Tracking the Cracking: a Holistic Analysis of Rapid Ice Shelf Fracture Using Seismology, Geodesy, and Satellite Imagery on the Pine Island Glacier Ice Shelf, West Antarctica

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Key Points:

- Margin and rift fracture at PIG generate flexural gravity waves, a wave type related to interaction between a floating plate and supporting fluid.
- Relative event counts suggest that PIG's margin concentrates more stress than the rift tip, but only rift tip fracture seems related to ice speed.
- Recorded flexural gravity waves are consistent with a point moment or point load applied over ∼30 s, corresponding to ∼11 m of vertical cracking.

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Abstract

Ice shelves regulate the stability of marine ice sheets. We track fractures on Pine Island Glacier (PIG) –a quickly accelerating glacier in West Antarctica that contributes more to sea level rise than any other glacier. TerraSAR-X imagery from 2012-2014 shows the formation of wing cracks, new rift formation, opening along a large rift, small calving events, and one large tabular calving event. Using a temporary on-ice seismic network, we catalog icequakes that dominantly consist of flexural gravity waves. The icequakes occur in three spatial groups: near the rift tip, where the rift reaches the margin, and the transition between intact and damaged margin. Rift tip icequakes correlate with ice speed and therefore link glaciological stresses and fracture. Using a simple flexural gravity wave model, we deconvolve wave propagation effects to estimate icequake source durations $O[10\text{ s}]$ and transient loads $O[\text{kPa}]$ corresponding to $O[\text{m}]$ of crevasse growth per icequake.

1 Plain Language Summary

Large shelves of floating ice strengthen glaciers in Antarctica, helping to protect against rapid sea level rise that can occur when glaciers flow into the ocean. Ice shelves can collapse through rapid cracking (synonym of fracturing), but it is difficult to directly observe cracking on ice shelves. In this paper, we track cracks on Pine Island Glacier, an ice shelf in Antarctica that is particularly vulnerable to collapse. We see cracks in pictures taken by satellites. Cracking causes the ice shelf to shake up and down, which we record using the same equipment that records earthquakes. We record shaking located at a set of cracks at the side of the ice shelf and at the tip of a single massive crack called a rift. Rift cracking seems related to the speed that the ice shelf is flowing. We also use a computer simulation of shaking to learn about the details of the crack process. Our simulation suggests that the crack process might be more complicated than a single crack opening evenly at a constant rate.

2 Introduction

Ice shelf fracture is a fundamental process controlling the stability of marine ice sheets and associated sea level fluctuations (Seroussi et al., 2020). Fractures on ice shelves take on many forms including through-cutting rifts (Larour et al., 2004; Hulbe et al., 2010; Lipovsky, 2020), smaller-scale basal and surface crevasses (Rist et al., 2002; McGrath et al., 2012), hydraulic fracturing (Weertman, 1973; Banwell et al., 2013), and cliff failure (Clerc et al., 2019). Despite decades of progress, understanding of ice shelf fracture remains significantly hindered by a lack of direct observation (Benn et al., 2007). For this reason, previous studies have examined icequakes generated by rapid ice shelf fracture growth (Von der Osten-Woldenburg, 1990; Bassis et al., 2007, 2008; Heeszel et al., 2014; Hammer et al., 2015; Olinger et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2019; Winberry et al., 2020; Aster et al., 2021). Here, we use flexural gravity waves to quantify fracturing of the Pine Island Glacier (PIG) Ice Shelf.

PIG contributes more to present day global sea level rise than any other glacier (Shepherd et al., 2018). Ice mass loss on PIG is thought to be due to the retreat of the floating ice shelf (Joughin, Shapero, Smith, et al., 2021), the latter being caused by interactions between ocean forcing (Christianson et al., 2016; Joughin, Shapero, Dutrieux, & Smith, 2021) and fracturing processes (MacGregor et al., 2012). Upon creating a catalog of impulsive flexural gravity wave events on PIG, we examine the relationship between crevasse growth, large-scale rift propagation, shear margin processes, and ice shelf acceleration.

We focus on icequakes that travel as flexural gravity waves. Flexural gravity waves are unique to floating structures such as ice shelves; they have as their restoring force both elasticity and buoyancy and are therefore a type of hybrid seismic-water wave (Ewing & Crary, 1934). Many sources have been observed to generate flexural gravity waves on ice shelves including ocean swell (Williams & Robinson, 1981), tsunamis (Bromirski et al., 2017), and airplane landings (MacAyeal et al., 2009). This wave mode is strongly dispersive (Ewing & Crary, 1934), which can make waveform analysis difficult and necessitates careful modelling (Sergienko, 2017; Mattsson et al., 2018; Lipovsky, 2018). Despite this challenge, flexural gravity waves are useful tools to study ice shelf processes because because, while direct body waves in ice shelves are often not observed at distances greater than a few ice thickness (Zhan et al., 2014), flexural gravity waves are often observed to travel long distances from their exciting source (Williams & Robinson, 1981).

MacAyeal et al. (2009) appears to have been the first to propose that that fracturing processes in ice shelves may act as seismic sources that generate flexural gravity waves. MacAyeal et al. (2009) considered water motion in a deforming rift and motion of detaching blocks from the ice front as two such sources. Here, we hypothesize that crevasse growth generates flexural gravity waves. This creates a novel mechanical problem with regards to the representation of crevasse growth a seismic source. In an elastic body, motion that is discontinuous across a planar interface (i.e., a dislocation) such as a fault or a crevasse is equivalently represented by a moment tensor (Aki & Richards, 2002, Equation 3.20). While this description applies to elastic wave propagation in an ice shelf, it may not necessarily be the most useful way to approach the problem. For example, if no body waves are detectable, then the radiation pattern predicted by (Aki & Richards, 2002, Equation 3.20) will not be observed.

The simplest model that captures flexural gravity wave propagation is that of a buoyantly supported elastic beam (Sergienko, 2017; Mattsson et al., 2018). Because this model only has the vertical component motion as an independent variable, classical dislocations require an indirect parameterization in terms of either vertical motion or one of its derivatives: tilt, moment, vertical shear, and vertical point load (Hetenyi, 1946). In our analysis, we examine how these various types of excitation act during ice shelf crevasse growth. We begin our fracture analysis by describing a timeline of events with the use of satellite imagery.

3 Analysis of Satellite Imagery and Positioning

We track visible fracturing on PIG using images collected by the TerraSAR-X satellite (Pitz & Miller, 2010) from 2012 to 2014. At the start of our study period in January 2012 (dictated by the seismic/geodetic deployment, detailed below), the primary visible fractures are the rift, $\sim$20 large cracks extending into the ice shelf from northern shear margin, and $\sim$10 cracks extending into the ice shelf at the southern edge of the nascent iceberg (Figure 1a, left). By January 2013, the main rift had propagated a few kilometers without significant widening, and two wing cracks (Renshaw & Schulson, 2001) opened at the rift tip (Figure 1a, right). One of the cracks at the northern shear margin extended 7 km and connected to the rift between May 8 and May 11, 2012. The other northern shear margin cracks extended and widened, at least two new cracks initiated near Evans Knoll, and one of cracks at the southern edge of the nascent iceberg extended to within a kilometer of the rift tip.

During the first four months of 2013, the wing cracks near the rift tip extended and widened. In early July 2013, a block of ice calved along a wing crack at the southern edge of the nascent iceberg near the rift tip (Figure 1b). After this preliminary calving event, the only connection between the nascent iceberg and the ice shelf was a 2 km wide strip of ice between the ocean and a wing crack. Over the next few months, we observe significant widening of the rift, likely due to the iceberg beginning to drift away from the ice shelf. Iceberg B-31 calved in November 2013 (Figure 1c) when left lateral motion of the iceberg pried open a large wing crack near the rift tip until the strip of ice stabilizing the iceberg broke off, allowing Iceberg B-31 to drift into the sea. By the end of 2013, many fractures in the northern shear margin had extended and calved smaller icebergs, and several new fractures had initiated near Evans Knoll.

We furthermore examine Global Positioning System (GPS) speed timeseries derived from five continuous GPS stations. The GPS stations were co-located with seismometers (described below); the station locations are shown in Figure 2. Our GPS processing strategy is described in Supporting Text S1. Figure 3a plots the GPS-derived ice shelf velocity. We find that ice speed at PIG decreases from over 11 m/day in January 2012 to 10.8 m/day in April 2013. Then, ice speed drops to 10.6 m/day for around a month beginning May 2013. Following this rapid slowdown, ice speed begins to increase, reaching nearly 11 m/day by the end of 2013. The GPS ice speed we compute here is consistent with a previous study utilizing the same dataset (Christianson et al., 2016).

4 Analysis of Seismograms

We examine seismic and GPS data from five sites on PIG (Stanton et al., 2013). The instruments were deployed in January 2012 and retrieved in December 2013, providing about two years of continuous data. The seismic stations were deployed in a cross shape with 5 km aperture at the center of the ice shelf (Figure 2). Each site consisted of a three component Nanometrics Trillium 120 Broadband seismometer and a Quanterra Q330 digitizer (David Holland & Robert Bindschadler, 2012). Seismic data was sampled at 100 Hz, and we removed the instrumental response on the frequency band 0.001 Hz to 45 Hz. Each seismometer was co-located with a GPS station. We compare the seismic records with the timeline constructed using GPS time series and TerraSAR-X satellite imagery.

In the seismic dataset, we observe events with an abrupt onset and with high frequencies that arrive before low frequencies. This type of dispersion is characteristic of flexural gravity waves, which have previously been described on ice shelves (MacAyeal et al., 2009; Sergienko, 2017; Mattsson et al., 2018). The dispersion is the opposite of typical surface waves from tectonic earthquakes, where low frequencies arrive first because seismic wave speeds generally increase with depth. Following this interpretation, we design a workflow to identify and analyze flexural gravity waves generated by icequakes. For simplicity, in the rest of the text we refer to impulsive flexural gravity wave events as icequakes.

To detect icequakes in the dataset, we design a two-stage detection scheme that identifies broadband, dispersive seismic events. Our detection approach, described in Supporting Text S2, uses a dual-band short term average/long term average (STA/LTA) detector that is enhanced through template matching (Allen, 1978; Gibbons & Ringdal, 2006). This detection approach results in a preliminary catalog of 22,119 events. Inspection of the preliminary catalog reveals two main families of events: one with clear high-frequency-first dispersion and one which is dominantly monochomatic. In order to focus on the former, and consistent with our focus on icequake flexural gravity waves, we undertake waveform clustering using a modified K-Shape algorithm (Paparrizos & Gravano, 2016). Our modifications specifically enable the analysis of multi-component seismic data (see Text S2). Visual analysis of the clustered catalog demonstrates the efficacy of our approach in isolating flexural gravity waves (Fig. 3). Our final catalog contains 8,184 likely icequakes.

We next determine icequake locations for all events in our final catalog. Given the poor distribution of the stations with respect to fracture locations, we employ single-station approaches to locating icequakes. We compute epicentral back-azimuths by analyzing the polarization direction of recorded horizontal waves. We apply principle component

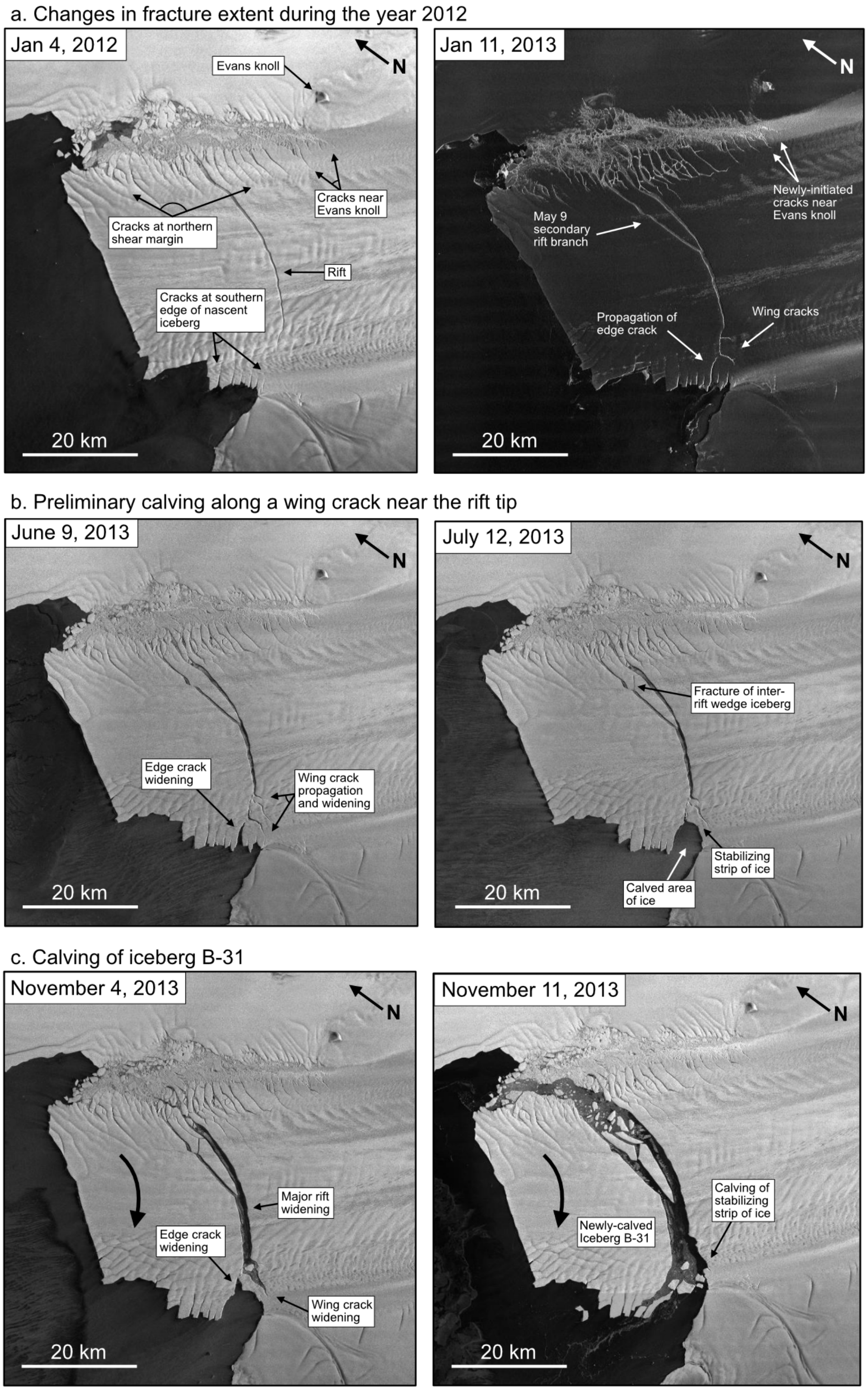

Figure 1. TerraSAR-X images showing an overview of fracture development at PIG from 2012 to 2014. Large arrow in panels c. and d. show sense of motion of the iceberg. See text for full discussion.

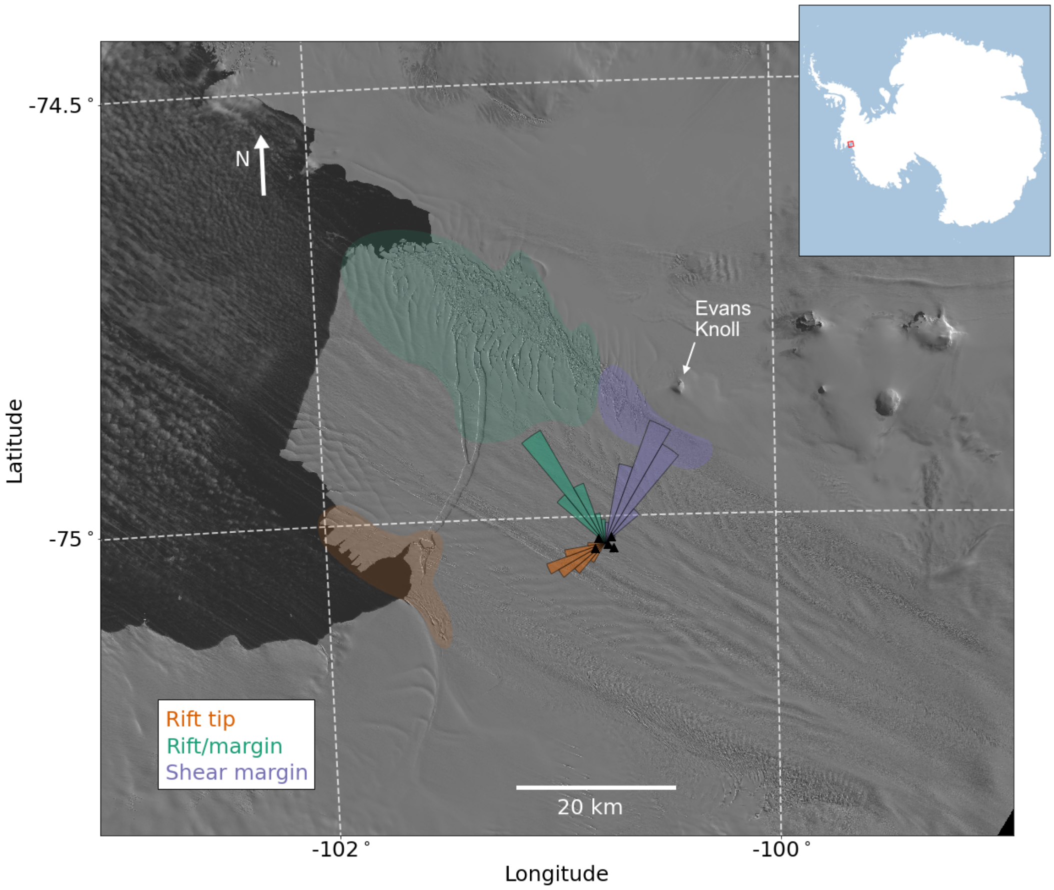

Figure 2. Locations of fracture events detected using template matching. Rift-tip event back-azimuths are plotted as orange rays. Rift/margin-event back-azimuths are plotted as purple rays. Shear-margin event back-azimuths are plotted as green rays. Likely source regions for each group are shown by colored polygons. PIG array seismic stations are plotted as black triangles. Background LANDSAT imagery is from October 2013 (courtesy of the United States Geological Survey).

analysis (PCA) to the horizontal component seismograms to retrieve polarization directions. The polarization provides a 180 degree ambiguity, so we find the direction of propagation based on which station recorded the first arrival using a robust algorithm (see Text S3).

We locate all of the 8,184 icequakes to one of three distinct source regions: the rift tip, the body of the rift and nearby shear margin ("rift/margin"), and the northeast shear margin near Evan's knoll ("shear margin"), which are depicted in Figure 2. These spatial groups correspond to 22%, 29%, and 40% of the catalog, respectively, with 9% of events having indeterminate locations. Figure 2 shows the azimuthal histograms of the three clusters. In the following, all of the waveforms that we analyze are filtered to the frequency range between 100 s and 1 s.

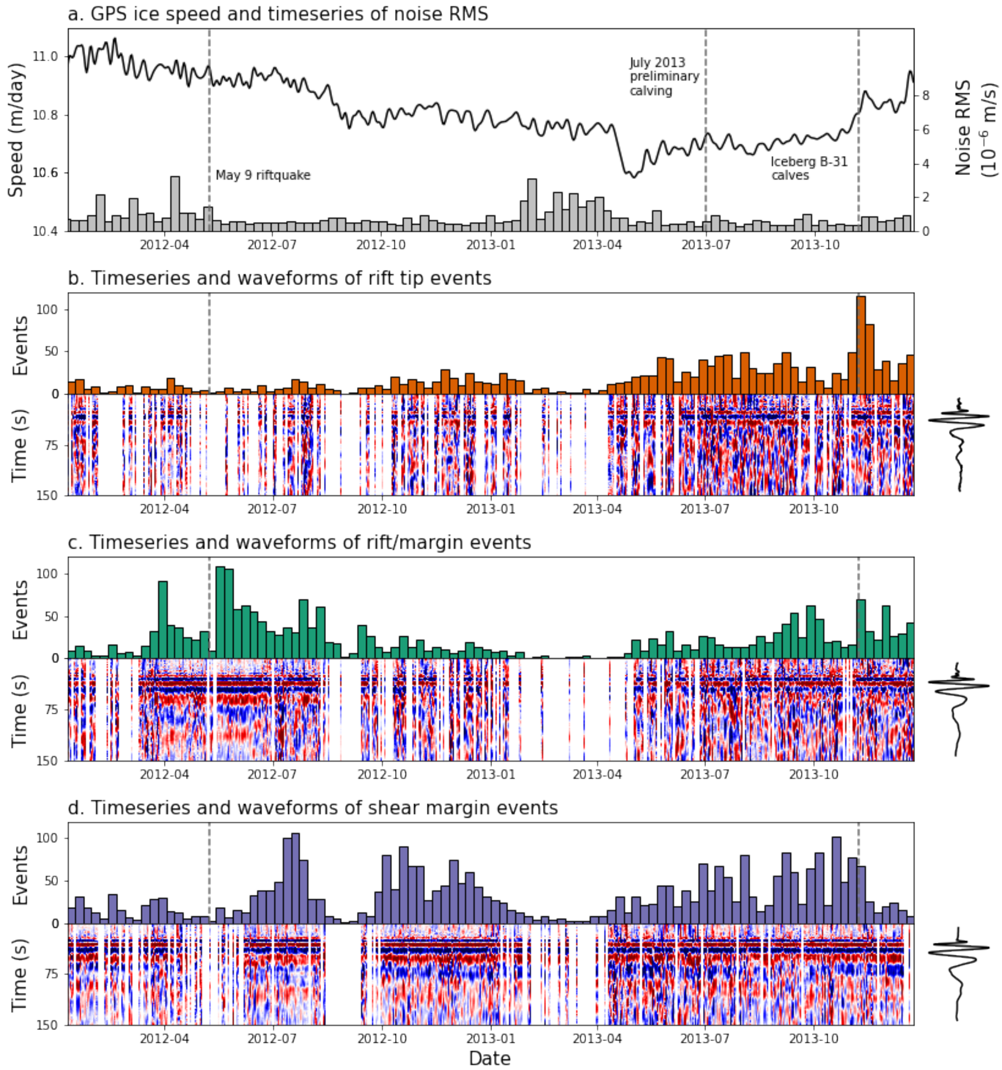

Figure 3. Timing and waveforms of icequakes detected using template matching. (a) GPS-derived ice velocity (black line) and average noise calculated with Root Mean Square amplitudes (gray bars). Noise is highest in the Antarctic summer, when minimal sea ice is present to attenuate ocean-generated noise, reducing detectability in January, February, and March. (b) Rift-tip events. Weekly timeseries of rift tip event times is shown by orange bars. Daily vertical (HHZ) waveform stacks of detected rift tip events are plotted beneath. Overall rift-tip event stack is shown to the right. (c) Same as (b) for northwest shear-margin events, color-coded in green. (d) Same as (b) for northeast shear-margin events color-coded in purple.

5 Relationships Between Icequakes and Ice Shelf Behavior

5.1 Rift tip

The rift-tip icequakes are coincident in space and time with several fracturing processes including rift propagation, wing cracking, small scale calving within the rift, smaller-scale crevassing, and calving along the southern edge of the nascent iceberg. Rift tip events occurred more frequently in 2013 than in 2012 (Figure 3b). No week of 2012 contained more than 30 events, while 17 weeks of 2013 contained more than 30 icequakes (9.4 versus 17.5 icequakes/week). Weekly icequake counts increased past the peak level seen in 2012 on May 21, 2013 and remain elevated until the end of the deployment. This period of elevated rift tip seismicity corresponds to the phase of significant wing crack growth and rift widening observed in imagery.

Peak levels of rift-tip seismicity were observed during the calving of Iceberg B-31 in the week of November 5, 2013. That week had 115 rift-tip events, the highest event count of any week across all three source regions. Furthermore, elevated rift-tip icequake activity in 2013 corresponds to a period of accelerated ice velocities (Figure 3a). Christianson et al. (2016) hypothesize that the overall pattern of ice velocities tracks a time-lagged response to ocean melting. Walker and Gardner (2019) propose that such melting near and within rifts promotes fracture. The observed connection in time between rift tip fracture and accelerated ice velocities demonstrates that rift growth and PIG is sensitive to localized thinning, changes in ice dynamics, or a combination of both. At the present time, however, we are unable to confirm whether local or more distant melt-related feedbacks are responsible for the observed fracturing.

5.2 Rift/margin

The rift/margin icequakes are coincident in space and time with the growth of $\sim$20 rifts formed in the northwest shear zone, as well as smaller-scale fractures and widening of the main rift itself. Rift/margin icequakes occurred more frequently in 2012 than in 2013. 18 weeks of 2012 contained greater than 30 icequakes, while only 10 weeks of 2013 contained greater than 30 icequakes (27.7 versus 23.5 icequakes/week). The timing of icequakes in the rift/margin group is independent of ice speed. Peak levels of rift/margin seismicity were observed during the week of May 15, 2012, which contained 109 rift/margin icequakes. Rift/margin icequakes reach peak seismicity rates in the weeks following the opening of the secondary rift branch in May 2012, suggesting that the crack opening caused aftershock-like seismicity and/or destabilized the margin, enhancing the growth of nearby fractures.

5.3 Shear margin

The shear-margin icequakes are coincident in space and time with the initiation of new cracks and growth of extant cracks near Evans Knoll. This area marks the transition from a primarily intact shear margin upstream of Evans Knoll to a highly fractured shear margin downstream of Evans Knoll. Imagery shows that multiple fractures longer than 1 km were initiated in this area during 2012 and 2013 (Figure 1). Shear-margin icequakes occurred at an approximately equal rate in 2012 and 2013. 20 weeks of 2012 and 2013 contained greater than 30 icequakes (29.6 versus 30.3 icequakes/week). Peak levels of shear margin seismicity were observed during the week of October 15, 2013, which contained 99 shear-margin icequakes. Shear-margin icequakes do not exhibit any prominent temporal trends and appear independent of ice velocity. The shear margin experiences the highest overall level of seismic activity, suggesting that the transition point from intact to fractured ice near Evans Knoll experiences higher stress concentrations than either the rift tip or the rift/margin regions, consistent with rift modeling (Lipovsky, 2020).

6 Icequake Source Analysis

We next estimate the distribution of forces that gives rise to the observed seismograms. We do this by removing wave propagation effects from the observed seismograms using a theoretical and numerically computed Green's function. Our catalog was designed to represent icequakes that mostly consist of flexural gravity waves. We therefore model the vertical seismograms using the simplest model that gives rise to flexural gravity waves, the dynamic floating beam equation (Ewing & Crary, 1934; Squire & Allan, 1977),

$$\rho_i h_i \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial t^2} + D\frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^4} + \rho_w g w + \rho_w \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = P, \tag{1}$$

where $D \equiv EI = Eh_i^3/[12(1-\nu^2)]$ is the flexural rigidity with second moment of area $I = \int_{-h_i/2}^{h_i/2} z^2 dz$, E is the Young's modulus of ice, ν is the Poisson's ratio of ice, t is time, x is horizontal position, g is gravitational acceleration constant, h_i is the ice thickness, ρ_i is the density of ice, ρ_w is the density of water, w is the vertical displacement of the beam, ϕ is the ocean surface velocity potential, and P is an applied point load. From left to right, the terms in Equation (1) represent inertia, flexure of the ice shelf, buoyancy, and ocean surface waves generated at the ice-water interface. In the following, we use locally-averaged ice thickness $h_i = 400$ m (Shean et al., 2019), the water depth $h_w =$ 590 m (Fretwell et al., 2013).

We obtain the Green's function of the floating beam equation as the impulse response of the mechanical system to a point load (force per unit length) source. Rewriting Equation 1 using the linear operator $\mathcal{A}$ as $\mathcal{A}w = P$, the Green's function equation can then be written as $\mathcal{A}G = \delta(x)\delta(t)$. In Supporting Text S3, we derive a frequency-wavenumber solution for G that we are able to analytical invert in the time domain and numerically invert in the frequency domain. In Text S3 we also derive the Green's function G_m that is the vertical displacement response to a point moment source.

We follow two lines of inquiry to relate the calculated Green's functions to our icequake catalog. First, we deconvolve Green's functions from waveform stacks of our three spatial groups (Section 5) in order to estimate the source load or moment distribution. Second, we carry out sensitivity tests on our results in order to understand: 1. our ability to resolve static changes in load or moment and 2. to understand the influence of ice thickness and of our assumption of uniform ice thickness.

Figure 4 illustrates that a given vertical displacement seismogram (far right) may equivalently be represented as a point moment (Figure 4a and b) or an point load (Figure 4c and d). This figure shows our deconvolution result for the rift tip group of icequakes. The equivalent analysis for the other two groups of events is given in the Supporting Figures. We discuss the differences between point moment and point load sources in Section 6.

We examine the sensitivity of our deconvolution to the assumed value for the ice thickness by varying the ice thickness between 300 and 500 m (Supporting Figures S3-5). For the rift-tip group, we find source durations ranging from 30.48 to 50.00 s and amplitudes ranging from 2.69 to 6.90 MPa·m (point moment) and 3.83 to 8.62 kPa (point load). For the rift/margin group, we find source durations ranging from 19.52 to 48.57 s and amplitudes ranging from 3.82 to 12.55 MPa·m (point moment) and from 5.05 to 14.02 kPa (point load). Finally, for the shear-margin group, we find source durations ranging from 27.14 to 36.67 s and amplitudes ranging from 5.60 to 14.89 MPa·m (point moment) and from 8.04 to 12.97 kPa (point load).

Our resulting source time series for moment and point load generally exhibit one or several pulses of activity followed by a return to zero (Figure 4). Source time functions derived from body waves in an elastic medium result in estimates of moment rate (Aki & Richards, 2002, Equation 4.32,). Here, however, our deconvolution is sensitive

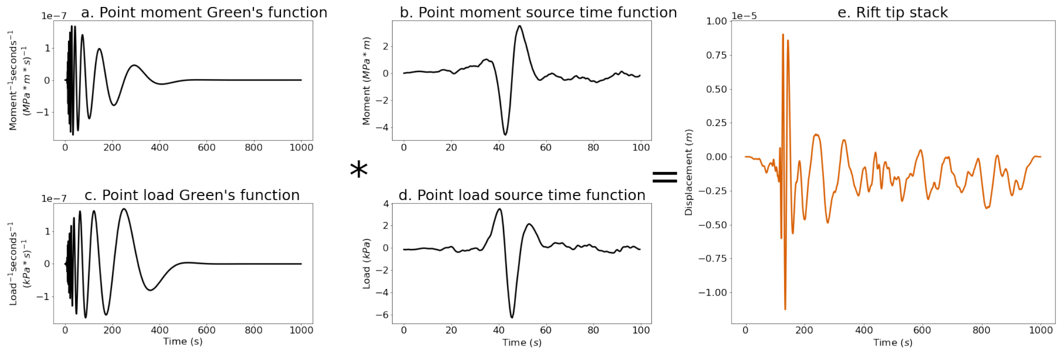

Figure 4. Green's functions and source time functions for rift tip events. (a) Theoretical Green's function for a point moment source located at a distance of 25 km, which is approximately the distance from PIG seismic array to the rift tip. (b) Source time function retrieved by deconvolving the point moment Green's function from the stack of rift tip vertical displacement waveforms. (c) Theoretical Green's function for a point load source located at a distance of 25 km. (d) Source time function retrieved by deconvolving the point load Green's function from the stack of rift tip vertical displacement waveforms. (e) Stack of rift tip vertical displacement waveforms obtained by aligning waveforms to a master event and taking the mean waveform on the frequency band 0.01-1 Hz.

not to the rate of change of point load or moment, but instead to a point load and moment. This complicates the interpretation of the estimated source time series because it suggests that the icequakes represent the application and subsequent removal of some point load or moment. This physically counterintuitive situation motivates an examination of the sensitivity of our deconvolution to static offsets. We therefore calculate synthetic seismograms forced by a step in moment or point load (Supporting Figures S6-S8). We find that in some cases the step function provides an acceptable fit to the observations, which is probably due to limitations of the Fourier transform of non-periodic functions. We therefore conclude that our model is not clearly able to resolve differences in the source time series at low frequencies.

7 Discussion of icequake source physics

We have cataloged icequakes that propagate as flexural gravity waves. We then deconvolved wave propagation effects from icequake waveform stacks in order to estimate the distribution of forces that act at the icequake source. This workflow lead us to make several assumptions about the nature of the icequake source that we now discuss.

We examined the situation where the icequake source was either an applied point bending moment or point load. Both cases can be justified with physical reasoning. First, when a basal crevasse opens and fills with water, the downward-acting ice overburden stress at the top of the crevasse is greater in magnitude than the upward-acting buoyancy stress exerted by water filling the crevasse. This applies a downward point load to the ice shelf. Second, when a crevasse opens and fills with water, the horizontal ice overburden stress along the walls of the crevasse is greater in magnitude than the horizontal buoyancy stress exerted by the water filling the crevasse. In addition, the difference in magnitude between these two stresses decreases with depth such that the walls of a crevasse are subject to stress gradient. This applies a bending moment to the ice shelf. These two mechanisms may also act in concert and simultaneously apply a moment and point load to the ice shelf. We choose not to pursue this such hybrid sources at the present time, however, because the simplicity of our model –specifically the assumptions of uniform ice thickness and two-dimensional geometry– suggests that additional source complexity is not warranted prior to improvements in these other areas.

The timescale of the source process, however, is constrained independent of the exact force distribution assumed in the deconvolution. Our source analysis implies that the recorded flexural gravity waves were generated by fracturing process with approximately 20-50 s duration. At this timescale, the observed waves must have been generated by brittle fracture, not by viscous deformation. This 20-50 s timescale is extremely slow compared, for example, to tectonic earthquakes, where earthquake duration scales like $10^{M/2}$ with earthquake moment M and 20 s duration is associated with a $M = 7$ earthquake (Ekström et al., 2003).

What process sets the duration of the observed icequakes? The above scaling for tectonic earthquakes is based on the reasoning that the duration is set by the time required for a shear crack to propagate across a fault of length L and by assuming a shear cracks that tends towards propagation at inertial velocities (either the shear or dilatational wave speed v_s or v_p) (Freund, 1998). In our system, however, we expect that water plays a limiting role in the speed of fracture propagation that may not be present in tectonic earthquakes. The propagation of fluid filled basal crevasses is expected to occur at the crack wave speed (Lipovsky & Dunham, 2015). The crack wave speed is much slower than the inertial velocities and could plausibly be in the range of 1-100 m/s for basal crevasses in ice shelves. These velocities would suggest source length scales on the order of meters to hundreds of meters. A second plausible explanation is that long durations may be explained by the coalescence of many smaller individual fractures that open successively. And yet another explanation is that there could be significant horizontal propagation which is not captured in our model. We expect that more detailed near-source observations would be able to distinguish between these possible scenarios.

Regardless of the cause of slow ruptures, we estimate point load source amplitudes on the order of 1-10 kPa. Assuming crack opening occurs below the waterline, a point load of 10 kPa would result from displacing about 11 m of ice with water during vertical crevasse growth.

8 Conclusions

We detect and locate icequakes that propagate as flexural gravity waves on the Pine Island Glacier ice shelf from 2012 to 2014. When compared to satellite imagery, the back-azimuthal distribution of the detected events suggests that the icequakes were generated by fractures at the tip of a large rift and in two distinct portions of the northern shear margin. Most of the events were generated at the shear margin near Evans Knoll, in agreement with imagery that suggests significant fracture initiation. Increased fracturing at the rift tip is associated with increased ice speed in 2013, interpreted as due to elevated basal melting (Christianson et al., 2016). We attribute this relationship to melt-driven thinning that elevated rift tip stress concentrations. We use a simple model of flexural gravity waves to constrain the source of the recorded waves. We find that the observed waves have a source duration between 20-50 s. This timescale implies that a brittle fracture process generated the waves. Our analysis therefore confirms the role of brittle processes in the long-term evolution of marine ice sheets.

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Figure 1.


a. Changes in fracture extent during the year 2012
Jan 4, 2012
Evans knoll
N
Cracks near Evans knoll
Cracks at northern shear margin
Rift
Cracks at southern edge of nascent iceberg
20 km
Jan 11, 2013
N
Newly-initiated cracks near Evans knoll
May 9 secondary rift branch
Propagation of edge crack
Wing cracks
20 km
b. Preliminary calving along a wing crack near the rift tip
June 9, 2013
N
Edge crack widening
Wing crack propagation and widening
20 km
July 12, 2013
N
Fracture of inter-rift wedge iceberg
Stabilizing strip of ice
Calved area of ice
20 km
c. Calving of iceberg B-31
November 4, 2013
N
Major rift widening
Edge crack widening
Wing crack widening
20 km
November 11, 2013
N
Calving of stabilizing strip of ice
Newly-calved Iceberg B-31
20 km

Figure 2.

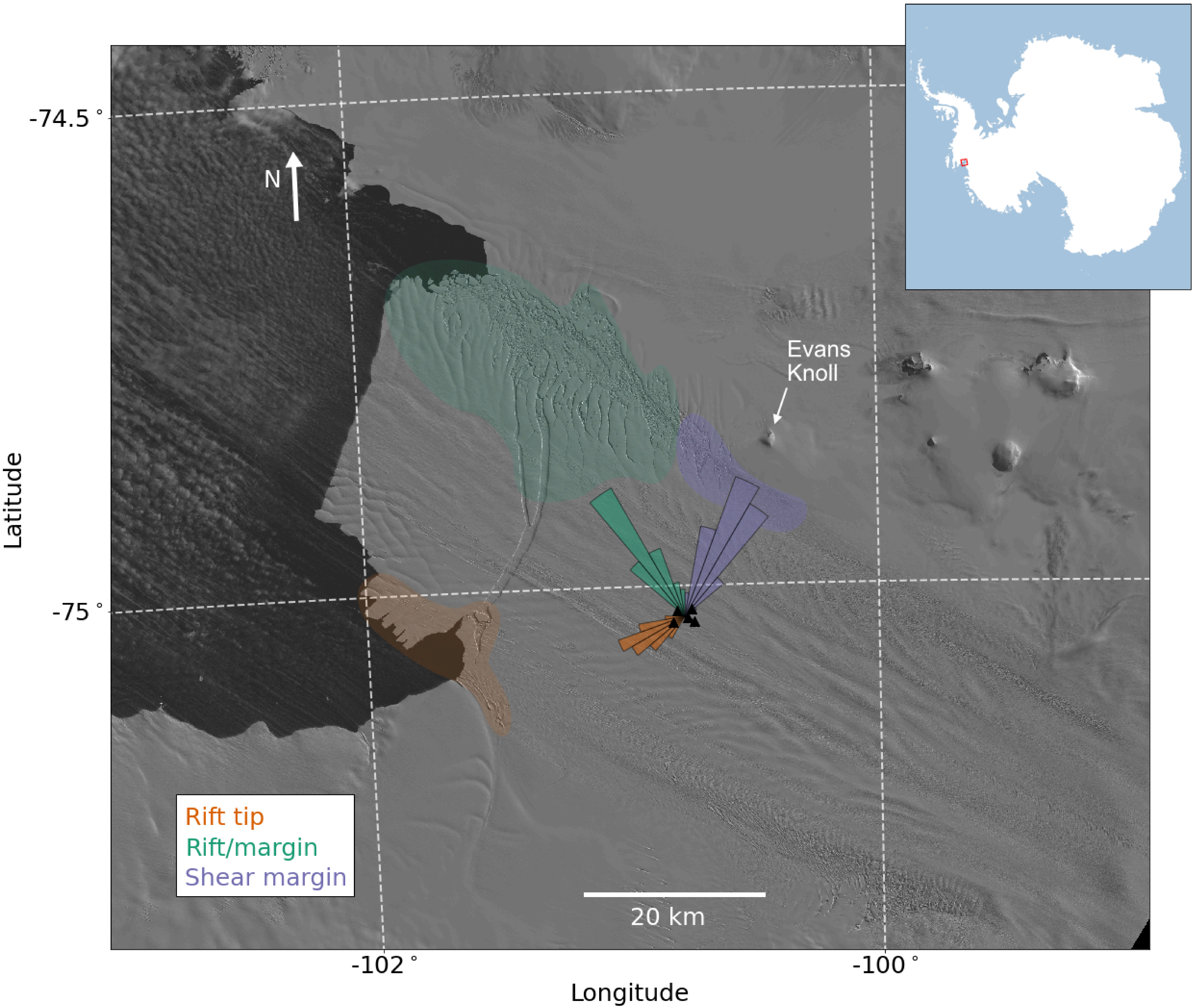
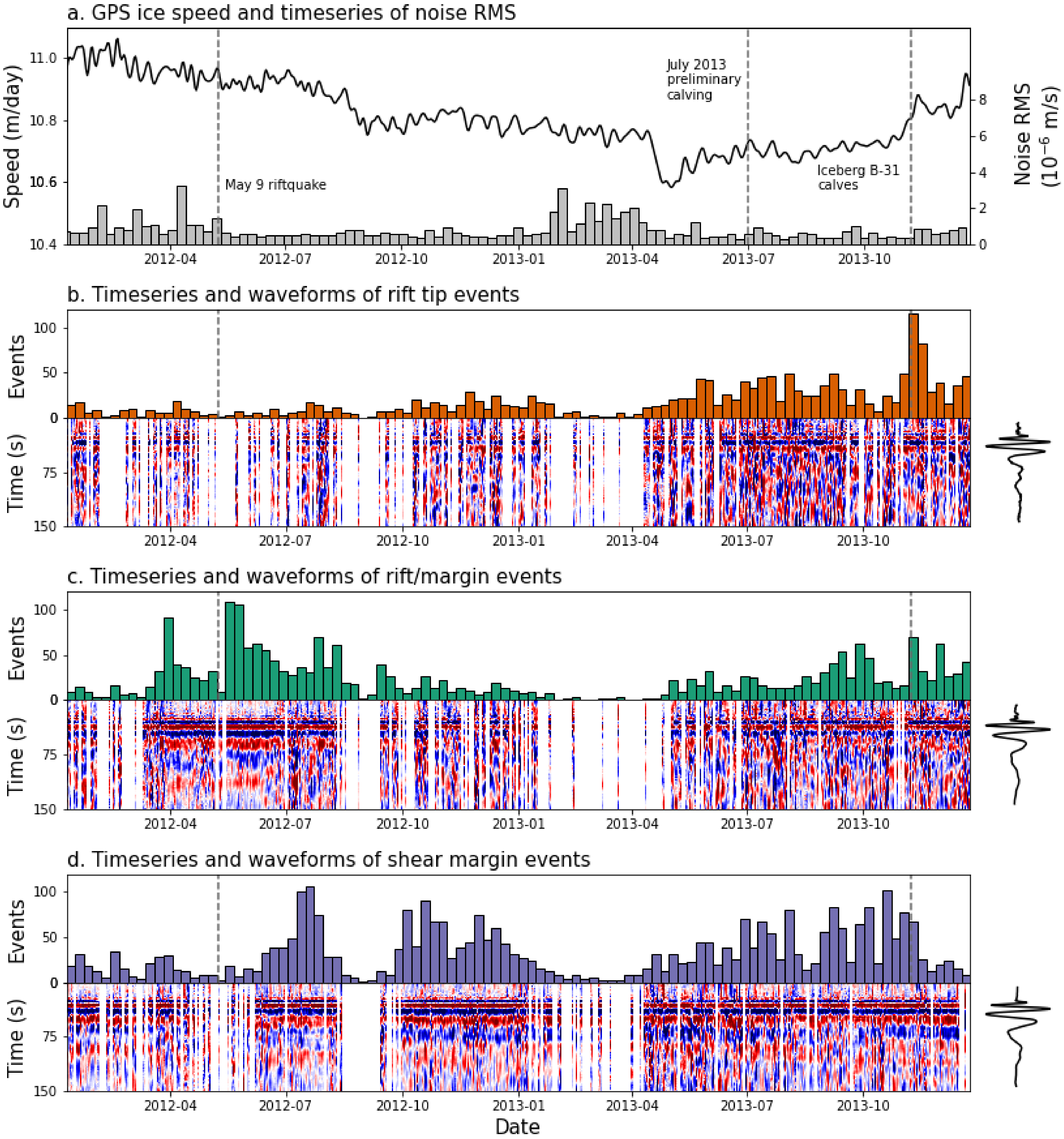

-74.5 °
-75 °
-102 °
-100 °
Latitude
Longitude
N
Evans
Knoll
Rift tip
Rift/margin
Shear margin
20 km

Figure 3.



a. GPS ice speed and timeseries of noise RMS
Speed (m/day)
Noise RMS (10^{-6} m/s)
May 9 riftquake
July 2013 preliminary calving
Iceberg B-31 calves
b. Timeseries and waveforms of rift tip events
c. Timeseries and waveforms of rift/margin events
d. Timeseries and waveforms of shear margin events
Events
Time (s)
Date
2012-04
2012-07
2012-10
2013-01
2013-04
2013-07
2013-10

Figure 4.


a. Point moment Green's function
Moment^{-1}seconds^{-1} $(MPa*m*s)^{-1}$
1e−7
b. Point moment source time function
Moment $(MPa*m)$
c. Point load Green's function
Load^{-1}seconds^{-1} $(kPa*s)^{-1}$
1e−7
Time (s)
d. Point load source time function
Load (kPa)
Time (s)
*
=
e. Rift tip stack
1e−5
Displacement (m)
Time (s)