference to equation 1 to the table 3 title.

pg. 7 lines 9-11. The two consecutive sentences beginning "The patchiness of sediment..." and "The lack of sediment.." seem to say nearly the same thing. Is the distinction one of horizontal scale?

- 5 These two sentences refer to two different things. The first means that bedrock sticking out will resist flow due to increased friction, as the rock sticks into the glacier. The second sentence refers to the fact that the lack of sediments means there is no sediment deformation as a mechanism to flow. We modified the second sentence to make that clear.

The lack of sediment in an otherwise sediment covered region may increase resistance to flow as well if sediment deformation is a dominant factor in controlling flow

- 10 *pg. 7 line 17: Regarding drainage of water under the ice, perhaps clarify in a few words that the permeability of bedrock under the sediment "aquifer" is involved here, I think. (As opposed to permeability of sediment as in Table 3, which would use map #2 for grain size and not map #3 for bedrock type).*

We appended "into the bedrock aquifer" at the end of the sentence.

- pg. 8 line 34; pg. 9 line 13; pg. 9 line 22: These sentences say that south of the Great Lakes at LGM, the ice sheet extends further than in the reference simulation. However there is no discernible difference in the margin locations south of the Great Lakes in Figs. 4a vs. c, 5a vs. c, 6a vs. c. How many km does "further south" mean in the sentences, and why is it not visible in the figures?*

We admit that you have to look very closely to identify that it indeed went further south. It is only one grid cell point, which is 20 km, which is visible by the blue area on the difference map. We have noted this in the text.

20 **Minor corrections/suggestions**

pg. 1 line 4: Should be "distribution of surficial".

Fixed.

pg. 3 line 22: "When" should be "In".

Using the word "when" is intentional.

- 25 *pg. 4 line 11: Is "bend simplify" intended?*

That is the name of the tool we used in ArcGIS.

pg. 4 line 16; pg 5 line 9; pg. 7 line 4; pg. 9 line 9,15: "on" should be "in".

Unless Copernicus' style guide requires this convention (and it doesn't appear to), we are leaving this as is.

pg. 6 line 18: Should be "as most of these".

Fixed

pg. 7 line 11: Should be "of the latter". pg. 7 line 17: "later" should be "latter".

Fixed.

Response to Jeremy Ely (reviewer #2)

We would like to thank Dr. Ely for his comments. We have responded to the comments below. The comments from the reviewer is in italics, while our response is in normal font.

5 **General comments**

General comments: This paper presents useful datasets regarding the geology and sedimentology of North America, Greenland, Iceland and parts of Russia. The datasets are extensive and useful for the community. The demonstration of use in ice sheet models is interesting and also useful for the reader to consider how future experiments with this and similar datasets might be conducted. However, the aim of these simulations for this paper should be noted in the text (i.e. to demonstrate utility of the dataset, not to draw scientific conclusions about the Laurentide which I presume is the focus of a later paper). The authors should be applauded for citing all the original literature that goes into this dataset in Tables 1 and 2. It may also be useful to distribute a similar bibliography with the dataset. This is therefore a very worthwhile contribution to the literature and I hope that my comments below can help improve the manuscript.

As mentioned in the response to reviewer #1, the intention of our simulations was just as mentioned here - to demonstrate the utility of the datasets. We have updated the section to make this more clear (see response to reviewer #1 for details). Adding the bibliography to the datasets is a good idea, we have added it to the dataset.

Specific comments

The title - only North America is mentioned, yet the data includes Greenland and Iceland. I think these places need incorporating in the title somehow. As far as I can tell from figures (could not check the actual data as pangea is password protected) the whole of North America is not covered by the data either.

We apologize for the inaccessibility of the datasets - Pangaea added a password for some reason. Once this was pointed out, we had the password removed.

This compilation started off as being purely focused on North America, the additions of Greenland and Iceland to the dataset came very late in the process. We will change the title to the following:

25 Geology datasets in North America, Greenland and surrounding areas for use with ice sheet models

2. In section 2.3 discussing sediment properties, the text says "Glacial sediments tend to be very poorly sorted, so these values should be assessed as being an average composition" (pg. 5 lines 12-13). Confusingly, the rest of the section seems to discuss grain-size properties only of the fine-grained material (matrix) that enclose pebbles and boulders (clast), and exclude the

pebbles+boulders themselves. (Grain-size values in Table 3 are sub-millimeter). Do the clay and silt classes (pg. 5, lines 18-19) have significant fractions of pebbles+boulders, which is only mentioned for sand (line 21)? If so, what are the ranges of that fraction for each class? Do pebbles+boulders significantly influence the bulk(?) physical properties in Table 3? Both clast and matrix play crucial roles in sediment deformation in Evans et al.'s comprehensive review (referenced here: Earth-Sci. Rev., 2006), especially their sections 5.1 to 5.4 on the "till-matrix framework".

We acknowledge that this section is confusing as written. We went back to some of the original papers discussing the composition of till to try and clarify the meaning of the descriptions. We have rewritten the first paragraph of section 2.3 to be as follows.

10 The map of generalized grain size of glacial sediments is shown on Figure 2. A glacial sediment, diamiction or till (the later has a definitive glacial origin) is an unsorted material with grain size ranging from clay to boulder. Glacial sediments generally have a bimodal grain size distribution, with peaks in the course (pebble to boulder) and fine (clay to sand) fractions (Dreimanis and Vagners, 1971). The relative amount of course to fine is dependent on the distance from the source of the course material, so on glacial geology maps and datasets, glacial sediments are described in terms of the fine fraction only. To simplify the classification, we only have three main classification types, based on the dominant grain size of fine fraction. This classification scheme is based on the Surficial Materials in the Conterminous United States map (Soller and Reheis, 2004), and we attempted to unify this scheme with maps and data in Canada. The grain size of the sediments tends to have geographical dependence. As an example, in the map by Soller and Reheis (2004), clay rich glacial sediment exists in areas around the Great Lakes, where source material was derived from lake sediments, and sandy glacial in mountainous regions where there are extensive rock outcrops. The relative fraction of the sediment that is coarser than sand is not possible to quantify, since most of the data sources only give qualitative descriptions of the coarse fraction.

25 *Uncertainty. In creating the dataset the authors necessarily and reasonably had to make some interpretations and interpolations between sources of data. However, there doesn't seem to be any record of where gaps have had to be filled or boreholes consulted. A map of data coverage (boreholes, geology map location etc), or another map showing some sort of confidence level in the data would be very useful for those using the data in model experiments and for focusing future work.*

This is a really good suggestion. It took some time go back to the original shapefiles to create this, but we now include this in the final version of the dataset, and added this figure to the main document:

30 *Some notes on the data format that the data is provided in would be useful. As mentioned above, I could not check as not yet accessible through the repository.*

We added these details to the last paragraph of section 2.1:

The final dataset is presented as shapefiles that are compatible with GIS programs, as well as 5 km resolution NetCDF files.

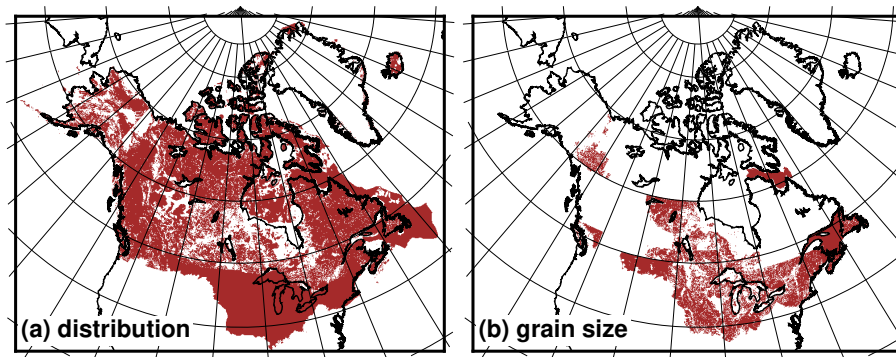


Figure 4. Data coverage (brown areas) derived directly from surficial geology maps. (a) sediment distribution (b) sediment grain size

Minor comments

Abstract, page 1, line 5. Please state the scale or resolution of the dataset.

We added the scale here. (1:5 000 000 scale)

- 5 *P1, L 17 - I find the use of the word substrate odd here, it is more about whether sediments were present beneath the ice sheet or not. To me, these sediments (or bedrock) would then be the substrate, i.e. the bit in contact with the bed of the ice is the substrate.*

We reworded the sentence as follows:

10 Temperate ice sheets, such as the Laurentide and Eurasian ice sheets behaved differently depending on whether or not there was thick, continuous unconsolidated sediments underneath the ice (Clark and Walder, 1994).

P1, L 19 - Consider adding the more recent reference of Storrar et al., 2014 on eskers across the Laurentide.

We have added the reference.

P2, L 9 - Unclear subject matter. Presence or absence of what?

Added " of available unconsolidated sediment " to this sentence.

- 15 *P2, L 15-17 - This section needs better linking to scope of the paper. These are all important factors, but some better crafting of the paragraph is required to state why we need to know about these things. In particular, here the subject jumps from the Laurentide to Svalbard without any linking.*

This was added here to state that the conditions that probably existed on the Laurentide ice sheet is also applicable to modern glaciers. But perhaps such details are elaborated better in the subsequent paragraphs. We have removed these sentences.

P3, L 6-9 - These sentences are better incorporated into the following section.

We moved the paragraph to the next section.

P3, L 13 - use of word "extended" is technically correct, but I wonder if better for reader if you use occurred between or similar, given the use of the word "extent" later to refer to where the ice got to.

- 5 We changed "extended" to a proper chronological descriptor word "happened".

P3, L 32 - requires rewording. Perhaps "information" rather than "glacial"

Thank you for pointing out the wording mistake. We changed it to read "glacial geological units".

Section 2.1. - A statement on the intended use and resolution of the data would be useful for those intending to use the dataset and to prevent misuse. I imagine the datasets will be useful for those doing ice sheet-scale experiments. However, the resolution

- 10 *may limit utility for those interested in a single outlet glacier/ice stream for example.*

This is a good idea, we have added the following sentences:

We want to emphasize that these datasets are low resolution, generalized representations of geological properties.

The intended use is for relatively low resolution ice sheet simulations (*i.e.* 5 km or great), and are not likely to be appropriate for resolving higher resolution features.

- 15 *P5, L 30 - No notes on clay*

We do not use a clay unit when inferring properties from geological maps. We have added the following sentence to emphasize this:

Since the distribution of clay rich till appears to correlate strongly with the location of lakes, it is not included.

P6, Section 2.5. This section would be useful for including the notes/map of "uncertainty" stated above.

- 20 As mentioned earlier, we now include a figure for data coverage, and included the shapefiles in the dataset.

P7, L 23. I think it worth restating here for the audience that your aim is not to draw specific conclusions about the form of the Laurentide in this paper. The following sections (3.2.1 to 3.2.3) do mention specifics of the modelled ice sheet. However, I think that these are safe as they fall short of evaluating whether there is an improvement or not, by just stating that there is a change induced by the data.

- 25 We addressed this by revising section 3.1, as elaborated in the comments to Reviewer #1.

Additional references: Storrar, R.D., Stokes, C.R. and Evans, D.J., 2014. Morphometry and pattern of a large sample (> 20,000) of Canadian eskers and implications for subglacial drainage beneath ice sheets. Quaternary Science Reviews, 105, pp.1-25.

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Geology datasets ~~of in~~ North America, Greenland and surrounding areas for use with ice sheet models

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Abstract.

The ice-substrate interface is an important boundary condition for ice sheet modelling. The substrate affects the ice sheet by allowing sliding through sediment deformation and accommodating the storage and drainage of subglacial water. We present three datasets [at 1:5 000 000 scale](#) with different geological parameters for the region that was covered by the ice sheets in North America, including Greenland and Iceland. The first dataset includes the distribution [of surficial sediments](#), which is separated into continuous, discontinuous and predominantly rock categories. The second dataset includes sediment grain size properties, which is divided into three classes: clay, silt and sand, based on the dominant grain size of the [fine fraction of the glacial sediments](#). The third dataset is the generalized bedrock geology. We demonstrate the utility of these datasets for governing ice sheet dynamics by using an ice sheet model with a simulation that extends through the last glacial cycle. [Changes in ice thickness by up to 40% relative to a reference simulation happened when the shear friction angle was reduced to account for a weaker substrate.](#) These datasets provide a basis to improve the basal boundary conditions in ice sheet models.

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15 1 Introduction

Temperate ice sheets, such as the Laurentide and Eurasian ice sheets behaved differently depending on whether or not ~~the substrate was covered by there was~~ thick, continuous unconsolidated sediments [underneath the ice](#) (Clark and Walder, 1994). These sediments provided a potential pathway for subglacial water storage and drainage. Areas where crystalline bedrock is predominant at the surface tend to have eskers, indicating that subglacial water drained via large tunnel systems ~~(Clark and Walder, 1994)~~ (Clark and Walder, 1994). The subglacial drainage where the surface is covered by continuous, unconsolidated sediments tends to be via linked channel systems (Carlson et al., 2007). The main cause of these different drainage regimes is likely related to the roughness of the bed (*i.e.* in areas with sediment cover, the surface is smoothed by the glacier, while in areas with bedrock outcrops will be more

irregular). Sediment deformation in areas with continuous cover is also hypothesized to play a prominent role in the motion of glaciers (Boulton et al., 2001; Evans et al., 2006), possibly also including decoupling with the underlaying, non-deforming surfaces (Kjær et al., 2006). When sediments become water saturated, they become mechanically weaker than the overlying ice. If this happens, it causes a decoupling from the underlying bed and allows the ice to flow faster than with ice deformation
5 alone. Whether or not this mechanism could have been spatially and temporally pervasive is still open to debate (Piotrowski et al., 2004; Iverson and Zoet, 2015).

In North America, there was a distinct difference in ice sheet behavior between the sparsely covered Canadian Shield and the sediment covered sedimentary basins at the southern and western fringes, and Hudson Bay and the Foxe Basins in the center and north. The most striking imprint of this in the geomorphological record is the reduced number of ice streams on much of the
10 Canadian Shield, while areas covered with continuous sediments have many (Margold et al., 2015). The presence or absence of [available unconsolidated sediment](#) influenced the distribution of ribbed moraine, drumlins and eskers on the Canadian Shield (Aylsworth and Shilts, 1989). Retreat of the Laurentide Ice Sheet after the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) also slowed when the ice sheet became confined to the Canadian Shield (Dyke, 2004). During the advance of the ice sheet prior to the LGM, the margin remained close to the Canadian Shield boundary until the ice sheet reached a threshold that allowed to advance onto
15 the surrounding plains (Dyke et al., 2002). The part of the ice sheet that covered the plains had a low profile relative to the Canadian Shield, which has been attributed to this contrast in basal conditions (Fisher et al., 1985; Licciardi et al., 1998; Gowan et al., 2016). ~~Observations of the dynamics in modern glaciers, for instance in Svalbard, are strongly governed by whether or not they lay on sedimentary or crystalline bedrock (e.g. Jiskoot et al., 2000). Areas underlain by sedimentary bedrock are more likely to a thick, fine grained till that is easier to deform when subjected to water saturated conditions.~~

Having realistic basal conditions is essential in numerical ice sheet modelling. Many ice sheet modelling studies of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (Calov et al., 2002; Tarasov and Peltier, 2004; Gregoire et al., 2012; Abe-Ouchi et al., 2013) used the global sediment thickness map (Laske and Masters, 1997), which was designed for seismology applications rather than surficial processes. This dataset reflects the thickness of Phanerozoic sedimentary rocks that have not undergone significant metamorphism. This map does not reflect the actual distribution of unconsolidated sediments, as many regions of the Canadian Shield do have
20 continuous sediment cover (Aylsworth and Shilts, 1989), and there are regions of discontinuous unconsolidated sediment cover where there is sedimentary bedrock (Fulton, 1995; Soller and Garrity, 2018). This dataset also misses Precambrian sedimentary basins that are overlain by unconsolidated sediments that were modified by ice sheets (Cofaigh et al., 2013). The direct impacts on ice sheet dynamics may only depend on the uppermost few meters of unconsolidated sediment (Boulton et al., 2001; Iverson and Zoet, 2015), so this map may not be representative of the sediment properties that affected the ice sheet. More recently,
25 Stokes et al. (2012) and Tarasov et al. (2012) used a more complete parameterization with additional data from the surficial materials map by Fulton (1995). They use a parameter from 0 (no sediments) to 1 (pervasive sediments). [Previous modelling studies did not directly account for variability in the grain size or other properties of the sediments.](#)

In order to gain flexibility in parameterizing sediment parameters for ice sheet modelling, we present three datasets. These data come from existing surficial geological maps when possible, and inferred from other studies where coverage is not complete. (i) The *Sediment distribution dataset* contains information on the distribution of sediment cover, whether continuous,
35

vener, or dominantly bedrock. (ii) The *sediment grain size dataset* contains information on the average grain size of the sediments. This is based on common geological descriptions of sandy, silty and clay rich diamiction and glacial sediments. (iii) The *bedrock geology dataset* contains the generalized bedrock type, including distinctions between sedimentary, igneous and metamorphic rocks. These data can be used in a variety of ways, such as by changing the mechanical strength and frictional resistance of the sediment (such as the shear friction angle), effects of hydrology (porosity and permeability of the sediments or rock, type of drainage), roughness of the bed, and the erodibility of substrate.

2 Description of datasets

2.1 Overview and construction

In order to be usable in ice sheet models, it is necessary to have a continuous dataset. Since existing geological map datasets are discontinuous, due to the presence of post-glacial sediments and water bodies (Figure 1), we had to fill in these gaps. These datasets include supplementary information from geophysical surveys and coring studies to compliment existing maps. We also made an inference on grain size properties in the vast regions without information by using geological maps. We want to emphasize that these datasets are low resolution, generalized representations of geological properties. The intended use is for relatively low resolution ice sheet simulations (i.e. 5 km or greater), and are not likely to be appropriate for resolving higher resolution features.

With this dataset, the goal is to represent the subglacial sediment properties for the most recent glaciation, the late Wisconsin glaciation in North America, for use in paleo-ice sheet modelling and reconstruction. The late Wisconsin ~~extended~~ happened between about 31 000 and 34 000 yr BP (years before present) to about 7000 yr BP (Dyke et al., 2002). For ice sheet modelling, using the modern day distribution and composition of glacial sediments is likely sufficient to use as a boundary condition for the most recent glacial period, though further back in time, this assumption may not be valid (Clark and Pollard, 1998). There are great uncertainties in many of the boundary conditions used in ice sheet modelling, such as uncertainties in past atmospheric and ocean conditions, but sediment cover likely does not change that greatly in a single glaciation (Piotrowski et al., 2001), so we do not feel this is a major setback for the use of this dataset. Also, in areas with crystalline bedrock, it is possible for surfaces to be unmodified by glacial action (Corbett et al., 2016). We want to emphasize that the categories chosen for this dataset are simplified from some of the original data sources in order to make it easier for ice sheet modellers to manipulate a limited range of parameters, rather than match specific geological observations that may only be applicable very small regions. The lack of sediment grain size information over much of Canada also precludes a large range of geological parameters. When ice sheet modelling, it is necessary to have continuous boundary conditions over the whole domain. In areas without geological information, it is necessary to make inferences on the properties based on alternative sources of information, such as bedrock geology maps.

The three datasets are largely based on existing surficial and bedrock geology maps (Table 1). Wherever possible, we used the most up-to-date regional scale (i.e. >1:500,000 scale) maps, in order to make it possible to construct the entire dataset in a reasonable amount of time. For the sediment distribution data, where there was overlapping with the map by Fulton (1995), we

favoured the more recent dataset. The first step was to import the existing shapefiles of the maps (or digitizing paper maps if not available), and break up the units into the classification schemes that we are using. This involved removing any water bodies and post-glacial sediment units from the maps, and simplifying glacial geological units that had a more complex scheme than we use. The resulting datasets have gaps. Figure 2 shows the data coverage purely from surficial geology maps. To fill in the gaps, we expanded the polygons in a way to favour the dominant unit in the region, or to extend the trend of elongated units. The datasets were edited using ArcGIS and QGIS.

There are many areas where late Wisconsin till is buried by glacio-fluvial and Holocene non-glacial sediments, so the nature or existence of glacial sediments is uncertain. This is also true for previously glaciated areas under lakes and the oceans and places currently covered in glaciers, ice caps and the Greenland Ice Sheet. In these regions, we tried to find published sediment cores, sedimentary sections, and geophysical data that can be used to estimate the the properties of the sediments (Table 2).

We incorporate sediment data from areas outside of the late Wisconsin limit, as in an ice sheet simulation, the exact margin of the ice sheet is unlikely to match the geologically constrained limit, and could become more expansive. For areas south of the Laurentide Ice Sheet limit, there is glacial sediment from more extensive, older glaciations. These data were taken from the US quadrangle maps (Table 1). In other areas such as Alaska and offshore regions, we take the properties from non-glacial sediments and inferences from bedrock geology maps.

In the creation of the dataset, existing shapefile compilations were used if available, which have variable resolution. To simplify the datasets when the originals were high resolution, we used ~~bend-simplify-the~~ bend simplify tool in the ARCGIS Cartography/generalization Toolbox, with a tolerance of 5 km, and minimum area of 25 km² (25000000 m²). This is visually similar to the generalization that was used in the surficial materials map by Fulton (1995). Any polygon that had a total area that was less than 2.25 km² (2250000 m²) was merged to the polygon that had the largest shared border to further simplify the dataset. The final dataset is presented as shapefiles that are compatible with GIS programs, as well as 5 km resolution NetCDF files.

2.2 Sediment distribution dataset

The map of glacial sediment distribution is shown on Figure 3. Data sources for this dataset are shown in Table 1. By "glacial sediment" we are referring to sediment that is produced as a direct result of glacial action. In a generic sense, it is synonymous with diamiction or till, an unsorted sediment with grain size ranging from clay to boulder. When possible, we try to determine the distribution of glacial sediments in extensive areas covered by post-glacial cover and water bodies (Figure 1, see Table 2 for sources). Many maps used in this dataset only give qualitative descriptions of the distribution, and the definition often varies between mappers. As a result, it is not possible to give an exact range for sediment thickness or percentage sediment cover. We recommend modellers explore a range of values. Figure 4 shows the relationship between the three classes with the cover over bedrock. A detailed explanation for the distribution units, which is based on the scheme found on the Surficial Materials of Canada map by Fulton (1995) is as follows:

Rock: Bedrock outcrops are predominant (>75% of the surface area is exposed bedrock (Fulton, 1995)) and extensive glacial sediment deposits are rare. We include "regolith" areas in the northern Canadian archipelago, which were not pervasively

affected by late Wisconsin glaciation (even if the upper layer was not well consolidated) and therefore do not produce glacial sediment deposits.

Veneer: Many maps seem to have a different definition on what "veneer" means. In general, it means that glacial sediment deposit are discontinuous (can be zero thickness), but the area covered in glacial sediment exceeds that of exposed rock. The topography of the underlying bedrock is usually visible in these areas. In most maps, these areas have "thin" cover, with thin being defined as anything between less than one meter to as much as ten meters. Commonly, the cutoff is set to be 2-3 meters, although some maps (e.g. the Surficial Materials map of Canada by Fulton (1995)) do not explicitly state a value. A recommended thickness value setting for veneer areas should be less than three meters to conform to the most common description of "veneer" provided in maps used in this dataset, though even a thin layer of glacial sediment might affect the dynamics of an ice sheet (Evans et al., 2006).

Blanket: These regions are defined as regionally continuous glacial sediment. As with the "veneer" classification, it is not always clear what thickness or distribution is used as a threshold for defining "blanket". If values are given, the threshold is usually greater than three meters. In areas with a blanket of sediment, generally the underlying bedrock topography is not obvious. Glacial sediment units that are described as "hummocky" are included in this definition. These glacial sediments formed during stagnation of the ice sheet, and are commonly found on elevated regions in western Canada (Eyles et al., 1999). The thickness can vary from a few meters to more than 25 meters, but it is assumed here that these deposits are at least three meters and can be put into the blanket definition.

A scheme similar to this has been used in the studies by Hildes et al. (2004) and Melanson et al. (2013) for use in the modelling of sediment transport. The difference in our dataset is that we explicitly do not include post-glacial sediments, and instead try to fill these gaps with supplemental information.

2.3 Sediment grain size dataset

The map of generalized grain size of glacial sediments is shown on Figure 65. A glacial sediment, diamiction or till (the later has a definitive glacial origin) is an unsorted material with grain size ranging from clay to boulder. Glacial sediments generally have a bimodal grain size distribution, with peaks in the course (pebble to boulder) and fine (clay to sand) fractions (Dreimanis and Vagners, 1971). The relative amount of course to fine is dependent on the distance from the source of the course material, so on glacial geology maps and datasets, glacial sediments are described in terms of the fine fraction only. To simplify the classification, we only have three main classification types, based on the dominant grain size of the sediments fine fraction. This classification scheme is based on the Surficial Materials in the Conterminous United States map (Soller and Reheis, 2004), and we attempted to unify this scheme with maps and data in Canada. ~~Glacial sediments tend to be very poorly sorted, so these values should be assessed as being an average composition. A glacial sediment, diamiction or till (the later has a definitive glacial origin) is an unsorted material with grain size ranging from clay to boulder, but the average grain size can vary depending on the local source material.~~The grain size of the sediments tends to have geographical dependence. As an example, in the map by Soller and Reheis (2004), clay rich glacial sediment exists in areas around the Great Lakes, where source material was derived from lake sediments, and sandy ~~glacial sediment exists~~ in mountainous regions where there are

extensive rock outcrops. The relative fraction of the sediment that is coarser than sand is not possible to quantify, since most of the data sources only give qualitative descriptions of the coarse fraction.

clay: Glacial sediment has a large clay component (>50%).

5 **silt:** intermediate of clay and sand dominant composition. This unit includes any description called "loamy till", which is a soil with an average grain size between sand and silt.

sand: Sand rich till, with ~~the possible presence of abundant coarser grained (pebble to boulder sized) material, with~~ only minor clay component and more sand than silt. This includes units that were described as "bouldery till".

Many maps do not give specific classifications of the grain size of glacial sediments. The United States quadrangle maps
10 (Table 1), which cover most areas south of about 54° north (except in the Cordillera), fortunately do have this information. The lack of information north of this is likely due to accessibility issues, where there are few extensive geology/soil/engineering surveys that would serve as the basis for such a map. As a result, the sediment type for many of these regions was derived from bedrock geology maps. In general, glacial sediments in North America have a composition that similar to the underlying bedrock (Fulton, 1989), so we assume that the grain size should be related to the bedrock geology. Since the distribution of
15 clay rich till appears to correlate strongly with the location of lakes, it is not included. Our approach for classifying grain size from geology maps is as follows:

silt: fine grained clastic sedimentary rocks (shale, carbonates); mafic igneous rocks; undivided igneous rocks; low grade metamorphic rocks (*e.g.* greenschist)

20 **sand:** course grained clastic sedimentary rocks (sandstone, conglomerate); felsic igneous rocks; high grade metamorphic rocks (*e.g.* gneiss)

2.4 Bedrock geology dataset

This dataset (Figure 6) is a simplification of the Geologic Map of North America (Reed et al., 2004; Garrity and Soller, 2009). For the area covered by the Greenland Ice Sheet, we use the map by Dawes (2009). The rocks were divided into the following groups:

25 **Sedimentary:** All units described as being sedimentary.

Felsic plutonic: All rocks explicitly described as felsic igneous (*e.g.* granite), charnockite, units described as being "felsic and intermediate" and units that were undivided mafic and felsic rocks.

Felsic volcanic: Same as felsic plutonic, but explicitly described as volcanic (*e.g.* rhyolite)

30 **Mafic plutonic:** All rocks explicitly described as mafic igneous (*e.g.* gabbro), units described as being "intermediate" and "intermediate and intermediate", alkaline, and units that were undivided mafic and felsic rocks.

Felsic-Mafic volcanic: Same as plutonic, but explicitly described as volcanic (*e.g.* basalt), also includes volcanic deposits that are described as having interlayered sedimentary layers

low grade metamorphic: Marble, plus units described as being "undivided crystalline rocks"

high grade metamorphic: Units that are highly metamorphosed *i.e.* gneiss

The map has few units that can be confidently placed in the low grade metamorphic class, because most of these units are grouped with their non-metamorphosed source rock class. Therefore it should be assumed that many of the areas with igneous and sedimentary rocks have undergone some level of metamorphism, particularly on the Canadian Shield. We placed the "undivided unit" in the low grade category, as ~~these~~ most of these areas are in the continental shelf where no geophysical surveys or sampling has taken place. The description given in the original dataset indicates that these rocks likely contain some amount of metamorphism. It can be assumed that these rocks along the Atlantic coast were probably subjected to some amount of metamorphism during the opening of the Atlantic Ocean, or in the case of Hudson Bay are likely part of the Precambrian Shield.

10 2.5 Caveats

In this compilation, we tried to incorporate the most recent information on surficial geology that was available. Unfortunately, there are places where, due to discrepancies between adjacent maps, there are visible seams. This is especially evident at the Yukon-Alaska border and the British Columbia - Washington border. Obviously, these areas will be in need of revision when new mapping information becomes available. There are also discrepancies in interpretation and classification between maps. A good example is the dataset we used for Manitoba (Matile and Keller, 2006), which had only two classes for distribution (blanket and rock). The corresponding map by Fulton (1995) divides the regions that are classified as "rock" into veneer and rock. Since our intention is to use the most up-to-date information, we use the dataset by Matile and Keller (2006), but with the caveat that this also causes a seam with the adjacent regions in northern Ontario and Saskatchewan that has a broader classification scheme.

20 3 Usage in ice sheet models

3.1 Parameters

Some general properties of sediment grain size types are shown on Table 3. Most of these properties are described in more detail in Cuffey and Paterson (2010). These properties are only given in a qualitative manner because there have been relatively few in-situ or laboratory measurements of these properties over a range of composition (Iverson and Zoet, 2015). Measured permeability values were reported to be between 10^{13} – 10^{16} m² (Cuffey and Paterson, 2010). It is recommended that when modelling the behavior of ice sheets, that a range of values be explored.

The effect of sediment distribution on ice sheet models is less well known. The patchiness of sediments may result in "sticky spots", primarily though bedrock ~~nobs~~ knobs that resist the flow of ice (Alley, 1993). The lack of sediment in an otherwise sediment covered region may increase resistance to flow as well if sediment deformation is a dominant factor in controlling flow (Stokes et al., 2007). The influence later-of the latter process is likely controlled by the availability of subglacial water. All of the thickness categories made in this dataset are derived from existing geological maps. Because of inconsistencies in classification between maps, and vast regions where there are few direct observations, it is not possible to give a detailed

quantitative estimates of distribution or thickness. These exact values of the percentage of surface cover, and sediment thickness can be set as a variable in ice sheet models.

5 The geological map can be used for determining the erosive properties of the rocks, the source material of glacial sediment (as we did for the grain size dataset), and drainage of water under the ice [into the bedrock aquifer](#). For the ~~later-latter~~ case, the transition from Precambrian rock and sedimentary rock has been used to explain the relative absence of eskers south of the Canadian Shield by accommodating the basal meltwater (Grasby and Chen, 2005). Modelling of the effect of bedrock on subglacial water routing has been done by Carlson et al. (2007).

3.2 Example of usage of datasets in an ice sheet model

10 To show the utility of the dataset, we incorporate the information for use with the ice sheet model PISM 1.0 (Bueler and Brown, 2009; PISM authors, 2017), with the addition of an index forcing scheme described in ~~(Niu et al., 2017)~~. [In Niu et al. \(2017\). In the standard version of PISM, the model for basal sliding has an assumption that there is a continuous layer of sediments underlying the ice sheet. Obviously, in areas where sediment coverage is discontinuous, this is not a valid model. Therefore the purpose of the following simulations are simply to demonstrate that if there is a contrast in the basal conditions based on the underlying geological parameters, there will be an impact on the resulting ice sheet simulation. The simulations are not necessarily reflective of actual basal conditions of the ice sheet.](#)

15 [In](#) PISM, the basal sediments influence ice sheet dynamics by assuming they deform as a Mohr-Coulomb plastic material (Tulaczyk et al., 2000). The relationship that governs the relationship between the material and the yield stress, τ_c , is:

$$\tau_c = c_o + N \tan(\phi) \tag{1}$$

20 The sediment parameters include the apparent cohesion, c_o , and the shear friction angle, ϕ . The cohesion is generally regarded as insignificant (Cuffey and Paterson, 2010) and set to zero in most ice sheet simulations (Bueler and Brown, 2009). The shear friction angle is the angle that a material will fracture given a normal stress above its yield strength. This is the primary factor used to tune the basal sediment strength in PISM. In situ and laboratory experimental values of ϕ for glacial sediments have a large range, between 18° and 40° (Cuffey and Paterson, 2010). The parameter N is the difference between
25 the normal stress from the load of the ice sheet and the water pressure in the sediments. In PISM, this factor is generally high enough that the sediments will not deform unless they are saturated. In our simulations, $N = 0.01$ when saturated. For the tests of these datasets, we only adjust ϕ .

The results shown below are for an ice sheet model that is run for the entire last glacial cycle, the past 122 000 years. A time slice at 21 000 yr BP is chosen to display the effect of changing the sediment friction angle, as this was when the
30 North American ice sheets were near their maximum extent (Dyke, 2004). Niu et al. (2017) provide a full description of the parameters related to other boundary conditions. The shear friction angle used in their study was a constant 30°, so to show the effects of changes in basal geological parameters, this value is lowered. The results given below are ~~diagnostic-only~~ [just to show the effects of changing the basal properties](#), we make no recommendation of what the values should be. Ultimately, the

model used in PISM is dependent on having enough water produced to saturate the sediment layer (Bueler and Brown, 2009). If the water production is too low (*i.e.* the basal temperature of the ice is below pressure melting point), changing the shear friction angle will have no effect on the simulation. Therefore, in the cases shown in this section, the largest changes occur in places where there is significant ice flow [to encourage frictional heating](#), or are connected to ocean basins [\(Figure 7\)](#). Efforts to combine the effects of these datasets with ice sheet hydrology and ice dynamics are ongoing, and show that this model substantially underestimates that amount of water that should be available at the base (Gowan et al., 2018).

[The basal conditions model in PISM is based on the assumption that the entire base of the ice sheet is covered in potentially deformable sediments, the strength of which is controlled by the sediment shear friction angle. A lower angle will weaken the ice-bed interface, and therefore encourage sliding. The philosophy of the choice of shear friction angle in these examples is as follows. Areas with continuous sediment cover should be weak, since sediment deformation will be the dominant factor in sliding. The angle in sediment covered areas are lowered from the reference value to accommodate this. For the grain size data, finer grained sediments will be weaker than coarse grained sediments, so the angle in areas with finer sediments are lowered from the reference value. For the geology dataset, we expect that areas underlain with sedimentary and mafic volcanic rocks will be more prone to erosional effects, and therefore more likely to produce unconsolidated sediments, and should therefore be weaker. The angle in these areas are reduced from the reference to simulate this effect.](#)

3.2.1 Impact of sediment distribution

The basal boundary condition in PISM has an assumption that continuous sediment cover is over the entire domain (Bueler and Brown, 2009). In order to simulate the differences in sediment distribution, the shear friction angle is changed depending on the coverage. For continuous areas, it is set to $\phi = 10^\circ$ (weak, deformable bed), for discontinuous areas it is set to $\phi = 20^\circ$, and for dominantly rock it is set to $\phi = 30^\circ$ (strong, undeformable bed). Using these values, most of the Canadian Shield has a shear friction angle of 20° , while areas underlain by Phanerozoic sedimentary rocks have values of 10° . The impact of this is that there are reductions of ice along the east coast of Canada, the Cordillera, the Great Lakes region, and western Arctic Archipelago and Greenland [by up to 40%](#) (Figure 8). There is also an increase in ice thickness in the area east of the Cordillera [\(5-10% greater\)](#), south of the Great Lakes and in Hudson Strait. The lower resistance to flow likely leads the ice sheet to flow further south of the Great Lakes relative to the default simulation, [and is notably thicker \(by several hundred meters\)](#). The lack of change in the Canadian Shield, despite decreasing the shear friction angle, is most likely due to the lack of meltwater production to cause a reduction in basal strength.

3.2.2 Impact of sediment grain size

To test the effects of sediment grain size type, the input map from Figure 5 was converted to a shear friction angle input by setting clay to $\phi = 10^\circ$, silt to $\phi = 20^\circ$ and sand to $\phi = 30^\circ$. This simulates the fact that clay rich sediments are mechanically weaker, even though an angle of $\phi = 10^\circ$ is below the low end of measurements of real till (Cuffey and Paterson, 2010). The difference in ice thickness at 21 000 yr BP is shown on Figure 9. In this case, most of the Canadian Shield, Greenland and parts of Cordillera have a shear friction angle of 30° , some areas south of the Great Lakes are 10° , while the rest is 20° . The end

result at 21 000 yr BP is that there is less change in the simulation compared to the reference. There is a slight reduction in ice thickness in the Cordillera (10-20%) and east coast of Canada (5-10%). South of the Great Lakes, where there is clay rich till with an angle of 10° , the ice sheet goes further south (one grid cell, or 20 km) than the reference simulation.

3.2.3 Impact of bedrock geology

The effects of bedrock geology are shown on Figure 10. For this simulation, we adjusted the shear friction angle downwards for geological types that are more likely erode to produce deformable sediments. Sedimentary rocks are given an angle of $\phi = 10^\circ$, to indicate their relative weakness. Low grade metamorphic rocks (which includes areas where the geology is uncertain), are given an angle of $\phi = 20^\circ$. Volcanic rocks are assigned a value of $\phi = 25^\circ$, as they should be more likely to be erodible than plutonic rocks. Plutonic rocks and high grade metamorphic rocks retain the default value of $\phi = 30^\circ$. The results show a decrease in ice thickness in the Cordillera, Canadian Archipelago, eastern Canada and northeastern Greenland by up to about 30%. These areas are largely underlain by sedimentary rocks. As with the other simulations, south of the Great Lakes region, the ice sheet goes further south than the reference simulation.

4 Conclusions

We have presented three datasets that present different types of geological data, including sediment distribution, grain size, and bedrock geology. These datasets are intended for use in ice sheet models, where the geological parameters will have impacts on ice sheet dynamics and hydrology. We demonstrated that changing the basal conditions in an ice sheet model on the basis of these datasets do impact the thickness of the ice. With these datasets, we hope that improvements can be made to ice sheet models to incorporate this geological data and gain a better understanding of basal conditions.

5 Data availability

Gowan, E.J., Niu, L., Knorr, G., and Lohmann, G., 2018. Geology datasets in North America, Greenland and surrounding areas for use with ice sheet models, link to datafiles. *PANGAEA*, <https://doi.pangaea.de/10.1594/PANGAEA.895889>

Author contributions. EJG compiled the datasets and was the main author of the text. LN designed the ice sheet model simulation. All authors contributed to the text and design of the study.

Competing interests. There are no competing interests.

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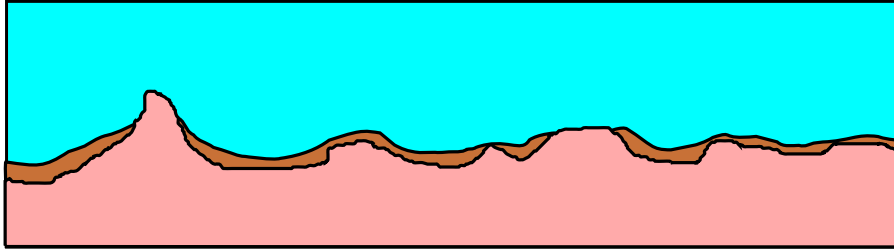
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Glacial Times



Post-glacial Times

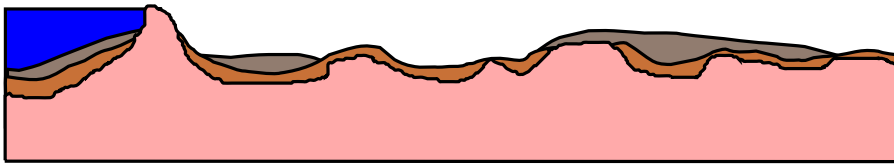


Figure 1. Illustration showing the relationship between the bedrock, glacial sediments and postglacial sediments. In glacial times, the ice sheet is in contact with glacial sediments created by the ice sheet itself, and bedrock. In post-glacial times, the bedrock and glacial sediments can be obscured by water bodies and post-glacial sediments.

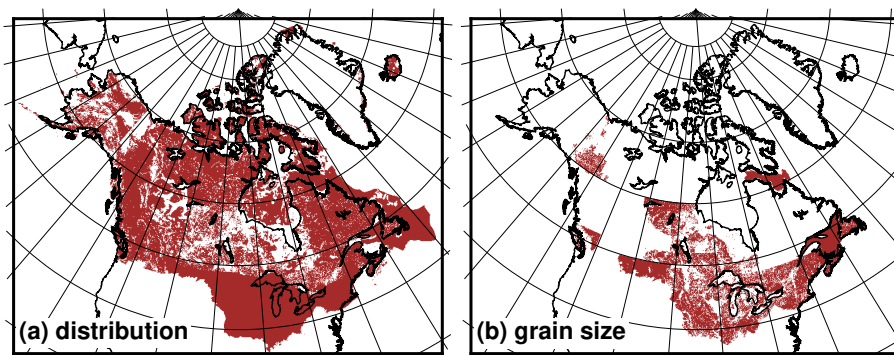


Figure 2. Data coverage (brown areas) derived directly from surficial geology maps. (a) sediment distribution (b) sediment grain size

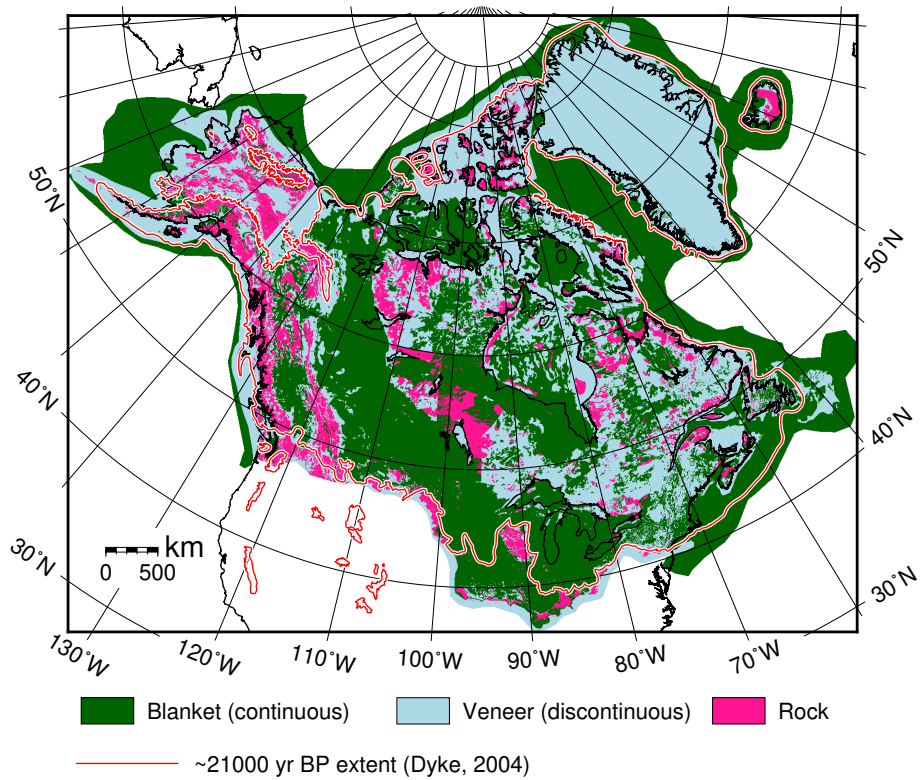


Figure 3. Sediment distribution. The red line is the glacial limits during the Last Glacial Maximum, 21 000 yr BP (thousands of years ago). Blanket regions are where unconsolidated sediments form a continuous surface, veneer regions have variable amounts of rock outcrops and discontinuous sediment cover, while rock areas have little or no sediment cover.

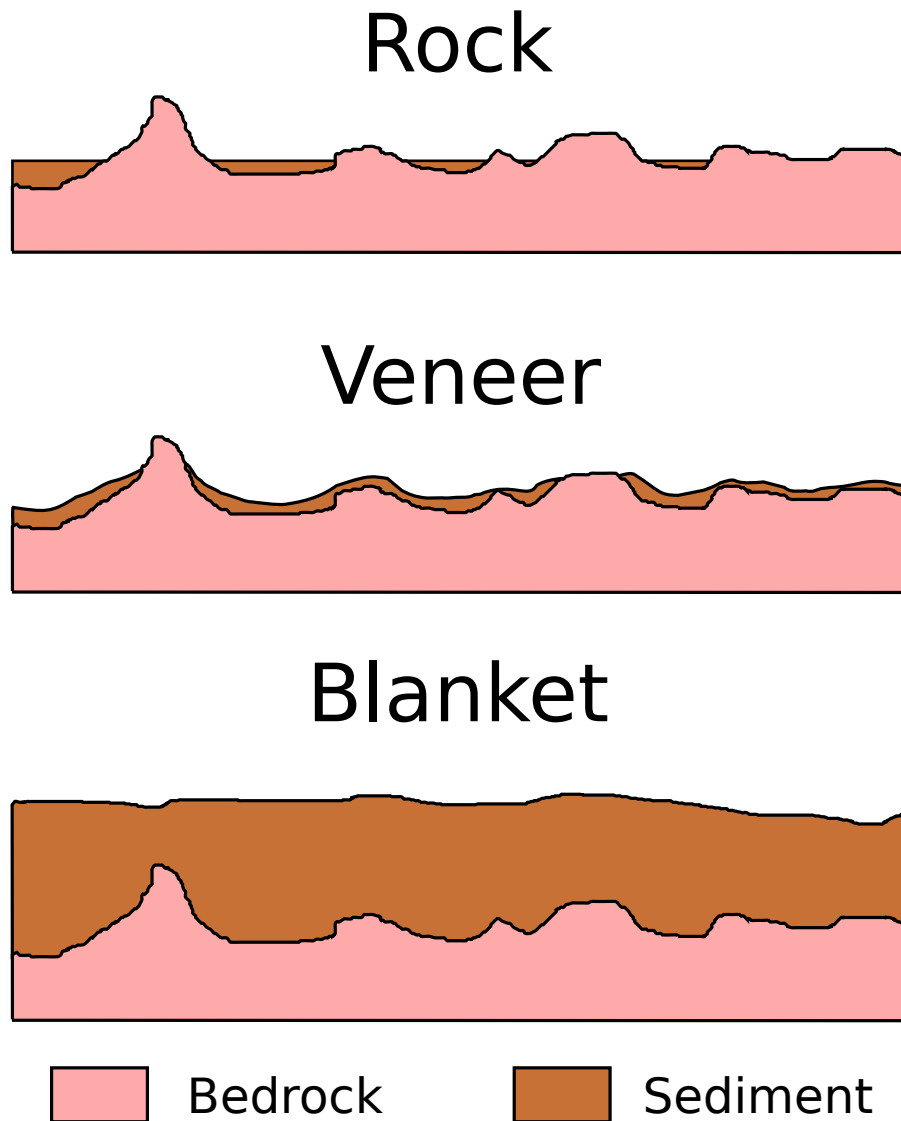


Figure 4. Illustration of how the sediment distribution relates to the underlying bedrock and thickness of the sediments. The rock class has only isolated patches of sediment, the veneer class has a thin sediment layer with bedrock outcrops and a visible influence of bedrock topography on the surface, while with the blanket class, the sediments completely obscure the bedrock surface.

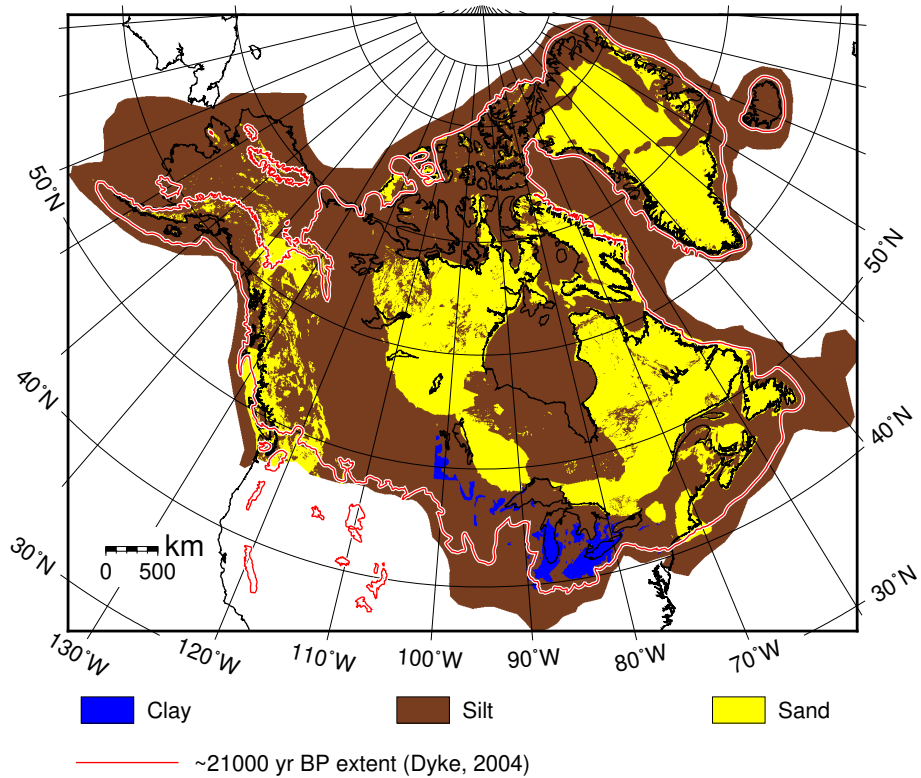


Figure 5. Sediment grain size. The red line is the glacial limits during the Last Glacial Maximum, 21 000 yr BP (Dyke, 2004). The types of sediment include clay (dominantly fine grained sediment), silt (an average composition between sand and clay), and sand (dominantly coarse grained sediments).

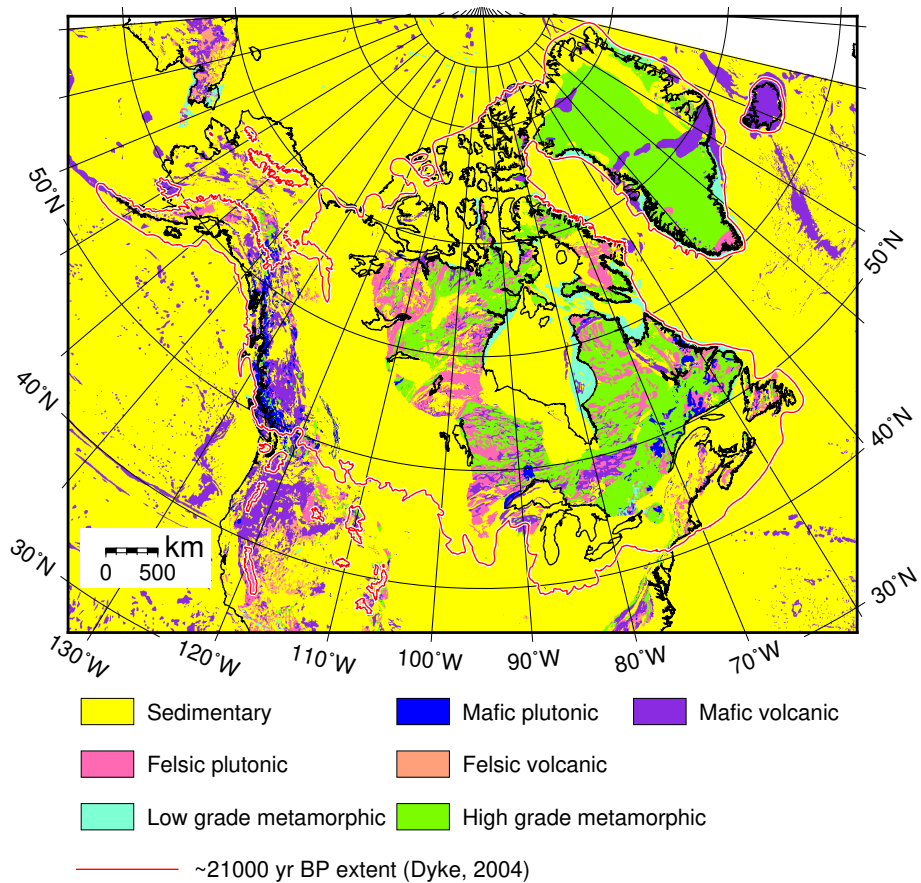


Figure 6. Generalized geology. The red line is the glacial limits during the Last Glacial Maximum, 21 000 yr BP (Dyke, 2004). The rock types are divided into sedimentary, felsic and mafic, volcanic and plutonic, and metamorphic categories.

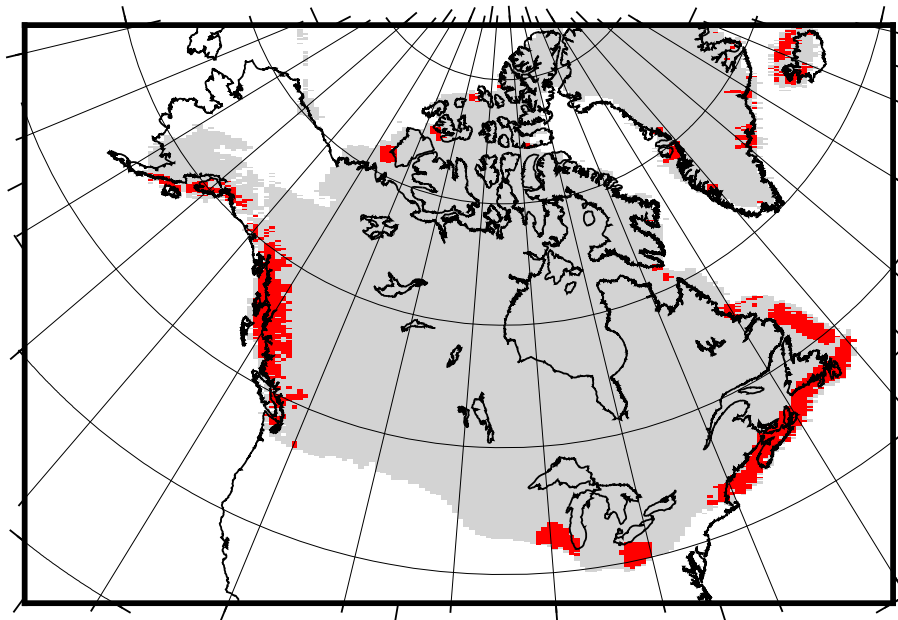


Figure 7. Areas in the default simulation (shown in red) where basal frictional heating exceeds 0.01 W/m². The grey region is where there is grounded ice.

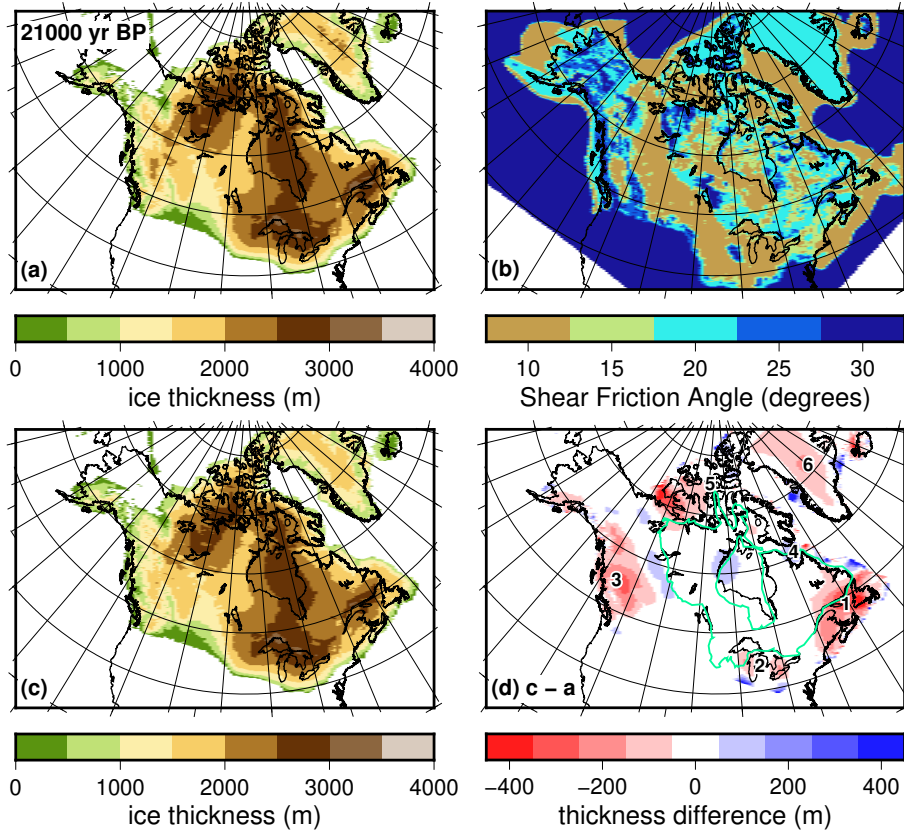


Figure 8. Impact of the distribution of sediments on the simulation of North American ice sheets. (a) Thickness of the ice sheets at 21 000 yr BP (after about 101 000 years of simulation) with the default shear friction angle, $\phi = 30^\circ$. (b) Shear friction angle adjusted downwards for sediment cover. (c) Ice thickness at 21 000 yr BP using the shear friction angle shown in (b). (d) Difference in ice thickness between (a) and (c). The numbers in (d) represent areas mentioned in the text: (1) Eastern Canada, (2) Great Lakes, (3) Cordillera (4) Hudson Strait (5) Arctic Archipelago (6) Greenland. The green outline shows the exposed limit of the Canadian Shield.

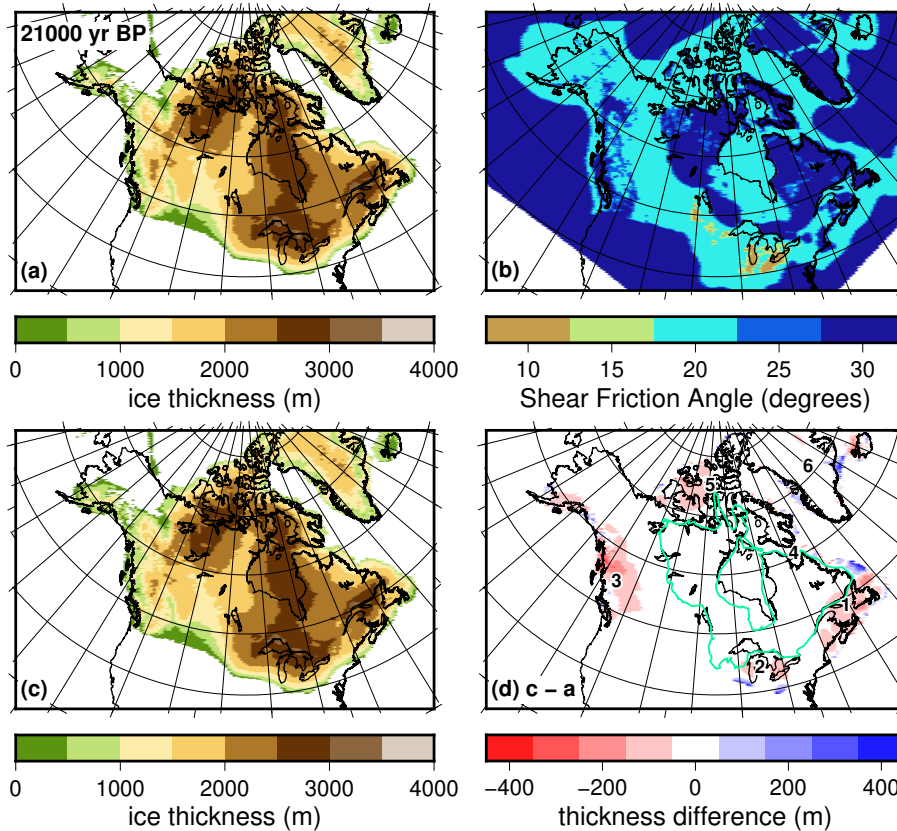


Figure 9. Impact of the grain size of sediments on the simulation of North American ice sheets. (a) Thickness of the ice sheets at 21 000 yr BP (after about 101 000 years of simulation) with the default shear friction angle, $\phi = 30^\circ$. (b) Shear friction angle adjusted downwards for finer grained sediments. (c) Ice thickness at 21 000 yr BP using the shear friction angle shown in (b). (d) Difference in ice thickness between (a) and (c). The numbers in (d) represent areas mentioned in the text: (1) Eastern Canada, (2) Great Lakes, (3) Cordillera (4) Hudson Strait (5) Arctic Archipelago (6) Greenland. The green outline shows the exposed limit of the Canadian Shield.

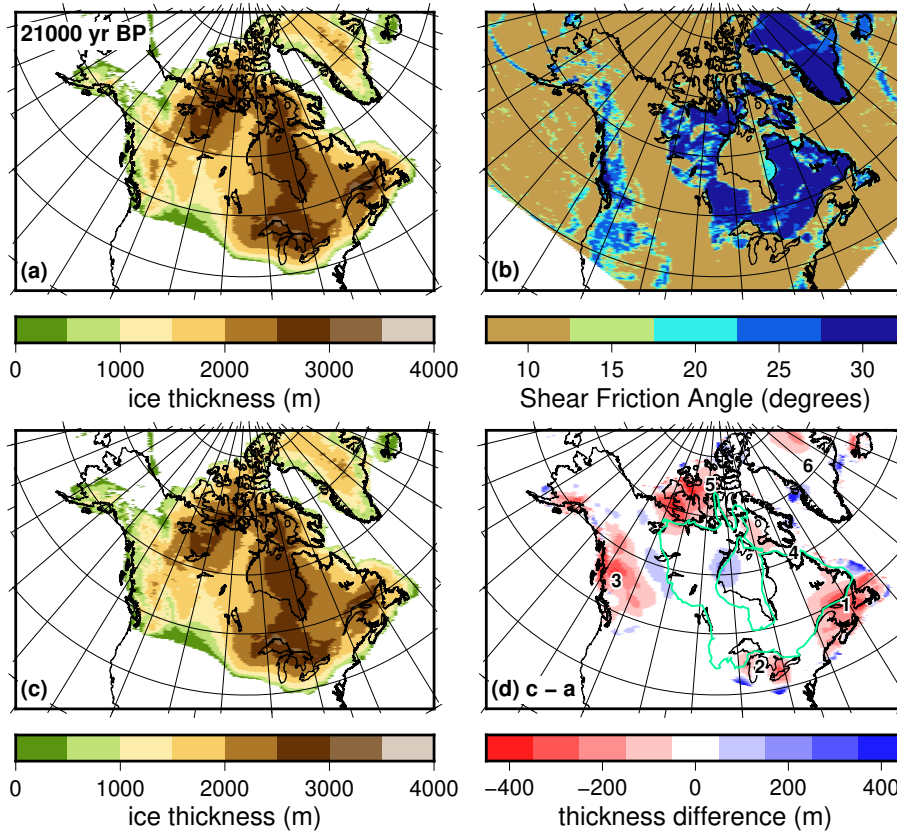


Figure 10. Impact of the [geology-geology](#) on the simulation of North American ice sheets. (a) Thickness of the ice sheets at 21 000 yr BP (after about 101 000 years of simulation) with the default shear friction angle, $\phi = 30^\circ$. (b) Shear friction angle adjusted downwards sediments and volcanic rocks. (c) Ice thickness at 21 000 yr BP using the shear friction angle shown in (b). (d) Difference in ice thickness between (a) and (c). The numbers in (d) represent areas mentioned in the text: (1) Eastern Canada, (2) Great Lakes, (3) Cordillera (4) Hudson Strait (5) Arctic Archipelago (6) Greenland. The green outline shows the exposed limit of the Canadian Shield.

Table 1. Maps used for the creation of the distribution and grain size dataset

Map region	dataset used	reference
Canada	distribution	Fulton (1995); Geological Survey of Canada (2014)
Canada	grain size	Wheeler et al. (1996)
Continental United States west of the Rocky Mountains	distribution	Soller and Garrity (2018)
Ottawa Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (1993)
Quebec Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Borns et al. (1987)
Boston Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Hartshorn et al. (1991)
Hudson River Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (1992)
Sudbury Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Sado et al. (1993)
Lake Erie Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (1991)
Blue Ridge Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Howard et al. (1991)
Lake Nipigon Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Sado et al. (1994)
Lake Superior Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Farrand et al. (1984)
Chicago Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Lineback et al. (1983)
Louisville Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Gray et al. (1991)
Lake of the Woods Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Sado et al. (1995)
Minneapolis Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Goebel et al. (1983)
Des Moines Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Hallberg et al. (1994)
Ozark Plateau Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Whitfield et al. (1993)
Winnipeg Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (2000)
Dakotas Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (1995)
Platte River Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Swinehart et al. (1994)
Wichita Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Denne et al. (1993)
Regina Quadrangle	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (2007)
Montana	distribution, grain size	Fullerton et al. (2004, 2012, 2013, 2016)
Southern Cordillera Ice Sheet	distribution, grain size	Soller et al. (2009)
Nova Scotia	grain size	Stea et al. (1992)
Prince Edward Island	grain size	Prest (1973)
New Brunswick	grain size	Rampton (1988)
Newfoundland and Labrador	distribution, grain size	Government of Newfoundland and Labrador (2013)
Quebec	grain size	Thériault et al. (2012)
Northern Ontario	distribution, grain size	Ontario Geological Survey (1997)
Southern Ontario	distribution, grain size	Ontario Geological Survey (2003)
Manitoba	distribution, grain size	Matile and Keller (2006)

Table 1. Continued

Map region	dataset used	reference
Northern Saskatchewan	distribution γ	Simpson (1997)
Northern Saskatchewan	grain size	Schreiner (1984)
Alberta	grain size	Wheeler et al. (1996)
British Columbia	grain size	Massey et al. (2005)
Southwestern British Columbia	grain size	Clague et al. (1982)
Cordillera Ice Sheet	distribution	Eyles et al. (2018)
Yukon	distribution, grain size	Lipovsky and Bond (2014)
Yukon	grain size	Yukon Geological Survey (2016)
Alaska	distribution	Karlstrom (1964)
Alaska	grain size	Wilson et al. (2015)
Mainland Northwest Territories, Nunavut, and Baffin Island	grain size	Harrison et al. (2011)
Offshore Newfoundland and Grand Banks	distribution	King (2014)
Hudson Strait	distribution, grain size	MacLean (2001)
Gulf of St. Laurence	distribution, grain size	Loring and Nota (1973); Josenhans and Lehman (1999)
Labrador Shelf	distribution	Piper et al. (1990)
Southwestern Greenland	distribution	Weidick and Christoffersen (1974, 1978); Weidick and Klüver (1987)
Central eastern Greenland	distribution	Funder and Klüver (1988)
Southeastern Greenland and Iceland	distribution	Voges (1995)
Greenland	distribution	Sugden (1974)
Greenland and Iceland	grain size	Reed et al. (2004)
Greenland Ice Sheet	grain size	Dawes (2009)

Table 2. Supplementary resources used for the creation of the distribution and grain size dataset

Region	dataset used	notes	reference
Okanogan Lobe (southern Cordillera Ice Sheet)	distribution	Sediment cover is a veneer	Kovanen and Slaymaker (2004)
Puget Sound (southern Cordillera Ice Sheet)	distribution	The Puget Lobe overrode a thick sequence of proglacial sediments	Booth (1994)
Northern and Central Quebec	distribution, grain size	Dominantly sandy tills except in regions with sedimentary rocks	Bouchard (1989)
Ungava Peninsula, Quebec	distribution, grain size	Thick layers of coarse grained diamiction	Gray and Lauriol (1985)
Hudson Bay Lowlands, Ontario	grain size	Glacial sediments contain roughly equal amounts of clay, silt and sand	Thorleifson et al. (1992)
Southeastern Manitoba	grain size	Grain size of glacial sediments underneath Lake Agassiz deposits is dependent on the source region, but on average is silt	Teller and Fenton (1980)
Lake Winnipeg, Manitoba	distribution	Glacial sediments are discontinuous under the entire lake, except where there are end moraines.	Todd et al. (1998)
Alberta Interior Plains	grain size	Glacial sediments have a relatively uniform composition that is roughly equal parts clay, silt and sand.	Klassen (1989)
British Columbia	grain size	Glacial sediments generally have similar composition as underlying bedrock, though more coarse at higher elevations	Clague (1989)
British Columbia interior	grain size	Glacial sediments are silt or sand rich	Plouffe (2000)
Mainland Northwest Territories and Nunavut	grain size	Glacial sediments generally have grain size reflective of bedrock geology	McMartin et al. (2006)
Western Northwest Territories	grain size	Areas overlying the Western Canadian Sedimentary Basin have an unsorted mixture of sand silt and clay	<i>e.g.</i> Duk-Rodkin and Hughes (1993)
Hudson Bay	distribution	Multibeam data collected from Hudson Bay, which was ultimately used in Fulton (1995)	Josenhans and Zevenhuizen (1990)
Eastern Hudson Bay	distribution, grain size	Betcher Islands are relatively barren of unconsolidated sediments, bedrock is Proterozoic sedimentary and volcanic rocks	Jackson (2012)
St. Laurence estuary	distribution	Thick accumulations of glacial sediments only occur where there are bedrock troughs	Duchesne et al. (2010)
Offshore Nova Scotia	distribution	Seismic and multibeam data indicates significant glacial sediment accumulation	Todd et al. (1999); Todd and Shaw (2012)
Gulf of Maine	distribution, grain size	There is a thick succession of fine grained sediments, near Cape Cod it is more sandy	Uchupi and Bolmer (2008)

Table 2. Continued

Region	dataset used	notes	reference
Northern Northwest Passage, Arctic Canada	distribution	Multibeam data indicates limited cover by glacial sediments	Niessen et al. (2010)
Gulf of Boothia	distribution	Multibeam data indicates of continuous layer of sediments	MacLean et al. (2010)
Coronation and Amundsen gulfs	distribution	Sediment veneer in the Coronation Gulf and inner Amundsen Gulf, thicker in the outer Amundsen Gulf	MacLean et al. (2015)
Western Lake Superior	distribution	Seismic data indicates that glacial sediment units are not continuous	Scholz (1984)
Western Lake Superior near Thunder Bay	distribution, grain size	Thick glacial sediment units that were interpreted to be fine grained	Gustafson (2012)
Lake Superior and Lake Michigan	distribution, grain size	Thick sediment cover with composition that reflects local geology for Lake Superior, and high clay content for Lake Michigan	Lineback et al. (1979)
Lake Ontario	distribution	The core of Lake Ontario has thick glacial sediment cover, but on the margins it is thin and discontinuous	Hutchinson et al. (1993); Lewis et al. (1995)
Lake Erie	distribution, grain size	Erie Lobe sediments are clay rich due to reworking of lake sediments	Karrow (1989)
Eastern Great Slave Lake	distribution	Glacial sediments are thick in some areas, but is not continuous	Christoffersen et al. (2008)
Beaufort Sea	distribution	Seismic data indicates thick sediment cover	Batchelor et al. (2013)
Greenland	distribution	Thick glacial sediment cover generally only exists in fjords and high plateaus	Funder (1989)
Greenland	distribution	Sediment cover in areas described by Sugden (1974) generally completely covers the bedrock	Corbett et al. (2015); Larsen et al. (2010); Håkansson et al. (2009)
Offshore Greenland	distribution	areas with scoured bedrock visible from multibeam and seismic data have limited sediment cover, and smooth topography is more continuous	Funder (1989); Morlighem et al. (2017); Freire et al. (2015); Dowdeswell et al. (2010)

Table 2. Continued

Region	dataset used	notes	reference
Greenland Ice Sheet	distribution	Seismic evidence indicates the presence of sediments under the ice sheet	Walter et al. (2014); Kulesa et al. (2017)
Greenland Ice Sheet	distribution, grain size	Most of Greenland is underlain by Archean and Paleoproterozoic cratons, which are composed largely of high grade metamorphic and plutonic rocks, and likely has similar characteristics as the Canadian Shield.	St-Onge et al. (2009); Henriksen et al. (2009)
Offshore Iceland	distribution, grain size	Seismic surveys indicate thick sediment cover with relatively fine grain size	Principato et al. (2005)
Western Iceland	grain size	Older glacial sediments have been described as being silt rich and sandy-silt	Hjort et al. (1985); Ingólfsson (1985)

Table 3. General properties of sediments relating to composition and texture ([see also Equation 1](#))

Material	Grain Size (mm)	Shear Friction Angle	Cohesion	Permeability	Dilation
clay	<0.005	<20	>10 kPa	low	appreciable
silt	0.05-0.005	<30	<10 kPa	variable	variable
sand	>0.05	>30	negligible	high	none