Quartz grain features in modern glacial and proglacial environments: 
A microscopic study from the Russell Glacier, southwest Greenland

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Abstract: It is assumed that close to the margins of ice-sheets, glacial, fluvial and aeolian processes overlap, and combined with weathering processes, produce numerous sediments, in which quartz is a common mineral. Quartz grains, if available, may serve as a powerful tool in determining the depositional history, transportation mode and postdepositional processes. However, quartz grain studies in some modern glacial areas are still sparse. In this study, we examine for the first time quartz grains sampled from the modern glacial and proglacial environments of the Russell Glacier, southwest Greenland in binocular microscope and scanning electron microscope, to analyze their shape, character of surface and microtextures. We debate whether the investigated quartz grains reveal glacial characteristics and to what extent they carry a signal of another transportation and sedimentary processes. Although glacial fracturing and abrasion occur in grain suites, most mechanical origin features are not of a high frequency or freshness, potentially suggesting a reduced shear stress in the glacier from its limited thickness and influence of the pressurized water at the ice-bed. In contrast, the signal that originates from the fluvial environment is much stronger derived by numerous aqueous-induced features present on quartz grain surfaces. Aeolian-induced microtextures on grain surfaces increase among the samples the closest to the ice margin, which may be due to enhanced aeolian activity, but are practically absent in sediments taken from the small
scale aeolian landforms. In contrast, aeolian grains have been found in the bigger-size (1.0–2.0 mm) investigated fraction. These grains gained the strongest aeolian abrasion, possibly due to changes in transportation mode.

Key words: Arctic, Greenland, modern glacial environment, quartz grains, scanning electron microscopy.

Introduction

Modern glacial environments provide insight into subglacial conditions and processes through its fresh sedimentological record (e.g. Knight 1997; Adam and Knight 2003; Cook et al. 2011). Such records can be obtained, for example, from sediments deposited during melt-out of former ice masses and further preserved close to the ice margin (e.g. Baltrunas et al. 2008). In these sediments, not only glacial record, but also signal of fluvial (Karlstrom and Yang 2016) and/or aeolian processes (Müller et al. 2016) may be expected.

Under cold-climate conditions, ice acts as a weathering and eroding agent, triggering rock disintegration and preferentially producing quartz grains (Schwamborn et al. 2012), except of areas, where quartz is not available. Quartz grains are highly resistant to weathering and thus remain in the sedimentary environment (Krinsley and Doornkamp 1973; Mahaney 2002) and may record sedimentary processes (Newsome and Ladd 1999; Moral Cardona et al. 2005; Konopinski et al. 2012; Vos et al. 2014), identify mode of transport (Kleesment 2009) or estimate duration of processes modeling the grains (Krinsley and Doornkamp 1973; Refaat and Hamdan 2015).

In this study, we examine grain shape, surface character and micromorphology (=microtexture) of quartz grains from the sand fraction of deposits around the Russell Glacier, South West Greenland (Fig. 1). This area is characterised by excellent landform preservation (Ten Brink 1975; Česnulevičius and Šeirienė 2009; Šinkūnas et al. 2009), and combined with its accessibility, make it ideal for a new quartz grain study. Our samples represent numerous settings (=landforms) such as sandur plain, dune/coversand, lake terrace, end moraine and many more, for more details see Table 1 and Figs. 1, 2. By using proxies that originate from these settings, which are closely related to the Russell Glacier, we provide an insight into sedimentary record of the modern glacial and proglacial environments and define sediment transformation under such conditions. We thus aim in answering the following research questions: (1) whether these quartz grains reveal glacial characteristic, and (2) what kind of other grain features (that may originate from any other sedimentary processes) does the grains exhibit?
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Study area

We focus our studies on the Kangerlussuaq-Russell Glacier area, South West Greenland, which represents the largest ice-free area in Greenland (Funder and Hansen 1996). In the Holocene, retreats of the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) margin were interrupted by numerous re-advances, which are evident from the moraine ridges as Fjord, Umîvît, Keglen and Ørkendalen with established geochronology (Carrivick et al. 2016). The Ørkendalen moraine system reflects one of the major glacial advance prior the Little Ice Age (LIA), which took place between 6400 and 7030 cal. years BP according to radiocarbon datings (Storms et al. 2012). The other possible advance could have culminated at ~2.0 cal. years BP (Forman et al. 2007), but further investigations are needed to support this statement (Storms et al. 2012). During the past 20 years, the mass balance of the GrIS is negative, and recent warming in the western part of the GrIS has increased melt extent, surface runoff and discharge (Van As et al. 2012).

The Archaean ortho-gneisses comprising the southern part of the Nagsugtoqidian Orogen are the main bedrock constituent of the Kangerlussuaq-Russell area (Van Gool et al. 2002). Bedrock depressions were glacially eroded, forming U-shaped valleys, and subsequently partially filled, usually with sandy till (Aaltonen et al. 2010). For example in the Sandflugtdalen study area (Fig. 1) 50–80 m thick sedimentary infill exists, represented by ice-contact, deltaic and glaciolacustrine deposits (Storms et al. 2012).
Table 1

Sample information including the sampling site with its location and geomorphological/sedimentological description.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE1</td>
<td>Embryonic dune</td>
<td>Sample from one of small-scale embryonal dunes in the distal part of sandur. Dunes have developed on the gently sloping hillslope and are associated with sparse vegetation cover (small grasses and shrubs).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE2</td>
<td>Coversands in distal sandur</td>
<td>Sample taken little further away from small-scale dune field, where the flat sandur surface is affected by wind forming coversands. Surface covered by wind ripples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE3</td>
<td>Distal sandur</td>
<td>Exposed coarse sand ripples near the active stream.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE4</td>
<td>Echo dune accumulated atop of scarp</td>
<td>Aeolian sands on a steep valley slope in middle part of sandur. Crystalline rocks (gneiss) are exposed at higher level, and sand seems to be blown directly on bedrock slope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE5</td>
<td>Middle sandur</td>
<td>Sand ripples in the middle sandur floodplain. Very sparse vegetation grows in some depressions between ripples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE6</td>
<td>Middle sandur</td>
<td>Exposed bar near to the main channel (active). Surface is covered by pebbles and cobbles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE7</td>
<td>Transition zone between middle and proximal sandur</td>
<td>Sample from horizontally bedded sand, where the main stream channel from the Russell glacier encounters braided streams from the Leverett glacier. Horizontally bedded sands are underlain by cross-bedded sands. Crystalline rocks constrain channel from sides.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE8</td>
<td>Proximal sandur</td>
<td>Proximal sandur 400 m from Russell margin. Sample from the floodplain near main channel. Little Ice Age end moraine is located at the opposite bank. Sand and gravel occur between large boulders and are reworked by wind action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE9</td>
<td>Flood channel</td>
<td>Sample from relict channel near the margin of the Russel glacier. Proglacial stream has eroded large niche in the steep ice margin. Course material with boulders is exposed at the channel bed, and fallen icebergs can be found closer to ice margin.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE11</td>
<td>Aeolian cover on end moraine</td>
<td>Fine sand sediments taken form terrace-like surface on the middle part of end moraine at the ice margin (see CE12 description). Sediments are apparently aeolian origin and overlie till up to few tens of centimetres in thickness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE12</td>
<td>End moraine</td>
<td>Sandy till sediments from the middle part of the end moraine that fit close to the hillslope. Possibly melt-out till sediments are found on the hillslope up to 40 m higher that present ice surface. The upper part of the moraine most likely represents Little Ice Age End moraine, while the lower part is ice-cored and active hillslope processes are occurring. Sample is taken 20 m away from ice margin.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Our fieldwork took place in two areas. The first locates between Isunnguata Sermia Glacier, representing the deepest subglacial trough system (Lindbäck et al. 2014), and the Russell Glacier (Fig. 1). Here, several settings as a lake terrace, shoreline, delta, hillslope, along with ice surface and end-moraine, occur and these landforms were observed and sampled (see Fig. 2 for details). Wind-blown silt covers end moraines on some terrace-like surfaces close to the ice margin, and ice surface itself is very dark and covered by dust, although light-coloured linear and very shallow channels stretches across the ice surface suggesting fluvial reworking of mineral particles.

The second area is along the Sandflugtdalen sandur (Figs. 1 and 2) that fills the northern branch of the valley basin, stretching a distance of 25 km between the terminus of the Kangerlussuaq Fjord (Søndre Strømfjord) and the GrIS margin (Storms et al. 2012). This sandur is fed by the proglacial streams of the Russell
Fig. 2. Examples of sampled settings. (A) Embryonic dune; (B) Distal sandur (sand ripples); (C) Middle sandur (exposed bar); (D) Middle sandur (sand ripples); (E) Proximal sandur (floodplain near main channel); (F) End moraine and aeolian cover on it; (G) Flood channel; (H) Lake terrace.

White circles show sampling locations.
and Leverett glaciers, and drained by the Watson River, in which catastrophic Jökulhlaup events are recorded (Russell 2007, 2009; Česnulevičius et al. 2009; Russell et al. 2011) with a frequency of every 2–3 years between the 1950s and 1987 (Russell 1989). The area related with the Sandflugtdalen sandur provides an opportunity not only to study sand grains from different sandur zones, but to estimate aeolian impact, because the floodplain is characterised by enhanced wind activity and formation of small-scale dunes. The aeolian silt covers also valley slope in middle part of sandur and nearby hilltops and slopes as well, where crystalline bedrock (gneisses) is not exposed.

The Kangerlussuaq area, situated in the rainshadow of the Sukertoppen icecap, receives annual precipitation average of 150 mm/y (Engels and Helmens 2010). Annual mean temperature at Kangerlussuaq airport is -5.7°C as measured in 1973–99 period (Cappelen et al. 2001). Since the beginning of 1990s, the air temperature has increased by 2–3°C, however, the mean annual air temperature is still below -4°C (Jørgensen and Andreasen 2007). Mean wind speed at 2 m above ground level is 3.6 m/s (years 1985–99; Cappelen et al. 2001). Due to the aforementioned conditions, this area may be regarded as a polar desert. Since the study area is directly linked to the ice, it is probably drier and colder and more influenced by winds (see also Müller et al. 2016).

The investigated area is located in the southern part of the continuous permafrost zone, which close to the ice margin reaches up to 350–400 m in thickness (Liljedahl et al. 2016). This has resulted in numerous periglacial features in lowlands, such as patterned ground, hummocks and ice-wedges, erratics with honeycomb weathering and occurrence of loess (Aaltonen et al. 2010).

Methods

Fieldwork was carried out in June and August 2016, when eighteen sediments samples were taken from numerous landforms (Fig. 2, Table 1). These samples were collected in plastic bags and further oven dried at 105°C. Around 100–150 g of subsamples were mechanically sieved for 15 min according to recommendation of Román-Sierra et al. (2013). Two sand fractions (0.5–1.0 mm and 1.0–2.0 mm) were picked up, etched in HCl to remove possible carbonates and thoroughly washed.

To analyze both the degree of quartz grain rounding and the type of surface, a binocular microscope with magnification of 40x was used, and ca. 100 (the first method below) as well as ca. 50 quartz grains (the second method) were analysed. We employed two methods: (1) following Cailleux (1942) and modified by Mycielska-Dowgiało and Woronko (1998) for the 0.5–1.0 mm fraction, and (2) after Velichko
and Timirieva (1995) for the 1.0–2.0 mm fraction. Both methods combine few classes of roundness (well-rounded, moderately rounded and non-abraded in the first method; classes 0 to IV, where 0 – non-abraded and IV – rounded in the second method) with few classes of grain surface (matt, shiny in the first method; shiny, quarter-matt, half-matt and matt in the second method). Finally, a roundness (Q) and dullness ($F_m$) coefficients were calculated following the formulas proposed by Velichko and Timirieva (1995). Although larger (>0.5 mm) particles may be pushed or rolled along the surface rather than saltated (Nickling and McKenna Neuman 2009), wind action is best visible in grain ~0.7 mm (Cailleux 1952).

A total of 100 grains, belonging to 5 samples (20 grains per sample), were randomly selected and prepared for analyses by scanning electron microscope (SEM). We use Hitachi FE-SEM S-4800 at the University of Latvia and Zeiss EVO MA 15 at University of Tartu. The samples represent the following settings: (1) embryonic dune (sample CE1), (2) coversand (sample CE2), (3) proximal part of sandur (sample CE8), (4) end moraine setting from the Little Ice Age (sample CE12), and (5) supraglacial debris (sample CE13). We considered these samples as giving an overall picture of the study area. Grains were positioned in rows onto a double-sided carbon tape on top of a SEM holder and gold-coated. Grains were imaged with ca. 100x magnification to determine roundness (rounded, subangular, angular), relief of grains and their general outline, and ca. 300–1200x magnification to determine presence of microtextures. The microtexture classification followed the proposal of Mahaney (2002) with supplementations taken from an earlier study by Goudie and Bull (1984). Raw data is available in Table 3. Partially following the methods of Vos et al. (2014), the types of microtextures, as of mechanical, chemical and combined origin, together with a general grain outline have been semi-quantified based upon their occurrence (= frequency distribution, in which the statistics are based on the number of grains exhibiting a specific microtexture within a sample) as abundant (>75%), common (50–74%), medium (26–49%), sparse (6–25%), rare (<5%) and not observed. Finally, we grouped microtextures of mechanical origin as high-stress, percussion and polygenic features (Sweet and Soreghan 2010), and further calculated the ratio of fluvially to glacially induced microtextures (F/G) according to proposal of Sweet and Brannan (2016).

**Results**

**Quartz grain roundness and type of surface according the Cailleux’s analyses.** — Under the binocular magnification, fresh grains with sharp edges and shiny surface (=non-abraded) are important constituents in most of the investigated samples (Fig. 3) with the highest value of 78% in the D6S sample, which represents aeolian cover on a hillslope (Table 1). Grains with sharp edges are followed in the investigated samples by roughly equal percentages of moderately rounded grains
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with shiny surface (5–27%), moderately rounded grains with matt surface (3–27%) and cracked grains, which lack at least 30% of their original surface (6–25%).

In three sediment samples taken from the distal part of sandur, cover sand and echo dune (CE3, CE2 and CE4, respectively) moderately rounded shiny grains are as high as 34–37% (Fig. 3). Moderately rounded grains with matt surface prevail in two samples: in the supraglacial debris (sample CE13; 46%) and sediment from the lake shoreline (sample D8S; 38%). In the latter, fresh and cracked grains occur (26% and 18%, respectively; Fig. 3). In contrast, in the supraglacial debris cracked grains predominate at 33%, followed by fresh grains at 18%.

Quartz grain roundness and type of surface according the Velichko’s and Timirieva’s analyses. — The 1.0–2.0 mm fraction is dominated by shiny quartz grains with the lowest degree (the zero and the first classes) of roundness (between 0% and 32%, and 0–60%, respectively; Fig. 4). Quarter-matt grains from the first class of roundness vary between 0% and 42%. Such grain combination equate to relatively low mattness ($F_m$) and roundness (Q) coefficients, which vary between 2% (samples CE6 and CE8) and 24% (sample CE4), and between 11% (sample CE8) and 28% (sample CE2), respectively (Table 2). However,
samples representing sediments from the lake terrace (D7S) and lake shoreline (D8S), and supraglacial debris (CE13) reveal a $F_m$ value up to 35%, indicating that matt grains from the second and third roundness classes prevail. Up to 10% of well-rounded (the IV roundness class) matt grains have been observed in the sandur setting from its distal part (sample CE2).

**Quartz grain roundness and surface microtextures in the SEM.** — Most grains investigated in the SEM are subrounded either with a number of edge rounding (Figs. 5 and 6A; Table 3), or associated with both edge rounding and big conchoidal features (Figs. 5 and 6B). This latter type of grain may correlate to the cracked grains utilizing the Cailleux’s methodology. In contrast, angular (Fig. 6C) and rounded grains occur sparsely, rarely or have not been found (Fig. 5). Either medium (Figs. 5 and 6D; Table 3) or low grain relief (Figs. 5 and 6E; Table 3) prevail. In contrast, high relief is either sparse (Fig. 6F) or not observed.

Among mechanical microtextures, the most popular are big- and medium-size conchoidal features (Figs. 7A and B, respectively), which occur either abundantly or commonly. Small-size conchoidal features are also present (Fig. 6B). These conchoidals are almost always accompanied with numerous arcuate (Fig. 7C)
or straight steps (Fig. 7D). Dulled surface is abundant on grains from the CE13 sample (82%; Fig. 7E) and associated with the V-shaped percussion cracks (35%; Fig. 7F). In general, meandering ridges, breakage blocks, straight/curved grooves and crescentic marks occur sparsely, rarely or were not observed (Figs 5, 8A, B, C, respectively). Chattermarks are also sparse (samples CE2 and CE8; Fig. 8D). Importantly, some of the mechanical microfeatures seem to be “old” and overprinted i.e. by adhering particles (Fig. 7F) and precipitation (Fig. 8E), which likely occurs in all depressions (Fig. 8E). Grains with solution pits and crevasses (Fig. 8F) reveal wide variety of occurrence (Fig. 5).

The group of mechanical microtextures of polygenetic origin dominates in all investigated samples and vary between 61% and 73% (Table 2). The second most common are percussion microtextures, whereas the high stress features stay in the minority (2–4%). Fluvially induced microtextures dominate significantly over glacially induced. This is apparent from the F/G ratio, which differs between 2 and 5 (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample no.</th>
<th>Roundness coefficient (Q)</th>
<th>Mattness coefficient (Fm)</th>
<th>Polygenic features [%]</th>
<th>Percussion features [%]</th>
<th>High-stress features [%]</th>
<th>F/G ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CE1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
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</tr>
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<td>CE7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<td>–</td>
</tr>
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<td>CE8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>CE9</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>–</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>CE12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>CE13</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>CE14</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>D6S</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D7S</td>
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<td>29</td>
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<td>–</td>
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<tr>
<td>D8S</td>
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<td>35</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

– not analysed

Table 2
Selected results of the quartz grain roundness and dulness, and microtextures on its surface. F/G ratio refers to fluvially (F) and glacially (G) induced microtextures.
Discussion

Our results reveal that three potential sedimentary environments (glacial, fluvial and aeolian) may have contributed in deposition of debris related to the Russell Glacier and its meltwaters (Fig. 9). We discuss these potentials in the following sections.

**Glacial environment.** — Since the study area has experienced at least five glacial episodes in the Holocene (Carrivick et al. 2016), we expected grain outline associated with ice action, where grain-to-grain contact along existing shear planes can result in one grain stylizing microtexture onto another grain (Sweet and Brannan 2016). Glacial erosion acts, therefore, either by fracturing or abrasion (Whalley and Langway 1978), and thus producing grains of high angularity or, conversely, with a different level of abrasion (Mahaney et al. 1996; Hart 2006). This study shows that glacial-driven grains are certainly present (Fig. 8), because most our samples, observed in the binocular, shows a combination of (1) angular, which may correspond with the shiny and quarter-
matt grains from the class 0 in the 1.0–2.0 mm fraction; (2) cracked, which partially represents the shiny/quarter-matt grains from the II class; and (3) shiny with different degree of rounding grains, i.e. shiny and quarter-matt from the I–IV classes, however the I class dominates. Contrary to the observation of Muzińska (2015), we have not noted predominance of so called “other” quartz grains with surfaces of intense precipitation and etching formed due to chemical weathering (Woronko et al. 2015a). Such grains are practically absent at the field area; however, precipitation itself has been observed all across the grain surfaces in the SEM imagery, and may result from glacial conditions (see below).

Binocular observations of two different sized sandy fractions by two binocular methods likely coincide with each other; shiny grains with relatively low roundness (non-abraded) prevail in the 0.5–1.0 mm fraction and shiny (and quarter-matt) grains from the 0 and the I classes dominate in the 1.0–2.0 mm fraction. However, the general grain-shape properties in both the binocular and the SEM observations slightly differ. Grains with a number of conchoidal features
of different size dominate in the SEM, but also most of these grains exhibit bulbous edges, which classify as subangular grains. Therefore, it seems that bulbous edges are visible only under the SEM, and under weaker binocular’s magnification these grains resemble a non-abraded wear.

Apparent from the SEM imagery is that most of grains carry either medium or low relief (Fig. 5; Table 3). This is in contrast with the high relief, which belongs to the most recognisable glacial features (Immonen 2013) among microtextures caused by high-pressure fracturing during glacial transport such as straight and curve grooves, and chattermarks (Mahaney and Kalm 1995; Mahaney 2002; Mahaney et al. 2004; Sweet and Soreghan 2010; Kirshner and Anderson 2011; Vos et al. 2014; Mazumder et al. 2017). Analysed grains, due to their minor fracturing (see high stress features in Table 2) and medium/low relief (Fig. 5), may record scenarios as proposed by Mahaney and Kalm (1995).
Table 3

Number of investigated grains per sample along with number of grains that exhibit the microtexture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>CE1</th>
<th>CE2</th>
<th>CE8</th>
<th>CE12</th>
<th>CE13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conchoidal (&lt;10 μm)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conchoidal (&lt;100 μm)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>Conchoidal (&gt;100 μm)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chattemarks</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arcuate steps</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
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and Shrivastava et al. (2012). In the first scenario, grains were incorporated to the glacier from non-glacial source; whereas, in the second scenario, grains solely experienced glacial transported over a short distance. These two schemes may also be proposed for other grain mechanical features, such as step microtextures, which are produced both in the fluvial (Udayaganesan et al. 2011) and glacial environments (Strand et al. 2003). This combination implies that grains may be derived from the crystalline source rocks (Madhavaraju et al. 2006), or indicate sediment short transportation and rapid deposition (Gobala Krishnan et al. 2015). Following this knowledge, steps are of polygenetic origin (Sweet and Soreghan 2010) and their occurrence may lead to ambiguous interpretations. In such situation, the F/G ratio helps by showing that signal coming from the fluvial (subglacial?) environment is much stronger, than recorded by the glacial environment (Table 2). Similar doubts about importance of the glacial influence
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in the proglacial realm were also raised by Clarhäll (2011), who concluded that sediment dynamics is rather governed by non-glacial processes, predominantly fluvial and aeolian. In this study, most high stress origin features on quartz grain surfaces are not well-expressed, which points at reduced shear stress in the glacier. This agrees with observations of Mahaney (2002), who stated that smaller glaciers and ice caps transport sediments in a lower stress regime as opposed to large ice sheets which transport grains with higher stress. If so, at least ca. 500 m thick ice is needed to produce the most recognisable glacial high-pressure fracturing (Mahaney et al. 1996). Therefore, only minor fracturing and abrading might be subjected, for example, to alpine glaciers with an estimated ice thickness of less than 200 m (Mahaney 1995), to the Saalian and late Weichselian tills in Poland (Woronko 2016; Kalińska-Nartiša et al. 2017), modern sea-ice rafted sediments (St. John et al. 2015) and even to the surge glacier (Muzińska 2015). Certainly, studied grains underwent only a limited resurfacing in the marginal part of the glacier, thus its impact was not strong enough to produce a set of high stress microfeatures. Another explanation may be due to a presence of pressurized subglacial water (Aaltonen et al. 2010), which reduces inter-granular contact within the sediment, and/or extreme jökulhlaup events (see Aqueous signal?).

Nevertheless, ice conditions may have contributed to the development of chemically induced and combined microtextures indicated by abundance of adhering particles (Fig. 5), and precipitation either in depressions or occasionally
on an entire grain surface. These microtextures are another evidence for glacial environment, in which debris were trapped in the ice (Immonen 2013) or/and resulted from the glacial grinding (Whalley and Langway 1978).

**Aqueous signal.** — Since the modern glacial environment is strongly linked with highly dynamic meltwater regimes including episodes of extremely intense runoff (Carrivick et al. 2016), a number of aqueous-induced textures on the quartz grains should be considered. These are rounded outlines, low reliefs and impact v-shaped marks (Mahaney 1998; Mahaney and Kalm 2000; Madhavaraju et al. 2006), which are produced during grain-on-grain impact in low-viscosity media (Sweet and Brannan 2016).

In our study, most samples contain a significant number of grains with shiny polished surfaces and different degree of rounding (Fig. 6, Table 2), which tend to be produced under energetic fluvial conditions (Nanson et al. 1995; Kleesment 2009; Vos et al. 2014). More fluvial-induced grains can be found, for example, in the sandur sediments. Large amount of this sediment originates from the highly energetic jökulhlaup events (Russell 1989, 2007, 2009; Česnulevičius et al. 2009; Russell et al. 2011). Significant runoff may start in May and end in September (Liljedahl et al. 2016), thus providing a new influx of silt and sand (Engels and Helmens 2010) during a 3–4 month season. We have, however, not observed a high-energetic grain transformation towards its distal part likely due to too short transportation distance. Fluvial grains from a proximal and distal part of sandur reach a similar level (in the 0.5–1.0 mm fraction), or are replaced by aeolian-induced grains in the 1.0–2.0 mm fraction; see the next chapter. This latter is likely due to deposition under alternating humid-dry conditions as observed in the Late Glacial palaeoenvironments (Kalińska-Nartiša and Nartišs 2016).

Under SEM, individual grains taken from the supraglacial debris and coversand, display limited high-impact features that originate from the glacier itself. Rather, these grains reveal predominant features normally attributable to water currents (Fig. 9). For example, many of the surfaces are dulled by smoothing, which is a result of solution processes with simultaneous transportation in an aqueous environment (Widdowson 1997; Woronko and Ostrowska 2009). V-shaped percussion cracks occur on dulled surfaces, and are also particularly important in the samples taken from a distal part of the sandur and supraglacial setting. Occurrence of V-shaped cracks reveals dependence on the high-energetic fluvial environment (Bull 1986; Mahaney and Kalm 2000; Mahaney 2002; Costa et al. 2012; Vos et al. 2014), where mixing and sorting by flowing meltwater prevail (Clarhäll 2011). Apparently, percentage of grains, which display V-shaped cracks in the proximal part of the sandur is twice smaller than in the coversand located in its distal part, and is, therefore, similar with a level of such cracks in subglacial sediments in Antarctica (Mahaney et al. 1996) and in Norway (Hart 2006). Given that such difference is pronounced on sediments taken from
proximal and distal part of the sandur, this may be an evidence for fluvial overprint by the meltwater, which has not been recorded by expected increase of grains with shiny surface.

**Aeolian signal.** — Close to the ice margin strong katabatic winds combined with steep pressure gradients may develop (Brookfield 2011), thus increasing wind speed (Dijkmans and Törnqvist 1991) and enhancing aeolian activity (Müller et al. 2016). It is supported by results from samples taken near the ice margin. For example, among sediments representing lake shorelines and supraglacial debris, aeolian-induced grains of different rounding occur in both investigated fractions (Fig. 6E). Also landform record, seen as a presence of low-relief embryonic dunes, shapeless coversands and small-scale aeolian features (Engels and Helmens 2010), supports aeolian activity (Willemse et al. 2003). In this study, the embryonic dunes and coversands are particularly widespread in the distal part of the sandur plains, although aeolian cover is found in other locations as well. However, the overall grain outline in sediments of the embryonic dune does not reveal an aeolian signal in the 0.5–1.0 mm fraction, and only 4% of grains has matt surface. Subsequently, sediments taken from the rest of aeolian landforms carry more aeolian-induced grains, but only as high as 17% (in the echo dune). Such suites prove valuable for assessing as observed in many aeolian palaeoenvironments (Mycielska-Dowgiało 1993; Narayana et al. 2010; Kalińska-Nartiša et al. 2016). In this study, sandur floodplains, ice surface and marginal moraines offer a potential source for aeolian processes. Therefore, a lack of aeolian signal in the embryonic dune can be explained by the general statement that aeolian sands derived from glacial-like source are more immature and have less rounded grains than warmer climate aeolian sands, where sand is often transported for much longer distances (Brookfield 2011). In contrast, in the Russell Glacier and proglacial area, a considerable transport distance during aerial suspension is valid for the finer sediment particles such as silt (Clarhäüll 2011). Thin cover of silty aeolian deposits seems common in the Sandflugtdalen, and the high influx was periodically present in the Holocene (Willemse et al. 2003). Aeolian samples in this paper are much sandier with silt fraction up to 4% (unpublished data), and, therefore, aerial suspension appears not relevant.

Apparently, aeolian-induced grains significantly increase in the 1.0–2.0 mm fraction (Fig. 4). For example, rounded grains (the third and fourth classes) with matt surface have been found in the supraglacial debris and lake shoreline settings. These grains were likely rounded in aquatic environment and further their surface became matt due pushing and rolling by strong wind. Consequently, more aeolian-induced grains occur in the 1.0–2.0 mm in the sediments of the embryonic and echo dunes, which gained the strongest aeolian abrasion, possibly due to changes in transportation, as observed in some aeolian palaeoenvironments (Dzierwa and Mycielska-Dowgiało 2003; Mycielska-Dowgiało and Woronko
2004). It is also known that such aeolian grains are practically absent in the palaeosandur sediments (Górsko-Zabielska 2015; Woronko et al. 2015b); however, occasionally occur in localities where longer-lasting aeolian processes under periglacial conditions took place (Kalińska-Nartiša et al. 2015; Woronko et al. 2015a). This latter is likely a case at the Russell Glacier setting.

Conclusions

Our set of quartz grain textural and microtextural properties provides signature on modern glacial environment at the Russell Glacier, South West Greenland. We debate whether the investigated quartz grains, taken from the debris sand fraction, reveal glacial characteristics and to what extent these grains carry a signal of another sedimentary settings.

What appears from the grain texture is both glacial fracturing and glacial abrasion seen as grain angularity or grain with a different level of abrasion; our two investigated sand fractions reveal such grain suite. However, the occurrence frequency of glacially induced microtextures anticorrelates with the most recognisable glacial features. Our result shows that signal coming from the fluvial environment is much stronger, than recorded by the glacial environment, potentially revealing subglacial fluvial transport. Minor fracturing and abrading point, therefore, at reduced shear stress in the marginal part of the glacier and presence of pressurized water at the ice-bed. Only abundant chemically induced microtextures served as evidence for glacial influence.

Dynamic fluvial regime produces grains with features attributable to the energetic water currents, especially in the sandur plain sediments. However, we have not detected fluvial grain transformation towards distal part of the sandur likely due to short transport distance.

A growing number of aeolian-induced grains among the samples closest to the ice margin support a theory about enhancing aeolian activity that is triggered by strong katabatic winds. In contrast, sediments of dunes and coversands aeolian grains only occur in the larger fraction that points at changes in transportation mode and a stronger aeolian abrasion.

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