

Greenlandic debris in Iceland likely tied to Bond 1 ice-rafting in the Dark Ages

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ABSTRACT

We report the discovery of exotic igneous, metamorphic, and sedimentary cobbles in raised beach deposits near Breiðavík, northern Iceland. These deposits consist of alternating cobble-, sand-, and silt-dominated facies. A nearby package of sands and silts, dated to the Late Antique Little Ice Age (LALIA; ca. 536–660 CE), provides age constraints for the raised terraces. While the upper terraces are composed exclusively of local basaltic material, the lowermost terraces (~2 m above high tide) contain a mix of basaltic and non-basaltic cobbles, including quartzofeldspathic gneiss, granitoid, rhyolite, sandstone, and serpentinite. U–Pb geochronology of zircon reveals dominant age modes of ca. 2800, 1150, 500, and 240 Ma with Lu–Hf isotopic compositions suggesting derivation from Greenland's North Atlantic Craton and Caledonian fold belt.

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23 The colder conditions of the LALIA, coupled with increased iceberg calving from the
24 Greenland Ice Sheet, would have led to enhanced ice-rafted debris (IRD) transport to
25 disparate areas south and east of Greenland. The East Greenland and East Iceland
26 currents transported this IRD from Greenland, with deposition occurring along the
27 Icelandic coast as the icebergs melted. This IRD was likely transported across the North
28 Atlantic during Bond Event 1. This process, along with those during other transient
29 cooling events, may explain the age discrepancies between local bedrock and detrital
30 zircons in the Arctic.

31 INTRODUCTION

32 During the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), ca. 26,000–19,000 years ago, ice sheets
33 extended across much of the Northern Hemisphere, dramatically reshaping the
34 landscape by locally carving bedrocks and depositing glacial regolith. These ice sheets
35 were highly dynamic, advancing and retreating in response to climatic shifts, and
36 transporting large volumes of glacial debris into the marine environment (Batchelor et
37 al., 2019). Following the LGM, shorter-term climate oscillations, such as the Bond
38 events, involved continued fluctuations in the Northern Hemisphere's climate over the
39 past 11,500 years (Bond et al., 1993, 2001). These recurring cold phases, likely linked
40 to changes in ocean circulation and solar activity, intensified glaciation and influenced
41 ice-rafted debris (IRD) transport. For instance, Bond Event 1, which coincides with the
42 Late Antique Little Ice Age (LALIA; 536–660 CE after Büntgen et al., 2016), saw a
43 renewed expansion of the Greenland Ice Sheet (Büntgen et al., 2016; Kjær et al., 2022).
44 These episodes of climate-driven glaciation and deglaciation highlight the persistent
45 influence of millennial-scale climate shifts on glacial systems and their role in shaping

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46 the landscapes and sedimentary records of the North Atlantic region (Büntgen et al.,
47 2016).

48 IRD refers to sedimentary material transported by icebergs or sea ice that is released
49 into marine or coastal environments when the ice melts. IRD is a key proxy for
50 understanding past glacial activity and ocean circulation, as its range of materials often
51 reflects the diverse geology of source regions. Icebergs calved from glaciers can carry
52 debris as varied as local sediments, large boulders, and exotic rock fragments sourced
53 from the heart of continental interiors (Gilbert, 1990). As icebergs drift with ocean
54 currents, they can transport these materials hundreds to thousands of kilometers before
55 melting and depositing their debris load. IRD is commonly found in ocean sediments
56 throughout the Northern Hemisphere, particularly in the North Atlantic region, where
57 icebergs predominately originate from the Greenland Ice Sheet and other Arctic
58 glaciers. Previous studies of IRD in North Atlantic drill cores have revealed a remarkable
59 geological diversity (Eldrett et al., 2007; White et al., 2016; Darby et al., 2017), much of
60 which is traceable to Greenland's geological provinces. These studies have shown how
61 IRD provides snapshots of glacial dynamics, with debris originating from distinct
62 geologic formations across Greenland and other northern landmasses, such as
63 Svalbard and Scandinavia. Through compositional analyses of IRD, it is possible to
64 pinpoint provenances and reconstruct past iceberg trajectories, ocean current patterns,
65 and the timing of glacial advances and retreats (White et al., 2016).

66 What makes IRD particularly significant is its ability to transport exotic materials far from
67 their points of origin, often to locations where the local bedrock contrasts starkly with the
68 incoming debris (Heinrich, 1988). This process not only provides insights into glacial

transport but also serves as a marker of long-distance oceanic sedimentation (Bailey et al., 2012). The presence of foreign geological material in ocean sediments often highlights the expansive reach of glacial systems and their interaction with ocean currents during glacial periods. However, while the transport of IRD across ocean basins is well documented (Bailey et al., 2012; White et al., 2016), there is less understanding of its deposition on subaerial continental environments. This raises important questions about the processes involved when exotic material, particularly from Greenland, reaches landmasses such as Iceland—a region dominated by recent basaltic volcanism rather than ancient continental geology. Here, we present newly discovered non-basaltic material in northern Iceland in the Breiðavík region. Through zircon U–Pb geochronology and Lu–Hf isotopic analyses, we identify a range of igneous and metamorphic rock types with ages and isotopic compositions matching those of Greenlandic provinces. Fingerprinting of these exotic Greenland-derived clasts in Iceland provides insights into the nature of late Quaternary IRD at the boundary between the North Atlantic and Arctic oceans.

GEOLOGIC SETTING

Iceland, situated on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge with a supporting mantle plume, is a geologically young and dynamic island characterized by basaltic lava flows and minor evolved magmas, driven by seafloor spreading and mantle plume magmatism (Foulger et al., 2022). The Westfjords in northwest Iceland are among the island's oldest regions, primarily composed of 10–16 Ma basalt lavas, contrasting with the younger central volcanic areas. The region is highly eroded, with steep, fjord-lined coastlines that reflect glacial activity during the Pleistocene. The ice sheets that once covered the Westfjords

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92 during the LGM contributed to the formation of these deep fjords, as glaciers carved
93 through the landscape, leaving behind distinctive U-shaped valleys. Despite its volcanic
94 origins, the Westfjords are notable for their lack of recent volcanic activity compared to
95 other parts of Iceland, contributing to a more stable, though heavily glaciated, geologic
96 environment.

97 The Breiðavík region, located along the northern coastline of the Westfjords, features
98 beach deposits consisting of alternating sand and silt, and cobble layers with two
99 distinct terraces above the high-tide line (Fig. 1A). The higher terrace is primarily
100 composed of local basaltic material, likely sourced from nearby volcanic flows. In
101 contrast, the lowermost terraces, closer to present-day sea levels (Fig. 1B), contain a
102 mix of basaltic and non-basaltic rocks, with the non-basaltic material being the focus of
103 this study. This distinct stratigraphy suggests multiple phases of deposition, likely tied to
104 glacial retreat and the influx of offshore sediments. The origin of these terraces has
105 been linked to stages of deglaciation and subsequent isostatic uplift, and sands and silts
106 at a similar level (that is, approximately 4 m above mean sea level) exposed to the
107 southwest of the Breiðavík Bay were formed ca. 1,300–1,400 years BP (Brader et al.,
108 2017). Corresponding to ca. 600–700 AD, these dates align with Bond Event 1 and the
109 Late Antique Little Ice Age, which likely enhanced iceberg calving and IRD transport
110 (Savkina et al., 2018). While not definitive, this date offers a valuable age constraint that
111 aligns with geological observations of the raised beach context and the presence of
112 extraneous, likely ice-transported material.

113 Across the Denmark Strait from Iceland is East Greenland (Fig. 2), whose geology is
114 characterized by diverse lithologies spanning Mesoarchean orthogneiss to Paleogene

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115 flood basalts. East Greenland's geology is defined by four primary regions (from south
116 to north): the Paleoproterozoic Ketilidian Mobile Belt (Vestergaard et al., 2024),
117 orthogneisses of the Archean Block (Kolb et al., 2013), the Nagssugtoqidian Mobile Belt
118 (Nutman et al., 2008), Paleogene mafic magmatism (Brooks, 2011), and the Paleozoic
119 Caledonian Fold Belt (Rehnström, 2010). Except for the Caledonides, the geology in
120 western Greenland broadly mirrors that of eastern Greenland (White et al., 2016).
121 Modern iceberg sources include major calving regions such as Disko Bugt in western
122 Greenland and the Scoresby Sound system in the east. These regions contribute
123 substantially to the annual flux of icebergs into the North Atlantic (Rignot and
124 Kanagaratnam, 2006). Icebergs transported by the East Greenland Current (EGC) carry
125 IRD southward, while local sources dominate IRD deposition in marine-proximal
126 environments (Andrews et al., 2014). This study focuses on reconstructing the
127 provenance of IRD deposited on raised beaches near Breiðavík to discern the relative
128 contributions of Greenlandic source terrains.

129 SAMPLES AND METHODS

130 Samples were collected from recent beach deposits near Breiðavík in northern Iceland.
131 The deposits consist of alternating cobble- and sand-dominated facies, with an upper
132 terrace comprised exclusively of basaltic material and a lower terrace containing a
133 mixture of basaltic and non-basaltic cobbles. The lower terrace sits ~2 m below the
134 isolation basin (~2 m a.s.l.) on the western side of the bay sampled by Brader et al.
135 (2017) corresponding to the horizon dated at 1301–1407 BP. Among the cobble
136 samples collected, those for which zircon separation was done include a sandstone,
137 seven (meta)granitoids, and two felsic volcanics. The sandstone is medium-grained,

138 well-sorted, and quartz-rich. The (meta)granitoids are medium- to coarse-grained and
139 exhibit variable degrees of deformation and metamorphism. The felsic volcanics are
140 gray and ochre, fine-grained volcanic rocks rich in silica, typically rhyolite or dacite in
141 composition. Other collected samples include two mafic volcanics, two fine-grained
142 siliciclastic rocks, four quartzite/quartz-rich cobbles, and one serpentinized peridotite.
143 Standard zircon separation and U–Pb/trace element/Hf split stream by LA-ICPMS
144 methods were used and are detailed in the Supplementary Materials.

145 ZIRCON U–Pb AND Hf ISOTOPE RESULTS

146 U–Pb ages from zircon grains from the Breiðavík beach clasts reveal multiple distinct
147 age populations. Zircon ages from the clasts range from 2960 Ma and 0 Ma with major
148 age frequency peaks at 2800 Ma, 1150 Ma, 500 Ma, 240 Ma, and 0 Ma and subordinate
149 peaks at 1600 Ma, 1380 Ma, 720 Ma, and 370 Ma (Fig. 3). Hafnium isotopes of zircon
150 show a broad range of ϵ_{Hf} values (Fig. 3). The Archean ages have ϵ_{Hf} that range from
151 4 to -6 (-2 average), ϵ_{Hf} of Proterozoic ages range from 6 to -8 (1.5 average), Cambrian
152 to Devonian ages have ϵ_{Hf} that range from 3 to -9 (-3 average), Carboniferous to
153 Cretaceous ages have bimodal ϵ_{Hf} with a more depleted population at 4 to 11 (8
154 average) and an enriched population at -3 to 1 (-1 average), two Neogene grains have
155 an average ϵ_{Hf} of 12, and Quaternary ages have ϵ_{Hf} of 1 to 5 (3 average).

156 DISCUSSION

157 Comparison with Greenlandic sources

158 The Breiðavík clasts' zircon age and ϵ_{Hf} populations closely resemble those reported
159 from known Greenlandic geological terrains, except for the post-Devonian population

(Fig. 3). The Archean zircons correspond well with known ages and ϵ_{Hf} of the North Atlantic Craton (Johnston and Kylander-Clark, 2013; Nicoli et al., 2018), while the Proterozoic ages and ϵ_{Hf} can be linked to the Kettilides and detritus linked to the Grenville Orogeny (Olierook et al., 2020). Cambrian–Devonian ages and ϵ_{Hf} are most closely similar to the Caledonides (Rehnström, 2010; Brueckner et al., 2016) though the most enriched ϵ_{Hf} values are not represented in the Breiðavík clasts. This raises the possibility of additional, more distant sources, such as Siberia or the Sverdrup basin, which host detrital zircon with similar age and Hf isotopic characteristics (Røhr et al., 2010). These regions, known for their late Paleozoic and Mesozoic magmatism, plausibly contributed material via trans-Arctic glacial or oceanic transport mechanisms, suggesting a more complex pattern of sediment provenance than previously thought.

Implications for sediment provenance and IRD transport

The age and isotopic diversity of the studied zircons offer new insights into the region's IRD history. The presence of both ancient Archean cobbles and more recent Mesozoic zircon points to a mixture of sources, likely including Greenlandic basement rocks and younger, perhaps rift-related volcanic material. This mixture of zircon ages suggests that sedimentary material was transported across the North Atlantic, most likely as IRD, and subsequently deposited along the Icelandic coast. As icebergs drifted into the waters around Iceland, they would have encountered the warmer Irminger Current, the western North Atlantic branch of the Gulf Stream Current flowing north along Iceland's western coast (Fig. 2; Perner et al., 2016). This warmer current likely accelerated melting, causing the icebergs to 'dump' debris. Clasts dropped by icebergs, whether angular or

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rounded and with or without striations (Gilbert, 1990), were likely shaped to some extent by wave action before deposition.

The Hf isotopic data further support a Greenlandic provenance, showing a wide range of ϵHf values consistent with multiple crustal and mantle-derived sources (Fig. 3). The wide ranges in ages and isotopes likely reflects the mixing of lithologies in moraines and glacial tills, sampling different catchments, and originating from many iceberg ‘dump’ events offshore Iceland. Importantly, the IRD-rich terrace from Breiðavík correlates with an isolation basin corresponding to Bond Event 1 (1,301–1,407 cal. BP) (Brader et al., 2017), which is tied to the LALIA, spanning from ca. 536–660 CE (Büntgen et al., 2016). Further support for an increase in Greenlandic IRD flux during this time comes from a peak in hematite-stained quartz observed in sediment cores offshore Iceland and the IRD >2 mm in the Nansen Trough (Andrews et al., 2014). Notably, the LALIA coincides with intensified volcanic activity, including a large eruption in Iceland around 536 CE (Büntgen et al., 2022). Those volcanic eruptions and subsequent climatic cooling are believed to have triggered an expansion of the Greenland Ice Sheet (Kjær et al., 2022), likely contributing to enhanced iceberg calving.

The combined influences of the East Greenland current (EGC) and East Icelandic current (EIC), modulated by the colder climatic conditions of the LALIA, likely facilitated the southward transport of Greenlandic IRD along Iceland’s coastal margins (Fig. 2; White et al., 2016). However, the deposition was probably influenced by the warmer Irminger current, which would have played a critical role in distributing and depositing IRD in these regions through interactions with the colder currents (Knudsen et al., 2004). We have now documented an even more diverse assemblage of crustal

205 materials, linked directly to East Greenland. While there is great potential to use zircon
206 to evaluate the prospect of ancient continental crust beneath Iceland (Foulger et al.,
207 2022), it is important to highlight that exotic detrital zircon may be derived from IRD that
208 are completely unrelated to the presence of continental fragments at depth. The
209 combined influences of the EGC and EIC, modulated by the colder climatic conditions of
210 the LALIA, likely facilitated Greenlandic IRD deposition along Iceland's coastal margins.
211 Isostatic uplift following rapid deglaciation in the Breiðafjörður region further influenced
212 the placement of these materials, resulting in raised terraces (Brader et al., 2017) that
213 record the far-reaching effects of glacial and oceanic interactions in the North Atlantic
214 during the LALIA.

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220 FIGURES

221 Figure 1. Raised beach with exotic clasts at Breiðavík, northwest Iceland. (A) Satellite
222 image of Iceland with insets of the Breiðavík region. The dashed line corresponds to the
223 location of the lower terrace where the samples were collected (65.547945° N, -
224 24.381130° W). (B) Drone oblique view looking south across the beach terraces.
225 Footprints, tire tracks, and person for scale in foreground, center, and background,
226 respectively. (C) Example of an exotic clast found within the lower terrace.

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227 Figure 2. Location of potential source regions of Greenland-derived IRD of the Breiðavík
228 clasts found in Iceland shown on a simplified geologic map of Greenland (White et al.,
229 2016). Dashed lines denote Greenland bedrock provinces. Solid lines denote Greenland
230 ice sheet watersheds. Black arrows denote ocean currents. EGC—East Greenland
231 current. EIC—East Icelandic current. IC—Irminger current.

232 Figure 3. Fingerprinting the Greenlandic provenance of the exotic Breiðavík clasts. ϵ_{Hf}
233 versus age plot of zircon from the Breiðavík clasts. Compiled Greenlandic detrital zircon
234 were extracted from the database of Puetz et al., (2024) with data from Johnston and
235 Kylander-Clark, (2013); Nicoli et al., (2018); Olierook et al., (2020).

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Figure 1. **Figures**

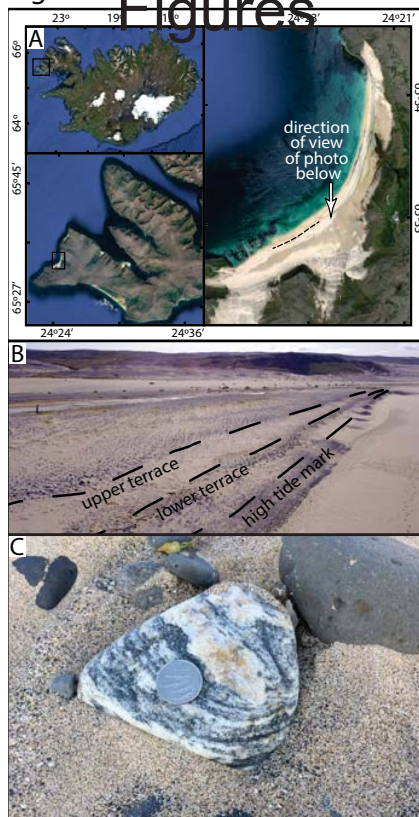


Figure 2. **Figures**

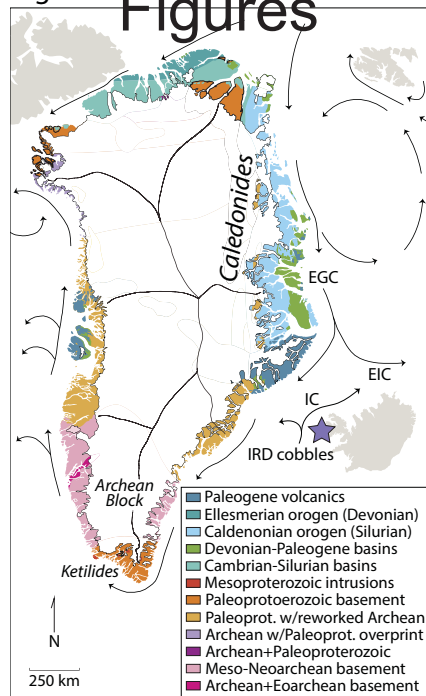


Figure 3. **Figures**

