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Hidden cascades of seismic ice stream deformation

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Ice streams are major regulators of sea level change. However, standard viscous flow simulations of their evolution have limited predictive power due to incomplete understanding of involved processes. On the Greenland ice sheet, borehole fiber-optic observations reveal a brittle deformation mode that is incompatible with viscous flow over length scales similar to the resolution of modern ice sheet models: englacial ice quake cascades that are unobservable at the surface. Nucleating near volcanism-related impurities that promote grain boundary cracking, they appear as a macroscopic form of crystal-scale wild plasticity. A conservative estimate indicates that seismic cascades are likely to produce strain rates that are comparable in amplitude to those measured geodetically, thereby providing a plausible missing link between current ice sheet models and observations.

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Ice streams strongly affect the total mass balance of the Antarctic and Greenlandic ice sheets (*1*–*3*). The need to predict their behavior in a changing climate and the concomitant consequences for human society motivates the development of ice sheet simulations (*4*). The predictive power of such simulations, e.g., in terms of projected sea level rise, or ice sheet retreat rates is limited by various aspects of existing numerical models, including numerical discretization, and rheology, as well as material, hydraulic and stress-strain conditions at the base (*3*, *5*, *6*). To date, however, knowledge of model boundary conditions and rheology is largely limited by the difficulty to perform in situ measurements of glacial properties and processes. Here, we employ Distributed Acoustic Sensing (DAS) (*7*, *8*) to detect a mode of ice deformation, which cannot be reconciled with the commonly used non-linear viscous rheology of Glen's flow law (*9*): cascading englacial thrust faulting, observed near the borehole of the East Greenland Ice Core Project (EastGRIP) on the Northeast Greenland Ice Stream (NEGIS) (Fig. 1, A and B). Accounting for ~12% of its total mass discharge (*1*, *10*), NEGIS is the largest ice stream of the Greenland Ice Sheet and a major contributor to current sea level rise (*2*), which underlines the importance of understanding its rheology and deformation mechanisms. In this context, ice core crystallography at EastGRIP has been studied extensively employing both in-situ observations (*11*) and remote geophysical methods (*12*), e.g., to link variations in crystal orientation to large-scale viscous flow patterns (*13*). Optical line scanning has produced images of structures very similar to geological fault-bend folds on thrust ramps, a type of thrust structure (*14*) (Fig. 1C) that have not been observed in ice cores before (*15*). While they evidence that shortening was accommodated by brittle deformation structures in the past, their current activity and contribution to ice deformation remain elusive.

As illustrated in Fig. 1B, we lowered a loose-tube fiber-optic cable, containing four single-mode fibers, 1500 m into the EastGRIP borehole, which had reached a depth of 2420 m at that time. For 14 hours, on 10 August 2022, we measured longitudinal strain rate along the cable using a Silixa iDAS v2 interrogator with 10 m gauge length. Thanks to an average borehole inclination of ~3°, the cable was frictionally coupled to the borehole wall, thereby providing high-quality recordings of seismic body waves, originating from active-shot experiments (*16*). In addition to these, the DAS cable recorded a large variety of natural englacial seismicity, including small individual events, as well as event cascades that lasted for several seconds.

Phenomenology

The borehole DAS recordings from 10 August 2022 contain five clear seismic event sequences, possibly representing the dynamic process behind the brittle deformation patterns observed in the EastGRIP ice core. A visual summary of the sequences is shown in Figs. 2 and 3. This is complemented by a more comprehensive data survey in figs. S1 to S4. To tie borehole depth to age, we use the EastGRIP ice chronology of (*17*). Such conversions are indicated by ka b2k, which uses the year 2000 AD as origin.

The sequences, with one to more than 100 subevents, have several characteristic properties. Most obviously, all

subevents have a radiation pattern that is antisymmetric in the vertical direction, regardless of their amplitude and location. The subevents generally start with positive strain rates (extension in fiber direction) radiating up- and negative strain rates (shortening in fiber direction) radiating downwards. The character of many of the subevents resembles plane waves with apparent wave speeds ranging from 2000–3000 m/s, which is significantly faster than the S wave speed (~1800 m/s) but slower than the P wave speed (~3800 m/s) in the ice around EastGRIP (*16*). Thus they are oblique S waves. Within layers of 10–20 m thickness, we observe shortening that lasts up to tens of seconds (e.g., Fig. 2A, iii) and may be interpreted as creep. These deforming layers seem to temporarily impede the upward propagation of the wave field and in some cases lead to strong downward reflections with a reflection coefficient of around 0.5 (e.g., Figs. 2, A, ii, and B, v).

Despite their complexity, the initial high-amplitude parts of sequences 2 and 5 are remarkably similar. (Fig. 3C). They are composed of an upward-migrating cascade of subevents that originate at identical depths in both sequences. While each subevent of a cascade radiates a wave field downwards, the upward radiation stops after few tens of meters at a layer where creep occurs for 10–50 ms, before the next subevent initiates.

As detailed in supplementary section S2, none of the sequences observed in the EastGRIP borehole was detected by the geophone array at the surface, with the closest geophone installed at a distance of 160 m from the borehole. This lack of surface observability is consistent with the DAS data, which do not show wave propagation extending beyond the thin creeping layers, and explains the absence of similar observations in the literature. Although weak seismic reflectors have been mapped below EastGRIP (*16*), comparable strong reflections off the creeping layers as, e.g., in subevents 1.ii and 2.v, are not present in active-shot data recorded with DAS in the borehole (*16*), and shown in supplement 3.1. This result excludes known changes in fabric orientation (*12*) as the cause for these reflections. The depths of the creeping layers marked with $*$ and + in Fig. 2 coincide with the depth of two tephra (glass component of volcanic ash) layers that were identified in the EastGRIP ice core: the Mt. Mazama (Crater Lake, U.S.) tephra dated at 7.6 ka b2k and the Saksunarvatn (Grimsvötn, Iceland) tephra dated at 10.2 ka b2k. (See section S3.2 for details.) In a similar context, we observe that many of the subevents in sequences 2 and 5 (Fig. 3c) initiate near depths where SO_4 spikes, caused by volcanic eruptions, have been inferred from a projection of GRIP2 sulfate measurements onto the EastGRIP depth scale. (See section S3.3 for details.) Numerous subevents, especially in sequences 1, 3 and 4, initiate at 1360 m depth, close to the abrupt transition around 14.7 ka b2k from the cold climate of the Oldest Dryas/GS-2 stadial to the milder Bølling-Allerød/GI-1 climatic period. Located at 1375 m depth, this transition is particularly sharp at EastGRIP and manifests itself by increasing ice crystal sizes (*18*) in response to decreasing impurity (e.g., dust particle) content by a factor of 10 to 100 (*19*). The end of the Bølling-Allerød/GI-1 at 12.9 ka b2k or 1284 m depth is close to the creeping layer in Fig. 2A, iii, and the occurrence of downward reflections in Fig. 2A, ii. It is preceded by a ~110-year cluster of elevated global volcanic activity that manifests itself in a dense series of SO_4 spikes in Greenland ice cores (*20*, *21*). Abrupt changes in crystallographic fabric orientation are not detectable at any of these depths, neither in ice-core observations nor radar-based inferences (*12*). We therefore exclude changes in fabric as a dominating contributor to the observed nucleation locations.

Source mechanisms and wave field simulations

We can also exclude that the events are cable waves, which are nearly monochromatic oscillations or travelling waves reflecting off the cable end (*22*, *23*) that we do not observe. Furthermore, sequences 2 and 5 seem to initiate below 1500 m depth, and sequence 1 seems to propagate beyond 1500 m depth without evidence for upward reflections off the cable end. Correlations of initiation depths with SO_4 content and tephra layers, as well as variable apparent wave speeds, make it even less likely that our observations are cable waves.

Using the approach detailed in section S4, we derive general source characteristics of the event sequences that explain key features listed above. The observed antisymmetric radiation pattern in the vertical direction constrains the range of possible fault orientations. In a cylindrical coordinate system, where r denotes distance to borehole axis, z depth and ϕ azimuth, the diagonal moment tensor components, M_{rr}, $M_{\phi\phi}$ and M_{zz} produce symmetric radiation patterns and therefore can be excluded, as explained in section S4.1. Wave fields excited by moment tensor components $M_{r\phi}$ and $M_{z\phi}$ cannot be observed with our experimental geometry. This implies that the sources must have a nonzero M_{rz} component, corresponding to either radially directed slip on a horizontal fault or vertically directed slip on a vertical fault. Furthermore, the source location must be at some distance from the cable because an M_{rz}-component source directly at the cable would not be observable. In summary, the data require the absence of an isotropic (explosive/implosive) component but are unable to constrain the precise orientation of the slip plane. Since brittle slip is likely to occur along pre-existing horizontal layers within the ice sheet, we continue to model the seismic sources as slip on a horizontal plane.

The vertically cascading sequences 2 and 5 hint at a generation mechanism of plane waves with variable apparent wave speeds, as recorded by the DAS system. As explained quantitatively in section S4.2.1. and illustrated schematically

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in Fig. 4A, a linear array of approximately vertically-aligned horizontal fault planes that are triggered successively produces plane waves with an apparent wave speed controlled by the triggering speed and the inclination angle. Apparent wave speeds above the S wave speed can result from tilting the array toward the DAS cable and/or from P wave triggering, previously observed for earthquakes (*24*). Successive excitation of ruptures on horizontal fault planes already allows us to explain less complex parts of the recordings, such as subevent 1.i and sequence 3, shown in Fig. 4, B and C. In these, and all subsequent simulations, sources at distances between 10–50 m from the borehole produce synthetic strain rate data that are compatible with the observations.

Large subevents in sequences 1, 2 and 5 cause creep that lasts up to several tens of seconds within thin layers, which produce strong reflections that are not present in the active surface shot data (*16*). The presence of such reflections may be explained by temporary fracturing or unwelding of an internal interface, as illustrated schematically in Fig. 5A. In contrast to welded interfaces (*25*), nonwelded interfaces generate reflections and impede transmission in the absence of a material impedance contrast (*26*, *27*). In the idealized case of a planar interface, detailed in section S4.3, reflection and transmission coefficients can be derived analytically. The results indicate that a specific compliance of the interfaces on the order of 10^{-9} to 10^{-8} m/Pa can explain observed reflections off the strain accumulation layers and the resulting absence of surface observations of the event sequences. Less idealized distributions of nonwelded interfaces effectively behave as anisotropic layers, with reflection and transmission controlled by geometric properties of the fractures, including their orientation and density (*28*, *29*). As illustrated in Fig. 5B, a reflector at 1290 m depth, allows us to simulate the more complex event sequence 1.ii, consisting of at least 5 distinguishable subevents, some of which produce clearly visible reflections. Similarly, Fig. 5C shows two subevents from sequence 2.ii, simulated with reflectors at 1050 and 1025 m depth. Millimeter- to centimeter-scale fractures in ice have healing times on the order of tens to hundreds of seconds (*30*), consistent with our observation that active-shots data obtained several minutes after the natural events do not feature similar strong reflections.

Moment magnitudes estimated from DAS recordings of vertical strain ε_{zz} range from $M_w = -2.3$ for the foreshock 1.i to $M_w = -0.24$ for the following main shock sequence 1.ii. They constrain the shear strain ε_{xz} accumulated by a seismic cascade. As detailed in section S5, only ~10% of actual strain were transferred into the fiber, meaning that estimated magnitudes are too low by ~0.67. Magnitude uncertainties are around ±0.5, primarily originating from uncertainties in the distance of the events from the cable and the inability to constrain $M_{r\varphi}$ and $M_{z\varphi}$. The characteristic rupture size L can be deduced from M_w. Assuming that the stress drop $\Delta\sigma$ is 10 % of typical ice stream driving stresses of 100 kPa (*31*), the circular-fault model $L = (7M_0/16\Delta\sigma)^{1/3}$ (*32*) yields rupture sizes on the order of 1 to 10 m for our M_0 estimates between $\sim 3 \cdot 10^5$ and $\sim 2 \cdot 10^8$ Nm. The application of Hooke's law, $\Delta\sigma = \mu D/L$, with shear modulus $\mu \approx 2.8 \cdot 10^9$ gives rupture displacements D on the order of tens to hundreds of micrometers. Applied to an individual event of sequence 2.i (Fig. 5C), and taking the uncertainty in the moment estimate into account, this analysis yields D between $5 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ m per subevent. With $N \approx 50$ subevents spread over a depth range of $Z \approx 600$ m, a cascade like 2.i accumulates an average shear strain $\varepsilon_{xz} = ND/Z$ on the order of $3 \cdot 10^{-6}$ to $2 \cdot 10^{-5}$ m/m. A critical component of these estimates is the stress drop, which has a typical uncertainty of a factor of 10 for well-observed earthquakes (*33*). Adopting this uncertainty estimate for our case, expands the range of ε_{xz} to $1 \cdot 10^{-6}$ to $8 \cdot 10^{-5}$ m/m.

Implications for ice stream dynamics

Relevance for ice stream deformation

As detailed in section S6, cascading englacial ice quakes cannot result from the presence of the borehole. However, the characteristics of the events are not typical for glacial microseismicity, which is mostly associated with shear and tensile faulting near the surface and at the bed (*34*). Reported englacial icequakes beneath the surface crevasse zone have tensile source mechanisms (*35*), in contrast to the events observed here. Tremor-like shear rupturing was located at the ice bed (*36*). Hence, cascading brittle failure within the ice may be particular to ice streams, where a vertical girdle crystallographic fabric forms to accommodate longitudinal extension (*37*, *38*). The resulting anisotropy causes significant hardening in the along-flow direction (*13*), which may result in brittle failure when stresses are sufficiently high.

The most conservative estimate of strain induced by the large cascade 2.i, $\varepsilon_{xz} = 10^{-6}$ m/m, implies that around 100 of these event cascades may locally produce deformation that is comparable in amplitude to the 10^{-4} m/m horizontal strain per year inferred from GPS measurements around EastGRIP (*39*). Although the relevance of englacial seismicity for large-scale ice stream deformation depends on its spatio-temporal distribution, the fact that we observe two large cascades within only 14 hours suggests that the phenomenon occurs rather frequently.

A similar long-term extrapolation can be made for the creeping deformation within thin layers. The largest-amplitude sequence 1.ii, for example, has average strain rates of $\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-7}$ m/m/s lasting for ~0.1 s. Taking into account that only ~10% of the actual strain is transmitted into the fiber (see section S5), we find that around 100 such events yield vertical strain rates that are also on the order of 10^{-4} yr^{-1}. However, without knowing the exact deformation style, an

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estimation of the corresponding horizontal strain is not possible.

At this stage, we may only speculate about the spatial distribution of seismic cascades. Radar sounding (*40*) and surface velocity observations (*41*) show that the internal ice structure and kinematics hardly vary over tens of kilometers around EastGRIP. The observed englacial seismicity is therefore unlikely to be a local peculiarity caused by local flow anomalies but instead typical for the regional ice flow pattern. In summary, it seems plausible that seismic cascades are a common phenomenon in ice streams, but follow-up investigations are necessary for it to be confidently included in or excluded from ice sheet simulations.

Bridging scales: From laboratory experiments to ice stream dynamics

Englacial seismic cascades near EastGRIP suggest that various properties and phenomena observed in laboratory experiments extrapolate to larger scales. Laboratory tests on mono- and polycrystalline ice show a distinct SO_4-induced reduction in viscosity resulting from increased dislocation density (*42*) and enhanced mico-cracking along grain boundaries (*43*). Near EastGRIP, these weaknesses promote creep over tens of μs, the nucleation of seismic events and their vertical cascading over more than 600 m. Seismic cascades do not require the presence of pronounced tephra layers, which have not been observed near the large majority of SO_4 peaks. However, when tephra with grain sizes in the tens of μm range, compared to the μm-scale of background dust (*44*), is present, it promotes creep over tens of seconds in thin layers and temporary unwelding that impedes the upward propagation of seismic waves. The underlying crystal-scale process may be impurity-induced grain-size reduction that causes the deformation mechanism to switch to grain-boundary sliding, known to enhance creep (*45*, *46*). Direct observations of cracks and deformation-related structures are, however, challenging. Centimeter-scale fractures heal over time scales of minutes (*30*), and ice core samples are too small and too remote from the inferred location of the seismic cascades to provide constraints.

Experiments on single ice crystals have revealed dislocation avalanches that manifest themselves as long-term plasticity (*47*). These avalanches can trigger deformation cascades across grains that are hypothesized to be limited only by the laboratory system size (*48*). Our observations suggest that these microscopic cascades extend to ruptures at the tens of centimeter to meter scale, which then trigger macroscopic seismic cascades across hundreds of meters. When averaged over large enough distances, this deformation style may still produce a smooth stress-strain curve, thereby defining a representative volume element (RVE) for effective viscous deformation. Hence, our observation of seismic cascades propagating over at least 600 m implies that the RVE of ice stream ice is not at the centimeter but at the kilometer scale.

A plausible missing link: Implications for ice sheet modeling and future research

Our results imply that Glen's flow law for polycrystalline ice (*49*) is not applicable to ice stream modeling at spatial scales close to or smaller than the kilometer-size RVE. This flow law describes secondary creep over time scales longer than the Maxwell time, which itself is orders of magnitude longer than the seismogenic failure of the large-amplitude sequence 1.ii (*34*). Moreover, Glen's flow law is rate strengthening, whereas a rate weakening rheology is necessary to produce dynamic instability during seismogenic deformation (*50*).

The magnitude of observed englacial seismicity suggests it as a plausible missing link between observed surface velocities in the upstream part of NEGIS and the results of current ice sheet models, which still fail to adequately reproduce the geometry and extent of NEGIS with the commonly used flow-law exponent of $n = 3$ (*51*, *52*).

At scales exceeding the RVE, the observed seismic deformation may be a process that contributes to the macroscopic effect of a larger exponent around $n = 4$, recently proposed for fast-flowing regions of the Greenland and Antarctic ice sheets (*53*–*55*). However, to accurately model narrow ice streams, numerical resolutions as low as few hundred meters are needed (*56*, *57*), thereby moving the grid spacing below the size of the RVE. Consequently, the impact of cascading seismicity on ice stream deformation should be considered to ensure reliable predictions of ice mass loss and sea level rise. This will require additional and longer borehole DAS experiments to better constrain the spatio-temporal distribution of the phenomenon, investigations on underlying crystal-scale processes, and modelling studies that constrain the interplay between englacial seismicity, rheology and large-scale flow patterns.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

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Materials and Methods
Supplementary Text
Figs. S1 to S21
References (*60–81*)

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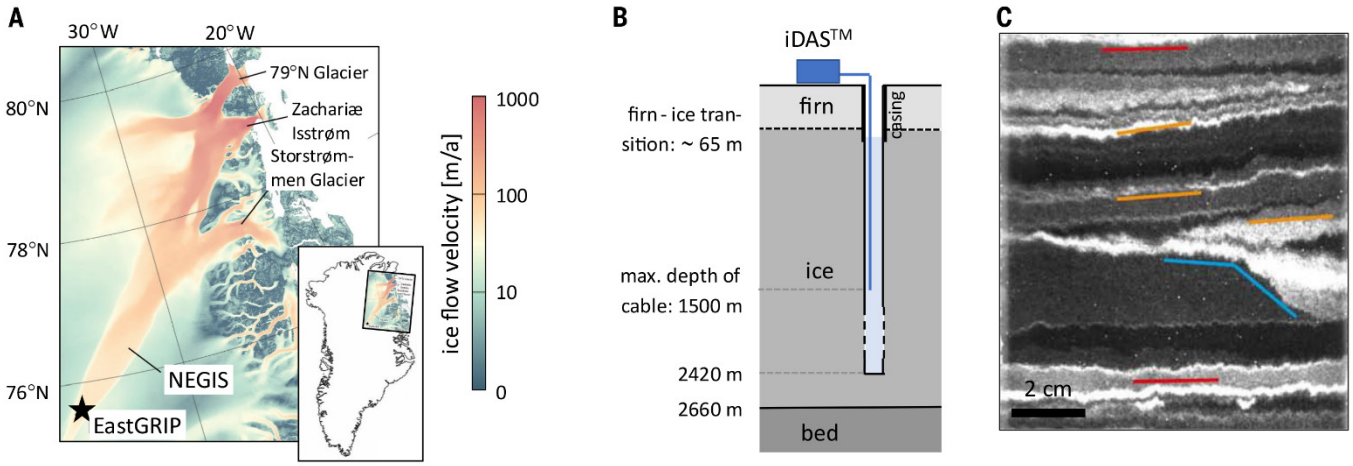

Fig. 1. Experimental setting. (**A**) The Northeast Greenland Ice Stream (NEGIS) and its outlet glaciers shown in the form of surface flow velocities (*41*). (**B**) Schematic, not-to-scale illustration of the experimental setup. The DAS cable, shown as blue line, reached a maximum depth of 1500 m inside the 2420 m deep borehole within the 2660 m deep ice (*58*). A Silixa iDAS™ v2 interrogator was used to perform measurements at 1 kHz sampling rate and with 1 m channel spacing. (**C**) Optical line scan image of a structure similar to geological thrust faults, yet only partly visible due to the narrow diameter of the ice core. The sample is from 1690.65 m depth. Colored lines indicate the ramp (in blue), general layering of the section (red), and changed layer tilt inside the structure (orange). Figure modified from (*15*).

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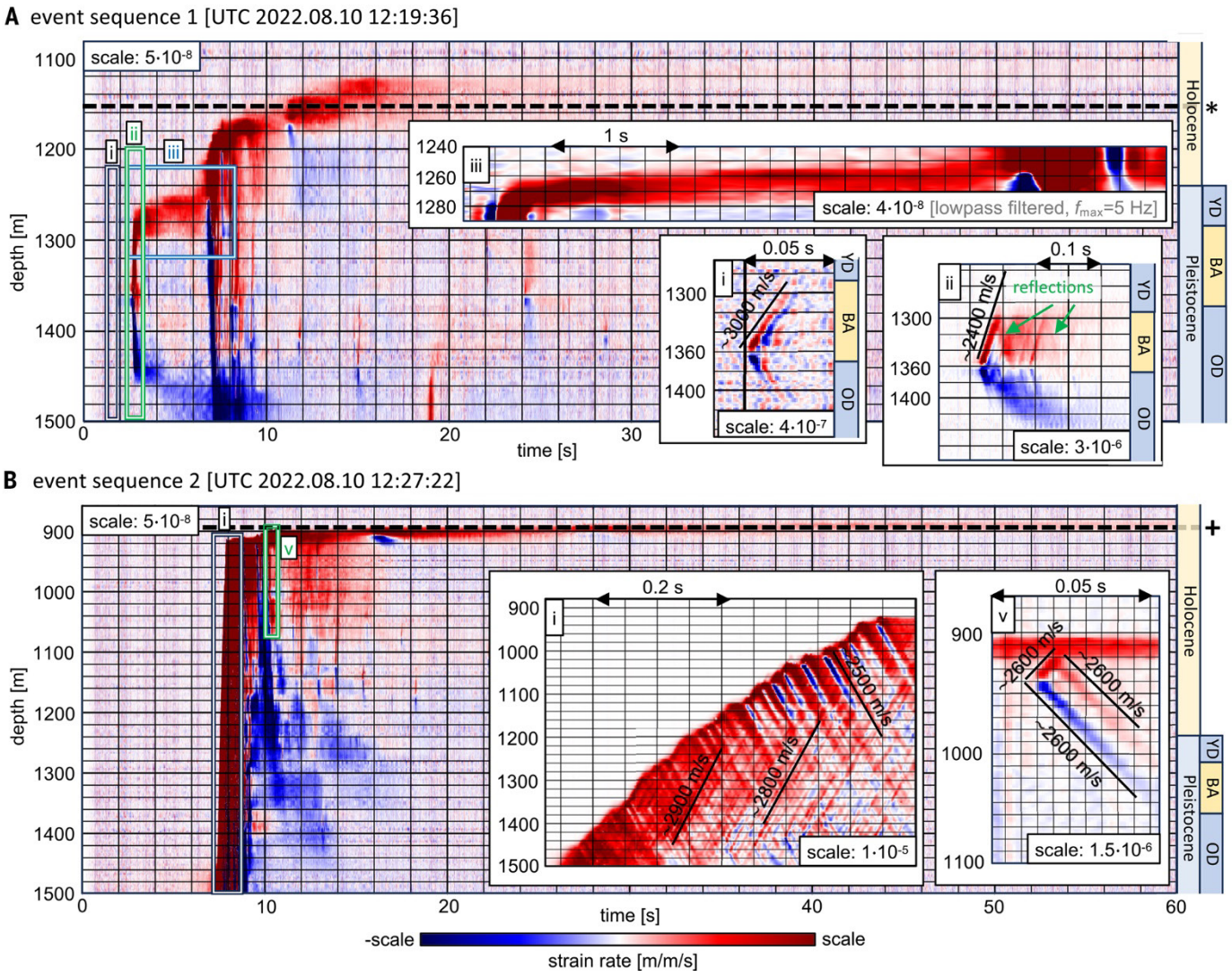

Fig. 2. DAS recordings of seismic events. Sequences 1 (**A**) and 2 (**B**) are shown, with ∗ marking the depth of the Saksunarvatn tephra (Grimsvötn) dated at 10.2 ka b2k, and + marking the depth of the Mt. Mazama tephra (Crater Lake) dated at 7.6 ka b2k. (See section S3.1 for details.) Here and in all subsequent figures, positive strain rates correspond to extension along the cable, and and negative ones to shortening. Values for the color scale ranges are provided in the subfigures. For notational consistency, selected close-ups are labeled in the same way as figs. S1 and S2. (For instance, close-ups/subevents ii to iv for sequence 2 not shown here are shown in fig. S2.) Abbreviations in the geologic time scales to the right have the following meaning: YD: Younger Dryas/GS-1 stadial, BA: Bølling-Allerød/GI-1 interstadial, OD: Oldest Dryas/GS-2 stadial (*59*).

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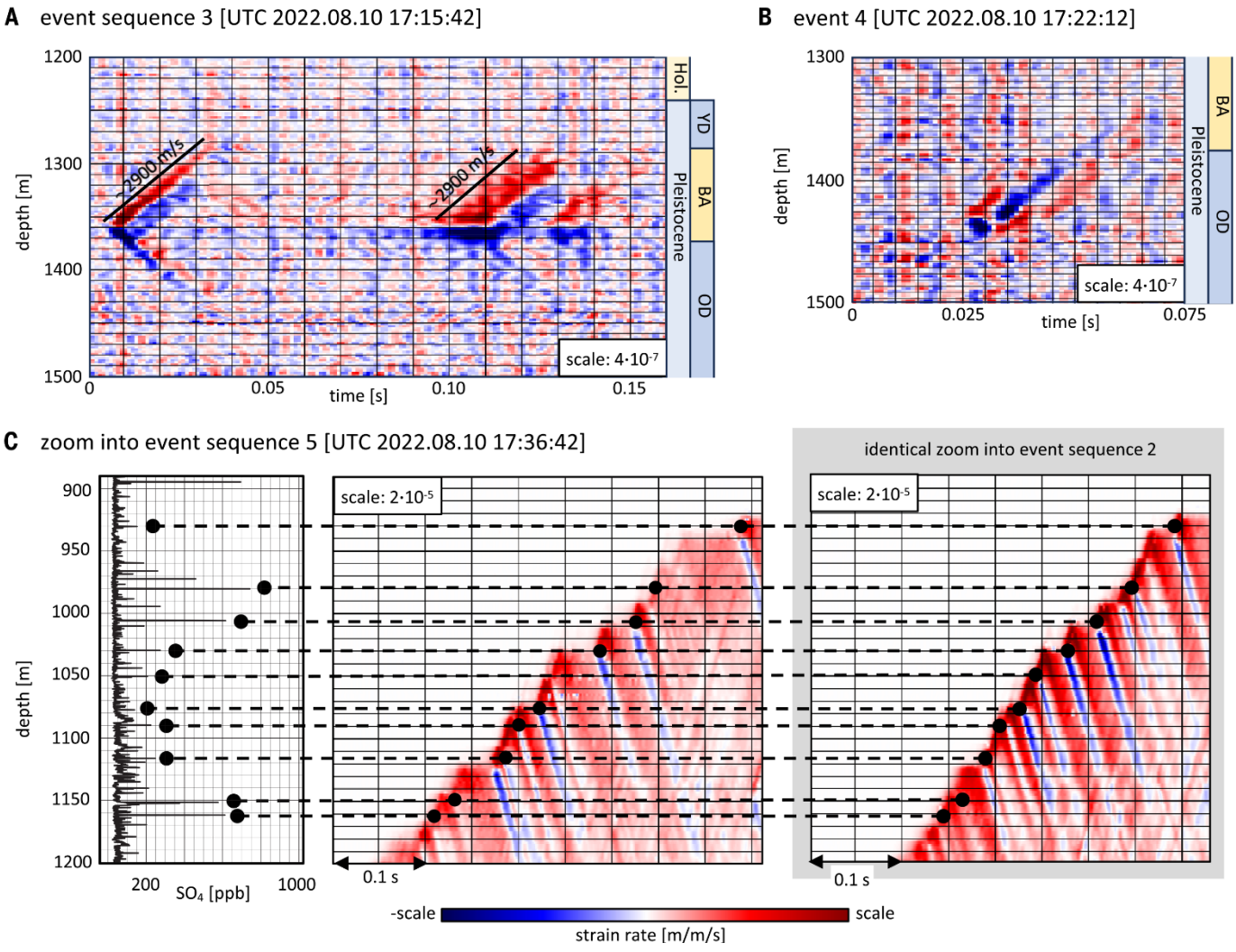

Fig. 3. DAS recordings of seismic events. Shown are sequence 3 (**A**), the isolated event 4 (**B**), and part of event sequence 5 (**C**), which is nearly identical to sequence 2. For comparison of sequences 2 and 5, close-up views of both are shown next to each other. The initiation depths of subevents closely correspond to SO_4 peaks, displayed on the left. SO_4 was not measured on the EastGRIP core but was projected onto the EastGRIP depth scale from the GRIP2 dataset, as detailed in supplementary section S3.2. Abbreviations in the geologic time scales are the same as in Fig. 2.

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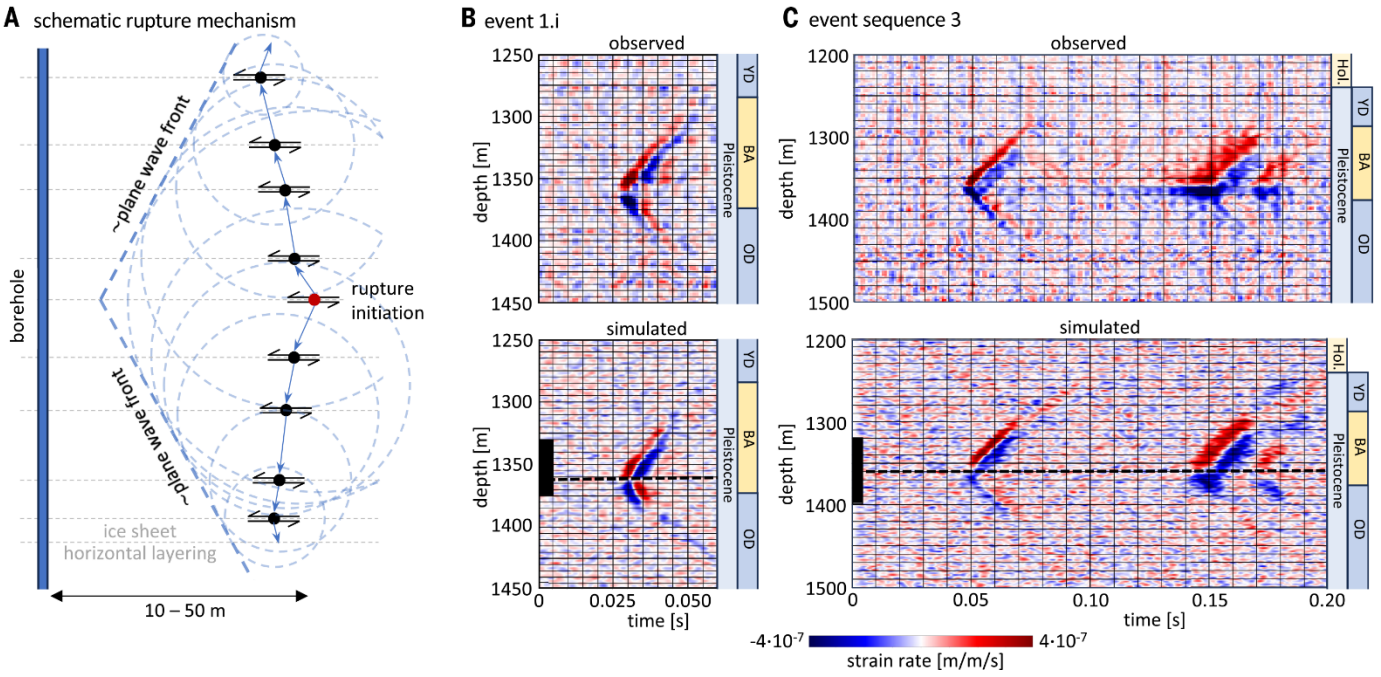

Fig. 4. Comparison of observed and simulated DAS data. (**A**) Cartoon illustration of a vertically oriented array of slip planes. Though their orientation cannot be inferred from the DAS data, they are drawn horizontally for simplicity. The red circle marks the initiation point, from which subsequent ruptures are triggered in up- and downward directions. The superposition of circular wave fronts from the individual ruptures approximately produces a plane wave. (**B** and **C**) Observed (top) and simulated (bottom) DAS recordings of event 1.i and event sequence 3. For a more realistic comparison, we added bandpass filtered Gaussian noise to the simulations. The black bar in the simulation panels marks the depth extent of the vertically oriented horizontal slip array, and the black dashed lines indicates the initiation depth. The exact moment density distributions used in the simulations are shown in figs. S14 and S16. For both event 1.i and sequence 3, the source array falls into the Bølling-Allerød/GI-1 depth range, characterized by climatically warmer and more viscous ice. Geologic time scale abbreviations as in Fig. 2.

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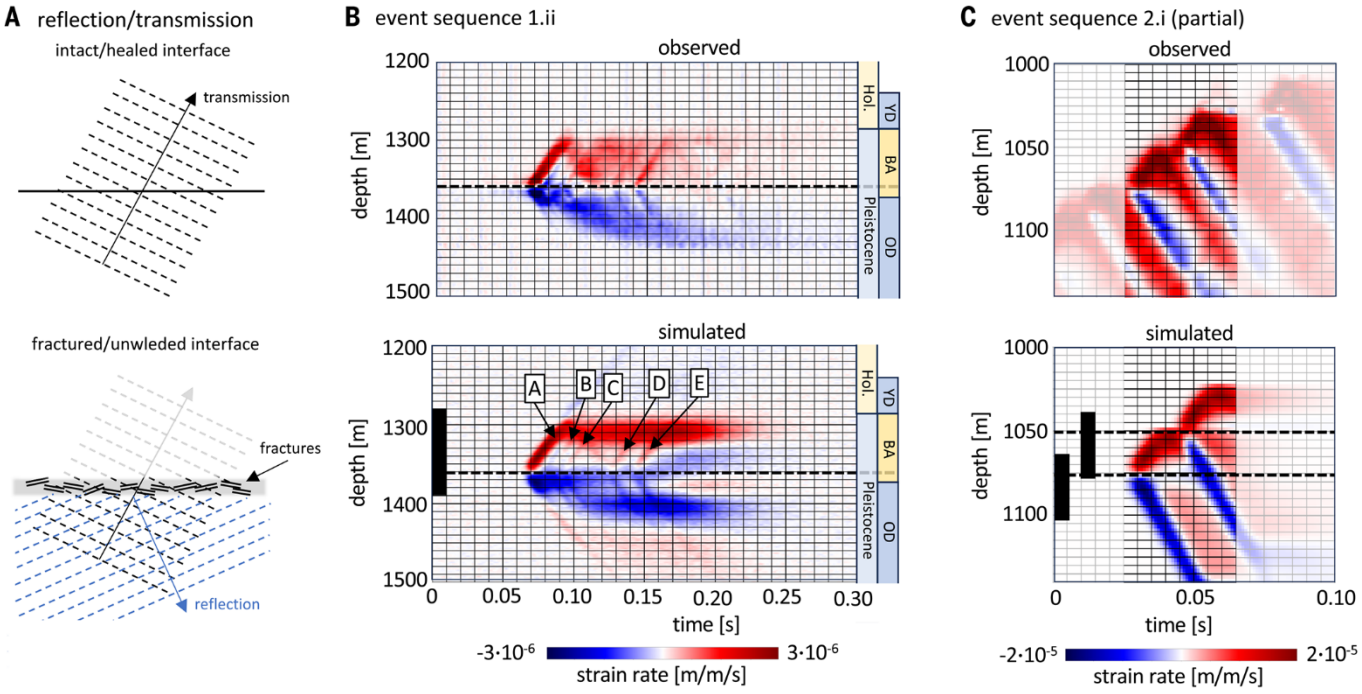

Fig. 5. Comparison of observed and simulated sequences. Shown are sequences 1.ii (B) and 2.i (C). (A) Cartoon illustration of wave transmission and reflection at intact/healed (top) and fractured/unwelded (bottom) interfaces. and (C) Similar to Fig. 4, the black bars mark the depth extent of the vertically oriented horizontal slip array, and the black dashed lines indicate the rupture initiation depths. The exact moment density distributions used in the simulations are shown in figs. S17 and S16. The five subevents used to model sequence 1.ii are labeled A to E. As for events 1.i and 3, the source array of sequence 1.ii falls into the Bølling-Allerød/GI-1 depth range. Geologic time scale abbreviations as in Fig. 2.

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