A Model for Turbulent Hydraulic Fracture and Application to Crack Propogation at Glacier Beds

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A model for turbulent hydraulic fracture and application to crack propagation at glacier beds

Victor C. Tsai¹,² and James R. Rice³

1. Introduction

[2] Hydraulic fracture has, since the 1940’s, been a subject of great interest in the context of inducing production from oil and gas wells (see, e.g., Mendelsohn [1984] for a review). More recently, the topic has been explored in depth theoretically [Lister, 1990; Desroches et al., 1994; Dyskin et al., 2000; Adachi and Detournay, 2002; Savitski and Detournay, 2002; Detournay, 2004; Garagash and Detournay, 2005; Roper and Lister, 2007], in the context of magma-driven cracking [Rubin, 1995], and in the context of water-aided vertical crevassing in glaciers [Weertman, 1971a, 1973; Smith, 1976; van der Veen, 1998; Kenneally, 2003; Alley et al., 2005; van der Veen, 2007; Krawczynski et al., 2009]. These works have successfully applied the results of linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) with different assumptions of fluid-related boundary conditions on the crack face. The boundary conditions used have ranged from the simple quasi-static loading case common in the glaciological literature [Weertman, 1973; Smith, 1976; van der Veen, 1998, 2007; Krawczynski et al., 2009] to the more complex but realistic case for which the pressure distribution within the crack is determined along with the crack separation as a coupled fluid-flow/elasticity problem [Desroches et al., 1994; Adachi and Detournay, 2002].

[3] As interest regarding the very short timescale behavior of glaciers intensifies [Bindschadler et al., 2003; Ekstrom et al., 2006; Das et al., 2008; Wiens et al., 2008], it will become of paramount importance to understand the fracture process in glaciers since it influences fundamental aspects of glacial dynamics, including flow speeds, calving behavior, and stability of the ice sheet [e.g., Zwally et al., 2002; Kenneally, 2003; Joughin et al., 2008; Tsai et al., 2008].

The current literature on the processes leading to crevasse extension to depth is fairly small (see previous paragraph) but there is agreement that the presence of liquid water greatly enhances the ability for crevasses to quickly grow, become macroscopic and affect large-scale features of ice sheets. Recent observations by Das et al. [2008] of drainage of a large supraglacial meltwater lake into, and presumably to the bed of, the Greenland Ice Sheet within a timespan of a few hours show that water flow rates into crevasses can be

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very fast. They measured the volume of initial lake water to be \( V_0 \approx 4.4 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^3 \), and found that it drained completely within a timescale of \( T \approx 2 \text{ hours} \), implying an average drainage rate of \( 8.7 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \). They further observed a crack-like surface feature (with length \( L_c \approx 3 \text{ km} \), approximately equal to the lake dimension), and had a GPS station nearby that showed meter-scale surface displacements associated with the drainage event. A crude estimate of the Reynolds number, \( R \), for this flow can then be made by assuming that \( V_0 \) drains into a basal crack system of lateral dimension \( L_c \) (in the out-of-plane direction of Figure 1) over time \( T \), leading to an average velocity of \( V_0/(L_c T) \), where \( h_0 \) is a representative opening of the crack. With water density of \( \rho \approx 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \) and viscosity of \( \eta = 2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Pa s} \), this crude estimate yields a Reynolds number of \( R = \rho V_0/L_c T \approx 10^8 \), which is well within the fully turbulent regime. These observations therefore motivate the present work, in which we consider the turbulent flow of draining surface water as causing the opening of a basal crack within a linear-elastic ice medium. This corresponds to under-flooding as a rapid sheet flow, e.g., as considered by Roberts [2005] and Flowers et al. [2004], as opposed to a wholly channelized flow [Rothlisberger, 1972; Clarke, 1996]. Although these approximations of fully turbulent sheet flow in a fracture within a purely elastic medium are clearly short-timescale end-member cases of a more general scenario, they are reasonable and allow for considerable simplification of the mathematical analysis.

[4] In Section 2, we present solutions for the crack-tip speeds, pressure profiles and displacement profiles from an approximate interpretation of a steady state crack growth analysis and from an exact self-similar analysis. In Section 3, we then tentatively apply these results to glacial crack propagation, compare our results to the recent observations of meter-scale ice sheet displacements associated with rapid drainage by Das et al. [2008], and find order-of-magnitude agreement between model and observation. Although we do not explicitly consider the case of jökulhlaup (subglacial outburst flood) initiation, our model applies to the relatively early (but post-nucleation) growth stages of these events to the extent that jökulhlaup initiation can be thought of as the crack-like growth of a subglacial lake under excess water pressure [see, e.g., Roberts, 2005]. Traditional thermodynamic treatments of the jökulhlaup problem [e.g., Nye, 1976; Ng and Bjornsson, 2003] would apply only after this initial stage of growth is over. The model may also have some relevance to satellite-inferred fluid interchanges between sub-glacial lakes documented by Fricker et al. [2007].

2. Model Setup: Turbulent Hydraulic Fracture

[5] In this section, we consider a crack within an elastic medium driven open by the turbulent flow of water through the crack. To model this, we adapt various power law viscous-flow crack solutions [Desroches et al., 1994; Adachi and Detournay, 2002] for use in our case with a Manning–Strickler channel model [Manning, 1891; Strickler, 1923, 1981] for wall shear resistance to turbulent flow [see, e.g., Rouse, 1955]. The geometry first considered here is that of a plane strain horizontal crack of length 2L within an impermeable linearly-elastic medium, located at a depth \( H \) beneath the surface. The crack opening profile is given by \( h(x) \) for \(-L < x < L \) (see Figure 1).

2.1. Manning Turbulent Friction

[6] For flow through a channel of height \( h \), the average shear stress \( \tau \) on the channel walls is given by

\[
2\tau = \frac{1}{4} \rho U^2 = -\frac{h}{h} \quad \text{(1)}
\]

for \( 0 < x < L \), where \( h \) is the local channel height, \( \partial p/\partial x \) is the pressure gradient (see Figure 1), \( f \) is the commonly-used “Darcy–Weisbach” friction factor, \( \rho \) is the fluid density, \( U \) is the fluid velocity averaged across \( h \), and the sign in Equation (1) is reversed when \( x < 0 \). In order to use this relationship between the velocity and pressure gradient in the crack solution, we must estimate \( f \). Here, we assume that the flow is fully turbulent so that \( f \) is given by the Gauckler–Manning–Strickler approximation [Manning, 1891; Strickler, 1923, 1981]

\[
f = 0.113 \left( \frac{k}{R_h} \right)^{1/3} = f_0 \left( \frac{k}{R_h} \right)^{1/3} = 0.143 \left( \frac{k}{h} \right)^{1/3}, \quad \text{(2)}
\]

where \( R_h = h/2 \) is the hydraulic radius and \( k \) is the Nikuradse channel wall roughness height [Rubin and Atkinson, 2001]. When the two walls have different roughness, it is appropriate to interpret \( k^{1/3} \) as the average of \( k_{\text{ub}}^{1/3} \) for the upper and lower walls. This expression, Equation (2), is known to be approximately valid when the Reynolds number \( R \) is sufficiently large, \( R \geq 10^4 \) [see, e.g., Rubin and Atkinson, 2001; Gioia and Chakraborty, 2006; White, 2008]. This inequality is verified in Section 3 for the case of interest.
Figure 2. Schematic for stress calculation. The actual crack opening, \( h \), between ice and bedrock is assumed to be \( \xi w \), where \( w \) is the modeled full width for an identically loaded crack in a homogeneous ice body and \( \xi \) is given by Equation (8). The excess pressure at \( x = 0 \) is assumed to be given by \( \Delta p_{in} \) and the fracture toughness \( K_c \) is assumed negligible.

This scaling is also equivalent to the commonly used Manning approximation

\[
U_{\text{Manning}} = \frac{1}{n} R^2 S^{1/2}.
\]

(3)

Here, \( n \) is the Manning roughness height,

\[
S = \frac{1}{g} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \left( -\frac{2\tau}{\rho gh} \right)
\]

(4)

is the negative hydraulic head gradient (positive in the direction of flow) [e.g., Rouse, 1955], and \( g \) is gravitational acceleration. In Equations (1) and (4), we have assumed that \( \rho DU/Dr \) is of small magnitude compared to \( \partial p/\partial x \), as will be checked subsequently, and that the gravity forcing due to slope of the flow channel is likewise negligible compared to the pressure gradient (otherwise, the slope is added to the definition of \( S \)). The value of \( f_0 \) used in Equation (2) is equivalent to setting \( n = (0.0380 \text{ s m}^{-1/2}) \cdot k^{1/6} \) (e.g., \( n = 0.018 \text{ s m}^{-1/3} \) when \( k = 1 \text{ cm} \)). Our results turn out to be very weakly dependent on the size of \( k \).

[7] Substituting Equation (2) into Equation (1) gives

\[
-\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = f_0 \frac{\rho U^2}{4} \frac{k^{1/3}}{h^{1/3}} = 0.0357 \rho U^2 \frac{k^{1/3}}{h^{1/3}}.
\]

The turbulent Manning-Strickler scaling therefore provides one relationship between the local pressure gradient \( \partial p(x,t)/\partial x \), fluid velocity \( U(x,t) \), and channel opening \( h(x,t) \).

2.2. Basic Equations Governing Turbulent Hydraulic Fracture

[8] The problem of a fracture driven through an impermeable linear elastic body by injection of a power law viscous fluid has been studied by a number of authors. Key results include an analytical near-tip solution in plane strain [Desroches et al., 1994], a (numerical) self-similar solution for a plane strain fracture of finite length [Adachi and Detournay, 2002], and a solution for a penny-shaped (cylindrically symmetric) fracture [Savitski and Detournay, 2002]. Here, we use an approach analogous to these power law solutions but modified to allow for the turbulent flow condition of Section 2.1. In so doing, we find it convenient to consider the related problem of a plane strain crack in an imagined homogeneous medium (as shown in Figure 2) with elastic properties that are those of ice. For this model crack, we assume there to be three fundamental considerations that relate the crack opening displacement profile \( w(x,t) \), the crack pressure profile \( p(x,t) \), and the crack fluid velocity profile \( U(x,t) \). The relation of \( w \), the crack opening in an imagined homogeneous ice material, to \( h \), the channel width at the glacier interface with its bed, is discussed below; we will choose \( h \) proportional to \( w \) with a coefficient of proportionality \( \xi \) that is rationalized in Appendix A of Text S1. Elasticity theory provides one equation, the turbulent scaling of Equation (6) provides another, and fluid mass conservation provides the third equation. As in the work of Desroches et al. [1994] and Adachi and Detournay [2002], we solve the case for negligible fracture energy (i.e., negligible energy required to add new crack area). As will be shown in Section 3, with estimates of ice fracture toughness from Ashby [1989] (see also Schulson and Duval [2009, p. 208]), Fischer et al. [1995], and Rist et al. [1999] showing \( K_c \approx 0.1 \text{–} 0.2 \text{ MPa m}^{1/2} \), and guidelines like those of Savitski and Detournay [2002] and Burger and Detournay [2008], this approximation is reasonable for the glacial application considered.

[9] For a crack (of length 2\( L \)) in an infinite, homogeneous elastic medium, it is well known that a singular integral equation [Muskheilishvili, 1953; Bilby et al., 1963] relates \( w(x,t) \) and \( p(x,t) \). In the following, we assume that there exists a local hydrostatic ice overburden pressure given by \( \sigma_0 \) so that the pressure causing crack opening is given by the excess pressure \( \Delta p(x,t) \equiv p(x,t) - \sigma_0 \). The integral equation can then be represented as

\[
\Delta p(x,t) \equiv p - \sigma_0 = \frac{E'}{4\pi} \int_{-L}^{L} \frac{\partial w(x,s)}{\partial x} \frac{ds}{x-s}.
\]

(7)

where \( E' = E/(1 - \nu^2) \), \( E \) is Young’s modulus, and \( \nu \) is Poisson’s ratio. For the crack of interest at a bedrock bed, the material on the upper side of the crack (ice) is significantly more compliant than the material on the lower side (rock) and therefore is responsible for most of the crack opening. For this bimaterial case, then, we make the approximation that the actual physical opening displacement \( h(x,t) \) is a fraction of the imagined opening \( w(x,t) \) in the homogeneous medium of the more compliant material (ice), so that \( h(x,t) = \xi w(x,t) \) where \( \xi < 1 \) (e.g., compare Figures 1 and 2). Thus, in all calculations done here, the physical crack opening \( h \) is interpreted to be exactly \( \xi w \) where \( w \) is the opening calculated for the same crack face pressure distribution in a homogeneous ice medium by Equation (7).

Our model could also be applied to englacial cracks, if not too near the bed or surface, by simply removing the factor \( \xi \) from all expressions.) In Appendix A of Text S1 we provide justification of this approximation based on elastic analyses of cracks along bimaterial interfaces, and suggest that

\[
\xi \approx 1 + \frac{E_{ic}/E_{bed}}{2} \approx 0.55
\]

(8)
is an appropriate factor for ice in contact with (or separating from) bedrock. (We expect that value to be reasonable too for separation from heavily compacted till.) In using Equation (6), then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \frac{f_i}{4\xi^2} \rho U^2 k^{1/3} \frac{x^{1/3}}{w^{1/3}} = 0.0793 \rho U^2 k^{1/3} \frac{x^{1/3}}{w^{1/3}}. \tag{9}$$

Finally, if we assume an incompressible fluid (i.e. constant \(\rho\)) then the mass conservation equation (setting \(h = \xi w\) and canceling the \(\xi\)) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (wU) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0. \tag{10}$$

Note that for steady state cracking with uniform crack-tip velocity \(U_{tip}\), such that \(w(x, t) = w(x - U_{tip} t)\), Equation (10) simplifies to \(U(t) = U_{tip}\) [Desroches et al., 1994], i.e. the thickness-averaged fluid velocity is everywhere equal to the crack-tip velocity. This result will also apply asymptotically, near the tip, for non-steady configurations and time-variable \(U_{tip}\). (Throughout this analysis, we assume the crack to be infinite.)

2.3. Adaptation of the Power Law Viscous Fluid Crack Solution to the Turbulent Case, Simple Approximate Model

[10] In this section, we follow Desroches et al. [1994] and begin with a steady state solution for a semi-infinite crack, \(U(x, t) = U_{tip}\), and so drop the explicit \(x\) and \(t\) dependence on \(U\). Since there is no explicit time dependence in the other two governing equations, we also drop the explicit \(t\) dependence of \(w(x, t)\) and \(\Delta p(x, t)\) for that semi-infinite case, instead writing \(w(x)\) and \(\Delta p(x)\). In Section 2.5, we will revert to Equation (10).

[11] At this point, we observe that Equation (9) has the same form as the power law viscous flow lubrication equation [Bird et al., 1987], which can be written as

$$-\frac{d \Delta p}{dx} = \frac{c_0}{w^{1/m} \xi^2}, \tag{11}$$

where \(w\) is the crack opening width, \(m\) is the power law index relating shear stress \(\tau\) with shear rate \(\dot{\gamma}\) (\(\tau \propto \dot{\gamma}^m\)), and \(c_0\) is a factor that includes a dependence on the now uniform \(U\) \(c_0\) is proportional to \(\tilde{U}^2\) for our turbulent case and to \(U^m\) for the Desroches et al. [1994] power law case). Thus, by simply using the \(m = 1/3\) case, and recalling that \(U\) is constant, we can utilize the same procedure as in the work of Desroches et al. [1994], which yields a solution of the same form for both \(w(x)\) and \(\Delta p(x)\), and obtain (with the crack tip at \(x = L\))

$$w(x) = \frac{14A}{3E} R^{3/2} \tan \frac{\pi}{7}, \tag{12}$$

and

$$\Delta p(x) = P - AR^{-1/7}, \tag{13}$$

where \(R = L - x\) is the distance along the crack behind the crack tip, \(P\) is a constant which is undetermined in this analysis, and the constant \(A\) is directly relatable to \(U_{tip} = L\) through substitution into Equation (9) (with \(U = U_{tip}\)).

Solving for \(A\) gives

$$A = E \left[ \frac{\left(3/4\right)^{2} \left(3/14\right)^{2} f_i}{\tan^2(\pi/7) \cdot \xi^2} \left(\frac{\rho U_{tip}^2}{E'}\right)^3 k \right]^{1/7}$$

$$= 0.489E \left(\frac{\rho U_{tip}^2}{E'}\right)^{3/7} k^{1/7}. \tag{14}$$

Note that \(A\) here corresponds to \(A' \cos(\pi/7)\) where \(A'\) is introduced in Appendix B in Text S1. Stresses within the elastic medium \(\sigma_{xx}, \sigma_{yy}\) and \(\sigma_{xy}\) can similarly be expressed in polar coordinates \((r, \theta)\) around the crack tip, for example, with

$$\sigma_{xy} = -P + r^{-1/7} A F_{xy}(\theta). \tag{15}$$

Full expressions for all stresses, from which \(F_{xy}\) may be determined, are given in Appendix B in Text S1. This solution, which is obtained by seeking an appropriate analytic function representation of the Muskhelishvili [1953] potentials or, equivalently, by assuming a Williams [1952] power law stress field near the crack tip, is an exact steady state solution of the governing equations of elasticity and fluid flow for a semi-infinite crack, and it represents the leading-order near crack-tip singularity part of the full solution in other cases. However, it cannot in general satisfy appropriate boundary conditions away from the crack tip or at the glacier surface.

[12] We can, nevertheless, follow Desroches et al. [1994] and use that solution as a basis of an approximate analysis for a finite crack of length \(2L\) (see Figure 1). That involves assuming that Equation (13), with \(R = L - x\), holds over all of \(0 \leq x \leq L\), and then by choosing \(P\) so that the stress intensity factor \(K_i\) due to \(\Delta p(x) \equiv p - \sigma_0\) is zero (otherwise, the asymptotically correct form of the crack opening profile as in Equation (12) would be violated since fracture mechanics requires \(K_i = K_{lc}\) under quasi-static loading, and we are working in a regime for which \(K_i\) is negligible compared to the relevant combination \(\Delta p(0) \sqrt{\pi L}\). To accomplish that, we set

$$K_i \equiv \int_0^L \frac{\Delta p(x) dx}{\sqrt{L - x}} = K_{lc} = 0, \tag{16}$$

which gives \(P = 1.36934AL^{-1/7}\). Writing this approximation in terms of the inlet excess pressure \(\Delta p_{in} \equiv \Delta p(0)\) (instead of as a function of \(U_{tip}\)) then yields

$$\Delta p(x) = \Delta p_{in} + 2.7075 \Delta p_{in} \left(1 - \left(\frac{L}{L - x}\right)^{1/7}\right). \tag{17}$$

This approximation is consistent with the neglect of fracture energy (see Figure 2), but ignores the presence of the free surface at the top of the glacier (i.e. it assumes \(L \ll H\)). Although not completely appropriate, we will use the solution for the entire range of \(L\), including when \(L > H\).
With Equation (17) describing the pressure along the crack face, then Equation (12) gives
\[
\begin{align*}
  w(x) & = \frac{2.7075}{\delta} L \frac{\Delta p_{in}}{E} \left( \frac{L-x}{L} \right)^{6/7} \\
  & = 6.084L \frac{\Delta p_{in}}{E} \left( \frac{L-x}{L} \right)^{6/7},
\end{align*}
\]
for \(0 < x < L\), where
\[
\delta \equiv \frac{3}{14 \tan(\pi/7)} = 0.4450.
\]

Finally, inserting Equations (17) and (18) into Equation (9) and rearranging gives an expression for \(U_{tip}\) in terms of known (or potentially measurable) quantities
\[
U_{tip} = \frac{2 \sqrt[3]{2/3} \cdot 2.7075^{7/6}}{(7\delta)^{1/3}} \frac{\sqrt[3]{\Delta p_{in}}}{\rho} \left( \frac{\Delta p_{in}}{E} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{L}{k} \right)^{1/6}
\]
\[
= 7.36 \frac{\sqrt[3]{\Delta p_{in}}}{\rho} \left( \frac{\Delta p_{in}}{E} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{L}{k} \right)^{1/6}.
\]

It is of interest to note that if we had used the homogeneous-medium version of Equation (9) \((\delta = \infty)\), the numerical coefficient would change from 7.36 to 11.0 and the remainder of Equation (20) would remain unchanged. (One can also note that the crack-tip asymptotic solution is applicable in the near-tip region of a penny-shaped crack [e.g., Savitski and Detournay, 2002] so that Equation (20) may apply approximately in this case as well.)

### 2.4. Scaling Analysis

The result of Equation (20) can perhaps be more easily understood through a simple scaling analysis. In this scaling analysis, we let \(L = L_0 L, w(x) = w_0 \hat{w}, \Delta p(x) = \Delta p_0 \hat{p}\), and \(U = U_0 \hat{U}\), where hatted variables are non-dimensional and variables with a subscript zero are characteristic scales for the respective original variables. Inserting these expressions into Equation (7) gives \(w_0/L_0 = \Delta p_0/E\). Similarly, Equation (9) gives \(\Delta p_0/L_0 = \rho U_0^2 \frac{k^{1/3}}{w_0^2}\). Solving for the velocity scale \(U_0\) then yields
\[
U_0 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{\Delta p_0}{\rho}} \left( \frac{\Delta p_0}{E} \right)^{2/3} \left( \frac{L_0}{k} \right)^{1/6}.
\]

If no physics other than that of Equations (7), (9) and (10) enters the problem, then the only reasonable pressure scale is the excess inlet pressure, i.e. \(\Delta p_0 = \Delta p_{in}\), and if \(L \ll H\) then the instantaneous crack half-length \(L_0\) must be the relevant scale for \(L_0\). That is, given a pressure scale \(\Delta p_{in}\) and a single length scale \(L_0\), the scaling of Equation (20) is completely determined by dimensional analysis, and only the numerical factor is dependent on the choices made in Section 2.3. One may note, however, that if the crack has an additional length scale (e.g., if \(H \sim L\)) then both Equation (20) and Equation (21) can have an added dependence on a function of \(L/H\).

### 2.5. Self-Similar Analysis

Finally, following an approach similar to those of Spence and Sharp [1985] and Adachi and Detournay [2002], we numerically find an exact self-similar solution, also for the case in which \(L \ll H\). After scaling the equations as in Section 2.4, we look for a non-dimensionalized self-similar solution of the form
\[
L(t) = L_0 \hat{L}^t / \alpha,
\]
\[
w(x,t) = w_0 \hat{w}(\hat{x}) / \beta,
\]
\[
\Delta p(x,t) = \Delta p_0 \hat{p}(\hat{x}),
\]
\[
U(x,t) = \phi \hat{U}_0 \hat{x}^\gamma \hat{U}(\hat{x}).
\]

Here, \(\hat{x} \equiv \phi U_0 t L_0\) is a non-dimensional time, \(\hat{x} \equiv x/L(t)\) is a non-dimensional position, and \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \phi\) are numerical constants. It should be observed that \(L_0\) can be chosen arbitrarily (in that it will be seen to cancel from all final expressions). Once \(L_0\) is chosen and the correspondence \(\Delta p_0 = \Delta p_{in}\) is made, then \(w_0\) and \(U_0\) are determined by these choices, but \(U(x,t)\) has an extra condition to satisfy, \(U(L(t),t) = \delta L(t)/dt\), which is met by proper choice of \(\phi\). In this self-similar solution, it is assumed that \(\Delta p_{in} \equiv \Delta p(0,t)\) is constant so that Equation (22c) does not have any explicit time dependence. Substituting these expressions into Equations (7), (9) and (10), we find that the time dependence can only be satisfied with \(\alpha = 6/5, \beta = 6/5, \gamma = 1/5\) (but \(\phi\) is still to be determined). We therefore find that in this self-similar solution \(L(t)\) and \(w(x,t)\) grow slightly faster than linearly with time. We are also left with 3 non-dimensional ordinary differential/integral equations for the self-similar displacement profile \(\hat{w}(\hat{x})\), pressure profile \(\hat{p}(\hat{x})\) and velocity profile \(\hat{U}(\hat{x})\). These 3 expressions are
\[
\hat{p}(\hat{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\hat{w}(\hat{s})}{\hat{x} - \hat{s}} d\hat{s},
\]
\[
-\hat{w}^{10/3} \frac{d\hat{p}}{d\hat{x}} = \frac{(6/5)^{1/3} \hat{p}_0}{4\xi^{1/3}} \phi^2 (\hat{U}\hat{w})^2,
\]
and
\[
\frac{d(\hat{U}\hat{w})}{d\hat{x}} = \frac{d(\hat{x}\hat{w})}{d\hat{x}} = 2\hat{w}.
\]
Here $F(\tilde{x})$ is calculated numerically from Equation (30). $F(\tilde{x})$ represents the leading-order pressure term in Equation (28).

Detournay [2002] and take the $\hat{w}$ and $\hat{p}$ profiles to be given as series, the first term of which exactly embeds the crack-tip asymptotic (e.g., is consistent with Equations (12–13)) and the rest of the terms which do not contribute a further singularity at the crack tip. That is, we take

$$\hat{w} = D \left[ \frac{1}{\delta} \left( 1 - x^2 \right)^{6/7} + A_1 w_1(\tilde{x}) \right.$$  
$$\left. + A_2 w_2(\tilde{x}) + A_3 w_3(\tilde{x}) + \ldots \right]$$

and

$$\hat{p} = D \left[ F(\tilde{x}) + A_1 (c_1 - |\tilde{x}|) \right.$$  
$$\left. + A_2 (c_2 - \tilde{x}^2) + A_3 (c_3 - |\tilde{x}|^3) + \ldots \right].$$

Here, $c_k$ are constants chosen to remove any contribution to the stress intensity factor (i.e., consistent with negligible fracture resistance) from each of the $c_k - |\tilde{x}|^k$ terms, and thus satisfy

$$K_i = \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \left( c_k - |\tilde{x}|^k \right) \frac{d\tilde{x}}{\sqrt{1 - \tilde{x}^2}} = 0,$$  \hspace{1cm} (29a)

or

$$c_k = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \sin^k \varphi \, d\varphi,$$  \hspace{1cm} (29b)

where the substitution $\tilde{x} = \sin \varphi$ was made. $F(\tilde{x})$ and the $w_k$ are chosen so that each term of the $\hat{w}$ and $\hat{p}$ expressions pairwise satisfy Equation (23), i.e.,

$$F(\tilde{x}) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{\tilde{x}}^{1} \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{d}{d\tilde{s}} \left( 1 - \tilde{s}^2 \right)^{6/7} \frac{d\tilde{s}}{\tilde{x} - s}$$

$$= -\frac{3}{7 \cdot 26^6 \pi^7} \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \sin \varphi \cos^{5/7} \varphi \, d\varphi \frac{d\tilde{x}}{\tilde{x} - \sin \varphi}$$

Figure 3. $F(\tilde{x})$ as calculated numerically from Equation (30). $F(\tilde{x})$ represents the leading-order pressure term in Equation (28).

$F(\tilde{x})$ and the dashed $p F-C_0 j_2^2 C_0^2$ are constants chosen to remove any contribution to appropriately.

Figure 4. Here $w_k(\tilde{x})$ as calculated numerically from Equation (32). The blue dashed line is $w_1$, the dotted green line is $w_2$, the solid red line is $w_3$ and the dashed-dotted cyan line is $w_4$. The $w_k$ are terms of the displacement opening series (Equation (27)).

and

$$c_k - |\tilde{x}|^k = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_{0}^{1} \frac{dw_k(\tilde{x})}{ds} \frac{d\tilde{x}}{\tilde{s} - \tilde{s}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (31)

where Equation (31) can be inverted to solve for $w_k$ using the Muskhelishvili [1953] approach. (Pressure and displacement are Hilbert transform pairs and the mixed boundary condition problem is solved with this approach.) This results in non-singular $dw_k/d\tilde{x}$ at $|\tilde{x}| = 1$, consistent with choosing $w_k(\pm 1) = 0$, provided that the $c_k$ are chosen according to Equation (29b). The result, as simplified by an expression from Adachi and Detournay [2002], is (setting $\tilde{x} = \sin \varphi$)

$$w_k(\sin \varphi) = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\varphi/2} \left( c_k - \sin^k \theta \right) \ln \left| \frac{\cos \varphi + \cos \theta}{\cos \varphi - \cos \theta} \right| \cos \theta \, d\theta.$$  \hspace{1cm} (32)

[17] $F(\tilde{x})$ and the $w_k(\tilde{x})$ are plotted in Figures 3 and 4, respectively. Values of $w_k(0)$ and averages of $w_k(\tilde{x})$ over the crack are tabulated in Table 1.

[18] $D$ and the $A_k$ are then constants to be determined so that the remaining Equation (26) is satisfied. Note that $\delta$ is inserted in Equation (27) so that $F(\tilde{x}) \cdot [(1 - \tilde{x}^2)/2]^{1/7} \rightarrow -1$ as $\tilde{x} \rightarrow \pm 1$. Equation (26) can be satisfied by choosing $\phi$ and the $A_k$ coefficients appropriately, and the boundary condition $\hat{p}(0) = 1$ can be satisfied by choosing $D$ appropriately.

Table 1. Values of $w_k(0)$ and Average Value of $w_k(\tilde{x})$ up to $k = 4^a$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$w_1$</th>
<th>$w_2$</th>
<th>$w_3$</th>
<th>$w_4$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value at $\tilde{x} = 0$</td>
<td>$4/\pi$</td>
<td>$4/3$</td>
<td>$4/\pi$</td>
<td>$6/5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average value</td>
<td>$2/3$</td>
<td>$\pi/4$</td>
<td>$4/5$</td>
<td>$\pi/4$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Average values are numerically calculated but agree with stated exact result to within numerical error.
To determine $\phi$, we substitute Equations (27)–(28) into Equation (26) and take the limit as $\hat{x} \to 1$. The resulting limit is independent of the $A_k$ and gives

$$(6/5)^{1/6} \phi = \frac{2\xi^{2/3} D^{7/6}}{(f_0)^{1/2} \cdot \delta^{1/3}}. \tag{33}$$

Note that $(6/5)^{1/6} \phi$ is the numerical coefficient in Equation (22d) analogous to the 7.36 coefficient of Equation (20), and unsurprisingly has the same functional dependence on $f_0$, $\xi$, and $\delta$. To determine the $A_k$, we minimize the squared error between the left-hand-side (LHS) and right-hand-size (RHS) of Equation (26). That is, we minimize

$$\epsilon_m \equiv \sum_{i} \frac{[RHS(\hat{x}_i) - LHS(\hat{x}_i)]^2}{\left[\sum LHS(\hat{x}_i)\right]^2} \tag{34}$$

over equally spaced points $\hat{x}_i$ between 0 and 1. (This solution technique is a standard collocation method using equally spaced collocation points.) We find that using only 5 terms in the series (including up to the $A_4$ term) gives an adequate minimization of $\epsilon_m$, as shown in Figure 5a. (See also Figure 5b for the analogous comparison for the steady state solution.) As in the work of Spence and Sharp [1985], the resulting values of $A_k$ are relatively insensitive to the exact choice of misfit functional $\epsilon_m$. The values obtained for $D$, $A_k$ and $c_k$ are given in Table 2, and the resulting profiles for $\hat{w}$ and $\hat{p}$ are shown in Figure 6 compared to the profiles for the approximate solution of Section 2.3. The $\hat{U}$ profile is shown in Figure 7. This value of $D$ results in

$$(6/5)^{1/6} \phi = 5.17, \tag{35}$$

a 30% reduction from the 7.36 coefficient of Equation (20).

One can explicitly find $L(t)$ by solving Equation (22a) in terms of all the now known quantities to obtain

$$L(t) = \frac{5\rho^{6/5} L_{0t}^{6/5}}{6L_0^{6/5}}$$

$$= \frac{5}{6} \rho^{6/5} \left(\frac{\Delta p_{m}}{\rho} \right)^{3/5} \left(\frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \right)^{4/5} \rho^{6/5}$$

and

$$w(x, t) = L(t) \frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \hat{w}(\hat{x})$$

$$= \frac{2.002}{\delta} L(t) \frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \left[\left(L(t)^2 - \hat{x}^2\right)^{6/7} + \delta A_1 w_1(\hat{x}) + \delta A_2 w_2(\hat{x}) + \delta A_3 w_3(\hat{x}) + \cdots\right]. \tag{38}$$

Note that $(6/5)^{1/6} \phi$ is the numerical coefficient in Equation (22d) analogous to the 7.36 coefficient of Equation (20), and unsurprisingly has the same functional dependence on $f_0$, $\xi$, and $\delta$. To determine the $A_k$, we minimize the normalized squared error between the left-hand-side (LHS) and right-hand-size (RHS) of Equation (26). That is, we minimize

$$\epsilon_m \equiv \sum_{i} \frac{[RHS(\hat{x}_i) - LHS(\hat{x}_i)]^2}{\left[\sum LHS(\hat{x}_i)\right]^2} \tag{34}$$

over equally spaced points $\hat{x}_i$ between 0 and 1. (This solution technique is a standard collocation method using equally spaced collocation points.) We find that using only 5 terms in the series (including up to the $A_4$ term) gives an adequate minimization of $\epsilon_m$, as shown in Figure 5a. (See also Figure 5b for the analogous comparison for the steady state solution.) As in the work of Spence and Sharp [1985], the resulting values of $A_k$ are relatively insensitive to the exact choice of misfit functional $\epsilon_m$. The values obtained for $D$, $A_k$ and $c_k$ are given in Table 2, and the resulting profiles for $\hat{w}$ and $\hat{p}$ are shown in Figure 6 compared to the profiles for the approximate solution of Section 2.3. The $\hat{U}$ profile is shown in Figure 7. This value of $D$ results in

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One can explicitly find $L(t)$ by solving Equation (22a) in terms of all the now known quantities to obtain

$$L(t) = \frac{5\rho^{6/5} L_{0t}^{6/5}}{6L_0^{6/5}}$$

$$= \frac{5}{6} \rho^{6/5} \left(\frac{\Delta p_{m}}{\rho} \right)^{3/5} \left(\frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \right)^{4/5} \rho^{6/5}$$

so that

$$U_{wp} \equiv \frac{dL}{dt} = U(L(t), t) = \left(6/5\right)^{1/6} \phi U_0 \left(\frac{L(t)}{L_0}\right)^{1/6}$$

$$= \left(6/5\right)^{1/6} \phi \left[ \frac{\Delta p_{m}}{\rho} \left(\frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \right)^{2/3} \left(\frac{L(t)}{k}\right)^{1/6} \right], \tag{37}$$

and

$$w(x, t) = L(t) \frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \hat{w}(\hat{x})$$

$$= \frac{2.002}{\delta} L(t) \frac{\Delta p_{m}}{E} \left[\left(L(t)^2 - \hat{x}^2\right)^{6/7} + \delta A_1 w_1(\hat{x}) + \delta A_2 w_2(\hat{x}) + \delta A_3 w_3(\hat{x}) + \cdots\right]. \tag{38}$$

<table>
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<th>Value</th>
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<td>$A_4$</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$c_4$</td>
<td>$\frac{1}{2}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
with realistic assumptions will likely only be possible after an extensive research program is conducted, which is well beyond the scope of this paper. Nevertheless, we show some preliminary results that are meant to give the reader an idea for how future results can be compared with observations.

[22] To apply the results of the previous section to crack propagation at the bed of a glacier, we must estimate the parameters that enter Equation (37). Here, to make direct contact with the observations of Das et al. [2008] of GPS displacements associated with the drainage of a Greenland meltwater lake, we take the margin of the Greenland Ice Sheet as the region of interest. Key observations of theirs, which we later compare our model results with, include an average drainage rate of \(8.7 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}\) during the \(\approx 2\) hour event, \(\approx 1.1\) m vertical displacements, \(\approx 0.8\) m northward displacements, and an increased westward velocity (by a factor of 3 for the daily average). Estimates of the Young’s modulus of glacial ice varies substantially, with a range of 0.9–10 GPa [Vaughan, 1995]. We choose, as representative, laboratory values of Young’s modulus at \(-5^\circ\text{C}\) of \(E = 6.2\) GPa [Jellinek and Brill, 1956] and Poisson’s ratio \(\nu = 0.3\) [Vaughan, 1995], giving \(E' = 6.8\) GPa. This value may be appropriate if the displacements have a linear elastic response, but may be an overestimate if there is a significant viscoelastic response. Fluid density is taken as \(\rho = 1000\) kg/m\(^3\) and ice density is taken as \(\rho_{ice} = 910\) kg/m\(^3\). The study area of Das et al. [2008] had 980 m-thick ice \((H = 0.98\) km\), so the pressure at the base of the ice sheet in excess of the ice pressure due to a column of standing water there would be \(\Delta p_{static} = (\rho - \rho_{ice})gH_w \approx 0.87\) MPa, where the height of water, \(H_w\), is taken as equal to the ice thickness, \(H\), and \(g \approx 9.81\) m/s\(^2\). The actual excess pressure at the inlet is reduced from this value due to frictional losses from the surface to the bed, but as a high-end first approximation we take \(\Delta p_{in} = \Delta p_{static} = 0.87\) MPa. The channel roughness \(k\) is the least constrained of all parameters but is likely a healthy but

![Figure 6](image_url)

**Figure 6.** Comparison of steady state and self-similar solutions. (a) Plotted are the \(\hat{p}\) (scaled pressure) for the self-similar solution (\(\hat{p}_{self-sim}\)) and the steady state solution (\(\hat{p}_{steady}\)). The actual pressure is given by \(p(x) = \Delta p_{in} \hat{p}(\hat{x})\). (b) Plotted are the \(\hat{w}\) (scaled model opening) for the self-similar solution (\(\hat{w}_{self-sim}\)), the \(\hat{w}\) of Equation (18) for the steady state solution (\(\hat{w}_{steady}\)), and the \(\hat{w}\) consistent with the steady state \(\hat{p}_{steady}\) distribution in Equation (7) (\(\hat{w}_{p-steady}\)). The actual opening is given by \(h(x) = \xi \hat{w}(\hat{x}) = \xi L(t) \Delta p_{in}/E'\cdot \hat{w}(\hat{x})\).

![Figure 7](image_url)

**Figure 7.** Plotted is the \(\hat{U}\) (scaled fluid velocity) for the self-similar solution. \(U(0) \approx 1.321\), and \(U(1) = 1\) as required by the condition \(U(L) = U_{top}\). For comparison, the steady state solution has \(\hat{U}(\hat{x}) \equiv 1\). The actual fluid velocity is given by \(U(x) = (6/5)^{1/6} \rho U_{top}(L)(L_0)^{1/6} \hat{U}(\hat{x})\).
small fraction of the channel opening (with range perhaps being 0.005 m < k < 0.2 m). Luckily the dependence of \( U_{tip} \) on \( k \) is quite weak (power law with an exponent of one sixth) so we take a reasonable estimate of \( k \approx 1 \) cm, which is consistent with a Manning roughness of \( n \approx 0.018 \text{ s m}^{-1/3} \) (a lower value than is used by many authors for subglacial channels [Roberts, 2005; Hooke, 2005]). Taking \( L = H \approx 1.0 \text{ km} \) and substituting these values into Equation (37) then yields a (maximum) estimate of \( U_{tip} = 2.6 \text{ m/s} \) and average opening \( h_{avg} = 13 \text{ cm} \). The dependence on \( L \) is also weak so that with \( L = 0.2 \text{ km} \), we would have \( U_{tip} = 2.0 \text{ m/s} \), although \( h_{avg} \) scales in proportion to \( L \) so that \( h_{avg} = 2.6 \text{ cm} \). The volume accommodated is \( 2Lh_{avg}L_c = 2L^2 L_c(h_{avg}/L) \), where \( L_c \) is an effective length perpendicular to the plane of straining for which the solution is approximately valid. This gives a volumetric flow rate of \( 4L_c h_{avg} U_{tip} \). Taking \( L_c \approx 3 \text{ km} \) (approximately the length of the observed surface breaking by Das et al. [2008]) then for \( L = 1.0 \text{ km} \), we can estimate a flow rate of about \( 4.1 \cdot 10^7 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \) (as compared with the average flow rate of \( 8.7 \cdot 10^7 \text{ m}^3/\text{s} \) observed by Das et al. [2008]).

[23] As discussed earlier, our analysis assumes high Reynolds number, ignores any channelized or sloping bed topography, neglects fracture energy and assumes a lubrication approximation with neglect of the acceleration term of the full Navier-Stokes equation. We verify that these approximations are reasonable for the Greenland basal crack situation considered here. Taking \( U \approx 2 \text{ m/s}, h \approx 0.1 \text{ m} \) (which apply for crack lengths of interest \( L \gtrsim 1 \text{ km} \)), \( \rho \approx 10^3 \text{ kg/m}^3 \), and viscosity of \( \mu \approx 1.8 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ Pa s} \), then \( R \gtrsim 10^5 \), which puts it in the fully turbulent regime. The hydraulic head gradient is given by \( S = \Delta p_{in}/(\rho g L) \approx 0.1 \text{ so that bed slopes } \lesssim 5^\circ \text{ can be safely ignored. Taking ice fracture toughness of } K_{ic} \approx 0.16 \text{ MPa m}^{1/2} \text{ [Rist et al., 1999], which is slightly on the high side of estimates by } Ashby \text{ [1989] and } Fischer \text{ et al. [1995], and surely higher than for the ice-rock interface (regardless of whether the ice is frozen to the bedrock or not), we can compare the total energy lost in the pressure gradient (per unit surface area of the crack), } e_{loss} = E_{loss}/Area = \Delta p_{in} h \gtrsim 0.9 \cdot 10^5 \text{ J/m}^2, \text{ with the fracture energy } K_{ic} ^2 / E \approx 4.1 \text{ J/m}^2. \text{ Since the pressure gradient energy loss is much greater than the fracture energy (except at the very earliest stages of crack growth, when } h \approx 10^{-2} \text{ m or equivalently } L \lesssim 0.1 \text{ m}, \text{ it is reasonable to neglect the fracture energy. This inequality is analogous to the one suggested by } Savitski \text{ and Detournay [2002] and } Bunner \text{ and Detournay [2008] for Newtonian viscous flows; unlike in their analysis, which is for constant inflow rate, our constant } \Delta p_{in} \text{ solution has negligible fracture energy during the later stages of crack growth (and is only toughness dominated at the very earliest stages). Another appropriate view is to consider the ratio } K_{ic}/(\Delta p_{in} \sqrt{\pi L}), \text{ where the denominator is a nominal } K_i \text{ that would result from uniform pressurization. This ratio is } \approx 0.1 \text{ when } L = 1 \text{ m}, \text{ and is } \approx 0.01 \text{ for } L > 100 \text{ m. We further note that the small crack-tip velocity (<10 m/s) compared to elastic wave speeds (>100 m/s) implies that elastodynamic effects are unimportant, validating our use of } K_i = K_{ic}. \text{ Finally, } \rho U^2 \approx 10^3 \text{ Pa as compared with } \Delta p_{in} \approx 8 \cdot 10^3 \text{ Pa so that the acceleration term of the Navier-Stokes equation } \rho(\partial(U/\partial t) + U \cdot \nabla U/\partial x), \text{ of order } \rho U^2/L, \text{ can be neglected compared with the pressure gradient term } (\partial p/\partial x), \text{ of order } \Delta p_{in}/L. \)

### 3.1. Approximations for Comparison With Observations

[24] As suggested above, one potential application of our turbulent hydraulic fracture model is to rapid drainage from supraglacial meltwater lakes to the bed of an ice sheet. For this application, it is useful to compare our model results with the observations of Das et al. [2008], in which they were able to measure the supraglacial lake water level as well as vertical and horizontal surface displacements during the rapid drainage event. A rough comparison of modeled and observed flow rates was given above for a plausible choice of parameters, but in order to quantitatively compare our model results with these observations, there are a number of issues that must be dealt with. We stress the fact that these issues are not all solved satisfactorily, but a number of crude approximations are suggested. The following 5 topics will be addressed.

[25] First, in Section 3.1.1, we make estimates to calculate the net volumetric flow rate into the basal crack and the total water volume taken up by the crack system. As part of this calculation, we observe that it is necessary to also consider the flow rate and volume contributions from the vertical crack that connects the surface to the basal crack.

[26] Second, in Section 3.1.2, we estimate the vertical and horizontal surface displacements.

[27] For both of these calculations, we observe that the 3D nature of the true situation is important, whereas our calculations of Section 2 are all done in (2D) plane strain. Thus, in Section 3.1.3, we propose an ad-hoc procedure for interpreting our plane strain results for a circular crack.

[28] In Section 3.1.4, we find that an additional deficiency of our model is the unrealistic approximation \( L \ll H \) and we discuss two possible approaches of utilizing our results nonetheless.

[29] The last issue we discuss here (in Section 3.1.5) is the fact that the excess pressure at the basal crack inlet (\( \Delta p_{in} \)) is not known a priori because of the pressure loss on the way from the surface to the bed, and hence it must be determined in conjunction with the rest of the calculation.

[30] Finally, in Section 3.1.6, we summarize the resulting 3 model choices that arise from using the approximations discussed throughout this section. It should be noted, however, that some of the difficulties discussed are substantial and overcoming all of them is beyond the scope of this paper. We therefore reiterate that the following sections allow only for crude estimates of the desired quantities, and the results of this paper beyond Section 2 should only be taken as rough preliminary estimates.

#### 3.1.1. Calculation of Flow Rates and Volumes

[31] We first discuss how to calculate volumes and flow rates within our turbulent self-similar solution, which strictly applies only in the range \( L \ll H \). In order to later allow these results to be generalized from 2D plane strain to a 3D geometry in Section 3.1.3, and later to arbitrary \( L/H \) in Section 3.1.4), we find it useful to compare our self-similar solution to the (static) solution for a crack opened by a uniform pressure, taken to be \( \Delta p_{in} \), over the entire crack.
and thus \( \Delta p_{\text{avg}} = 2 \frac{\Delta p_0}{L} \) of Equation (41) substituted into Equation (45) gives \( d(\bar{h}_U) = 2 \frac{\Delta h_U}{L} \) and thus \( Q_{2D} = 4 \frac{\Delta h_U}{U_{ip}} \). Furthermore, the self-similar solution for \( U_{ip} \) (Equation (37)) can be rewritten in terms of \( \bar{h}_U \) by substituting \( \Delta p_{\text{avg}} E = \bar{h}_U / (\xi \pi L) \) such that

\[
U_{ip} = C_2 \sqrt{\frac{\Delta p_0}{\rho} \left( \frac{\bar{h}_U}{L} \right)^{2/3}} \left( \frac{L}{k} \right)^{1/6},
\]

with

\[
C_2 = \left( \frac{6}{5} \right)^{1/6} \frac{\phi}{(\xi \pi)^{2/3}} = \frac{2D^{7/6}}{(7f_0)^{1/2}(\pi k)^{2/3}} \approx 3.571.
\]

Thus, for a given \( L \), we can calculate \( \bar{h}_U \), through Equation (41), and then calculate \( V_{2D} \) through Equation (44) and \( Q_{2D} \) through Equation (45).

[33] We note that the vertical crack (moulin) system connecting the surface to the basal crack likely contributes to both the volume of water stored as well as surface displacements. To estimate these quantities for the vertical connecting crack, we approximate this additional crack as being a plane stress center crack of length \( 2a \) in a homogeneous body, opened by a uniform pressure equal to the depth-averaged pressure in excess of hydrostatic ice pressure (see Figure 8). This approximation is valid if stresses in the solid (ice) are close to hydrostatic and is not accurate if the region has high extensional or compressional horizontal stresses. Furthermore, this plane stress crack will only be opened significantly if basal shear stresses are low, suggesting that \( a < L \) (where we anticipate the 3D geometry of the basal crack as being close to circular, as will be suggested below). Finally, the depth-averaged treatment of the vertical crack is clearly a crude approximation to the true situation in which excess pressure and opening varies with depth, but may be a reasonable first approximation. With these caveats, this elliptically shaped connecting crack then has volume given by

\[
V_c = \pi a H_w = \frac{2\pi \Delta p_{\text{avg}}^2 H_w}{E}
\]

where \( 2a H_w \) is the crack center opening, and \( \Delta p_{\text{avg}} \approx \Delta p_{\text{int}}/2 \) is taken as the depth-averaged pressure in excess of the local hydrostatic pressure. Contribution to flow rate is calculated, as above, to be

\[
Q_c = \frac{dV_c}{dt} = \frac{dV_c}{da} \frac{da}{dt} = \frac{4\pi \Delta p_{\text{avg}} a H_w}{E} \frac{da}{dt}.
\]

### 3.1.2. Surface Displacements

[34] Here, we calculate model vertical and horizontal surface displacements based on the basal plane strain self-similar crack solution and the approximate plane stress connecting crack. As shown in Appendix C in Text S1, vertical surface displacements can be calculated using the reciprocal theorem and Boussinesq-Flamant line source solution [see, e.g., Timoshenko and Goodier, 1987]. It is also shown that the horizontal opening of the vertical crack has a negligible contribution to the vertical surface displacements compared with the contribution from the basal
crack opening. In Appendix C in Text S1, we also show that the horizontal surface displacements can be approximated by calculating the horizontal opening of the (vertical) connecting crack in a plane stress configuration. These calculations result in the following expressions for vertical ($h_v$) and horizontal ($u_x$) displacements at a surface location $x_0$ (relative to the crack inlet at $x = 0$ and in the plane of crack growth, see Figure 8). The vertical displacement is

$$h_v(x_0) \approx \frac{H}{\pi L^2} \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{\hat{w}(\bar{x}) \, d\bar{x}}{(\bar{x} - x_0)^2 + H^2}^2,$$

where $H = H/L(t)$, $\bar{x}_0 = x_0/L(t)$, $\hat{w}(\bar{x})$ is the scaled self-similar opening given in Equation (27), and other variables are as before. The horizontal displacement is

$$u_x(x_0) = \frac{2 \Delta p_{avg} a}{E} \left[ \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{x_0}{a}\right)^2} - \left(\frac{x_0}{a}\right) \right] + \frac{1 + \nu}{2} \left(\frac{x_0}{a}\right) \left[ 1 - \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{x_0}{a}\right)^2} \right],$$

where $\Delta p_{avg}$ is the constant average pressure assumed along the crack face. Thus, given a surface location $x_0$ and crack length $L(t)$, Equation (50) gives $h_v$ in terms of our self-similar solution and Equation (51) gives $u_x$ in terms of $\Delta p_{avg}$.

### 3.1.3. Generalization From Plane Strain to 3-D

Since the previous expressions are for an unrealistic 2D plane strain geometry (for example, true volume is not easily defined for the basal crack), it is useful to generalize this to a 3D geometry. We do this in the following, somewhat ad-hoc manner. First, we note that the 3D crack opening can be expected to be close to circular since a shorter crack length in a particular direction would be more unstable to growth under the same loading conditions. Thus, for this 3D extension, we first consider a (circular) penny-shaped crack of radius $L$ in a homogeneous medium, loaded with uniform pressure $\Delta \rho_{in}$ and clamped on the edges. For this uniform loading case, Sneddon [1946] gives

$$w_U^{3D}(\mathcal{R}) = \frac{8 \Delta \rho_{in} L}{\pi E^2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\mathcal{R}^2}{L^2}} ,$$

where $\mathcal{R} \equiv R/L$ and $R$ is distance from the center of the crack. Approximating accounting for the bimaterial case, as before, the average opening is then

$$\overline{h}_U = \varepsilon \xi w_U^{3D} = \frac{\xi}{\pi L^2} \int_0^L 2 \pi R w_U^{3D}(\mathcal{R}) d\mathcal{R} = \frac{16 \xi \Delta \rho_{in} L}{3 \pi E^2}.$$  

Comparing the penny-shaped openings of Equation (52) and Equation (53) with the 2D plane-strain openings of Equation (40) with Equation (41), we observe that the two constant pressure loading cases have opening displacements with identical functional forms and have average openings that differ by a factor of $16/(3\pi^2) \approx 0.540$. With this in mind, we use the following plausible ad-hoc procedure that approximately accounts for the 3D penny-shaped geometry in the turbulent flow case. We utilize the same plane strain displacement profile $\hat{w}(\bar{x})$ on the penny-shaped crack $\hat{w}(\bar{x})$ as well as utilize the same scaling factors $C_1$ and $C_2$, but replace all instances of $\overline{h}_U$ by $\overline{h}_U^{3D}$ (i.e. in Equations (42), (43), (46), and (50)). In this way, we can now calculate a true basal crack volume,

$$V_b = C_1 \pi L^2 \overline{h}_U^{3D},$$

a corresponding flow rate,

$$Q_h = \frac{dV_h}{dt} = \frac{dV_h}{dl} U_{w},$$

and appropriately scale the vertical displacement (Equation (50)) to account for the added stiffness of the 3D geometry. (We note that for this circular crack geometry, the 2D solution of Equation (50) is an upper bound to the true uplift and is only a good approximation when $x_0 \approx L$.) The horizontal displacement of Equation (51) is unaffected by this procedure. We note that future work is necessary to check the validity of this scaling procedure since, for example, the constants $C_1$ and $C_2$ for a penny-shaped crack could easily be different than those chosen based on the 2D plane-strain solution. We also note that (3D) volumes can be estimated for the plane strain solution by replacing the $\overline{h}_U$ of Equation (54) with $\overline{h}_U^{3D}$.

### 3.1.4. Using the Model Beyond $L \ll H$

[36] As previously mentioned, the results presented are strictly only applicable when $L \ll H$. In Appendix D in Text S1 we estimate that $L$ becomes as large as $L \approx 5.25$ km (as compared with $H \approx 1$ km), well beyond the appropriate range of usage of the approximation $L \ll H$.

[37] Fully addressing this issue requires treating the free surface boundary condition properly and is beyond the scope of this paper. However, preliminary calculations that include the free surface suggest that order-of-magnitude bounds on the final results can be estimated using two simple scalings. We emphasize that the two approaches used here should not be expected to give better than order-of-magnitude accuracy, and future work is necessary to determine the degree of accuracy.

[38] In the first approach, we simply apply our previous model results in all regimes of $L/H$, despite $L$ growing significantly larger than $H$. The weak dependence of Equation (37) on $L$ lends some credibility to using the $L \ll H$ solution beyond its known range of usability, although preliminary calculations suggest substantial inaccuracies. In a second approach, we attempt to approximately account for the range beyond $L \ll H$ by matching our solution with a plate theory (beam theory) scaling applicable in the limit $L \gg H$. For this latter approach, we again find it convenient to compare with the constant loading case and, as shown in Appendix D in Text S1, obtain an average opening given by

$$\overline{h}_U^s = \frac{16 \xi \Delta \rho_{in} L}{3 \pi E^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{3 \pi}{256 \xi} \frac{L^3}{H^2} \right].$$

This approximation asymptotically satisfies both solutions in the appropriate limits and defines a smooth transition between them. The validity of this ‘linear sum’ transition is unknown and unfortunately untestable within the scope of the current work, but we hope to address the validity of this approximation in future work. If the transition is strongly
non-linear, with transition occurring at much larger \( L/H \) than
in Equation (56), the first approach to addressing this
problem would be more appropriate. However, with this
definition of \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \), we can invoke a similar procedure as
was suggested in Section 3.1 and simply replace \( \bar{h}_{U} \) with \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \) in
all expressions (Equations (42), (43), (46), (50), and (54)),
and otherwise use the same self-similar solution. We note
that the form of the displacement profile is not expected to
stay the same but, as we have no other plausible solution to
rely on, we use the same displacement profile and assume
that the primary effect of including plate theory is the
scaling accounted for by \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \). It can also be noted that
the eventual strong dependence of \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \) on \( L \) (to the 4th power)
implies large vertical displacements for moderately large
values of \( L \) in this model relative to the crack models (for
the same pressure distribution). See Figure 9 for a comparison
of vertical displacements calculated for the 3 different
choices \( \bar{h}_{U}, \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \) and \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \) (with numerical values chosen as in
Section 3).

3.1.5. Accounting for Pressure Loss to the Bed

In the estimates of crack growth in the first paragraph
of Section 3, we estimate the excess pressure at the crack
inlet, \( \Delta p_{in} \), using the hydrostatic excess pressure value,
\( \Delta p_{static} \). However, in Appendix D in Text S1, we show that
the loss of pressure (in excess of hydrostatic ice pressure)
due to flow from the surface to the base, \( \Delta p_{loss} \) is a
significant fraction (67%) of \( \Delta p_{static} \).

To account for this pressure loss in the connecting
conduit, we no longer set \( \Delta p_{in} = \Delta p_{static} \) but instead let
\( \Delta p_{m} = \chi \Delta p_{static} \), where \( 0 \leq \chi \leq 1 \). In Appendix D in
Text S1, we show that \( \chi \) and \( U_{vert} \) (the average fluid velocity in
the vertical crack) can be solved for simultaneously. In the late
stages of crack growth, when the surface lake is gone but
there remains excess water pressure driving the basal crack
open, the analysis must be modified to account for this
different regime but \( \chi \) and \( U_{vert} \) can still be determined.

3.1.6. Summary of Approximate Models for
Comparison With Observations

With the results of Appendix D in Text S1 determined for
\( \chi \), we now obtain 3 different pre-
liminary models as follows. The \( \bar{h}_{U} \) in Equations (46),
(50) and (D8) is taken to be one of the 3 choices \( \bar{h}_{U}, \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \) or
\( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \). with results for these 3 choices henceforth labeled
‘Model I’ (using \( \bar{h}_{U} \)), ‘Model II’ (using \( \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \)) and ‘Model III’
(using \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \)), as described in detail in the following 3 paragraphs.

‘Model I’: Model I uses average opening \( \bar{h}_{U} \) of
Equation (41) of the plane strain solution for crack length
2\( L \), and adopts the same average over a lateral distance in
the \( y \) direction that scales with \( L \) such that the basal crack
volume is given by Equation (54) with \( \bar{h}_{U} \) substituted for
\( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \). This model neglects that \( L/H \) may be of order 1 or
larger.

‘Model II’: Model II reinterprets the plane strain
crack opening solution for a penny-shaped crack of radius \( L \)
with average opening \( \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \) of Equation (53), and basal crack
volume given by Equation (54). This model also neglects
that \( L/H \) may be of order 1 or larger.

‘Model III’: Model III is the same as ‘Model II’
extcept that it uses an approximate implementation of elastic
plate bending theory to account for \( L/H \) of order 1 or larger.
Average opening is estimated by \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \) of Equation (56), and
basal crack volume is given by Equation (54) with \( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \)
substituted for \( \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \).

Note that since all 3 models combine a 2D approxi-
ination for surface displacements (Equation (50)) with a 3D
approximation for volumes (Equation (54)), all are hybrid
models that should not be expected to precisely agree with
any realistic situation.

3.2. Comparison of Model Results With Greenland
Observations

We now compare our preliminary model results for
crack growth, surface displacements, and corresponding
surface-lake water-level time series with the recent
observations of rapid surface-lake drainage in Greenland by
Das et al. [2008]. All displacements plotted are for the
observation site at the surface and roughly 1.7 km removed
from the center of the connecting conduit \( x_{0} = 1.7 \) km (see
Figure 1).

The surface displacements used are those calculated by
the line source solution of Equation (50) for the vertical
uplift (as a function of \( L \)) and by the plane stress approxi-
mation of Equation (51) for horizontal displacement (as a
function of \( a \)). In Equation (50), we use either \( \bar{h}_{U}, \bar{h}_{U}^{D} \) or
\( \bar{h}_{U}^{S} \) as discussed in Section 3.1, giving us solutions for
‘Model I’, ‘Model II’, and ‘Model III’ respectively. (Plots
of these displacements as a function of \( L \) can be found in
the work of Tsai [2009]).

As discussed in Appendix D in Text S1, displacements
for \( L \leq 1.7 \) km are overestimated (but are nearly
negligible anyway). The strong (negative power) depend-
ence of \( \chi \) on \( L \) for ‘Model III’ implies very small basal
excess pressures \( (\Delta p_{m} = \chi \Delta p_{static}) \) and hence small hori-
zontal displacements for large values of \( L \), and therefore
cannot achieve the meter-scale displacements observed [Das
et al., 2008]. The very low values of \( \chi \) attained also imply
very low fluid velocities in the basal crack, which eventually
leave the turbulent regime that this work is based upon.
Thus, ‘Model III’ (which includes plate corrections) results
may not be realistic and this should be kept in mind when
interpreting the results for this case. ‘Model III’ may also be
In our 3 preliminary models, given the basal crack length $L$ at a given time, we can calculate the basal crack growth rate $\frac{dL}{dt} = U_{tip}$ from Equation (46), the basal crack input pressure $\Delta P_{in} = \chi \Delta P_{static}$ from Equations (D12) and (D14), the crack volumes from Equation (D1), and the surface displacements from Equations (50) and (51). Using the instantaneous $\frac{dL}{dt} = U_{tip}$ to step forward in time (i.e. assuming quasi-static crack growth), we can therefore integrate in time to obtain $L(t)$ given only knowledge about the initial lake volume and an initial small crack length $L_0$. If we also assume a lake geometry, we can additionally calculate the drop in water level in the surface lake (and vertical crack) by equating lake water volume loss to the water volume stored in the crack system (Equation (D1)).

Thus, for model input, we take the initial lake volume of $V_0 = 4.4 \times 10^7$ m$^3$, initial lake area of $A_0 = 5.6 \times 10^6$ m$^2$ [Das et al., 2008], and assume the lake to have a paraboloid shape. We do not model the very end of the drainage event, when we expect water in the basal crack to drain into the subglacial hydraulic system and eventually result in zero net displacement. The decrease of $\chi_0 \rightarrow 0$ at these late times also implies much lower fluid velocities, which eventually no longer satisfy the fully turbulent ($R \gtrsim 10^5$) approximation used throughout this work.

[51] The model results for Models I, II and III are shown in Figures 10 and 11 as a function of time. Figure 10a shows the crack length $L(t)$, the total volume in the basal crack plus vertical crack $V_b(L(t)) + V_c(a(t))$, and the water level in the lake $W_L(t)$. As discussed earlier, the volume is capped at $V_0$, after which crack growth changes from using the $\chi$ of Equation (D12) to that of Equation (D14) and is responsible for the inflection points in $L$ and $W_L$ as $V_0$ is reached. When the lake is empty, $W_L$ refers to the remaining water level in the vertical crack ($H_u - H$). Note that the quantities are plotted in different units so as to fit on the same graph. In Figure 10b is a comparison of the modeled $W_L$ of Figure 10a with the observed $W_L$ of Das et al. [2008]. Since the model starting time is arbitrary, we have adjusted the observation times so that the water level begins to drop around $t = 0$. As shown, ‘Model I’ (with $\bar{h}_u$) has a similar curvature to the observed $W_L$ but is about 40% too fast, ‘Model II’ (with $\bar{h}_u^{(2)}$) is about 20% too fast, and ‘Model III’ (with $\bar{h}_u^{(3)}$) initially follows ‘Model II’ but then becomes worse as the plate terms have larger contributions ($L \gtrsim H$) (and does not finish draining the lake in the 8-hr timespan plotted, an unrealistic behavior due to the rapid cutoff of the vertical conduit as discussed previously). Figure 11a shows the vertical and horizontal displacements of the same models. The cusps occur when the volume $V_b + V_c$ reaches $V_0$. In Figure 11b, we compare the modeled displacements with the observed displacements of Das et al. [2008]. As shown, ‘Model I’ again has a timescale about 40% too fast and predicts amplitudes about a factor of 2 too small, ‘Model II’ again is about 20% too fast and predicts amplitudes slightly worse than ‘Model I’, and ‘Model III’ does not predict timescales or amplitudes well. We reiterate that ‘Model III’ may not capture the transition from $L \ll H$ to $L \gg H$ in a realistic way, and further work must be done to test the validity of the approximation.

Figure 10. (a) Modeled basal crack length $L(t)$, total crack system volume $V_b + V_c$, and water level $W_L$ for Models I, II and III. The dashed lines denote the ‘Model I’ results, the solid lines denote the ‘Model II’ results, and the dashed-dotted lines denote the ‘Model III’ results. The colors, as labeled, are for $L(t)$ (blue), $V_b + V_c$ (red), and $W_L$ (cyan, below the zero line). (b) Modeled $W_L$ compared against the observed $W_L$. The red dashed line is the ‘Model I’ prediction, the blue solid line is the ‘Model II’ prediction, the green dashed-dotted line is the ‘Model III’ prediction, and the thick cyan dotted line is the observed $W_L$. The observation times have been shifted so that the water level begins to drop around $t = 0$. The observed horizontal displacements (with a maximum of about 0.8 m) are approximately 25% smaller than the observed vertical displacements (with a maximum of about 1.1 m) [Das et al., 2008], and this general behavior is achieved for a range of plausible $a/L$ in both ‘Model I’ ($\bar{h}_u$) and ‘Model II’ ($\bar{h}_u^{(2)}$). In ‘Model I’, $0.8 \lesssim a/L \lesssim 1.0$ approximately satisfy this condition. In ‘Model II’, $0.5 \lesssim a/L \lesssim 0.7$ approximately satisfy this condition. For ‘Model III’, no range of $a/L$ yields comparable behavior, but higher values ($a/L \gtrsim 0.8$) agree better. For the results shown below, we choose $a/L = 1.0$ for ‘Model I’, $a/L = 0.6$ for ‘Model II’, and $a/L = 1.0$ for ‘Model III’. We note that we may expect $a/L$ to remain roughly constant throughout crack growth since the size of the basal crack is the limiting factor on the growth of the vertical connecting conduit.
observed factor of 3 increase in background flow velocities for the day following the observed drainage [Das et al., 2008], though additional modeling would need to be done to verify this claim. Although also not explicitly modeled, we expect seismicity when strain rates are high and therefore over the full timescale of basal crack growth, not just the timescale of initial lake drainage, which is consistent with the observed seismicity [Das et al., 2008].

3.3. Complications in Comparison With Greenland Observations

[55] In the preceding sections, a very simplified approach was taken in which we considered the approximate elastic response of ice coupled to the turbulent flow of water through a connecting and basal crack. In this analysis, a large number of complicating factors were ignored and here we comment on some of the perhaps more important of these issues.

[54] As discussed above, although we use them outside the known range of applicability, the self-similar results strictly apply only when \( L \ll H \). Our attempt at modifying the solution to approximately account for plate theory corrections when \( L \gtrsim H \) did not successfully predict observations better than the models without a plate term added. However, since the true mechanics is more complex than the approximate corrections suggested, it would be useful to account for this more properly and hence obtain a solution that is accurate in all regimes of \( L/H \). As an example of an improvement that would result is that the stresses from such a solution should yield larger horizontal surface displacements [Higashida and Kamada, 1982] (as needed to fit observations). It may be possible to construct such a solution using the bimaterial crack approach of Erdogan et al. [1973], Higashida and Kamada [1982], and Hutchinson and Suo [1992] or the matched asymptotic approach of Bunner and Detournay [2005]. We leave this important problem for future work.

[55] Perhaps the next most significant simplification is that of an elastic ice medium. It is well known that glacier ice displays viscous properties [e.g., Paterson, 2002; Hooke, 2005] and should be modeled as a viscoelastic material on timescales close to the Maxwell time (ratio of effective viscosity to elastic stiffness) for glacier ice, which is plausibly in the hour to few hours range [e.g., Tsai et al., 2008]. The fact that the full timescale of interest (a few hours) may be longer than the Maxwell time suggests that the analysis described here is not completely realistic, and may explain why our predicted displacements are smaller than observed (as there would be added viscous strains on top of the elastic strains calculated). This shortcoming of the model is a serious one that we hope to deal with in future work. Nevertheless, the fact that the Maxwell time is not vastly shorter than the process timescale and that there is rough agreement between model and observation suggests that there is merit to the fully elastic approximation. The elastic approximation should, in any event, be valid near the moving rupture front where the timescale of substantial stress changes is much shorter.

[56] In addition to not accounting for viscous effects, the only fractures accounted for are those of the vertical connecting crack and the basal crack. In reality, numerous small fractures might be expected to open and close as the ice...
deforms, both due to brittle straining [e.g., Schulson, 2001] and due to small-scale hydrofracturing (during crack growth). For example, the positive excess pressures over most of the basal crack favor small scale hydrofracturing upwards into the ice, whereas the strongly negative pressure near the crack tips should encourage the opening of nearby horizontal fractures. The small upwards hydrofractures would be more likely where the largest extensional stresses are. Both small-scale hydrofracturing and brittle straining would contribute to effectively large-scale viscous deformation and would have associated seismicity. This would be consistent with the observed seismicity [Das et al., 2008] and therefore would be useful to have explicitly accounted for in future work. Moreover, this work assumes all of the lake water drains into the two large cracks, without leaking off into any conduits or other hydraulic network. As commented on previously, this is not expected to be a good approximation at the end of drainage. It also may not be a good approximation if there exist large conduits surrounding the crack system prior to the rapid drainage, or if there are layers of weak englacial ice which water could infiltrate.

[57] We also do not account for entrainment of any significant amounts of till (or ice) fragments in the basal flow channel, which may have an effect on the form of the fluid resistance, Equation (1) [see, e.g., Roberts, 2005]. Using the Shields criterion [see, e.g., Buffington, 1999] to estimate the size of the largest entrained grain fragments $D^*$, then

$$D^* = \frac{\tau}{\tau^c (\rho_s - \rho) g},$$

(57)

where $\tau^c$ is the dimensionless critical Shields stress and $\rho_s$ is the grain density. For fully turbulent flow, $\tau^c$ is approximately given by $\tau^c \approx 0.045$ [Lamb et al., 2004]. Using the self-similar solution with $\Delta p_{in} = \chi (\rho - \rho_{icw}) g H$, we can then estimate $\tau$ using Equations (1) and (2), and find

$$D^* = \frac{f_{wp} U^2}{8 \tau^c (\rho_s - \rho) g} \left( \frac{k}{\lambda} \right)^{1/3} U(\xi)^{2/3} W(\xi),$$

(58)

where $W(\xi)$ and $U(\xi)$ are shown in Figures 6b ($\omega$ corresponds to $\omega_{self-sim}$ there) and 7. Thus, with $\chi = 1$, other variables as before, and $\rho_s/\rho_{icw} \approx 2.7$, then even at $x = 0$ where $D^*$ is smallest, any grains smaller than $D^* \approx 10$ cm would be entrained, leading to a larger $\tau$ than used throughout this paper. This underestimate of $\tau$ (and therefore of $f$) may also help to explain the disagreement between our model results and the Das et al. [2008] observations. It may also be of interest to note that $D^*$ scales with $H^2$ and is independent of $L$ at the basal crack inlet ($x = 0$), implying great erosional power of draining surface waters from thick glaciers (e.g., a 2 km glacier would entrain all grains smaller than $\approx 40$ cm) regardless of basal crack length.

[58] In our analysis, we also determine pressures and displacements based on 2D plane strain and plane stress approximations, but then modify these solutions for use in a 3D penny-shaped crack. However, future work should be done to verify the validity of this modification procedure. The basal crack is also assumed to be perfectly horizontal, neglecting any bed slope relative to the pressure head gradient. If bed slopes are significant, we would expect the crack to favor propagation in the down-slope direction.

[59] Another important simplification is that we assume no melting or freezing of the ice and liquid water flowing through the cracks. The heating rate (per unit area) due to the turbulent flow $\tau U$ can be estimated as $f_{wp} U^3 \approx 10^8 J m^{-2} s^{-1}$, which would only melt warm ice by $\approx 1$ mm/hr (since the latent heat of water is $3 \cdot 10^6$ J/kg). Thus, no melting or freezing is a reasonable approximation as long as the thermal diffusion timescale is longer than the process time of a few hours. This diffusion timescale is given by $\tau_d = L^2 / \kappa$ where $L$ is the conductive length scale and $\kappa$ is thermal diffusivity. With $\kappa \approx 10^{-6}$ m$^2$/s [Hooke, 2005] then for $L \approx 10$ cm, $\tau_d \approx 2$ hrs. While it is not clear what range of conductive length scales exist through the crack system, it may be a reasonable guess that $L > 10$ cm, in which case melting and freezing is not important over the timescale of interest. We additionally ignore any instabilities in melting and freezing that might lead to fingering features at the crack front (e.g., as in the work of Walder [1982] or Tsai and Wettlaufer [2007]). Such short wavelength features are not expected of 3D crack growth without any melting [Rice, 1985].

4. Discussion

[60] The results of this work fall naturally into two main parts. In the first part (Section 2), we present a general model for fully turbulent hydraulic fracture, and present solutions under the assumption of either steady state or self-similar crack growth. To our knowledge, this is the first analysis of hydraulic fracture in which the fluid flow is assumed to be fully turbulent ($R \geq 10^5$) and the solution obtained is consistent with this turbulent flow. (Lister and Kerr [1991] discuss a model for weakly turbulent flow, using a smooth-pipe Blasius approximation applicable to $4 \cdot 10^3 \leq R \leq 10^5$. Our self-similar solution for crack growth (e.g. Equations (36)–(38)) therefore scales with physical parameters in a distinctly different manner as compared with self-similar solutions with Newtonian viscous flow [Spence and Sharp, 1985] or power law fluid flow [Adachi and Detournay, 2002]. Since all three of these cases assume a linear elastic medium around the crack, the scalings for crack opening with pressure and crack length are the same, e.g. with Equation (38) depending linearly on crack length ($L$) multiplied by the ratio of pressure ($\Delta p_{in}$) to elastic modulus ($E'$). However, due to differences in the flow regime assumed, the scalings for crack tip velocity ($U_{tip}$) are very different. For example, Spence and Sharp [1985] show that, in the Newtonian viscous case, a self-similar solution in which $\Delta p_{in}$ is constant can be achieved for an exponential increase in flow rate ($Q_{2D} \propto \epsilon^2$) but not for a situation in which flow rate has a power law dependence ($Q_{2D} \propto \epsilon^7$), whereas our turbulent solution has prescribed constant inlet pressure $\Delta p_{in}$ and has $Q_{2D} \propto \epsilon^7$. This prediction of flow rate, or equivalently of crack growth rate, cannot be made from quasi-static solutions like those of Weertman [1973] or van der Veen [2007] in which flow rate is treated as a given rather than as a quantity to be solved for in a self-consistent manner. It may also be noted that the turbulent hydraulic fracture results of Section 2 may be useful regardless of the validity or merit of the following
sections in which we attempt to apply the model a lake drainage event in Greenland.

[61] The second main part of this work (Section 3) focuses on a scheme for applying the turbulent hydraulic fracture model of Section 2 to model the rapid drainage of a meltwater lake in Greenland, as recently observed by Das et al. [2008]. In utilizing the idealized model of Section 2, a number of approximations are necessarily taken and the limitations of these approximations have been discussed in Section 3.3. This model of meltwater lake drainage makes quantitative predictions of the dynamic growth of the basal crack as well as approximate surface displacements and water drainage rate associated with this growth. In comparison, Krawczynski et al. [2009] also model the turbulent flow of water through a vertical crack but use the observed drainage rate to constrain the vertical crack geometry and do not consider the effects of basal crack growth. Moreover, Krawczynski et al. [2009] do not attempt to model the growth of the crack system, but instead focus on determining the volume of water necessary for the crack to grow to the base of the ice sheet. The modeling of van der Veen [2007] also does not attempt to determine the growth rate of either the vertical or basal crack under the realistic conditions of approximately constant excess pressure $\Delta p_{\text{ep}}$. The work of Weertman [1971b] also considers a case of turbulent flow driving crack opening but does not use a crack opening and pressure distribution that are consistent with the fluid flow equations, and therefore does not arrive at a realistic prediction of crack growth [Stevenson, 1982]. To our knowledge, Weertman [1971b], van der Veen [2007], Krawczynski et al. [2009] and the present work encompass all of the work done so far in attempting to model rapid meltwater lake drainage events. As such, although our model results are preliminary and have much room for improvement, they are the only ones capable of quantitative predictions of crack growth rates, drainage rates, and surface displacements associated with the drainage.

5. Conclusions

[62] We have presented a general model in which turbulent flow of water drives open a fracture within a purely elastic medium. We find that given certain assumptions about physical parameters, we can calculate the crack-tip speed as well as the pressure and displacement profiles along the crack. We present a steady state solution and a self-similar solution (both with $L \ll H$). We then apply the self-similar results to the case of a surface lake draining to the base of the Greenland Ice Sheet. Despite needing to use the models beyond their known range of validity (e.g., for $L \approx H$), we nonetheless find that our models can be constructed to have order of magnitude agreement with the observations of Das et al. [2008]. Our preliminary prediction is of basal crack growth eventually up to a radius of 5–10 km, with lake water-level predictions matching observations to within 20–40%, but with predicted surface displacements a factor of 2–3 smaller than observed. The inclusion of additional complexity, such as viscous creep and a more realistic treatment of the whole range of $L/H$, may help yield model results in better agreement between the observations, and we suggest possible directions for future work.

Notation

- $A$ constant related to $U_{\text{tip}}$ in equation (13).
- $A'$ constant related to $A$.
- $A_k$ self-similar series constants.
- $a$ half-length of connecting conduit.
- $b$ distance along crack of force pair.
- $C_1$ $h_{\text{avg}}/H_1$.
- $C_2$ scaling factor for velocity in equation (46).
- $c_0$ coefficient in lubrication equation.
- $c_k$ constants chosen to satisfy $K_{bc} = 0$.
- $D$ self-similar series constant.
- $D*$ size of largest entrained grains.
- $E$ Young's modulus.
- $E'$ effective modulus in plane strain.
- $E_{\text{loss}}$ energy loss.
- $e_{\text{loss}}$ energy loss per unit area.
- $F_{ij}$ angular function associated with $\sigma_{ij}$.
- $F(x)$ pressure term associated with first term of self-similar opening series.
- $f$ Darcy-Weisbach friction factor.
- $f_0$ value of $f$ at reference scale.
- $G$ shear modulus.
- $g$ gravitational acceleration.
- $g(z), F(z)$ complex bimaterial functions.
- $H$ height of ice sheet.
- $H_a$ height of water.
- $h$ basal crack opening.
- $h_0$ crack opening estimate.
- $h_{\text{avg}}$ average value of $h$.
- $h_s$ surface uplift from crack opening.
- $h_{t_1}$ surface uplift from $V_c$ crack.
- $h_{t_2}$ opening of plate for uniform $p$.
- $h_{t_1}^*$ average opening for uniform $p$.
- $h_{t_2}^*$ average opening for 3D uniform $p$.
- $h_{t_1}^*_{\text{avg}}$ average opening of plate for uniform $p$.
- $h_{t_2}^*_{\text{avg}}$ average opening of 3D crack plus plate.
- $I_k$ integral expressions.
- $K_f$ stress intensity factor.
- $K_{bc}$ fracture toughness.
- $k$ Nikuradse roughness height.
- $L$ horizontal basal crack length.
- $L_0$ characteristic scale for $L$.
- $L_c$ surface crack length.
- $LHS$ left-hand side of equation (26).
- $l$ conductive length scale.
- $m$ power law index.
- $n$ Manning roughness.
- $P$ constant in equation (13).
- $p$ fluid pressure in crack.
- $\Delta p$ pressure in excess of hydrostatic.
- $p$ non-dimensional $\Delta p$.
- $\Delta p_c$ characteristic scale for $\Delta p$.
- $\Delta p_{\text{in}}$ excess pressure at crack inlet.
- $\Delta p_{\text{hy}}$ hydrostatic component of $\Delta p_{\text{in}}$.
- $\Delta p_{\text{static}}$ $\Delta p$ from column of standing water.
- $\Delta p_{\text{loss}}$ loss of pressure in excess of hydrostatic.
- $Q_{2D}$ 2D flow rate.
- $Q_b$ flow rate contributed by $V_b$.
- $Q_c$ flow rate contributed by $V_c$. 
\( q \) constant in complex potential.
\( R \) distance along crack behind crack tip.
\( \mathcal{R} \) distance from center of 3D crack.
\( \mathcal{R} \) non-dimensional \( R \).
\( R_h \) hydraulic radius.
\( \Re \) Reynolds number.

**RHS** right-hand side of equation (26).

\( r \) distance away from crack tip.
\( S \) negative hydraulic head gradient.
\( \alpha, \beta, \gamma \) self-similar constants.
\( \gamma \) shear rate.
\( \delta \) elastic constant relating \( w \) and \( \Delta p \).
\( \epsilon \) bi-material mismatch constant.
\( \bar{w} \) normalized squared error.
\( \eta \) water viscosity.
\( \eta_t \) 3 – 4 \( \nu_k \).
\( \phi \) self-similar constant for velocity scale.
\( \varphi \) dummy variable.

\( U_{M} \) Manning velocity.
\( U_{ver} \) average velocity in vertical conduit.
\( U_{tip} \) crack-tip velocity.
\( u_{r} \) horizontal displacement due to force pair.
\( u_s \) surface horizontal displacement.

\( \omega + iv \) complex displacement.
\( V_0 \) initial lake volume.
\( V_{2D} \) 2D crack volume.
\( V_b \) basal crack volume.
\( V_c \) connecting crack volume.
\( W_1 \) water level.
\( w \) model crack opening.
\( \dot{w} \) non-dimensional \( w \).
\( w_0 \) characteristic scale for \( w \).
\( w_i \) terms of self-similar opening series.
\( \omega_i \) model opening for uniform \( p \).

\( \alpha_i \) complex variable.
\( \phi(\tau), \psi(\zeta) \) Muskhelishvili potentials.
\( \kappa \) thermal diffusivity.
\( \nu, \nu_k \) Poisson’s ratio.
\( \rho \) water density.
\( \rho_{ice} \) ice density.
\( \rho_g \) grain density.
\( \sigma_h \) hydrostatic ice overburden pressure.
\( \sigma_l \) stress tensor components.
\( \tau \) average shear stress on channel walls.
\( \tau_{ho} \) initial basal shear stress.
\( \tau_{cr} \) dimensionless critical Shields stress.
\( \dot{\theta} \) diffusion timescale.
\( \theta \) angle around crack tip.
\( \xi \) \( h/w \).
\( \chi \) \( \Delta p_{in}/\Delta p_{hy} \).

\[ X \wedge \Delta p_{in}/\Delta p_{static} \]

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Appendix A: Validity of the Bimaterial Approximation

In Section 2.2, we approximate the bimaterial crack as having an opening given by \( \xi \) times the opening for a crack in a homogeneous sample of the more compliant material. Here, we verify the validity of this approximation for an ice-rock interface. Following the analysis of Rice and Sih [1965] (see also England [1965] and Erdogan [1965]), we consider a crack of length 2L along the bimaterial interface within an infinite medium with upper medium characterized by shear modulus \( G_1 \) and Poisson’s ratio \( \nu_1 \) and lower medium characterized by \( G_2 \) and \( \nu_2 \). For our ice-rock case, we take ice elastic parameters as in Section 3 (\( E_1 = 6.2 \) GPa, \( \nu_1 = 0.3 \) so that \( G_1 = 2.4 \) GPa) and rock elastic parameters from near-surface granite seismic velocities of Lay and Wallace [1995] (and \( p_2 = 2750 \) kg/m\(^3\)) which give \( G_2 = 23 \) GPa \( \approx 9.6G_1 \) and \( \nu_2 = 0.3 \approx \nu_1 \). With these choices, the bimaterial ‘mismatch’ constant

\[
\epsilon \equiv \frac{1}{2\pi} \log \left[ \left( \frac{\eta_1}{G_1} + \frac{1}{G_2} \right) / \left( \frac{\eta_2}{G_2} + \frac{1}{G_1} \right) \right], \tag{A1}
\]

with \( \eta \equiv 3 - 4\nu \), has a value of \( \epsilon = 0.075124 \). Given an arbitrary crack pressure loading \( P(x) \) characterized by shear modulus \( G_1 \) and Poisson’s ratio \( \nu_1 \) in the horizontal direction and \( \nu_2 \) in the vertical direction, throughout this appendix) on either side of the crack (\( k = 1 \) or 2) are given by Equations (14) and (15) of Rice and Sih [1965] (evaluated along \( z = \bar{z} \) where \( \bar{z} = z_1 + iz_2 \) is a complex variable, with \( z_1 \) horizontal and \( z_2 \) vertical coordinates) to be

\[
2G_1(u_1 + iv_1) = \eta_1 \int_{-z}^{z} g(s) F(s) ds - e^{2\pi \epsilon} \int_{-z}^{z} g(s) F(s) ds \tag{A2}
\]
on the upper side and

\[
2G_2(u_2 + iv_2) = e^{2\pi \epsilon} \eta_2 \int_{-z}^{z} g(s) F(s) ds - \int_{-z}^{z} g(s) F(s) ds \tag{A3}
\]
on the lower side. As also given in Rice and Sih [1965],

\[
F(z) = (z^2 - L^2)^{-1/2} \left( \frac{z + L}{z - L} \right)^{i\epsilon}, \tag{A4}
\]
with branch cut along the crack such that \( zF(z) \to 1 \) as \( |z| \to \infty \), and

\[
g(s) = \frac{L}{\pi} \int_{-L}^{L} g(s, b) db, \tag{A5}
\]
where

\[
g(s, b) = \frac{P(b)}{2\pi} e^{-i\pi} \left( L^2 - b^2 \right)^{1/2} \left( \frac{L - b}{L + b} \right)^{i\epsilon}. \tag{A6}
\]

Along the crack face \(-L < s < L, F(s) \) simplifies to

\[
F(s) = -1 \cdot \pm i e^{\pm \epsilon} (L^2 - s^2)^{-1/2} \cdot [\cos(\epsilon \log \frac{L + s}{L - s}) + i \sin(\epsilon \log \frac{L + s}{L - s})], \tag{A7}
\]
where + is used for \( s \) above the crack, – is used for \( s \) below the crack.

Substituting Equations (A5) and (A7) into Equations (A2) and (A3) gives expressions for the complex displacements along the crack face. Expanding each of these expressions as a power series in the parameter \( \epsilon \) and approximating the expressions to first order in \( \epsilon \) (ignoring all higher-order terms, which is appropriate except extremely close to the ends, because of the logarithmic divergence), we find that we can express the complex displacements along the crack face as

\[
u_1 + iv_1 = \frac{1}{E_1} (iI_1 + iI_2) + O(\epsilon^2) \tag{A8}
\]
and

\[
u_2 + iv_2 = -\frac{1}{E_2} (\epsilon I_1 + \epsilon I_2) + O(\epsilon^2). \tag{A9}
\]

\( I_1 \) and \( I_2 \) are (complicated) expressions that involve only real integrals, and the full crack opening displacement in a homogeneous medium characterized by \( G_1 \) and \( \nu_1 \) is given by

\[2(u_1 + iv_1) = 0 + \frac{1}{E_1} iI_2. \tag{A10}\]

We then observe that to order \( \epsilon \), the displacement \( v_1 \) is unchanged from its value in the homogeneous case and that the displacement on the lower side, \( v_2 \) is given by

\[v_2 \approx -\frac{E_1}{E_2} v_1 \approx \frac{v_1}{9.6}. \tag{A11}\]

Thus, the full opening in the bimaterial case \( v_1 - v_2 \) is approximately \( \xi \) of the full opening in the homogeneous case where \( \xi \) is given by

\[
\xi \approx \frac{1 + E'_1/E'_2}{2} \approx 0.55. \tag{A12}\]

We therefore use the approximation \( h = 0.55w \).

Appendix B: Stresses in the Bulk

Here, we describe the stresses in the elastic medium associated with the crack-tip solution of Desroches et al. [1994] that are used to obtain Equations (12) and (13). Following Desroches et al. [1994], we write the Muskhalishvili [1953] potential as

\[
\phi(z) = \frac{A'}{2q} z^q, \tag{B1}
\]
where \( z = z_1 + iz_2 \) is again a complex variable, and \( q \) is a constant. We follow Desroches et al. [1994] and take the other Muskhalishvili [1953] potential as \( \phi'(z) = \phi(z) - z\phi'(z) \) in order to maintain zero shear along the crack axis \( y = 0 \). We can then calculate the stresses in polar coordinates to be given by

\[
\frac{\sigma_{\theta\theta} + \sigma_{rr}}{2} = \frac{\sigma_{xx} + \sigma_{yy}}{2} = A' r^{q-1} \cos((q - 1)\theta). \tag{B2}
\]
and
\[
\frac{\sigma_{yy} - \sigma_{xx}}{2} + i\sigma_{xy} = e^{2i\theta} \left[ \frac{\sigma_{yy} - \sigma_{xx}}{2} + i\sigma_{xy} \right]
\]
\[
= (1 - q)A^{-r-1} \sin(\theta) - \sin(\theta) + i\cos(\theta). \tag{B3}
\]

Solving for the stresses gives
\[
\sigma_{rr}(r, \theta) = A'r^{-1}
\]
\[
\cdot \left[ \frac{3 - q}{2} \cos[(1 - q)\theta] - \frac{1 - q}{2} \cos[(1 + q)\theta] \right], \tag{B4}
\]
\[
\sigma_{\theta\theta}(r, \theta) = A'r^{-1}
\]
\[
\cdot \left[ \frac{1 - q}{2} \sin[(1 - q)\theta] - \frac{1 - q}{2} \sin[(1 + q)\theta] \right], \tag{B5}
\]
and
\[
\sigma_{\theta r}(r, \theta) = A'r^{-1}
\]
\[
\cdot \left[ \frac{1 + q}{2} \cos[(1 - q)\theta] + \frac{1 - q}{2} \cos[(1 + q)\theta] \right]. \tag{B6}
\]

These expressions give the stress components of the Desroches et al. [1994] solution except for a possible added uniform pressure, \(\sigma_{yy} = -P\) and \(\sigma_{xx} = -P\), and an additional added crack-parallel stress \(\sigma_{rr} = \text{constant}\) (which will not enter our analysis). Equation (13) is then obtained by demanding that \(p(x)\) and the crack opening gap satisfy the fluid equations (Equations (7), (9) and (10)) in the case of steady state growth, leading to \(q = 2/(2+m) = 6/7\) and evaluating Equation (B6) along the crack opening to yield
\[
\Delta p(x) - P = -\sigma_{yy}(R, \pi)
\]
\[
= -A'R^{-1/7} \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{7} \right) = -AR^{-1/7}, \tag{B7}
\]
where \(A = A'\cos(\pi/7)\) corresponds to the quantity introduced in Equation (12).

### Appendix C: Displacement Calculations

The vertical surface displacements (uplift) due to both cracks are easily calculated using the reciprocity theorem and the Boussinesq-Flamant line-source solution (see e.g. Timoshenko and Goodier [1987]). The result, e.g. as in the Appendix of Walsh and Rice [1979], is that the vertical surface uplift \(h_s\) in a homogeneous half-space due to a vertical opening displacement \(w^r = w(x)\) of the crack is
\[
h_s(x_0, y_0) = \int_{x_0} \sigma_{yy}^r(x-x_0, y-y_0) w^r(x) \, dx, \tag{C1}
\]
where \(\sigma_{yy}^r\) is given by
\[
\sigma_{yy}^r = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{(y-y_0)^3}{[(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2]^2}, \tag{C2}
\]
and \((x_0, y_0)\) is the uplift location. Applying this to the basal crack, and utilizing the bimaterial approximation for the opening displacement of the crack, \(w^r = h(x) \approx w(x)/2\), but ignoring bimaterial effects on Equation (C2), then
\[
h_s(x_0) \approx \int_{-L}^{L} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{H^3 w(x)}{[(x-x_0)^2 + H^2]^2} \, dx, \tag{C3}
\]
where variables are as before. Putting this into nondimensional form and substituting Equation (42) for \(\xi w(x)\), we obtain
\[
h_s(x_0) \approx \frac{H^3 H}{\xi^2 L^4} \int_{-1}^{1} \tilde{w}(\tilde{x}) \, d\tilde{x}, \tag{C4}
\]
where \(H \equiv H/L(t), \tilde{x}_0 = x_0/L(t)\). \(\tilde{w}(\tilde{x})\) is the scaled self-similar opening given in Equation (27), and other variables are as before. Thus, given a surface location \(x_0\) (relative to the crack inlet at \(x = 0\) and in the plane of crack growth) and crack length \(L(t)\), Equation (50) gives \(h_s\) in terms of our self-similar solution.

We can similarly account for the vertical displacement due to the horizontal opening of the vertical crack, and as shown below find that this contribution is negligible. Again as in Walsh and Rice [1979], the contribution due to the vertical crack’s horizontal displacement \(u^s\) is
\[
h_s^V = \int_{x_0} H \frac{\sigma_{xx} u^s \, dy}{\pi(x_0^2 + y^2)^2}, \tag{C5}
\]
where \(\sigma_{xx}^r\) is given for a homogeneous halfspace by
\[
\sigma_{xx}^r = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{(x-x_0)^2(y-y_0)}{[(x-x_0)^2 + (y-y_0)^2]^2}. \tag{C6}
\]
Applying this to the vertical crack then
\[
h_s^V(x_0) \approx \int_{0}^{H} \frac{2\pi x_0 u^s(y) \, dy}{\pi(x_0^2 + y^2)^2} \max[u^s] = 0.08 \max[u^s]. \tag{C7}
\]
Noting that for the observations of Das et al. [2008], \(x_0/H \approx 1.7\) then this contribution to \(h_s\) is bounded by
\[
h_s^V(x_0) \leq \int_{0}^{H} \frac{2\pi x_0^2 u^s(y) \, dy}{\pi(x_0^2 + y^2)^2} \max[u^s] \leq 0.08 \max[u^s]. \tag{C8}
\]
Since \(\max[u^s]\) is expected to be of similar (or smaller) magnitude to \(w^r\), the contribution \(h_s^V\) is thus expected to be an order of magnitude less than that due to the basal crack opening, and we therefore neglect this contribution.

For horizontal surface displacements, we similarly expect an order of magnitude smaller contribution from vertical opening of the basal crack compared to horizontal opening of the (vertical) connecting crack, and hence ignore this former contribution. The horizontal displacement at a distance \(x_0\) perpendicular to the center of the plane stress center crack (see Figure 8) can be obtained by integrating the results of Tada et al. [2000] as follows. Tada et al. [2000] provides the displacement at \(x_0\) due to a pair of point forces of amplitude \(P_1\) to be
\[
u w^r(x_0) = \frac{4P_1}{\pi E} \left[ \tan^{-1} \sqrt{a^2 - b^2 \over a^2 + x_0^2} \right. \nonumber
\]
\[
+ \left. \frac{1 + \nu}{2} \sqrt{b^2 \over x_0^2 + \left( a^2 + x_0^2 \right)^2} \right], \tag{C9}
\]
where \(b\) is the distance from the center of the crack to the pair of forces. Integrating this expression over the crack face \((0 \leq b \leq a)\) gives the corresponding expression, due to a constant pressure \(\Delta p_{wxx}\) along the crack, of
\[
u w^r(x_0) = \frac{2 \Delta p_{wxx}}{E} \left[ \frac{1}{1 + (x_0/a)^2} - (x_0/a) \nonumber \right.
\]
\[
+ \left. \frac{1 + \nu}{2 \, (x_0/a)} \left( 1 - \frac{x_0/a}{1 + (x_0/a)^2} \right) \right], \tag{C10}
\]
which we take as an approximation to the horizontal surface displacement.
Appendix D: Estimates of Errors and Improvements on Approximations

Here, we first find that the approximations L ≪ H and Δp_{loss} ≪ Δp_{static} are of concern. Following estimates of how well these approximations are satisfied, we discuss possible approaches to addressing the two problems.

First, we can make an estimate of how large L becomes by equating the volume of water taken up by the basal crack plus vertical crack (V_b + V_v) with the initial volume of water in the surface lake (V_0). The initial lake volume was observed to be V_0 = 4.4 · 10^7 m^3 [Das et al., 2008], and we calculate the sum of the crack volumes to be

\[ V_b(a) + V_v(a) = \frac{\pi}{2} \Delta \rho_0 \frac{L^3}{E} \left( \frac{16\xi C_1 (1 - \nu^2)}{3\pi} + \frac{a^2 H}{L^2} \right) \] (D1)

Choosing a = L as a plausible upper bound on V_c (as discussed in the next paragraph, which results in a lower bound on L) predicts that L ≳ 5.25 km is reached and thus suggests that the approximation L ≪ H should be revisited.

Second, we estimate the pressure loss from turbulent flow en route to the bed by applying the turbulent Manning-Strickler scaling of Equation (6) with each term estimated for flow through the vertical crack. As in our earlier plane stress calculation for this vertical crack, we assume a depth-averaged value of excess pressure Δp_{3D}/2 opening the crack, giving a cross-sectionally averaged opening of 2u_{avg} ≡ a_0 ≈ 2Δp_0 a_2E/2E. We expect that a in the range 0.1 ≤ a/L ≤ 1 since significant opening will only occur over the region with minimal basal shear stress to counteract the excess pressure (i.e. a ≪ L) but for a ≪ L the excess pressure should encourage a to grow (i.e. a ≳ 0.1L). Taking L ≳ 3 km and a/L ≳ 0.8 as plausibly representative, then 2u_{avg} ≃ 0.48 m/s. The average fluid velocity through this vertical crack U_{vert} can be estimated by equating the volumetric flow rate in the vertical crack \( \pi a_0 U_{vert} \) to the volumetric flow rate into the basal crack dV_b/dt ≡ dV_v/dL · U_{tip} (where V_v is given by Equation (54)). Using the procedures of Section 3.1, we estimate dV_b/dt using \( \bar{h}_v \), which gives U_{tip} ≃ 1.4 m/s and therefore dV_b/dt ≃ 8.5 · 10^3 m^3/s. Using these values, then U_{vert} ≃ 3.7 m/s and the loss of pressure in excess of hydrostatic through the connecting conduit would be

\[ \Delta p_{3D} = \frac{0.0357 \rho U_{vert}^2 k^{1/3} H}{(2u_{avg})^{1/3}} \approx 0.58 \text{ MPa} \] (D2)

which is a large fraction (67%) of the maximum excess pressure of 0.87 MPa, and is a higher fraction when L is smaller. Any sinuosity in the path from the surface to the base, or a smaller value of a/L, would also increase this pressure head loss. Thus, both the L ≪ H approximation and the approximation of no loss of excess pressure at the basal inlet are of concern.

For the uniform pressure loading \( \Delta p_{3D} \) over a penny-shaped plate of radius L clamped on the edges, Timoshenko and Woinowsky-Krieger [1959] gives

\[ h_v^p(R) = \frac{3 \Delta p_{3D} L^4}{16 \pi E H^3} (1 - \hat{R}^2) \] (D3)

where, as before, \( \hat{R} = R/L \). The average opening is then

\[ \bar{h}_v^p = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta p_{3D} L^2}{E \pi}. \] (D4)

Comparing Equation (D4) for \( \bar{h}_v^p \), which applies when L ≫ H, with Equation (53) for \( \bar{h}_v^3 \), which applies when L ≪ H, we suggest a summed version of \( \bar{h}_v \) (the average opening under uniform pressure) defined by

\[ \bar{h}_v \equiv \bar{h}_v^3 + \bar{h}_v^p = \frac{16 \xi \Delta p_{3D} L^2}{3 \pi E^2} \left[ 1 + \frac{3 \pi}{256 \xi} \cdot \frac{L^3}{H^2} \right]. \] (D5)

To account for pressure loss in the connecting conduit, we let \( \Delta p_{3D} \equiv \chi \Delta p_{static} \) where 0 ≤ \( \chi \leq 1 \). We then solve for the unknowns \( \chi \) and U_{vert} (average fluid velocity in the vertical crack) by equating the excess pressures at the juncture between the vertical crack and the basal crack inlet, and similarly equating the volumetric flow rates there. We use the same turbulent scaling as was used in Equation (D2), noting again that this depth-averaged, lumped-parameter treatment of flow in the vertical crack is a crude approximation to the true situation. With this caveat, the first equality is satisfied by

\[ (1 - \chi) \Delta p_{static} = \frac{0.0357 \rho U_{vert}^2 k^{1/3} H}{(\pi \alpha \chi \Delta p_{static} / 2E)^{1/3}}, \] (D6)

where \( \chi \Delta p_{static} \) has replaced \( \Delta p_{3D} \). The second (flow rate) equality is satisfied (as also discussed prior to Equation (D2)) by setting

\[ 4a_0 U_{vert} = \frac{\pi a_0^2 \Delta p_{static} h_v \cdot \chi}{E} = \frac{dV_v}{dt} = \frac{dV_v}{dL} \cdot U_{tip}, \] (D7)

where U_{tip} is given by Equation (46) and dV_v/dL is calculated as

\[ \frac{dV_v}{dL} = C_2 \frac{(16 \xi \Delta p_{static}) \pi^2}{3 \xi E} \bigg( \frac{L}{k} \bigg)^{1/6} \chi^{7/6} \] (D9)

where the exponent of 7/6 on \( \chi \) comes from 1/2 + 2/3). Similarly, using ‘Model II’ in Equation (D8) gives

\[ \frac{dV_v}{dL} = \frac{16 \xi C_1 \Delta p_{static}}{3 \xi E^2} \frac{d\chi L}{dL} = \frac{C_1 \pi (\Delta p_{static} L^2 \chi)}{3 \xi \pi L^2}, \] (D10)

where it will be shown that the \( d\chi/dL \) term can be safely ignored compared with the other term (this is also true for ‘Model I’, but not for ‘Model III’). Using these expressions in Equation (D7), and solving for U_{vert} gives

\[ U_{vert} = \frac{4.83 \sqrt{\frac{\Delta p_{static}}{\rho}}}{\left( \frac{\Delta p_{static}}{E} \right)^{2/3}} \bigg( \frac{L}{k} \bigg)^{1/6} \left( \frac{L}{a} \right)^{1/3} \chi^{7/6} \] (D11)

Substituting U_{vert} into Equation (D6), and ignoring the \( d\chi/dL \) term, allows us to solve algebraically for \( \chi \) in terms of known quantities (and given L and a). Using values from Section 3, then

\[ \chi = \frac{(a/L)^{16/3} \cdot (L/H)}{0.456 + (a/L)^{16/3} \cdot (L/H)}. \] (D12)

Explicitly calculating \( d\chi/dL \) with this solution, we find that \( (L/3\chi) d\chi/dL \leq 1/3 \) regardless of L, and thus small compared to 1, which validates ignoring that contribution in
Equation (D10). If we had used ‘Model I’ (with \( \hat{h}_{c} \)) instead of ‘Model II’, Equation (D12) would have a numerical factor of 3.55 instead of 0.456, while not changing the rest of the expression. If we instead use ‘Model III’ (with \( \hat{h}^{*}_{c} \)) instead of ‘Model II’ to calculate \( \chi \), then we can no longer ignore the \( d\chi/dL \) term and instead must numerically solve the differential equation to find \( \chi(L) \). For plots of \( \chi \) for these three cases for plausible choices of \( a/L \), see Figure 4.10 of Tsai [2009]. For ‘Model III’ (including approximate plate bending), the strong dependence of the potential equation to find \( \chi \) results in the fast asymptote of \( \chi \to 0 \) as \( L \) grows. This asymptote of \( \chi \to 0 \) with \( \Delta p \) in \( \chi \) indicates that \( \chi \) and \( \Delta p \) are strictly related by expressing hydrostatic balance in terms of \( \Delta p \); thus, \( \Delta p \) is again determined algebraically. With this approximation, we then find that \( \chi_{w} \approx \chi_{w} \), which yields

\[
\frac{H_{w}}{H} = \frac{\rho_{w} c_{w}}{\rho} + \frac{\rho - \rho_{w} c_{w}}{\rho} \chi_{w}. \tag{D13}
\]

As expected, when \( \chi_{w} \to 1 \), \( H_{w} \to H \) and when \( \chi_{w} \to 0 \), \( H_{w} \to 0.91H \). Since the geometric changes in \( H_{w}/H \) are small compared to the effects of \( \chi_{w} \) on \( \Delta p_{\text{in}} \), we continue to approximate \( H_{w} \approx H \) when it enters equations geometrically. With this approximation, we then find that \( \chi \) is still determined by Equation (D12). Maintaining \( V_{b} + V_{c} = V_{o} \) in ‘Model II’ (i.e., using Equation (D1) implemented with \( h_{c}^{*} \)) then determines \( \chi_{0} \equiv \chi \) to be

\[
\chi_{0} = \frac{EV_{o}}{\pi \Delta p_{\text{in}} L/H} - \frac{L}{H} \cdot 0.503L/H + (a/L)^{2}. \tag{D14}
\]

Thus, \( \Delta p_{\text{in}}/\Delta p_{\text{static}} \equiv \chi_{0} \) is again determined algebraically as a function of \( L \) (and \( a/L \)) during the late stages of basal crack growth.

**Notation**

- \( A \) constant related to \( U_{tip} \) in Eq. (13).
- \( A' \) constant related to \( A \).
- \( A_{k} \) self-similar series constants.
- \( a \) half length of connecting conduit.
- \( b \) distance along crack of force pair.
- \( C_{1} \) \( \hat{h}_{avg}/\hat{h}_{c} \).
- \( C_{2} \) scaling factor for velocity in Eq. (46).
- \( c_{0} \) coefficient in lubrication equation.
- \( c_{k} \) constants chosen to satisfy \( K_{ic} = 0 \).
- \( D \) self-similar series constant.
- \( D^{*} \) size of largest entrained grains.
- \( E \) Young’s modulus.
- \( E' \) effective modulus in plane strain.
- \( E_{loss} \) energy loss.
- \( e_{loss} \) energy loss per unit area.
- \( F_{ij} \) angular function associated with \( \sigma_{ij} \).
- \( F(z) \) pressure term associated with first term of self-similar opening series.
- \( f \) Darcy-Weibsch friction factor.
- \( f_{0} \) value of \( f \) at reference scale.
- \( G \) shear modulus.
- \( g \) gravitational acceleration.
- \( g(z), F(z) \) complex bimaterial functions.
- \( H \) height of ice sheet.
- \( H_{w} \) height of water.
- \( h \) basal crack opening.
- \( h_{0} \) crack opening estimate.
- \( h_{avg} \) average value of \( h \).
- \( h_{s} \) surface uplift from crack opening.
- \( h_{w}^{*} \) surface uplift from \( V_{c} \) crack.
- \( h_{c}^{P} \) opening of plate for uniform \( p \).
- \( h_{U} \) average opening for uniform \( p \).
- \( h_{c}^{D} \) average opening for 3D uniform \( p \).
- \( h_{c}^{g} \) average opening of 3D crack plus plate.
- \( I_{k} \) integral expressions.
- \( K_{i} \) stress intensity factor.
- \( K_{ic} \) fracture toughness.
- \( k \) Nikuradse roughness height.
- \( L \) horizontal basal crack length.
- \( L_{D} \) non-dimensional \( L \).
- \( L_{o} \) characteristic scale for \( L \).
- \( L_{c} \) surface crack length.
- \( L_{HS} \) left-hand side of Eq. (26).
- \( l \) conductive length scale.
- \( m \) power-law index.
- \( n \) Manning roughness.
- \( P \) constant in Eq. (13).
- \( \rho \) fluid pressure in crack.
- \( \Delta p \) pressure in excess of hydrostatic.
- \( \hat{\rho} \) non-dimensional \( \Delta p \).
- \( \Delta p_{o} \) characteristic scale for \( \Delta p \).
- \( \Delta p_{in} \) excess pressure at crack inlet.
- \( \Delta p_{hy} \) hydrostatic component of \( \Delta p_{in} \).
- \( \Delta p_{loss} \) loss of pressure in excess of hydrostatic.
- \( Q_{2D} \) 2D flow rate.
- \( Q_{b} \) flow rate contributed by \( V_{b} \).
- \( Q_{c} \) flow rate contributed by \( V_{c} \).
- \( q \) constant in complex potential.
- \( R \) distance along crack behind crack tip.
- \( R \) distance from center of 3D crack.
- \( R_{h} \) hydraulic radius.
- \( \Re \) Reynolds number.
- \( RHS \) right-hand side of Eq. (26).
- \( r \) distance away from crack tip.
- \( S \) negative hydraulic head gradient.
- \( s, \hat{s} \) dummy variables.
- \( T \) timescale of drainage.
- \( t \) time.
- \( i \) non-dimensional \( t \).
- \( U \) fluid velocity averaged across \( h \).
- \( \hat{U} \) non-dimensional \( U \).
characteristic scale for $U$.

Manning velocity.

average velocity in vertical conduit.

crack-tip velocity.

horizontal displacement due to force pair.

surface horizontal displacement.

complex displacement.

initial lake volume.

2D crack volume.

basal crack volume.

connecting crack volume.

water level.

model crack opening.

non-dimensional $w$.

characteristic scale for $w$.

terms of self-similar opening series.

model opening for uniform $p$.

model opening of 3D crack for uniform $p$.

horizontal position along crack.

vertical position.

complex variable.

self-similar constants.

shear rate.

elastic constant relating $w$ and $\Delta p$.

normalized squared error.

water viscosity.

3 – $4\nu_k$.

self-similar constant for velocity scale.

dummy variable.

Muskhelishvili potentials.

thermal diffusivity.

Poisson’s ratio.

water density.

ice density.

grain density.

hydrostatic ice overburden pressure.

stress tensor components.

average shear stress on channel walls.

initial basal shear stress.

dimensionless shear stress.