

1 Repeated ice streaming on the northwest Greenland continental 2 shelf since the onset of the Middle Pleistocene Transition

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9

10 **Abstract.** Ice streams provide a fundamental control on ice sheet discharge and depositional patterns along
11 glaciated margins. This paper investigates ancient ice streams by presenting the first 3D seismic geomorphological
12 analysis of a major glacial successions offshore Greenland. In Melville Bugt, northwest Greenland, six sets of
13 landforms (five buried and one on the seafloor) have been interpreted as mega-scale glacial lineations (MSGL) that
14 provide evidence for extensive ice streams on outer palaeo-shelves. A gradual change in mean MSGL orientation
15 and associated depocentres through time suggests that the palaeo-ice flow and sediment transport pathways
16 migrated in response to the evolving submarine topography through each glacial-interglacial cycle. The
17 stratigraphy and available chronology show that the MSGL are confined to separate stratigraphic units and were
18 most likely formed during several glacial stages since the onset of the Middle Pleistocene Transition at ~1.3 Ma.
19 The MSGL record in Melville Bugt suggests that since ~1.3 Ma, ice streams regularly advanced across the
20 continental shelf during glacial stages. High-resolution buried 3D landform records such as these have not been
21 previously observed anywhere on the Greenland continental shelf margin and provide a crucial benchmark for
22 testing how accurately numerical models are able to recreate past configurations of the Greenland Ice Sheet.

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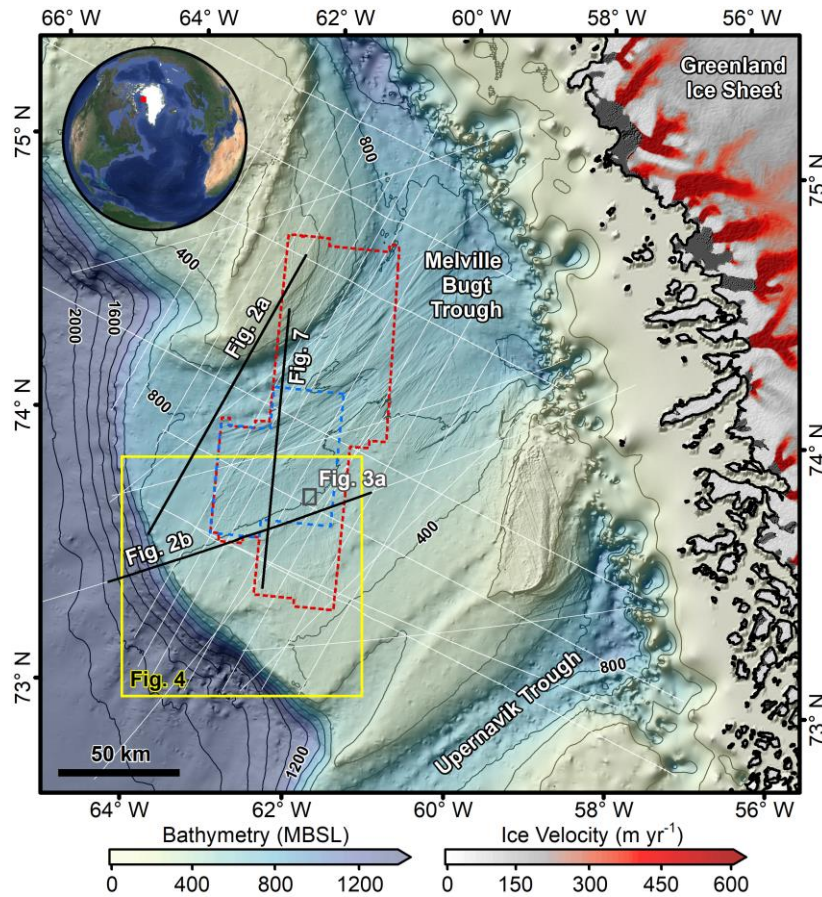
24 **1. Introduction**

25 The northwest sector of the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) is currently experiencing some of the largest mass losses
26 across the ice sheet (Mouginot et al., 2019). During the Pleistocene the northwest sector has also been shown to
27 have experienced major changes in ice margin extent through multiple glacial-interglacial cycles (Knutz et al.,
28 2019). To better project the future evolution of the northwest Greenland ice sheet, and the GrIS as a whole, requires
29 the reconstruction of past configurations of the ice sheet, the role and evolution through time of its ice streams, and
30 an understanding of how the antecedent and evolving topography impacted ice flow patterns during past glacial
31 stages. Typically, reconstruction involves using fragmented geological records to constrain or test numerical ice
32 sheet models that attempt to map spatiotemporal changes in ice sheet extent and the dominant processes as the
33 climate evolves across multiple glacial-interglacial cycles (Solgaard et al., 2011; Tan et al., 2018). Improving and
34 building upon that fragmented geological record is, therefore, of considerable importance for helping to improve
35 and calibrate these models – i.e. if models can accurately reconstruct the past, then we can have more confidence
36 in what they project for the future.

37 Although much of the past offshore extent of the GrIS and its retreat is poorly resolved (Funder et al., 2011;
38 Vasskog et al., 2015), there are some areas, such as the Uummannaq and Disko Troughs in the west and the
39 Kangerlussuaq, Westwind, and Norske Troughs in the east and northeast of Greenland, that have been surveyed.
40 Geophysical data and shallow marine cores have been used to document landforms from the Last Glacial Maximum
41 (LGM) on the continental shelf, deglacial ages, and retreat styles – with retreat often punctuated by Younger Dryas
42 stillstands and an intricate relationship between calving margins and ocean currents (Arndt et al., 2017; Dowdeswell
43 et al., 2010; Hogan et al., 2016; Jennings et al., 2014; Sheldon et al., 2016). Seismic reflection data have been used
44 to explore evidence of older glaciations and show that the GrIS repeatedly advanced and retreated across the
45 continental shelves of west and east Greenland through much of the late Pliocene and Pleistocene (Hofmann et al.,
46 2016; Knutz et al., 2019; Laberg et al., 2007; Pérez et al., 2018). These seismic data show that GrIS extent has
47 varied by 100s km throughout the Pleistocene and offers additional constraining observations to borehole and
48 outcrop data that provide conflicting evidence that Greenland could have been nearly ice-free or persistently ice-
49 covered for parts of the Pleistocene (Bierman et al., 2016; Schaefer et al., 2016).

50 To help understand long-term climatic changes, especially those associated with ice streams during glacial maxima,
51 landforms observed on palaeo-seafloor surfaces mapped from 3D seismic data can provide information on past ice

52 sheet geometries and ice streaming locations. Landforms can be observed on surfaces preserved within trough-
 53 mouth fans (TMFs), typically deposited on the middle and upper continental slope, or on palaeo-shelf layers buried
 54 on the middle and outer continental shelf that built out as the TMF prograded (Ó Cofaigh et al., 2003). Here, for
 55 the first time offshore Greenland, buried glacial landforms preserved on palaeo-shelves are documented using 3D
 56 seismic reflection data from Melville Bugt (Fig. 1). Whilst ice streams are thought to have been present in Melville
 57 Bugt since ~2.7 Ma (Knutz et al., 2019), these landforms provide new, direct, and detailed evidence of ice flow
 58 pathways for six episodes of ice stream advance onto the outer continental shelf of Melville Bugt since ~1.3 Ma.



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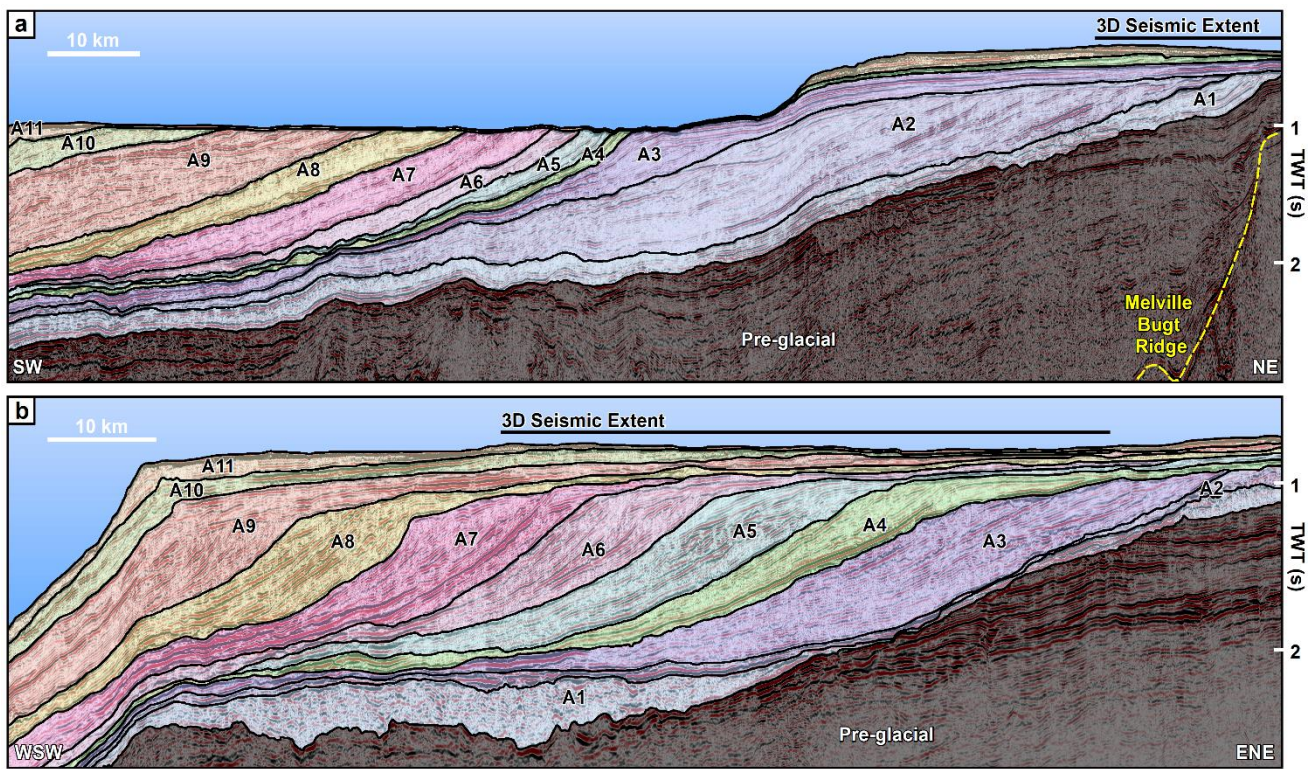
60 **Figure 1:** Seabed morphology and ice-flow velocity around the study area. The grey bathymetric contours are
 61 every 200 m and the blue/red dashed lines show the outline of the 3D seismic surveys (blue is a high resolution
 62 sub-crop of the original data that was reprocessed). The thin white lines show the locations of 2D seismic data.
 63 Mean ice velocity from MEaSURES (cf. Joughin et al., 2010) shows contemporary outlet glaciers flowing into
 64 northeastern Baffin Bay. Bathymetry combined from Jakobsson et al. (2012), Newton et al. (2017), and Knutz et
 65 al. (2019). Locations of other figures shown. All figures plotted in UTM Zone 21N.

66

67 2. Background

68 Ice streams are corridors of fast-flowing ice that can measure >20 km wide and 100s km long, with velocities >400-
69 500 m yr⁻¹ (Bennett, 2003). Both in the present and in the geological past, ice streams have been important conduits
70 for ice sheet mass redistribution and sediment delivery to ice sheet margins (Vorren and Laberg, 1997). Mega-scale
71 glacial lineations (MSGL) are elongated landforms (typically 1-10 km long) that form by the streamlining (Clark
72 et al., 2003) or accretion of subglacial sediments (Spagnolo et al., 2016) beneath fast-flowing ice (Clark, 1993).
73 This association is supported by observations of similar MSGL features beneath the present-day Rutford Ice Stream
74 in West Antarctica (King et al., 2009). MSGL thought to date to the LGM have been observed on the present-day
75 seafloor of the Melville Bugt study area (Fig. 1) and typically measure 4–6 km long, 100–200 m wide, and 10–20
76 m high (Newton et al., 2017; Slabon et al., 2016). The MSGL on the outermost continental shelf show that fast-
77 flowing ice occupied the Melville Bugt Trough and reached the shelf edge, before retreating and experiencing
78 changes in ice flow pathways, as is indicated by cross-cutting MSGL on the middle continental shelf (Newton et
79 al., 2017).

80 The glacial stratigraphy in Melville Bugt (Fig. 1) extends across an area of ~50,000 km² and measures up to ~2 km
81 thick. The succession records advance and retreat of the northwest GrIS across the continental shelf multiple times
82 since ~2.7 Ma and is subdivided into 11 major prograding units separated by regional unconformities (Knutz et al.,
83 2019). The stratigraphy is partly age-constrained by a number of dates extracted from microfossil (~2.7 Ma) and
84 palaeomagnetic data (~1.8 Ma) (Christ et al., 2020; Knutz et al., 2019). These dates suggest that whilst sediment
85 accumulation likely varied over orbital and sub-orbital timescales, over periods longer than this (0.5-1.0 Myr) it
86 did not change substantially and was grossly linear through time since glacial deposition began (Knutz et al.,
87 2019). In the northern part of the trough, topset preservation is limited due to more recent glacial erosion that has
88 cut into the substrate (Fig. 2a), whereas in the south there is better preservation of aggradational topset strata (Fig.
89 2b) – i.e. palaeo-shelves where buried landforms might be found.



90

91 **Figure 2:** Seismic cross-section profiles through the glacial successions. The fan comprises 11 seismic
 92 stratigraphic units bounded by glacial unconformities formed since ~2.7 Ma (Knutz et al., 2019). The tentative
 93 chronology from Knutz et al. (2019) suggests that the palaeo-seafloor surfaces preserved within units A7-A9 likely
 94 cover a time period from ~1.3-0.43 Ma. This time period captures much of the Middle Pleistocene (781-126 ka)
 95 and the transition into it from ~1.3 Ma. Locations of the lines are shown on Fig. 1. TWT is two-way-travel time.
 96 Interpreted and uninterpreted seismic lines are provided as supplementary material.

97

98 3. Methods

99 This study used industry 3D and 2D seismic reflection data from Melville Bugt, northwest Greenland (Fig. 1). The
 100 vertical resolution of the glacial successions is ~10-15 m and the horizontal resolution ~20-30 m – based on
 101 frequencies ~30-50 Hz and a sound velocity ~2-2.2 km s⁻¹. Horizons were picked from within the 3D seismic data
 102 as part of a seismic geomorphological analysis (Posamentier, 2004), and gridded as 25x25 m two-way-travel time
 103 surface maps – i.e. buried palaeo-seafloor maps. It is important to note that unlike traditional seafloor studies carried
 104 out on bathymetric data, these palaeo-seafloor surfaces will have subsided and compacted since being buried. This
 105 means that landform thicknesses likely represent a minimum estimate of their original morphology. Seismic
 106 attributes, including variance and Root-Mean Square (RMS) amplitude, were extracted across the surfaces to aid

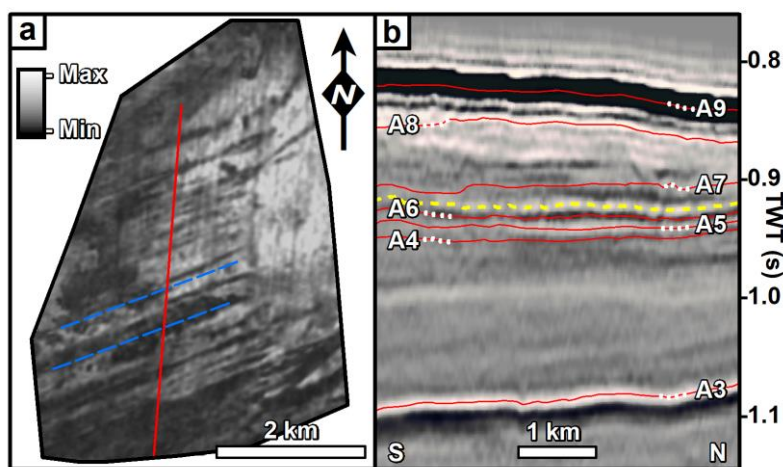
107 in visualising architectural elements and landforms. This study focused on identifying glacial landforms and used
 108 published examples to guide interpretation (e.g. Dowdeswell et al., 2016). Where possible, using the velocity model
 109 of Knutz et al. (2019), thickness maps were created for sub-units derived from deposits that were stratigraphically
 110 linked to surfaces containing glacial landforms – e.g. correlative slope deposits onlapping the profile of the
 111 glacially-influenced clinof orm reflection. These depocentre maps can be used to document where sediments have
 112 been eroded and deposited, providing insight into how depositional patterns may have changed in response to the
 113 evolution of ice streams pathways. In the absence of precise dating for each surface, the linear age model of Knutz
 114 et al. (2019) has been used to relatively date glacial landforms identified in the different prograding units.

115

116 4. Subglacial landforms

117 Seismic geomorphological analysis of topset strata imaged in the 3D data showed four sets of buried streamlined
 118 features 5-15 km long and 200-300 m wide (Fig. 3 and 4). The landforms are typically 10-15 m high and although
 119 they are close to vertical seismic resolution limits (meaning that cross-sectional profiles are subtle) they are best
 120 observed in planform using the RMS amplitude or hillshaded surfaces. The streamlined features display a parallel
 121 concordance, are confined to individual palaeo-shelf layers within separate stratigraphic units, and their trend cross-
 122 cuts acquisition lines obliquely (Fig. 3 and 4). These features are interpreted as MSGL due to their morphology
 123 (Spagnolo et al., 2014), and similarity to MSGL observed on the local seafloor (Newton et al., 2017) and buried on
 124 other margins (e.g. Andreassen et al., 2007; Dowdeswell et al., 2006; Montelli et al., 2017; Rea et al., 2018).

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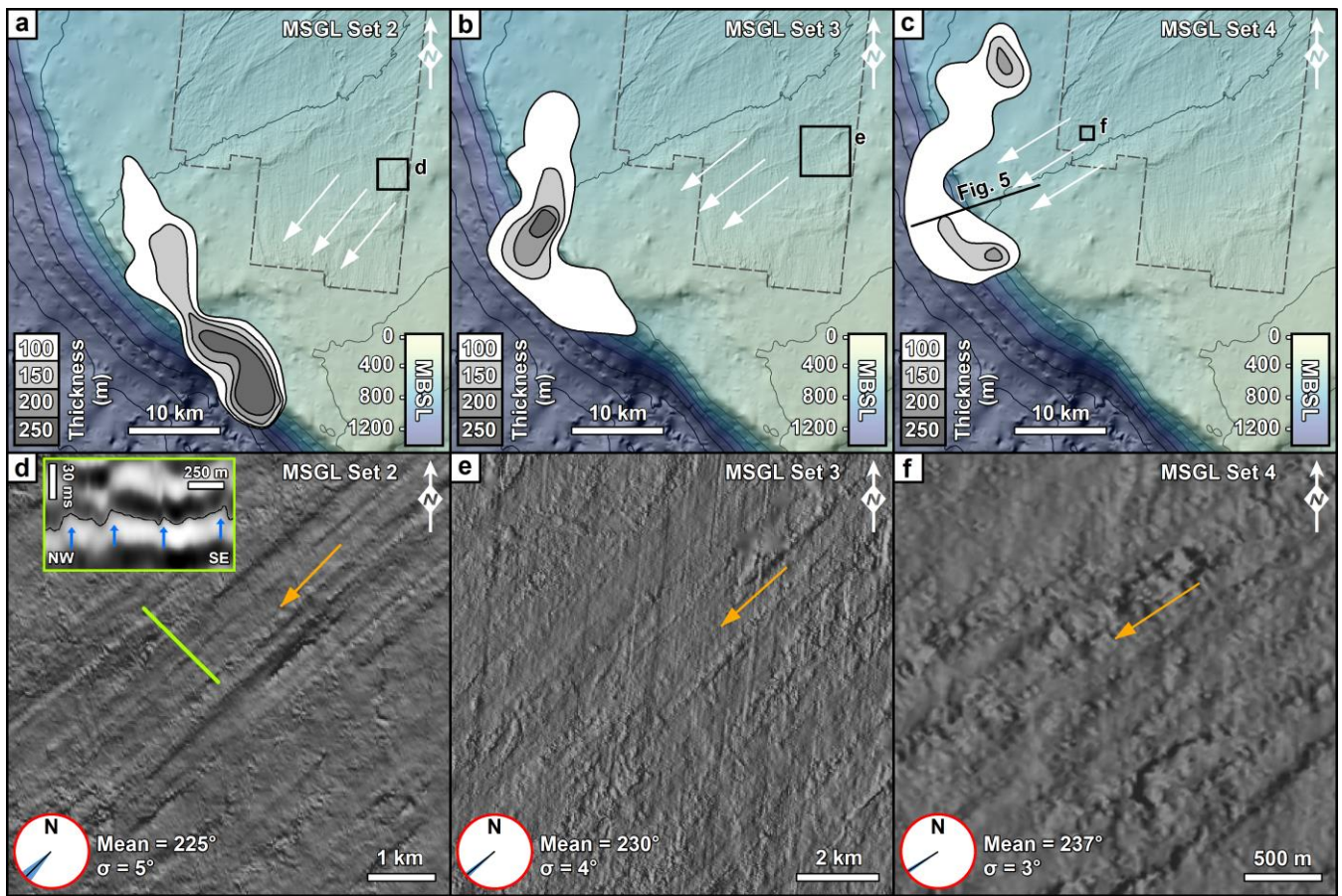
126 **Figure 3:** (a) MSGL set 1, the oldest example of mega-scale glacial lineations (blue dashed lines) displayed as an
 127 RMS image observed from 3D seismic reflection data and within unit A7 (b). The colour bar shows the maximum

128 and minimum RMS values. Note that this surface is only partially preserved due to subsequent glacial erosion. For
129 location see Fig. 1. **(b)** Seismic cross-section profile showing the stratigraphic position (dashed yellow line) of the
130 surface imaged in (a). The red lines show the top surface of each unit in the glacial successions and the dashed
131 white lines are to help differentiate the labels to surfaces in this condensed stratigraphy. The location of the cross-
132 section profile is shown by the red line on (a). Interpreted and uninterpreted seismic lines are provided as
133 supplementary material.

134

135 MSGL set 1 is the oldest and is observed with an orientation of 254° on a partially-preserved surface in the lowest
136 part of a condensed section of unit A7 (~1.3-1.05 Ma) (Fig. 3). It was not possible to confidently determine
137 correlative slope deposits and the associated depocentre due to the limited spatial extent of their preservation.
138 Rising through the stratigraphy, MSGL set 2 is observed in the upper part of unit A8 (~1.05-0.65 Ma) (Fig. 4a, d)
139 and the associated depocentre is located in the southwestern part of the study area and measures up to 250 m thick.
140 All of the sub-unit depocentres show sediment thicknesses greater than 100 m and have been mapped from the
141 slope deposits that are correlative to the adjacent palaeo-shelves. The slope deposits are typically comprised of
142 onlapping chaotic seismic packages interpreted as stacked glacial debris (Fig. 5) (Vorren et al., 1989). MSGL
143 set 2 has an average compass bearing of 225° ($\sigma = 5^\circ$) that aligns well with the maximum depocentre thickness
144 (Fig. 4a). MSGL sets 3 and 4 are observed on separate surfaces preserved within the topset strata of unit A9 (~0.65-
145 0.45 Ma) (Fig. 4b, c, e, f,) and their bearings show a gradual transition to 237° from the 225° observed in unit A8
146 (Fig. 6).

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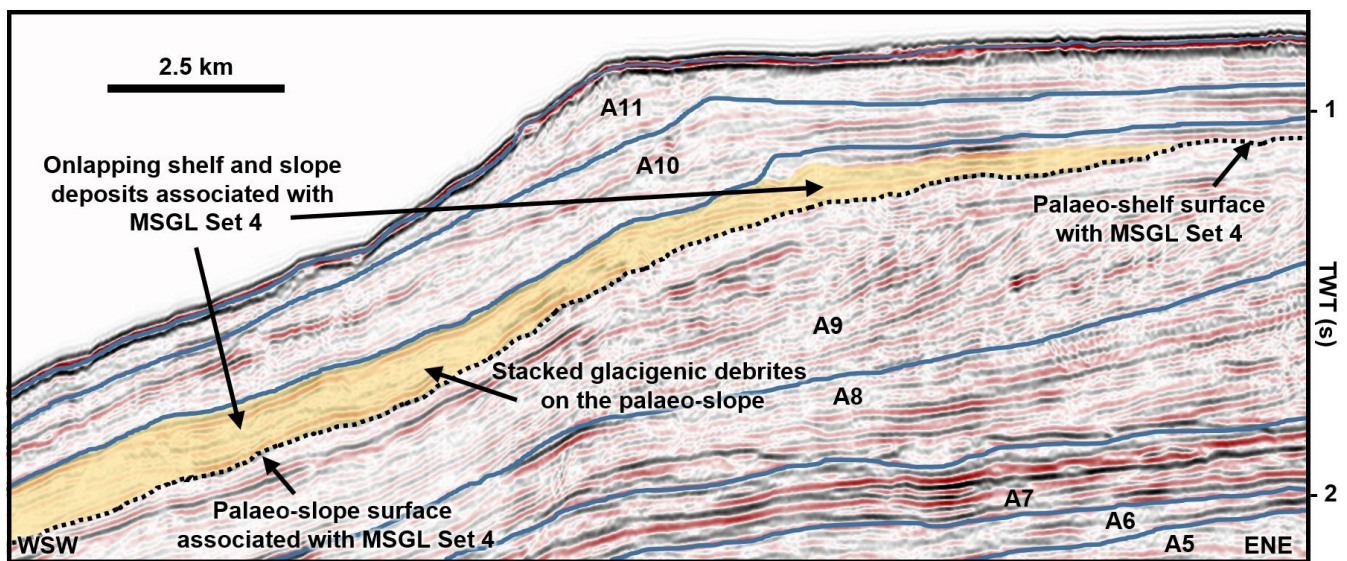
149 **Figure 4:** Buried MSGL and associated TMF thickness maps. Panels (a) to (c) show the geographic location of
 150 MSGL sets 2-4 which are displayed as hillshade images on panels (d) to (f). The dashed grey line on (a) to (c) is
 151 the 3D seismic survey outline overlain on the contemporary seafloor, the white arrows show the inferred ice flow
 152 direction from the MSGL, and the contoured outlines show the thickness of the sedimentary deposit associated
 153 with MSGL sets 2-4. Orange arrows on panels (d) to (f) show the inferred ice flow direction. On panel (d) the green
 154 line displays the location of the inset cross-section profile of the MSGL. Blue arrows point to the mounded features
 155 visible on the hillshade image. The red circles in (d) to (f) display average MSGL compass bearings (black line)
 156 and the standard deviation (blue fan beneath) for each panel. Location of panels (a) to (c) shown on Fig. 1. The
 157 relative ages and stratigraphic positions of each MSGL set are discussed in the text and labelled on Fig. 6.

158

159 Although the 3D seismic data do not cover the distal part of the succession, by using examples of MSGL that have
 160 been observed in 3D (Fig. 3, 4), the 2D seismic data were investigated for similar cross-sectional features. In unit
 161 A10 (~0.45-0.35 Ma) a reflection on the outer continental shelf shows a similar corrugated morphology, with
 162 heights of 10-15 m and widths of 200-300 m, to the MSGL pattern observed in the 3D data (Fig. 6b). The MSGL

163 documented in the 3D data also show that ice previously flowed towards this general area (Fig. 6c). The
164 interpretation of the corrugated features as MSGL set 5 is less robust due to the lack of 3D data and whilst it is not
165 possible to unequivocally rule out that these features are something else, such as iceberg scours, an interpretation
166 of MSGL is supported by the location of these features in topset strata above the glacial unconformity that marks
167 the top of unit A9, suggesting the presence of grounded and erosive ice on the outer continental shelf, conditions
168 generally associated with MSGL formation.

169 The final set of MSGL (set 6) is observed in unit A11 (~0.35-0 Ma) on the seafloor and provides evidence for a
170 grounded ice stream on the outer continental shelf at the LGM (Newton et al., 2017) (Fig. 6c). These MSGL show
171 cross-cutting evidence that allow for changes in ice flow patterns to be deduced. The oldest MSGL on the seafloor
172 suggest an ice flow towards the west-southwest that is parallel to the axis of the trough, whilst the younger MSGL
173 (i.e. those which cross-cut the older MSGL) show an ice flow toward the south-southwest, suggesting a change in
174 ice flow during deglaciation (Newton et al., 2017).



175
176 **Figure 5:** Seismic cross-section profile showing the main glacial units and the palaeo-shelf surface (dotted line)
177 where MSGL set 4 is observed. Onlapping and stacked debrite packages are interpreted to be genetically linked to
178 deposition caused by the ice stream that formed this set of MSGL and are used as an indicator of the broad
179 depositional patterns displayed in Fig. 4c. Line location is shown on Fig. 4c. Interpreted and uninterpreted seismic
180 lines are provided as supplementary material.

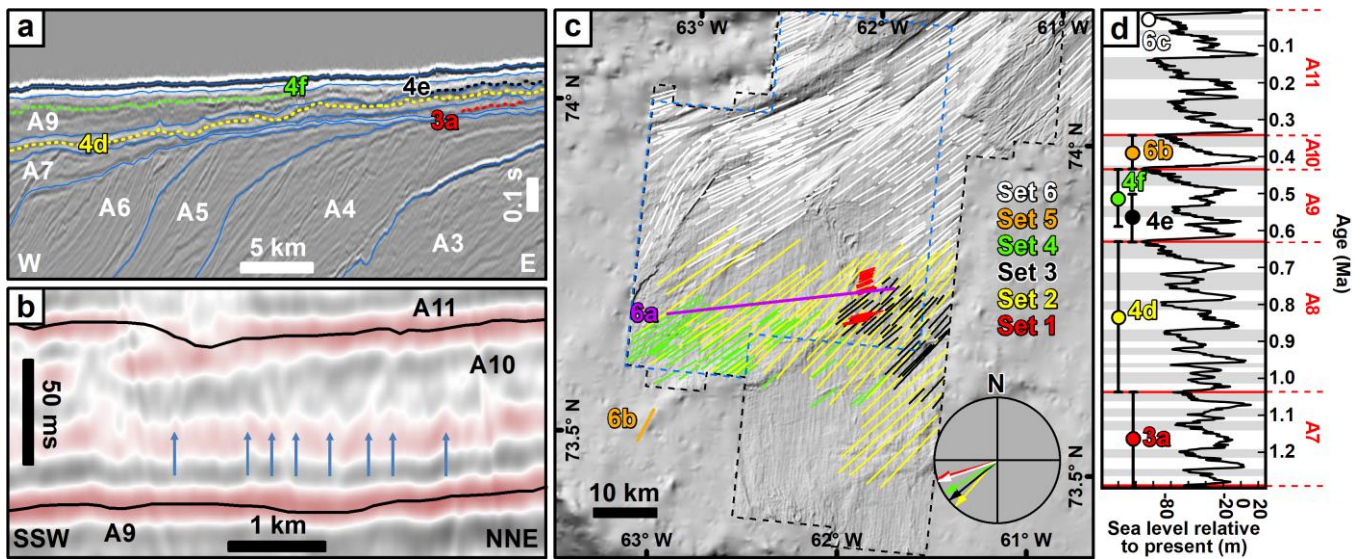
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183 The previous lack of 3D seismic data coverage means that prior to this study, ice stream landforms have not been
184 observed for glacials preceding the LGM on the Greenland margin. Information on past ice flow patterns has,
185 therefore, relied upon broad inferences from depocentre locations – i.e. areas where large volumes of sediment are
186 associated with the general pathway of ice streams. Using the new seismic data, six sets of ice stream landforms
187 have been documented – one on the seafloor, four buried surfaces imaged in 3D, and one captured in the 2D seismic.
188 The MSGL sets provide evidence for multiple ice streaming events on the northwest Greenland continental shelf
189 prior to, and including, the LGM. Limited chronological constraints are currently available to determine exact
190 timings, but the available chronology suggests these features formed during six glacial stages after ~1.3 Ma (Knutz
191 et al., 2019). Although no older MSGL have been imaged on palaeo-shelves captured in the available 3D seismic
192 data, ice streams are inferred to have operated in the area prior to ~1.3 Ma, based on the large volumes of sediment
193 delivered to the margin (Knutz et al., 2019). It is noteworthy that the first observations of MSGL occur at the onset
194 of a major change in the depositional patterns of the Melville Bugt and Upernavik TMFs. Unit A7 was deposited
195 when the Melville Bugt and Upernavik TMFs combined to form an elongate depocentre up to 1 km thick. During
196 the subsequent deposition of unit A8 the TMFs separated into discrete depocentres up to 700 m thick, signalling a
197 possible reorganisation in ice flow in the region (Knutz et al., 2019). The reasons for this change are unresolved,
198 but modification of the submarine topography brought about by glacigenic deposition and erosion, such as
199 presented here, may have forced adjustments in the ice sheet flow on the outer continental shelf due to changes in
200 available accommodation.

201 Switches in ice stream pathways on continental shelves between different glacial maxima have been observed on
202 the mid-Norwegian margin, where new cross-shelf troughs were formed through the erosive action of ice
203 (Dowdeswell et al., 2006). In contrast to the mid-Norwegian margin, the available data in Melville Bugt does not
204 show evidence of buried cross-shelf troughs. The observations show changes in ice stream pathways that appear to
205 have occurred more gradually between each MSGL set but remained focused within the confines of the pre-existing
206 trough. The longevity of the Northern Bank and the significant overdeepening of the inner trough (cf. Newton et
207 al., 2017) likely provided consistent topographic steering of ice streams on the inner continental shelf. On the outer
208 continental shelf, deposition during the preceding glacial stage likely forced gradual ice stream migration northward
209 due to this deposition reducing the available accommodation for subsequent glacial stages (Fig. 7). Thickness maps
210 associated with MSGL sets 2-4 demonstrate this gradual, rather than extreme, shift in ice stream drainage pathways

211 that is supported by 5-6° shifts in the mean orientation of each MSGL set from 225° during unit A8 time, to 237°
212 during unit A9 (Fig. 4). This shift continued at the LGM where the majority of MSGL on the outer continental
213 shelf – except for some cross-cutting related to deglaciation (Newton et al., 2017) – show a mean orientation of
214 ~248° (Fig. 6c).

215 The partial preservation of the different palaeo-shelves means ice margin fanning on the less topographically-
216 confined outer continental shelf cannot be definitively ruled out as an explanation for differing MSGL orientations.
217 However, the observed metrics and depocentre migration provide complementary evidence that this was in
218 response to a gradual migration of the main ice stream flow pathway – i.e. ice flow pathways gradually moved
219 northward in a clockwise pattern from unit A8 onwards (~1 Ma). The gradual shift northward of the main ice stream
220 pathway and its associated erosion meant that topset deposits in the south, with each passing glacial stage, were
221 increasingly less impacted by the ice stream erosion and therefore the landforms that they contained had a better
222 chance of being preserved through subsequent glacial stages. The Melville Bugt Trough is the widest in Greenland
223 (Newton et al., 2017) and it is possible that the preservation of these topsets is a consequence of this. The
224 preservation suggests that whilst the main palaeo-ice stream trunks associated with each glacial stage were
225 accommodated within the broad confines of the trough, the fast-flowing and most erosive ice did not occupy its
226 full width – e.g. there are no MSGL present for the LGM (set 6) in the southern part of the trough. The northward
227 migration of the main ice stream pathway is also reflected by erosion and cutting into the deposits of the Northern
228 Bank (Fig. 7). Although ice stream margin fanning or changes in upstream ice sheet controls cannot be ruled out,
229 the gradual depocentre and MSGL migration suggests that deposition during successive glacial stages may have
230 been sufficient to bring about small changes in flow directions and subsequent depositional patterns. Future ice
231 sheet modelling can contribute to this discussion by exploring whether ice volume over northern Greenland would
232 have been sufficient to maintain ice flux if the ice streams occupied the full width of the Melville Bugt Trough. To
233 a lesser extent, it is possible that the Melville Bugt Ridge, an underlying tectonic structure which has previously
234 generated accommodation in the southern part of the basin through differential subsidence (Cox et al., 2020; Knutz
235 et al., 2019), could have contributed to reducing potential erosion of aggradational topsets by increasing palaeo-
236 water depths to the point where ice grounding was significantly reduced or removed.



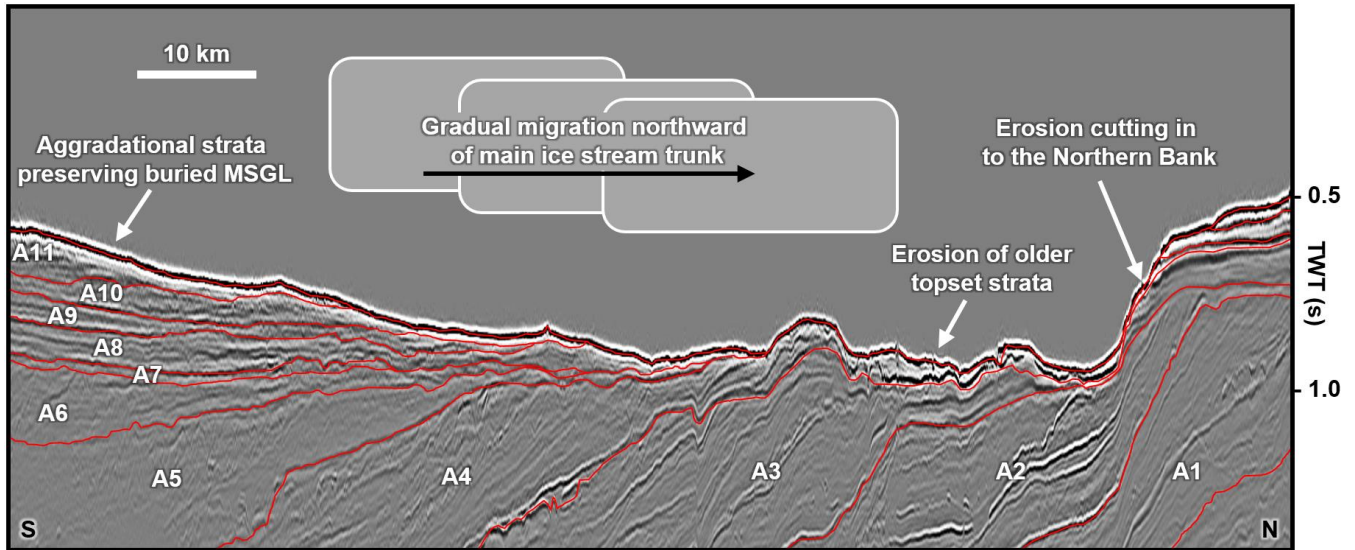
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238 **Figure 6:** (a) Seismic cross-section profile showing the stratigraphic location of the surfaces shown in Fig. 3 and
 239 4. The blue lines are the tops of the units shown on Fig. 2. The location of the line is shown on Fig. 6c. (b) Seismic
 240 cross-section profile from 2D seismic survey showing evidence for potential MSGL (blue arrows) in unit A10 on
 241 the outer continental shelf. Seismic line location is shown on Fig. 6c. (c) Digitized MSGL record from 3D seismic
 242 data. Set 6 represents the LGM record from Newton et al. (2017) and sets 1-5 from the current study. The compass
 243 shows the mean bearings for each set of MSGL with the exception of set 5 because it is not captured in 3D. (d)
 244 Possible age range for each MSGL surface observed within the glaciogenic units of Knutz et al. (2019) and compared
 245 against the global sea level record (Miller et al., 2011). Grey bands are glacial stages. Note that in all the panels,
 246 the surfaces (a), digitised MSGL (c), mean flow bearings (c), and labels (d) are colour-coded to ease cross-
 247 referencing. Interpreted and uninterpreted seismic lines are provided as supplementary material.

248

249 In the wider context of the whole GrIS, in east Greenland, sedimentological and geophysical evidence suggest that
 250 early in the Middle Pleistocene Transition (MPT - ~1.3 Ma to 0.7 Ma) ice advanced across the continental shelf
 251 (Laberg et al., 2018; Pérez et al., 2019), whilst offshore southern Greenland documentation of increased ice-rafted
 252 detritus suggests a similar ice advance (St. John and Krissek, 2002). MPT ice sheet expansions have been
 253 documented in the Barents Sea (Mattingsdal et al., 2014), on the mid-Norwegian margin (Newton and Huuse,
 254 2017), the North Sea (Rea et al., 2018), and in North America (Balco and Rovey, 2010), highlighting a response of
 255 all major Northern Hemisphere ice sheets to a currently unresolved climate forcing. Although ice streaming in
 256 Melville Bugt continued after the MPT and through to the latest Pleistocene, some studies from lower latitude areas

257 of west and east Greenland show reduced ice stream erosion and deposition at this time (Hofmann et al., 2016;
 258 Pérez et al., 2018), perhaps suggesting the high latitude locality of Melville Bugt or the overdeepened and
 259 bottlenecked geometry (topographic constraints) of the inner trough (Newton et al., 2017) helped promote
 260 conditions favourable for ice streaming.



261

262 **Figure 7:** Interpreted seismic strike cross-section profile across the continental shelf showing spatially variable
 263 preservation of topset deposits associated with the main depositional units. This variable preservation is thought to
 264 relate to the gradual migration of the ice stream away from the areas of higher topography that contain the
 265 aggradational strata. This northward migration of the ice stream pathways is also reflected by the erosion of the
 266 southern flank of the Northern Bank. Location of the line is shown on Fig. 1. Interpreted and uninterpreted seismic
 267 lines are provided as supplementary material.

268

269 The MSGL record presented here provides some additional insight into the contradictory records on the longevity
 270 of the GrIS. Schaefer et al. (2016) showed that cosmogenic signatures require ice-free periods during the
 271 Pleistocene and whilst these ice-free periods need not have occurred since 1.1 Ma, ice sheet loss could have
 272 occurred during or after the MPT. Ice stream evolution has been shown to have led to rapid ice sheet changes on
 273 other ancient ice sheets (Sejrup et al., 2016), and given that ~16% of the GrIS currently drains into Melville Bugt
 274 (Rignot and Mouginot, 2012) the ice streams documented here could have contributed to major changes in ice sheet
 275 organisation and extent – indeed, the numerical model used by Schaefer et al. (2016) requires the early loss of the
 276 northwest GrIS during ice sheet collapse. Fully resolving issues like this requires numerical ice sheet models that

277 are capable of reproducing fragmented geological evidence. For example, recent modelling exploring Pleistocene
278 climate evolution (Willeit et al., 2019) provides palaeo-geographic maps of ice sheet extent that do not capture the
279 ice sheet extent inferred from buried landform records on many glaciated margins (e.g. Rea et al., 2018), including
280 Melville Bugt. Thus, there is currently a mismatch between modelling outputs and landform records. If these
281 models are not able to recreate ice sheet extent, ice stream locations, and flow pathways that have been extracted
282 from the geological record then those models will require refinement before they can be used as a tool for projecting
283 future GrIS evolution. These potential discrepancies underline how geological records, such as those presented
284 here, provide crucial empirical constraints for modelling the GrIS across multiple glacial-interglacial cycles.

285

286 **6. Conclusions**

287 This study provides a seismic geomorphological analysis offshore northwest Greenland and documents, for the
288 first time, several sets of buried MSGL on the Greenland margin. The observation of different MSGL sets in
289 separate stratigraphic layers confirms the presence of fast-flowing ice streams during at least six glacial maxima
290 since the onset of the Middle Pleistocene Transition at ~1.3 Ma. These landform records show that grounded and
291 fast-flowing ice advanced across the continental shelf to the palaeo-shelf edge of northwest Greenland, with each
292 subsequent ice stream flow pathway being partly controlled by the deposits left behind by the ice streams that
293 preceded it. This represents a first spatio-temporal insight into sediment deposition and ice flow dynamics of
294 individual ice streams during glacial maxima since ~1.3 Ma in Melville Bugt. These results help to further
295 emphasise why northwest Greenland would be suitable for future ocean drilling that will help to elucidate ice sheet
296 and climate history of the region.

297

298 **Data availability**

299 The Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland or the authors should be contacted to discuss access to the raw
300 seismic reflection data.

301

302 **Author contribution**

303 AMWN carried out the seismic geomorphological study, drafted the figures, and wrote the initial text. All other
304 authors contributed to interpretation and manuscript preparation.

305

306 **Competing interests**

307 There are no competing interests to declare.

308

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