1	Ice stream activity scaled to ice sheet volume during Laurentide
2	Ice Sheet deglaciation
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The sea-level contribution of the Greenland and West Antarctic ice sheets has 12 accelerated in recent decades, largely due to the thinning and retreat of outlet glaciers 13 and ice streams¹⁻⁴. This 'dynamic' loss is a serious concern, with some modelling studies 14 suggesting that a major ice sheet collapse may be imminent^{5,6} or potentially underway in 15 West Antarctica⁷, but others predicting a more limited response⁸. A major problem is 16 that observations used to initialise and calibrate modelling typically span just a few 17 decades and, at the ice-sheet scale, it is unclear how the entire drainage network of ice 18 streams evolves over longer time-scales. This represents one of the largest sources of 19 uncertainty when predicting ice sheet contributions to sea level rise⁸⁻¹⁰. A key question is 20 whether ice streams might increase and sustain rates of mass loss over centuries or 21 millennia, beyond those expected for a given ocean-climate forcing⁵⁻¹⁰. Here we 22 reconstruct the activity of 117 ice streams that operated at various times during 23 deglaciation of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (~22,000 to ~7,000 years ago) and show that 24 while they switched on and off in different locations, their overall number decreased, 25

they occupied a progressively smaller percentage of the ice sheet perimeter, and their 26 total discharge decreased. Underlying geology and topography clearly influenced ice 27 stream activity, but - at the ice sheet scale - their drainage network adjusted and was 28 29 linked to changes in ice sheet volume. It is unclear whether these findings are directly translatable to modern ice sheets but, contrary to the view that sees ice streams as 30 unstable entities that can draw-down large sectors of an ice sheet and accelerate its 31 demise, we conclude that they reduced in effectiveness during deglaciation of the 32 Laurentide Ice Sheet. 33

Continental ice sheets are drained by a network of rapidly-flowing ice streams with 34 tributaries of intermediate velocity that extend far into their interiors¹¹. Towards the margins 35 of modern ice sheets, many ice streams become confined within glacial troughs and are 36 referred to as marine-terminating outlet glaciers, whereas others occupy regions of more 37 subdued relief¹². Their large size (1-10s km wide, 10-100s km long) and high velocity (100s-38 1000s m a⁻¹) means they are an important mechanism through which ice is transferred to the 39 ocean, and thereby impacts on sea level. In contrast to climatically-forced melting¹³, ice-40 41 stream dynamics could introduce considerable non-linearity in the response of ice sheets to external forcing⁵⁻⁷. This is viewed as the major source of uncertainty in assessments of future 42 changes in ice sheets and sea level^{1,6,8-10}. Does the drainage network of ice streams arise in 43 response to climatically-driven changes in ice sheet volume, or can it evolve to drive changes 44 beyond that which might be expected from climatic forcing alone? 45

Building on a recent inventory¹⁴ of 117 palaeo-ice streams in the North American Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS, including the Innuitian Ice Sheet, but excluding the Cordilleran Ice Sheet) (Extended Data Figure 1), we use the best-available ice margin chronology (based on ~4,000 dates: Extended Data Figure 2)¹⁵ to ascertain the timing of their activity during deglaciation (see Methods). Using the mapped extent of ice streams, we calculated the 51 number operating through time and the percentage of the ice sheet perimeter that was 52 streaming. We also explore their potential ice discharge during deglaciation, albeit with larger 53 uncertainties, which we compare with output from numerical modelling of the ice sheet 54 during deglaciation^{16,17} (see Methods).

55 When the LIS was at its maximum extent ~22 thousand years ago (kyr), ice streams formed a drainage network resembling the velocity pattern of modern-day ice sheets (Fig. 1a, 56 b). Early during deglaciation, numerous ice streams were located in major topographic 57 58 troughs and drained the marine-based sectors of the northern and eastern margins of the ice sheet for several thousand years (Fig. 1b, c). Ice streaming along the land-terminating 59 margins was more transient and we find that numerous ice streams switched on and off in 60 different locations during retreat. This first empirical assessment of the duration of a large 61 population of ice streams reveals that whilst some ice streams persisted for 5-10 kyr, ~40% 62 63 operated for <2 kyr, with many ($\sim 23\%$) operating for <0.5 kyr (Fig. 2).

Although ice streams activated and deactivated in different locations, we find no evidence for any episodes when the number of ice streams increased substantially (Fig. 3a). From ~22 to ~15.5 kyr, the number of ice streams totalled ~50, but thereafter dropped rapidly (e.g. at ~13 kyr and 11.5 kyr), with <10 ice streams operating after ~11.5 kyr. When normalised by ice sheet volume their number is remarkably stable (Fig. 3b), with ~2 ice streams per 1,000,000 km³ of ice sheet volume for almost 10 kyr. LIS collapse into Hudson Bay after 8.5 kyr triggered a final flurry of ice stream activity, but in a very small ice sheet.

At its maximum extent, ~27% of the LIS margin was streaming (Fig. 3c), which is very similar to that found for present-day Antarctica (Fig. 1a). This value decreased to between 25% and 20% from 16 to 13 kyr, but then rapidly drops to ~5% at ~11 kyr. Similarly, our order-of-magnitude estimates of palaeo-ice stream discharge show no obvious increases during deglaciation (Fig. 3d). Rather, this 'dynamic' component of mass loss was

relatively stable from ~22 to 15 kyr (i.e. ~1,500 km³ a⁻¹), but then rapidly decreased to <400 76 $\text{km}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$ after 11 kyr, and was <100 km³ a⁻¹ after 9 kyr. When normalised by ice sheet volume, 77 the proportion of dynamic mass loss was relatively stable from 22 to 15 kyr, but then dropped 78 79 at 13 kyr (Fig. 3e), before increasing temporarily as the ice sheet collapsed around Hudson Bay. A comparison with estimates of total ice stream discharge from a previously-published 80 numerical model of the North American Ice Sheet complex¹⁶ and inferences from surface 81 mass balance modelling at specific time-steps¹⁷, indicates that model-derived Laurentide ice 82 stream discharges are typically higher and more variable (Fig. 3f). Nevertheless, an important 83 84 conclusion is that both empirical and modelled estimates show a decrease in ice stream discharge from around 15 kyr. Moreover, we find a clear link between ice sheet volume and 85 both the number of ice streams and the percentage of the ice sheet perimeter they occupied 86 87 (Fig. 4a, b). A similar scaling is seen in both modelled and empirically-derived discharge (Fig. 4c), but we acknowledge there are much larger uncertainties in our estimates of palaeo-88 ice stream discharge. The relative impact of ice streaming is seen more clearly by plotting ice 89 90 sheet volume against the total ice stream discharge normalised by the ice sheet volume (Fig. 4d), indicating that the relative role of mass loss from streaming was unlikely to have 91 increased as the ice volume decreased during deglaciation. 92

There are a number of factors that influence where ice streams develop, with previous work highlighting their strong association with topographic troughs, calving margins and soft sedimentary beds^{10,18,19}. We note that topography exerted a strong control on ice stream location in the LIS, particularly during early deglaciation (22 to 14 kyr) when its flow was steered by the major marine channels of the Canadian Arctic Archipelago and the high relief coasts along the eastern margin. There is no glacial geomorphological evidence¹⁴ that these ice streams continued to operate once the ice sheet lost its marine margin and retreated onto lower relief terrain. Thus, topographic troughs and the marine margin clearly modulated thenumber of ice streams operating through time (Fig. 1; Fig. 3a).

Elsewhere, ice streams were abundant on low-relief areas that were underlain by soft 102 sedimentary bedrock and thick sequences of till. This includes the western and southern 103 margins of the ice sheet^{14,19,20}, where numerous ice streams switched on and off during 104 deglaciation, with marked changes in trajectory²⁰ (Fig. 1). These networks of sinuous ice 105 streams deactivated as the ice margin withdrew onto the harder igneous and metamorphic 106 107 rocks of the Canadian Shield, pointing to a geological control that explains the marked reduction in ice stream numbers after ~12 ka (Fig. 3a; Extended Data Figure 3). It is 108 important to note, however, that ice streams continued to activate over the low-relief 109 crystalline bedrock of the Canadian Shield, with several large, wide (100-200 km) ice streams 110 operating for very short periods (few hundred years) during the final stages of deglaciation 111 (after ~10 kyr: Fig. 1d; Extended Data Fig. 3) 10,21 . 112

113 Although topography and underlying geology exerted an important influence on ice stream activity, we find no evidence for major ice sheet instabilities linked to ice stream 114 activity that is reflected in the spatial re-organisation of their drainage network (e.g. marked 115 116 increases in the number of ice streams or individual ice streams widening/enlarging during ice sheet retreat). Rather, we find that their overall number decreased and they occupied a 117 progressively smaller percentage of the ice sheet perimeter. This implies that the final 4-5 kyr 118 of deglaciation (after ~12 kyr) was largely driven by surface melt, which is corroborated by 119 independent modelling of the ice sheet's surface mass balance^{17,22}, and inferences based on 120 the density of subglacial meltwater channels (eskers)²³. Specifically, surface energy balance 121 modelling¹⁷ suggests that a transition from a positive to negative surface mass balance 122 occurred between 11.5 and 9 kyr, when much of the LIS retreat occurred at rates two to five 123 times faster than before 11.5 kyr. In that study¹⁷, volume losses not attributable to surface 124

125 melting were assumed to be from dynamic discharge and, in broad agreement with our results (Fig. 3f), their modelling implies that dynamic discharge decreased from ~15.5 kyr. Our 126 range of discharge estimates at the LGM (750-2,300 km³) and in the early Holocene (100-700 127 km³ at 9 kyr) also fall within their inferred ranges (770-2,750 km³ and 0-1,650 km³, 128 respectively). The major difference is that their modelling suggests that dynamic discharge 129 increased from the LGM to a maximum (4,290-4,620 km³) around the time of Heinrich event 130 1 (H1: 15.5 kyr) when their modelled surface mass balance is largest. A positive mass 131 balance is temporarily induced in the ice sheet modelling¹⁶ shown in Fig. 3f to facilitate a 132 large dynamic discharge from the Hudson Strait Ice Stream during H1. We do not depict such 133 extreme discharge at this time because our approach is based on modern ice stream data that 134 are unlikely to capture such extreme discharges. However, we find no obvious spatial 135 reorganisation²⁴ of ice streams during or immediately after H1. This suggests that H1 had 136 limited impact on the wider ice sheet drainage network, and points to extreme velocity 137 fluctuations on specific ice streams (e.g. Hudson Strait)²⁵, which we are unable to constrain, 138 and/or mechanisms that do not invoke major ice sheet collapses and jumps in sea level, such 139 as ice shelf break-up²⁶. In contrast, we note some reorganisation of ice streaming following, 140 but not prior to or during, Meltwater Pulse 1A (that began ~14.6 kyr)²⁷. The saddle collapse 141 that occurred during separation of the Laurentide and Cordilleran ice sheets has been 142 hypothesised to have contributed to this event²⁸ and we note several short-lived ice streams in 143 this region after the collapse, but with a concomitant decrease in ice stream activity along the 144 southern margin (Fig. 1c). 145

It is important to consider whether ice streaming in the LIS offers an analogue for modern-day ice sheets. Although the ocean-climate forcing would have been different during deglaciation of the LIS, there is no empirical evidence or theoretical reasoning to suppose that Laurentide ice streams should behave in a fundamentally different manner. Our 150 reconstructed pattern of ice streams at the LGM is remarkably similar to the velocity pattern of the Greenland and Antarctic Ice Sheets, and we note that Laurentide ice streams drained a 151 similar proportion of the ice sheet perimeter, when it was a similar size to present-day 152 Antarctica (Fig. 1a, b). Large sectors of the LIS occupied similar physiography to modern ice 153 sheets, with ice streams exhibiting a similar size, shape and spatial organisation along its 154 marine margins. The most obvious difference is that the LIS retreated onto a low-relief, hard 155 bedrock terrain and had ice streams that terminated on land and produced large, low-relief 156 lobes along much of the southern and western margins^{19,20}. Although these have been likened 157 to some West Antarctic ice streams¹⁹, they have no modern analogue. However, whilst all 158 modern ice streams are marine-terminating, large parts of the Greenland and East Antarctic 159 Ice Sheets will have land-based margins if they continue to deglaciate^{29,30}, which might be 160 within a few millennia in Greenland¹. Our analysis confirms that the geology and topography 161 over which modern-ice sheets retreat will be a key determinant on where ice streams are 162 likely to activate and deactivate⁸. However, we also find a strong dependency between ice 163 164 sheet volume and ice stream activity that also holds for modern ice sheets (Fig. 4c) and which hints at a more regulatory role in ice sheet dynamics than previously recognised. This does 165 not preclude instabilities at decadal to centennial time-scales⁵⁻⁷, but suggests that if modern 166 ice sheets continue to deglaciate, ice streams are likely to switch off and their relative 167 contribution to mass loss may decrease over several millennia, with final deglaciation 168 accomplished most effectively by surface melt^{17,22}. 169

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- 241 **Supplementary Information** is available.
- 242

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248 Author contributions:

C.R.S. conceived the study and wrote the proposal with C.D.C. M.M. generated the data on
the timing of palaeo-ice streams, modern-ice stream discharge, palaeo-ice stream discharge,
and produced the Figures and Supplementary Information, with input from C.R.S. and C.D.C.
L.T contributed data from numerical modelling. All authors contributed to the analyses and
interpretations of the data. C.R.S. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

255 Author information: Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints. The authors declare no competing financial interests. Readers are 256 welcome to comment on the online version of the paper. Correspondence and requests for 257 materials should be addressed to C.R.S. (c.r.stokes@durham.ac.uk). 258

259 Figures:





- reconstructions of ice stream activity in the LIS at selected time-steps. (a) Present-day
 Antarctic ice sheet velocity¹¹ with red lines indicating where ice streams intersect the
- grounding line. Ice streams reconstructed for the LIS at (b) the LGM (~21.8 kyr), (c) 13.9
- kyr, and (d) 10.1 kyr. Laurentide ice stream locations in light blue (numbers from the inventory¹⁴), with those that switched off within the preceding 1,000 years in grey, and those
- that switched on during the following 1,000 years in dark blue. Underlying topography (**b**, **c**)
- 268 and **d**) from GTOPO30 digital elevation data.
- 269



Figure 2: Duration of individual ice streams in the LIS. Grey-filled bars are the data for 271

the best estimate of each ice stream's duration, with blue outlines representing data if the 272

assumed for all ice streams (see Extended Data Figure 1 for ice stream locations). 274

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minimum duration is assumed for all ice streams, and red outlines if the maximum duration is 273



Figure 3: Ice stream activity during deglaciation of the Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS). (a) 277 278 Number of ice streams active during deglaciation, with orange shading indicating the uncertainty in the age-bracketing of ice streams and grey vertical bar showing the time when 279 the ice sheet margin transitioned from a predominantly soft to predominantly hard bed. (b) 280 Number of active ice streams normalised by LIS volume obtained from a data-calibrated 281 numerical modelling¹⁶. Orange shading indicates uncertainty in the age-bracketing of ice 282 streams. (c) Percentage of the ice sheet perimeter that was streaming, with orange shading 283 284 indicating uncertainty in the age-bracketing of ice streams. (d) First-order estimate of the total ice stream discharge based on a width-discharge regression from modern-ice stream data 285 (see Methods). Orange shading indicates the uncertainty in both the age-bracketing of the ice 286 287 streams and the discharge uncertainty from the 95% confidence intervals of the regression. For comparison, grey shading shows the range of discharges obtained using the regression 288 without two obvious outliers (Extended Data Figure 10). Dashed line shows discharge from 289 a cruder two state approximation for the best estimate of ice stream duration (see Methods). 290 (e) Ice stream discharge (black line in d) normalised by LIS volume from numerical 291 modelling¹⁶. Orange shading indicates the uncertainty in the age-bracketing of ice streams. 292 (f) Empirical ice discharge (from d) compared to ice stream discharge generated from the 293 mean of a data-calibrated numerical modelling ensemble of the LIS¹⁶. Light blue line shows 294 streaming discharge from grounded ice-margin grid cells with velocities $>500 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ and 295 green for grounded margin grid cells $>100 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ (both with 1-sigma uncertainties). Dark blue 296 297 shows discharge inferred from previous modelling of the ice sheet's surface mass balance¹⁷. 298



Figure 4: Indicators of ice stream activity plotted against ice sheet volume. (a) Number
 of ice streams plotted against ice sheet volume. Black dots show results using best estimates
 of ice stream duration with vertical lines showing the uncertainty in the age-bracketing. (b)

- 304 Percentage of the ice sheet perimeter that was streaming plotted against ice sheet volume
- (symbols as in (a)). (c) Total ice stream discharge plotted against ice sheet volume using our 305
- empirical calculations (black dots show best estimate and lines show both the age and 306 discharge uncertainties from Fig. 3d) and total ice stream discharge from numerical 307
- modelling¹⁶ (blue dots show mean and lines show 2-sigma uncertainties). Modelled discharge 308
- is extracted from grounded ice-marginal grid-cells with velocities $>500 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ (blue line in 309
- 310 Fig. 3f). Data for the present-day ice sheets in Greenland (purple diamond), West Antarctica
- (pink triangle), East Antarctica (orange triangle) and West and East Antarctica combined (red 311
- triangle) are also plotted using recent ice stream discharge^{2,3} and ice sheet volume^{29,30} 312
- estimates. (d) Total ice stream discharge from modelled and empirical estimates in (c) 313
- normalised by ice sheet volume and plotted against ice sheet volume. In all panels, ice sheet 314 volume is derived from the mean of a best-performing ensemble of previously-published 315
- 316
- data-calibrated numerical modelling¹⁵ (see Methods). Note that the low modelled streaming fraction at volumes around 2.4 x 10^7 km³ (c & d) are due to the dynamic facilitation of 317
- Heinrich event 1 in that modelling (see Methods). Empirical discharges for small ice volumes 318
- $(< 0.2 \times 10^7 \text{ km}^3)$ have highly under-represented uncertainties given higher ice sheet volume 319
- uncertainties close to final deglaciation. 320
- 321
- 322

323 **METHODS:**

Identifying palaeo-ice stream locations: An ice stream is a region in a grounded ice sheet that flows much faster than the regions on either side³¹. Where the fast-flowing ice becomes bordered by exposed rock (e.g. in high relief fjord landscapes) they are usually referred to as marine-terminating outlet glaciers. These outlet glaciers typically initiate as ice streams and so we use the term 'ice stream' throughout, but include outlet glaciers.

We use a recently-published inventory¹⁴ of palaeo-ice streams in the Laurentide Ice Sheet (LIS), which includes 117 ice streams (Extended Data Figure 1). These were identified based on previously published evidence, complemented with new mapping using satellite imagery and Digital Elevation Models (DEMs) on land, and bathymetric data and swath bathymetry for submerged areas¹⁴. The systematic nature of the new mapping from across the entire ice sheet bed means it is very unlikely that any major ice streams have been missed¹⁴.

Ice streams are easily distinguishable on a palaeo-ice sheet bed from a variety of 335 evidence that is now well-established in the literature^{14,20,21,32-43}. Their spatially discrete 336 enhanced flow creates a distinctive bedform imprint that is immediately recognisable and 337 characterised by several geomorphological criteria³². These include highly elongated 338 subglacial bedforms (mega-scale glacial lineations³⁴: Extended Data Figures 4 & 5), which 339 have also been observed beneath modern ice streams³⁵, and these bedforms typically exhibit 340 convergent flow patterns towards a main ice stream 'trunk'. These landform assemblages are 341 often characterised by abrupt lateral margins that border areas with much shorter subglacial 342 bedforms, or no bedforms at all^{32,33,36,37,42,43} (Extended Data Figure 5). In some cases, the 343 abrupt margin is marked by features known as ice stream shear margin moraines^{32,33,37,38} 344 (Extended Data Figure 5). This landform evidence is readily identifiable on satellite imagery 345 and aerial photographs^{32,34,36-39,43} and, in some cases, is further augmented by field 346 investigations that reveal discrete (Boothia-type)³³ erratic dispersal trains or sedimentological 347 evidence from tills that may have been overridden and/or deformed by rapid ice flow. 348 However, there are no ice streams in the inventory that are based only on sedimentological 349 data and most (>85%) have a clear bedform imprint¹⁴. 350

At a larger spatial scale, it is known that many ice streams are steered by the underlying topography, often forming marine-terminating outlet glaciers bordered by rock walls²⁻⁴. The inventory includes these topographic ice streams, many of which were identified by major cross shelf-troughs and their associated sedimentary depocentres⁴⁰ (Extended Data Figure 6). Swath bathymetry from within these troughs commonly reveals many of the geomorphological criteria³² described above, such as mega-scale glacial lineations^{34,35,42}.

Given previous work that highlights the importance of 'soft' bedrock geology in 357 influencing ice stream location^{10,18,19}, we also analysed the type of bedrock over which each 358 ice stream was located. We categorized their underlying geology as either (i) predominantly 359 'soft' sedimentary rocks, (ii) predominantly 'hard' crystalline rocks (intrusive, metamorphic 360 and volcanic rocks) or (iii) those where the spatial footprint of the ice stream extended over a 361 mixture of both soft and hard rocks. This allowed us to calculate the number of different 362 types of ice streams on each broad geological category through time (Extended Data Figure 363 3). 364

Dating palaeo-ice streams: We used the best-available pan-ice sheet margin chronology¹⁵ to 366 bracket the age of the spatial footprints of each ice stream in the inventory¹⁴. The ice margin 367 chronology includes 32 time-steps, starting at 21.8 kyr (18 14C yr), ending at 5.7 kyr (5 14C 368 vr), and based on >4,000 dates that are spread across the entire ice sheet bed (Extended Data 369 Figure 2). The database consists of mainly radiocarbon dates, supplemented with varve and 370 tephra dates, which constrain ice margin positions, and shorelines of large glacial lakes. Dates 371 on problematic materials (e.g. marl, freshwater shells, lake sediment with low organic carbon 372 content, marine sediment, bulk samples with probable blended ages, and most deposit feeding 373 molluscs from calcareous substrates) were excluded. Marine shell dates, a major component, 374 were adjusted for regionally variable marine reservoir effects based on a large new set of 375 376 radiocarbon ages on live-collected, pre-bomb molluscs from Pacific, Arctic, and Atlantic shores. We use a mixed marine and Northern Hemisphere atmosphere calibration curve while 377 Dyke et al.¹⁵ used IntCal98 calibration curve. 378

We used the ice margin chronology to bracket the duration of ice stream activity using 379 methods employed in previous work on individual or small numbers of ice streams^{21,36,41-43} 380 (Extended Data Figure 7). In some cases, the duration of ice streaming may have been short-381 lived (just few hundred years), leaving evidence of a simple 'rubber-stamped' imprint³² of 382 their activity, the spatial extent of which can be readily matched to just one or two ice margin 383 positions (Extended Data Figure 7a). The more complex landform assemblages of other ice 384 streams (with overprinted MSGLs linked to associated ice marginal features) clearly indicate 385 386 that they continued to operate during ice margin retreat (Extended Data Figure 7b), and we therefore fit the ice stream activity to a series of ice margin positions over a longer-timespan 387 (hundreds to thousands of years). Similar patterns are seen for marine-terminating ice 388 streams⁴² (Extended Data Figure 7c and 7d). 389

To account for the inherent uncertainties in the dating (and interpolated ice margin 390 position) and the spatial extent of each ice stream, we provide a maximum possible duration 391 and a minimum duration for each ice stream in the inventory (Figure 2). It should be noted 392 that in some cases where the interpolated ice margin positions indicated a very short duration 393 of ice streaming, we set the minimum duration to 100 years. This is because the creation of 394 subglacial bedforms that permits their identification is likely to be of the order of decades³⁵ 395 and attempting to date to a higher precision is meaningless given the dating uncertainties 396 (mainly radiocarbon) and our focus on millennial-scale changes throughout deglaciation. 397

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Estimating palaeo-ice stream discharges: Unfortunately, there is no direct means to 399 empirically reconstruct the velocity, and thus discharge, of a palaeo-ice stream from the 400 evidence it left behind. In order to provide a simple, first-order estimate of the potential ice 401 402 discharge from each palaeo-ice stream where only the width is known confidently, we used an empirical relationship between the with and discharge of 81 active ice streams in 403 Antarctica (50: Extended Data Figure 8) and Greenland (31: Extended Data Figure 9). Ice 404 velocities (m a⁻¹) were extracted from recent compilations in Greenland (2008-2009)⁴⁴ and 405 Antarctica (2007-2009)⁴⁵ and we used these velocity datasets to measure the width (km) of 406

407 the ice stream (to the lateral shear margins or exposed rock walls) at the grounding line^{29,45}. 408 Velocity was extracted as a width-averaged value. We then used the highest resolution bed-409 data that was available for Greenland²⁹ and Antarctica³⁰ to calculate the cross-sectional area 410 (km^2) of each ice stream at the grounding line. We then calculated the modern ice stream 411 discharge $(km^3 a^{-1})$ by multiplying the velocity data by the ice-thickness data and integrating 412 the output along the ice stream's width at the grounding line.

When ice stream data from Antarctica and Greenland are amalgamated (Extended 413 Data Figure 10), a simple linear regression reveals a weak correlation ($R^2 = 0.39$) between 414 their width and discharge, which we use to predict an order-of-magnitude palaeo-discharge 415 from the width of each palaeo-ice stream that was active during deglaciation at each dated 416 margin position (Figure 3d). The regression is clearly influenced by two outliers with 417 extremely high discharge (Pine Island Glacier and Thwaites Glacier, West Antarctica). 418 Without them, the correlation weakens ($R^2 = 0.31$) and our palaeo-discharge estimates show 419 the same trend, but absolute discharges are lower (see grey shading on Fig. 3d). We 420 421 considered removing them from the regression, but use them in our estimates of palaeodischarge (e.g. in Fig. 3e and f, and Fig. 4c and d) because they allow us to partly capture 422 some of the more extreme discharges that might be expected in a deglaciating ice sheet. We 423 also extract the 95% confidence intervals of the regression and use these to estimate a lower 424 and upper range of discharge for an ice stream of given width. It should be noted, however, 425 426 that these confidence intervals under-represent the uncertainty because some assumptions for those confidence intervals (and the general validity of linear regression) are broken: a) 427 Gaussian noise, b) no correlation between individual data point residuals, c) constant 428 variance. Given this, and the obvious (and perhaps not surprising) complexity of the 429 relationship between discharge and width for modern ice streams (e.g. the mean value of 430 linear ice stream flux for Greenlandic ice streams is very different from that for Antarctic ice 431 432 streams, where there is a stronger relationship), we also extract a discharge relationship with a cruder two state approximation that avoids the assumptions required for statistically robust 433 434 application of linear regression. It is also important to note that the modern ice stream data are from one short time-period and yet we know that ice streams with a fixed width can 435 accelerate (and decelerate) at short (annual-decadal) time-scales²⁻⁴. However, the extent to 436 which these accelerations and decelerations are sustained over longer (centennial-millennial) 437 time-scales is presently unknown. Thus, we use this simple approach to generate the first 438 empirical order-of-magnitude estimate of palaeo-discharge from the LIS averaged over 439 millennial time-scales and note that our empirical results are broadly similar to those 440 generated by numerical modelling^{16,17} (Fig. 3f), albeit typically lower. 441

To evaluate our empirical estimates of palaeo-ice stream discharge in relation to ice sheet volume (e.g. Fig's 3d, 3e and Fig. 4), we extracted ice sheet volume from the mean of an ensemble of best-performing model runs from a previously-published data-calibrated numerical model¹⁶. Uncertainties associated with the modelled ice volumes (see Ref. 15) are an order of magnitude less than those associated with our estimates of palaeo-ice stream discharge and are not shown (e.g. in Fig. 4). We use this same model to compare our empirical estimates of ice stream discharge against those generated in a numerical model of 449 the LIS, with streaming discharge extracted from an ensemble of best-performing model runs at 100 year time-steps during deglaciation from 21.8 to 5.7 kyr, and ensemble standard 450 deviation in ice stream discharge shown in shading around the mean (Fig. 3f). The weighted 451 ensemble mean from this model shows a similar trend of decreasing discharge from ice 452 453 streams (Fig. 3f), but with higher discharges and greater variability. This is to be expected because our estimates based on modern ice stream discharges may not capture the full range 454 of ice stream behaviour during deglaciation of a mid-latitude ice sheet (e.g., we have no 455 modern analogue of an extensive land-terminating margin overlying soft sediments). It 456 should also be noted that the numerical modelling imposes a data-calibrated reduction in ice 457 streaming around the Hudson Strait region just prior to Heinrich event 1 in order to facilitate 458 a dynamic destabilisation during H1. This is reflected in the reduced streaming discharge in 459 that model for a few thousand years prior to 17 ka and a temporary increase thereafter (Fig. 3f 460 and Fig. 4c and d). It is also reflected in the low modelled streaming fraction at volumes 461 around 2.4 x 10^7 km³ (see Fig. 4d). 462

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501 Extended Data Figure Legends:



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Extended Data Figure 1: Location of 117 ice streams from a recently-compiled
inventory¹⁴ based on previous work and systematic mapping across the ice sheet bed.
Palaeo-ice streams are shown in dark blue shading and numbered as in ref. 14. Modern-day
ice velocity is shown for Greenland⁴⁴. Underlying topography from GTOPO30 digital
elevation data⁴⁷.



Extended Data Figure 2: Distribution of dates and interpolated ice margin positions 511

from Dyke et al. (2003)¹⁴. These ice margin positions (thin red lines) are based on dates 512

(black dots) that we used to bracket the age of the spatial footprint of each ice stream 513

- (Extended Data Figure 7). The thick red line shows the updated LGM ice margin (following 514
- recent work⁴⁹⁻⁵⁵). Underlying topography from GTOPO30 digital elevation data⁴⁷. 515
- 516



518 Extended Data Figure 3: The number of ice streams and the percentage of the margin
519 they drained through time, classified according to their underlying geology. (a) A sharp

520 drop in the number of ice streams is observed after ~ 12 kyr (Fig. 3a) which is linked with the

retreat onto the hard crystalline rocks of the Canadian Shield¹⁹. (**b**) Note, however, that

several large, wide ice streams were active over the hard bed geology (e.g. refs. 10, 21) and

- 523 they drained a large percentage of the ice sheet's perimeter.
- 524







- 527 **Stream bed²¹, central Canada.** These features are a characteristic geomorphological
- 528 signature of ice streaming and are readily identifiable on Landsat satellite imagery (a and c)
- and oblique aerial photography (**b**) of the ice stream bed (no. 6 on Extended Data Figure 1).
- 530 Identical features have been detected beneath Rutford Ice Stream in West Antarctica³⁵ in (d).
- 531 Landsat imagery courtesy of the US Geological Survey Earth Resources Observation Science
- 532 Centre and photograph by Chris Stokes. Images in (c) and (d) modified from ref. 35.





Extended Data Figure 5: Landsat imagery of lateral shear margin moraines in the 535

Canadian Arctic Archipelago. (a) The M'Clintock Channel Ice Stream bed^{36,37} on Victoria 536 Island (no. 10 on Extended Data Fig. 1), and (b) the Crooked Lake Ice Stream³³ on Prince of 537 Wales Island (no 11 on Extended Data Fig. 1). Note the abrupt lateral margins (marked by 538

white arrows) of the assemblage of mega-scale glacial lineations that is, in places, marked by 539 lateral shear margin moraines³⁸.

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Extended Data Figure 6: Bathymetric data showing cross-shelf troughs and a wellpreserved bedform imprint from a submarine setting. (a) Cross-shelf troughs formed by
ice streams fed by convergence of ice flow from several fjords along the east coast of Baffin
Island. (b) Drumlins and mega-scale glacial lineations on the floor of Eclipse Sound
(location shown in (a)). High resolution swath bathymetry data in (a) from IBCAO⁵⁶ and in
(b and c) from IBCAO⁵⁶ and ArcticNet⁵⁷. Figure redrawn from Margold et al. (2015)⁴⁸.



551 Extended Data Figure 7: Schematic demonstrating the method used to bracket the age
552 of the spatial footprint of palaeo-ice streams in both terrestrial and marine settings.

553 These methods have been used extensively in previous work, but usually on small samples of

ice streams (e.g. refs^{20,21, 36, 37, 42,43}). In some cases, terrestrial ice streams are active, but then

555 deactivate (shutdown) as the ice margin retreats (**a**), enabling them to be bracketed between a

small number of dated ice margins and implying a short duration of operation. In other cases,

557 ice streams remain active during deglaciation and continually remould their landform

- assemblage, leaving a more complicated time-integrated landform record, often with a series
- of overprinted landforms (**b**), and implying a longer duration of operation. The same
- 560 scenarios are shown for a topographically-controlled marine-terminating ice stream in (c) and

561 (**d**).



- Extended Data Figure 8: Location of ice streams in Antarctica where discharge was estimated from existing datasets of velocity⁴⁵, grounding line position⁴⁶ and ice
- thickness³⁰. Regression analysis reveals a weak relationship between their width and
- discharge (Extended Data Figure 10), which we use to estimate the discharge of palaeo-ice
- streams where we only know their width (see Methods)





571 Extended Data Figure 9: Location of ice streams in Greenland where discharge was
 572 estimated from existing datasets of velocity⁴⁴, grounding line position⁴⁴ and ice

573 **thickness²⁹.** Regression analysis reveals a weak relationship between their width and

574 discharge (Extended Data Figure 10), which we use to estimate the discharge of palaeo-ice

streams where we only know their width (see Methods)



578

Extended Data Figure 10: Relationship between ice stream discharge and width for 81
active ice streams in Antarctica and Greenland. Discharge calculations derived from
velocity data in 2008-2009 (Greenland: green dots)⁴⁴ and 2007-2009 (Antarctica: blue dots)⁴⁶.
Grey shading shows the 95% confidence intervals of the linear regression. Measured ice
stream locations are shown in Extended Data Figure's 8 and 9.

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