

3 **Ocean Surface Gravity Wave Excitation of Flexural
4 Gravity and Extensional Lamb Waves in Ice Shelves**5 **L.S. Abrahams**  * ¹, **J.E. Mierzejewski** ², **E.M. Dunham**  ^{1,3}6 ¹Department of Geophysics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA, ²California State University, Los Angeles, ³Institute of Computational
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Abstract Flexure and extension of ice shelves in response to incident ocean surface gravity waves have been linked to iceberg calving, rift growth, and even disintegration of ice shelves. Most modeling studies utilize a plate bending model for the ice, focusing exclusively on flexural gravity waves. Ross Ice shelf seismic data shows not only flexural gravity waves, with dominantly vertical displacements, but also extensional Lamb waves, which propagate much faster with dominantly horizontal displacements. Our objective is to model the full-wave response of ice shelves, including ocean compressibility, ice elasticity, and gravity. Our model is a 2D vertical cross-section of the ice shelf and sub-shelf ocean cavity. We quantify the frequency-dependent excitation of flexural gravity and extensional Lamb waves and provide a quantitative theory for extensional Lamb wave generation by the horizontal force imparted by pressure changes on the vertical ice shelf edge exerted by gravity waves. Our model predicts a horizontal to vertical displacement ratio that increases with decreasing frequency, with ratio equal to unity at ~ 0.001 Hz. Furthermore, in the very long period band (< 0.003 Hz), tilt from flexural gravity waves provides an order of magnitude larger contribution to seismometer horizontal components than horizontal displacements from extensional Lamb waves.

Non-technical summary In the past three decades, we have seen ice shelves catastrophically weaken and break apart. In some cases, large calving events or ice shelf disintegration is correlated to the arrival of ocean waves and tsunamis. This has prompted the deployment of seismometers on ice shelves to study the ice shelf response to ocean wave impacts. Ocean waves convert to several other wave modes in the ice shelf and ocean layer beneath the ice shelf. In our study, we present computer simulations of the ocean and ice shelf system to quantify the wave motions within and on the surface of the ice shelf, thereby permitting comparison to seismic data. Our results help guide interpretation of seismic data and in understanding which wave modes are most likely to contribute to calving and fracture of ice shelves.

25 **1 Introduction**

26 Ice shelf stability and strength play an important role in understanding and predicting sea level rise (Bromwich
27 and Nicolas, 2010). Ice shelves buttress ice sheets and following ice shelf collapse, ice streams have been observed
28 to accelerate (Dupont and Alley, 2005; Pritchard et al., 2012). In the past three decades, we have seen ice shelves
29 catastrophically weaken and break apart; as the climate continues to warm, thinning and collapse of ice shelves is
30 likely to occur at a more rapid rate.

31 Weakening of ice shelves has been associated with wave-induced flexure (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978) as well
32 as basal and surface melting (Paolo et al., 2015). Basal melting is facilitated through influx (into the sub-ice shelf
33 cavity) of warm seasonal sea water and circumpolar deep water (Walker et al., 2008; Rignot et al., 2013). During the

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34 summer months, surface melting increases, creating supraglacial lakes, further thinning the ice shelves and possibly
 35 contributing to hydro-fracturing into the ice shelf (Banwell et al., 2013).

36 Melting and thinning weaken ice shelves, but what creates fractures and finally triggers the collapse of ice shelves
 37 is poorly determined. Possible processes include ocean surface gravity wave forcing (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978;
 38 Bromirski et al., 2010; Brunt et al., 2011; Banwell et al., 2017; Massom et al., 2018). Incident ocean waves are partially
 39 transmitted into the ice shelf as flexural gravity waves (similar to ocean surface gravity waves but with additional
 40 inertia and elastic resistance to bending from the ice) and other elastic waves bearing more similarity to traditional
 41 seismic waves. The ability of waves to transmit through the ice shelf and the magnitude of wave-induced stresses
 42 depend on the ice shelf structure (ice thickness, elastic moduli, density), depth of water in the sub-shelf cavity, and
 43 the properties of the incident wave (frequency, incident angle). Incident waves include high frequency ocean swells,
 44 storm-generated infragravity waves, tides, and tsunamis (MacAyeal et al., 2006). Lower frequency waves penetrate
 45 the sub-shelf cavities more efficiently, causing flexure (Sergienko, 2013). This flexural stress can open cracks, drive
 46 rift growth, and initiate collapse events. Bromirski et al. (2010) concluded that both of the breakup events on the
 47 Wilkins Ice shelf in 2008 matched with arrivals of infragravity waves from large storm events on the Patagonian
 48 coast. Brunt et al. (2011) suggested that tsunami arrivals from the 2011 Tohoku-Oki, Japan, earthquake caused a
 49 massive calving event on the Sulzberger Ice Shelf. Massom et al. (2018) linked storm-generated swell to calving and
 50 break-up of the Larsen A and B and Wilkins ice shelves. Icequake activity near the front of the Ross Ice Shelf is also
 51 correlated ocean wave arrivals (Chen et al., 2019; Aster et al., 2021), though other factors such as tidal and thermal
 52 stresses contribute as well (Oliver et al., 2019). Flexural gravity waves are also excited by abrupt rift opening and
 53 can be used to track and monitor the expansion of rifts (Oliver et al., 2022).

54 Most models of the wave response of ice shelves have focused exclusively on the flexural response. However, the
 55 Ross Ice Shelf data shows other wave modes, including the fundamental mode extensional Lamb wave that propa-
 56 gates close to the plane stress P-wave speed of ice and has dominantly horizontal displacements (Bromirski et al.,
 57 2017; Chen et al., 2018, 2019). These observations motivate us to examine how incident ocean waves convert to flexu-
 58 ral gravity and extensional Lamb waves. Chen et al. (2018) suggest that wave-induced pressure changes on the shelf
 59 front, which exert a net horizontal force on the ice shelf, are responsible for excitation of extensional Lamb wave.
 60 We confirm this hypothesis with our modeling.

61 Before introducing our model, we remark on the many studies that have focused on the flexural gravity wave
 62 response of ice shelves and sea ice. Most work utilizes a bending plate model to describe the ice response, recognizing
 63 that horizontal wavelengths are much larger than ice thickness at frequencies of interest. The frequency-domain
 64 reflection/transmission problem of gravity waves in open water coupled to flexural gravity waves in ice-covered water
 65 was solved by Fox and Squire (1990, 1991). The earlier history of the field is reviewed by Squire et al. (1995); Squire
 66 (2007). While much of this work focused on sea ice, attention has shifted recently to ice shelves (Sergienko, 2010,
 67 2013). Lipovsky (2018) provides a methodology to estimate wave-induced bending stresses from measured ice shelf
 68 motions. Finite element (Ilyas et al., 2018; Sergienko, 2017) and finite difference (Mattsson et al., 2018) methods
 69 can be used to solve to the potential flow problem in sub-shelf cavity. These studies show how the shallow water
 70 approximation breaks down at swell frequencies (Kalyanaraman et al., 2019) and how ice shelves affect the shoaling
 71 process as waves advance into shallower water (Meylan et al., 2021). Solution of the full elasticity problem in the
 72 ice shelf can be used to determine the validity of the plate approximation (Sergienko, 2010, 2017; Kalyanaraman
 73 et al., 2020). While most efforts focus on 2D vertical cross-section models, some 3D or 2D map-view models have
 74 been developed to account for the complex geometries and variable ice thickness and water depth of real ice shelves
 75 (Sergienko, 2017; Tazhibetov et al., 2022). However, use of a bending plate model for the ice shelf precludes study
 76 of extensional Lamb waves and other ice shelf wave modes.

77 Our objective is to model the full-wave response of ice shelves, including ocean compressibility, ice elasticity and
 78 inertia, and gravity. We do this for a 2D vertical cross-section of the ice shelf and sub-shelf ocean cavity, coupled
 79 to an open-water region. The ice and ocean obey the elastic and acoustic wave equations, respectively, and gravity
 80 is added using an extension of the fully coupled method introduced by Lotto and Dunham (2015). This allows us to
 81 model extensional Lamb waves in addition to flexural gravity waves. A similar model was utilized by Kalyanaraman
 82 et al. (2020) to study wave reflection/transmission and resonance modes of finite length ice shelves. They note the
 83 existence of extensional wave resonance modes, but do not perform a systematic investigation of extensional Lamb
 84 wave excitation by incident surface gravity waves. This is the primary focus of our study and we anticipate results to
 85 be of use when interpreting data from ice shelves and understanding which wave modes might contribute to fracture
 86 and calving.

87 2 Model and wave modes

88 We study wave propagation in a 2D vertical cross-section of the ice shelf and sub-shelf ocean cavity, connected to an
 89 open-water region (Figure 1a). We use a coordinate system in which x is horizontal and z is vertical, positive up with
 90 the sea surface at $z = 0$ and seafloor at $z = -H_1$. An incident wave is imposed in the open-water region ($x < 0$) and
 91 arrives at the ice shelf edge ($x = 0$), where it is both reflected and transmitted into the ice shelf and sub-shelf cavity.
 92 In the open water ($x < 0$) the water depth is H_1 . For $x > 0$, an ice shelf of thickness H_i floats on the water. Given the
 93 ice and water densities, ρ_i and ρ_w , respectively, hydrostatic balance requires the water depth in the sub-shelf cavity

94 to be $H_2 = H_1 - (\rho_i/\rho_w)H_i$. The top of the ice shelf is located at $z = (1 - \rho_i/\rho_w)H_i$. The ice-water interface is located
 95 $z = -(\rho_i/\rho_w)H_i$ and the sub-shelf ocean cavity extends to $z = -H_1$. When deriving dispersion relations involving
 96 the ice, it is convenient to introduce the half-thickness $h = H_i/2$.

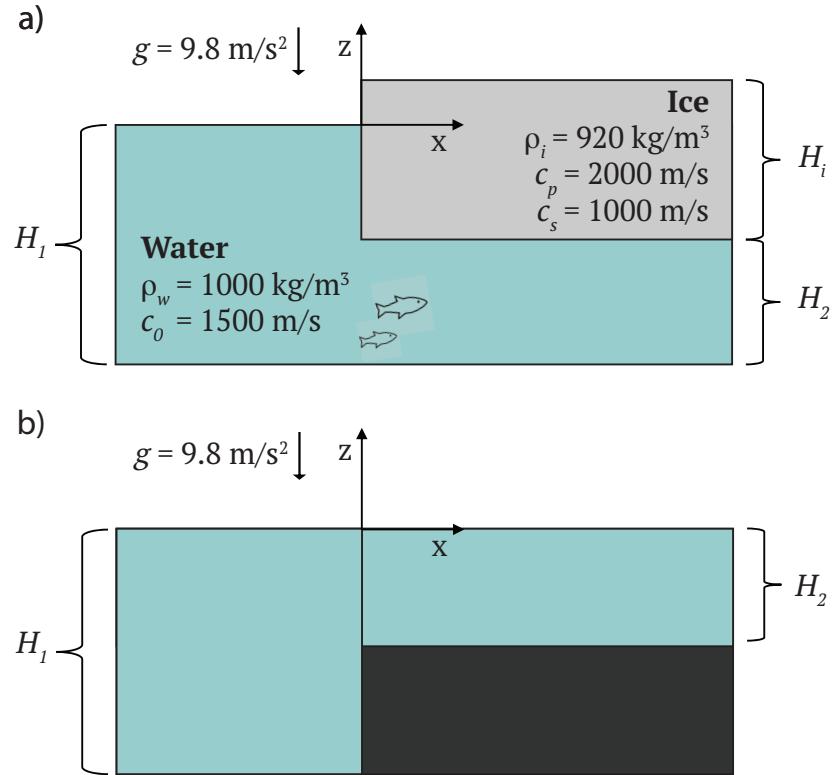


Figure 1 a) An incident surface gravity wave, propagating to the right, reaches the ice shelf edge at $x = 0$, creating reflected surface gravity waves and transmitted flexural gravity and extensional Lamb waves. The ice shelf is of thickness H_i and the ocean is of depth H_1 in open water and H_2 beneath the shelf. b) Step change in water depth at $x = 0$ that causes reflection and transmission of surface gravity waves, used to verify our procedure for calculating frequency-dependent reflection/transmission coefficients from time-domain simulations.

97 The ice and compressible ocean obey the elastic and acoustic wave equations, respectively, and gravity is added
 98 using an extension of the method introduced by [Lotto and Dunham \(2015\)](#), which assumes small perturbations about
 99 an initial hydrostatic equilibrium state in the water.

The governing equations in the water are

$$\frac{1}{K_w} \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} = 0, \quad (1)$$

obtained by combining the linearized mass balance with a linearized equation of state; and the momentum balance equations,

$$\rho_w \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} = 0, \quad (2)$$

and

$$\rho_w \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} = 0, \quad (3)$$

for particle velocities v_i , pressure perturbation p , bulk modulus K_w , and density ρ_w . The sound speed is $c_0 = \sqrt{K_w/\rho_w}$. Gravity acts as a restoring force, entering the open-water problem only through linearization of the free surface boundary condition,

$$\begin{aligned} p - \rho_w g \eta &= 0, & \text{at } x \\ &< 0, z \\ &= 0, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where wave height η is governed by the linearized kinematic condition on the sea surface,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} &= v_z, & \text{at } x \\ &< 0, z \\ &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

At the bottom of the ocean, we assume a rigid wall condition,

$$\begin{aligned} v_z &= 0, \quad \text{at } z \\ &= -H_1. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The ice obeys the elastic wave equation for an isotropic solid with spatially uniform material properties:

$$\rho_i \frac{\partial^2 u_x}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda + \mu) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_x}{\partial x \partial z} \right) + \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_x}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_x}{\partial x^2} \right), \quad (7)$$

$$\rho_i \frac{\partial^2 u_z}{\partial t^2} = (\lambda + \mu) \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_z}{\partial x \partial z} + \frac{\partial^2 u_z}{\partial z^2} \right) + \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_z}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_z}{\partial z^2} \right), \quad (8)$$

for particle displacements u_i , density ρ , Lamé parameters λ and μ . The associated P- and S-wave speeds are $c_p = \sqrt{(\lambda + 2\mu)/\rho}$ and $c_s = \sqrt{\mu/\rho}$, respectively. To calculate stresses, we use Hooke's Law,

$$\sigma_{ij} = \lambda \epsilon_{kk} \delta_{ij} + 2\mu \epsilon_{ij}, \quad (9)$$

where δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta, and the strain-displacement relation,

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon_{ij} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial x_i} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

The top of the ice is a free surface,

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{xz} &= 0, \quad \sigma_{zz} \\ &= 0, \quad \text{at } z \\ &= (1 - \rho_i/\rho_w) H_i. \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

At the ice-water interface along the base of the ice shelf, we balance tractions and enforce continuity of normal velocity:

$$\sigma_{xz} = 0, \quad (12)$$

$$-\sigma_{zz} = p - \rho_w g \eta, \quad \partial \eta / \partial t = v_z, \quad (13)$$

$$\partial u_z / \partial t = v_z, \quad \text{at } x > 0, z = -(\rho_i/\rho_w) H_i, \quad (14)$$

where fields on the left side are evaluated at the bottom of the ice and fields on the right side are evaluated at the top of the water. Here the treatment of gravity in the water is identical to that in the open water region, with η again being the vertical displacement at the top of the water. We are therefore accounting for pressure changes in response to perturbations about the background hydrostatic state in the water, but neglecting prestress within the ice.

Along the submerged portion of the vertical ice shelf edge, we again balance tractions and enforce continuity of normal velocity:

$$\sigma_{xz} = 0, \quad (15)$$

$$-\sigma_{xx} = p, \quad (16)$$

$$\partial u_x / \partial t = v_x, \quad \text{at } x = 0, \quad -(\rho_i/\rho_w) H_i < z < 0. \quad (17)$$

The portion of the shelf edge above water is a free surface:

$$\sigma_{xz} = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$\sigma_{xx} = 0, \quad \text{at } x = 0, \quad 0 < z < (1 - \rho_i/\rho_w) H_i. \quad (19)$$

Our goal is to study the reflection and transmission of incident surface gravity waves. Reflection and transmission coefficients of various wave modes can be defined in terms of the amplitude of propagating plane wave solutions in the frequency domain, which are derived in the following sections. However, we will extract these reflection and transmission coefficients from time-domain simulations using a procedure described subsequently.

2.1 Wave modes in open water

We first consider the problem of wave propagation in open water. We solve equations (1-3) with boundary conditions (4)-(6), assuming $e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$ dependence of all fields, where k is the horizontal wavenumber and ω is the angular

frequency. For notational simplicity, $e^{i(kx-\omega t)}$ is implied and we denote the water depth as H . The solution for unit amplitude wave height ($\eta = 1$) is

$$p = \frac{\omega^2 \rho_w}{\kappa \sinh(\kappa H)} \cosh(\kappa(z + H)), \quad (20)$$

$$v_x = k\omega \frac{\cosh(\kappa(z + H))}{\kappa \sinh(\kappa H)}, \quad (21)$$

$$v_z = -i\omega \frac{\sinh(\kappa(z + H))}{\sinh(H\kappa)}, \quad (22)$$

where

$$\kappa = \sqrt{k^2 - \frac{\omega^2}{c_0^2}}, \quad (23)$$

and ω and k are related by the dispersion relation

$$\begin{aligned} \omega^2 \\ = g\kappa \tanh(H\kappa). \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

¹⁰⁹ The solutions to (24) include surface gravity waves (with slight corrections due to water compressibility) and acoustic
¹¹⁰ waves (with slight corrections due to gravity) and have been discussed in many previous studies (Sells, 1965; Yamamoto,
¹¹¹ 1982; Lotto and Dunham, 2015). In this study, we are exclusively interested in the surface gravity wave mode.

2.2 Wave modes in ice-covered water

In A, we solve the corresponding problem in ice-covered water. For notational simplicity, we denote the water depth as H and the ice thickness as $2h$. The dispersion relation is

$$\frac{\omega \rho_w D_0}{\kappa \sinh(\kappa H)} = \frac{2\rho_i c_s^4}{\omega^3 p F}, \quad (25)$$

where

$$D_0 = \cosh(\kappa H) - \frac{g\kappa}{\omega^2} \sinh(\kappa H), \quad (26)$$

$$F = \frac{\sinh(ph) \sinh(qh)}{D_S} + \frac{\cosh(ph) \cosh(qh)}{D_A}, \quad (27)$$

$$D_S = 4k^2 pq \sinh(ph) \cosh(qh) - (k^2 + q^2)^2 \cosh(ph) \sinh(qh), \quad (28)$$

$$D_A = 4k^2 pq \cosh(ph) \sinh(qh) - (k^2 + q^2)^2 \sinh(ph) \cosh(qh), \quad (29)$$

with

$$p = \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2/c_p^2}, \quad (30)$$

$$q = \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2/c_s^2}. \quad (31)$$

¹¹³ Note that $D_0 = 0$ provides the dispersion relation for surface gravity waves in open water, given previously as (24).
¹¹⁴ Similarly, $D_S = 0$ and $D_A = 0$ provide the dispersion relations for symmetric and antisymmetric modes of an elastic
¹¹⁵ layer bounded by free surfaces.

Next we examine limits appropriate for long-wavelength extensional Lamb wave and flexural gravity wave modes. For the fundamental symmetric mode (extensional Lamb wave), assume $kh \ll 1$, such that $ph \ll 1$ and $qh \ll 1$. In this limit,

$$\begin{aligned} D_S \\ \approx -\frac{\omega^2 q h}{c_s^4} (\omega^2 - k^2 c_{ps}^2), \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

where the plane stress P-wave speed c_{ps} is defined via

$$\begin{aligned} c_{ps}^2 \\ = 4c_s^2 \left(1 - \frac{c_s^2}{c_p^2}\right). \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

¹¹⁶ Thus for an elastic plate bounded by free surfaces, solutions of $D_S = 0$, in this long-wavelength limit, describe
¹¹⁷ nondispersive extensional Lamb waves propagating at c_{ps} .

For the fundamental antisymmetric mode (flexural wave), in addition to $kh \ll 1$, $ph \ll 1$, and $qh \ll 1$, we also assume $\omega/kc_p \ll 1$ and $\omega/kc_s \ll 1$ (phase velocity less than both the P- and S-wave speeds). In this limit, the dispersion relation for flexural waves in an elastic plate bounded by free surfaces, $D_A = 0$, can be written as

$$\omega^2 \approx \frac{4}{3} c_s^2 \left(1 - \frac{c_s^2}{c_p^2}\right) h^2 k^4, \quad (34)$$

or equivalently

$$\omega^2 = \frac{B}{m} k^4, \quad (35)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} B &= \frac{2Eh^3}{3(1-\nu^2)}, \quad m \\ &= 2h\rho_i, \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

are the bending stiffness B (written in terms of Young's modulus E and Poisson ratio ν) and the ice mass per horizontal unit area m . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{B}{m} &= \frac{4}{3} c_s^2 \left(1 - \frac{c_s^2}{c_p^2}\right) h^2. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

The approximate dispersion relation (35) matches that of flexural waves obeying the Euler-Bernoulli plate model,

$$-m\omega^2 w + B \frac{d^4 w}{dx^4} = 0, \quad (38)$$

where w is the vertical displacement (assumed to be uniform with depth).

Continuing with these approximations (which restricts focus to the flexural wave), but now accounting for the interaction of the ice shelf and water to study flexural gravity waves, we find

$$F \approx -\frac{c_s^4}{kh\omega^2 (\omega^2 - \frac{B}{m} k^4)}, \quad (39)$$

such that the dispersion relation becomes

$$\frac{i\omega\rho_w \left[\cosh(kH) - \frac{gk}{\omega^2} \sinh(kH) \right]}{k \sinh(kH)} = \frac{m\omega^2 - Bk^4}{i\omega}, \quad (40)$$

or equivalently,

$$\frac{\rho_w\omega^2}{k \tanh(kH)} = Bk^4 + \rho_w g - m\omega^2. \quad (41)$$

This can be solved for ω as

$$\omega^2 = \frac{\rho_w g + Bk^4}{\rho_w/k \tanh(kH) + m}, \quad (42)$$

matching expressions given in many previous studies on flexural gravity waves (Ewing and Crary, 1934; Fox and Squire, 1990; Squire et al., 1995; Squire, 2007), thereby confirming the consistency of our model with known solutions in this limit.

Figure 2 shows the phase velocity ($c = \omega/k$) and group velocity ($U = d\omega/dk$) for the surface gravity wave, extensional Lamb wave, and flexural gravity wave modes. Parameter values are given in Table 1 and we use the open-water depth $H = H_1$ for the surface gravity wave and the sub-shelf depth $H = H_2$ for the extensional Lamb wave and flexural gravity wave solutions. We focus on frequencies up to 0.02 Hz, corresponding to the very long period (< 0.003 Hz) and infragravity (0.003 – 0.02 Hz) bands. We do not consider higher frequency swell in this study.

Surface gravity waves are normally dispersed, with phase and group velocity reaching a maximum wave speed of \sqrt{gH} in the long wavelength limit (figure 2a). Extensional Lamb waves exhibit no significant dispersion over the frequency band of interest (figure 2b). In addition to gravity the elastic restoring force causes the flexural gravity waves to propagate faster than surface gravity waves, and shorter wavelengths propagate faster than longer wavelengths. Therefore, flexural gravity waves are anomalously dispersed, with phase and group velocity reaching a minimum wave speed of \sqrt{gH} in the long wavelength limit (figure 2c). Additionally plotted in figure 2c are the group and phase velocity for the flexural gravity wave using the plate approximation (42), verifying the validity of the plate model at the frequencies of interest.

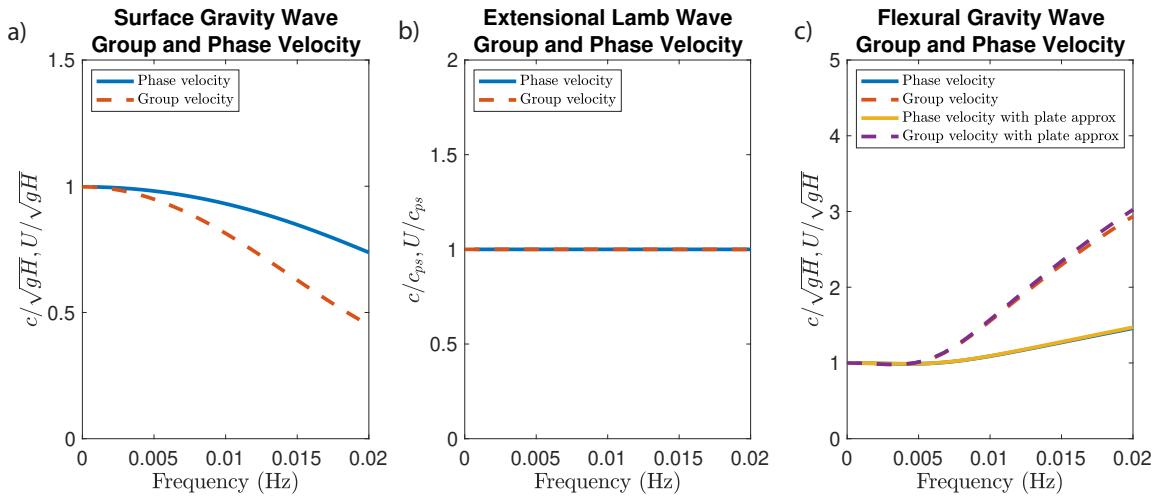


Figure 2 Group and phase velocity for the surface gravity wave, extensional Lamb wave, and flexural gravity wave.

Finally, we remark that while our model results for the ice shelf response are discussed primarily in terms of wave amplitude (specifically, displacements of the ice surface), the horizontal normal stress σ_{xx} is also of interest because this stress component acts to open and close vertical fractures and rifts. The stresses can be calculated immediately from the surface displacements using the frequency-domain transfer functions given by Lipovsky (2018). For flexural gravity waves, which carry the largest stresses, the stress σ_{xx} can be obtained from the vertical displacement w , in the long wavelength plate theory limit, as (Timoshenko and Goodier, 1970)

$$\sigma_{xx} \approx -\frac{6Bk^2}{H_i^2}w. \quad (43)$$

135 **3 Procedure to extract reflection and transmission coefficients from time-domain 136 simulations**

In this section we describe a procedure to extract frequency-dependent reflection and transmission coefficients from our time-domain simulations. The procedure will utilize Fourier transforms in both space and time with the following notation:

$$\tilde{f}(k, t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, t) e^{-ikx} dx, \quad (44)$$

$$f(x, t) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{f}(k, t) e^{ikx} dk \quad (45)$$

$$\hat{f}(x, \omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x, t) e^{i\omega t} dt, \quad (46)$$

$$f(x, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \hat{f}(x, \omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega. \quad (47)$$

137 **3.1 Surface gravity wave reflection/transmission for a step change in water depth**

We begin with the simpler problem of surface gravity wave reflection/transmission from a step change in water depth. There is no ice shelf in this problem. Let H_1 and H_2 be the water depths in $x < 0$ and $x > 0$, respectively (Figure 1b). The problem is posed in the frequency domain. Define k_1 and k_2 as the wavenumbers of the surface gravity wave mode in $x < 0$ and $x > 0$, respectively, obtained by solving the open-water dispersion relation (24). The wavefield solution in the frequency domain, for an incident wave of spectral amplitude $A(\omega)$, is given by

$$\hat{n}(x, \omega) = \begin{cases} A(\omega) [e^{ik_1 x} + R(\omega)e^{-ik_1 x}] + \text{other modes}, & x < 0, \\ A(\omega)T(\omega)e^{ik_2 x} + \text{other modes}, & x > 0, \end{cases} \quad (48)$$

138 where R and T are the frequency-dependent reflection and transmission coefficients, respectively, for the propagating
139 surface gravity wave mode. In addition, it is well known that except in the shallow water limit, there are additional
140 evanescent surface gravity wave mode solutions to (24), which are confined to the vicinity of the step change in water
141 depth at $x = 0$ (Newman, 1965; Miles, 1967; Dingemans, 1997). These modes can be safely ignored at locations x suf-
142 ficiently removed from $x = 0$. Furthermore, because we account for water compressibility, there are also acoustic

143 modes. The acoustic modes exist as propagating waves only above some cut-off frequency, which is much higher
 144 than the frequencies of interest to us. Thus these modes are also evanescent and can be neglected in the following
 145 procedure to determine R and T .

Our goal now is to set up a problem in the time domain from which we can extract R and T . To do this, we set initial conditions at $t = 0$ corresponding to a broadband incident wave packet propagating only in the $+x$ direction. Define $\eta(x, 0) = \eta_0(x)$ and its spatial Fourier transform

$$\tilde{\eta}_0(k) = \int \eta_0(x) e^{-ikx} dx. \quad (49)$$

146 The wavefield at some later time t is obtained by multiplying by the phase factor $e^{-i\omega_1 t}$, where $\omega_1 = \omega_1(k)$ is obtained
 147 from solving the dispersion relation (24) for the surface gravity wave mode in water of depth H_1 . We select the sign
 148 of ω_1 such that $\omega_1/k > 0$ so that the wave propagates in the $+x$ direction.

Next we switch between ω and k Fourier transforms using a change of variable based on the dispersion relation. Note that $d\omega = U dk$, where U is the group velocity, which can be viewed as either a function of k or ω , as desired, provided that these are evaluated using the solution to the dispersion relation corresponding to the desired surface gravity wave mode. This procedure is illustrated for the incident wave:

$$\eta^I(x, t) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \tilde{\eta}_0(k) e^{i(kx - \omega_1 t)} dk \quad (50)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \frac{\tilde{\eta}_0(k_1)}{U(k_1)} e^{i(k_1 x - \omega t)} d\omega, \quad (51)$$

where $k_1 = k_1(\omega)$ is evaluated for the surface gravity wave mode in water of depth H_1 . It follows that

$$\hat{\eta}^I(x, \omega) = \int \eta^I(x, t) e^{i\omega t} dt \quad (52)$$

$$= \frac{\tilde{\eta}_0(k_1)}{U(k_1)} e^{ik_1 x}, \quad (53)$$

from which we identify the spectral amplitude of the incident wave in (48) as

$$A(\omega) = \tilde{\eta}_0(k_1)/U(k_1). \quad (54)$$

149 Initial conditions on pressure and particle velocity are obtained by evaluating (20)-(22) times the surface displacement
 150 spectral amplitude $A(\omega)$.

To solve for the reflection coefficient R from our time-domain simulation, we Fourier transform the time series of η at some point $x < 0$ to obtain $\hat{\eta}(x, \omega)$. Then solve (48), neglecting the evanescent surface gravity and acoustic modes, to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} R(\omega) \\ = \left[\frac{\hat{\eta}(x, \omega)}{A(\omega)} - e^{ik_1 x} \right] e^{ik_1 x}. \end{aligned} \quad (55)$$

151 The procedure can be simplified even further by selecting the x location to be to the left of the initial wave packet, so
 152 that only the reflected wave contributes to the time series. In this case, the incident wave in (55), namely the $-e^{ik_1 x}$
 153 term in brackets, can be ignored.

Extracting the transmission coefficient is similar. We select some point $x > 0$ sufficiently far from $x = 0$, extract the time series of η , and Fourier transform it in time to obtain $\hat{\eta}(x, \omega)$. Neglecting evanescent surface gravity and acoustic modes, we solve (48) for the transmission coefficient

$$T(\omega) = \frac{\hat{\eta}(x, \omega)}{A(\omega)} e^{-ik_1 x}. \quad (56)$$

154 While the procedure above is stated for a single x , in our implementation we average the resulting R and T over
 155 multiple x , which we find improves the accuracy at high frequencies. With a grid spacing of 200 m R was averaged
 156 over $x = -100$ km to -50 km and T was averaged over $x = -100$ km to -50 km.

157 The procedure above does require neglecting evanescent surface gravity and acoustic wave modes, which might
 158 introduce a small error in the calculated R and T . This error could be eliminated using a more sophisticated procedure
 159 that isolates a specific wave mode. For example, it is well known that the eigenfunctions of wave modes in
 160 layered media obey orthogonality conditions (Aki and Richards, 2002). The orthogonality conditions require evaluation
 161 of integrals of particle velocity and stress fields over depth z at fixed x . We defer this extension to future
 162 work.

163 3.2 Reflection/transmission with an ice shelf

164 The procedure for extracting reflection/transmission coefficients for the ice shelf problem (Figure 1a) is more com-
 165 plex, as we are interested in multiple wave modes, not all of which are well expressed in the water surface vertical
 166 displacement η . Furthermore, we note that seismometers placed on the ice shelf surface are the primary means of
 167 measuring wave motions. Thus we define $u(x, t)$ and $w(x, t)$ as the horizontal and vertical displacements of the top
 168 surface of the ice shelf.

The incident and reflected wavefield in the open-water region ($x < 0$) is identical to that in (48). The surface displacements of the transmitted wavefield can be written as

$$\hat{u}(x, \omega) = A(\omega) [T_{x,f}(\omega)e^{ik_fx} + T_{x,e}(\omega)e^{ik_ex}] + \text{other modes}, \quad (57)$$

$$\hat{w}(x, \omega) = A(\omega) [T_{z,f}(\omega)e^{ik_fx} + T_{z,e}(\omega)e^{ik_ex}] + \text{other modes}, \quad (58)$$

169 where the subscript x or z on the transmission coefficients T refers to the displacement direction and the subscripts
 170 f and e refers to the flexural gravity and extensional Lamb wave modes, respectively. The wavenumbers k_f and k_e are
 171 obtained from the flexural gravity and extensional Lamb wave solutions of the dispersion equation (107). We note that
 172 the ratios $T_{x,f}/T_{z,f}$ and $T_{x,e}/T_{z,e}$ are independent of the reflection/transmission process and can be determined from
 173 the eigenfunctions given in A. Thus we need only consider one displacement direction when extracting transmission
 174 coefficients for each wave mode. Because flexural gravity waves have dominantly vertical particle motions, we focus
 175 on $T_{f,z}$. Similarly, because extensional Lamb waves have dominantly horizontal particle motions, we focus on $T_{e,x}$.

The procedure for extracting the reflection coefficient of surface gravity waves is identical to the previous problem. To extract transmission coefficients, we record ice surface displacement time series u and w at some $x > 0$ that is sufficiently far from the ice shelf edge. We then exploit the vastly different phase and group velocities of the flexural gravity and extensional Lamb wave modes by windowing the appropriate wave arrivals in the time series. We then Fourier transform these windowed time series in time and evaluate

$$T_{z,f}(\omega) = \frac{\hat{w}(x, \omega)}{A(\omega)} e^{-ik_fx}, \quad (59)$$

$$T_{x,e}(\omega) = \frac{\hat{u}(x, \omega)}{A(\omega)} e^{-ik_ex}. \quad (60)$$

176 3.3 Numerical simulations

177 In this study we utilize the finite difference code FDMAP (Dunham et al., 2011; Kozdon et al., 2012, 2013) that couples
 178 an acoustic ocean in the presence of gravity to an elastodynamic solids. We employ a Cartesian mesh with uniform
 179 (but different) grid spacings in the x and z directions. The method uses sixth-order central differences in space in
 180 the interior (with reduced order near boundaries and interfaces) and a third-order explicit Runge-Kutta method for
 181 time-stepping. Gravity is accounted for using the method in Lotto and Dunham (2015), for both the open-water region
 182 and at the top of the sub-shelf water cavity.

183 We examine two model geometries. For the open ocean with a floating ice shelf and subshelf cavity problem
 184 setup (Figure 1a), the domain extends from $x = -100$ km to $x = 300$ km with the ice shelf edge located at $x = 0$. In
 185 the x -direction the grid spacing is 200 m. In the z -direction the domain is divided into 3 blocks. From the seafloor,
 186 $z = -H_1 = -1$ km, to the depth of the ice-water interface, $z = -(\rho_i/\rho_w)H_i = -0.368$ km, the grid spacing in the
 187 z -direction is 13.45 m (48 grid points). From the depth of the ice-water interface, $z = -(\rho_i/\rho_w)H_i = -0.368$ km, to
 188 the open-water free surface $z = 0$ the grid spacing in the z -direction is 5.84 m (64 grid points). From the open-water
 189 free surface $z = 0$ to the top of the ice shelf, $z = (1 - \rho_i/\rho_w)H_i = 0.032$ km, the grid spacing in the z -direction is
 190 2.29 m (14 grid points). Characteristic-based absorbing boundary conditions (Kozdon et al., 2012, 2013) are used on
 191 the left and right sides of the domain. The simulation runs for a total of 1700 s with time steps of 0.000615 s.

192 For the step change in water depth problem setup, figure 1b, the domain extends from $x = -400$ km to $x = 400$
 193 km with the step changing occurring at $x = 0$. In the x -direction the grid spacing is 200 m. In this setup $H_1 = 1$ km
 194 and $H_2 = 0.25$ km with 10 m grid spacing in the z -direction. The simulation runs for a total of 8000 s with time step
 195 of 0.003333 s.

196 4 Reflection and transmission coefficients for a step change in water depth

197 Before proceeding to the ice shelf reflection/transmission problem, we verify our model and procedure for extracting
 198 R and T on a problem with a known solution. Specifically, we consider a step change in water depth, from H_1 to H_2
 199 at $x = 0$ (Figure 1b).

The reflection/transmission coefficients in the linear long wave (LLW, $k_1 H_1 \ll 1$ and $k_2 H_2 \ll 1$) limit are well
 known (Lamb, 1905):

$$R_{LLW} = \frac{\sqrt{H_1} - \sqrt{H_2}}{\sqrt{H_1} + \sqrt{H_2}}, \quad (61)$$

Table 1 Parameter values for dispersion analysis and simulations.

parameter	symbol	value
Density in ocean	ρ_w	1000 kg/m ³
Sound speed in ocean	c_0	1500 m/s
Density in ice	ρ_i	920 kg/m ³
P-wave speed in ice	c_p	2000 m/s
S-wave speed in ice	c_s	1000 m/s
Gravity	g	9.8 m/s ²
Open water ocean depth	H_1	1000 m
Sub-shelf ocean cavity	H_2	632 m
Ice thickness	H_i	400 m

and the transmission coefficient is

$$T_{LLW} = \frac{2\sqrt{H_1}}{\sqrt{H_1} + \sqrt{H_2}}. \quad (62)$$

200 These values are the anticipated limits for R and T in the low frequency limit.

201 Exact closed form expressions for R and T are not available outside the LLW limit, and instead the problem must
202 be solved numerically or using approximations (Newman, 1965; Miles, 1967; Dingemans, 1997). However, in the high
203 frequency limit, surface gravity waves will be confined to the water surface and will not sense the change in water
204 depth. Hence the high frequency limits are $R \rightarrow 0$, $T \rightarrow 1$.

205 4.1 Simulation results

Our initial vertical sea surface displacement is a unit amplitude Gaussian,

$$\eta_0(x) = \exp\left\{\left(\frac{-(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right\}, \quad (63)$$

206 where x_0 is the center of the Gaussian and σ is the width of the Gaussian. We set $x_0 = -15$ km and $\sigma = 1$ km, which
207 provides a wave packet that includes dispersive surface gravity waves at frequencies above the LLW limit. We use
208 the eigenmode solution and Fourier transforms in the x direction (using FFTs on the simulation grid) to determine
209 the pressure and particle velocities in the water corresponding to a wave packet propagating in the $+x$ direction with
210 surface amplitude (63). The initial conditions are shown in figure 3 and time-domain simulation results are shown
211 in figure 4. Normal dispersion is visible at high frequencies. Because $H_2 < H_1$, the reflection coefficient is positive
212 and the transmission coefficient is greater than unity.

213 4.2 Reflection and transmission coefficients

214 From the simulation data, we extract the simulation reflection and transmission coefficients using (55) and (56),
215 respectively. Results are shown in figure 5. The reflection and transmission coefficients match the LLW solutions,
216 given in (61) and (62), in the low frequency limit, but differ at high frequency as seen in previous studies (Newman,
217 1965; Miles, 1967; Dingemans, 1997).

218 5 Reflection and transmission coefficients for ice-covered water

219 Having verified our procedure for determining reflection and transmission coefficients from time-domain simula-
220 tions, we now turn to the problem of wave interaction with floating ice shelves (Figure 1a).

221 5.1 Simulation results

222 We use the same initial conditions for the wave packet as used in the step change in depth problem. Incident surface
223 gravity waves in the open water impact the ice shelf, exciting both flexural gravity and extensional Lamb waves. The
224 flexural gravity waves are dominantly expressed in the vertical components (figure 6) and extensional Lamb waves
225 are dominantly expressed in the horizontal component (figure 7). We also show the horizontal normal stress σ_{xx} in
226 figure 8. The largest stresses are carried by flexural gravity waves, not extensional Lamb waves.

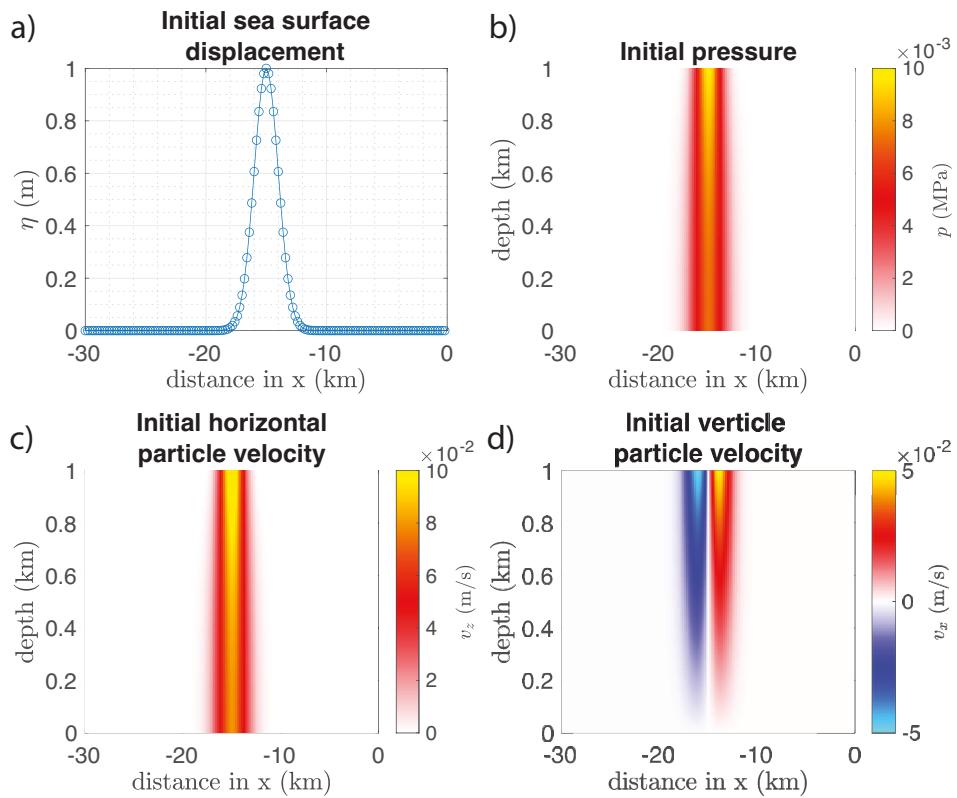


Figure 3 Simulation initial conditions: a) sea surface displacement, b) pressure, c) horizontal particle velocity, d) vertical particle velocity.

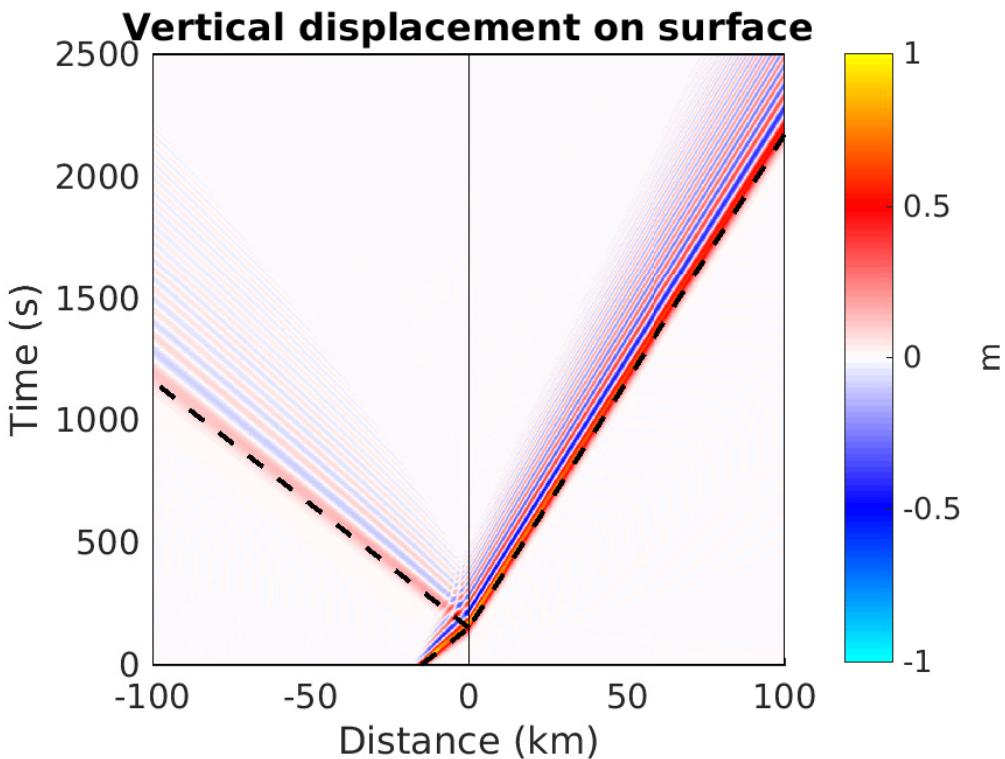


Figure 4 Simulation results for the step change in water depth problem, showing vertical displacement on the surface ($z = 0$) through time.

227 5.2 Reflection and transmission coefficients

228 Following the procedure described in section 3.2, we calculate reflection and transmission coefficients. Results are
 229 shown in Figure 9. We begin by explaining the reflection and transmission of surface gravity and flexural gravity

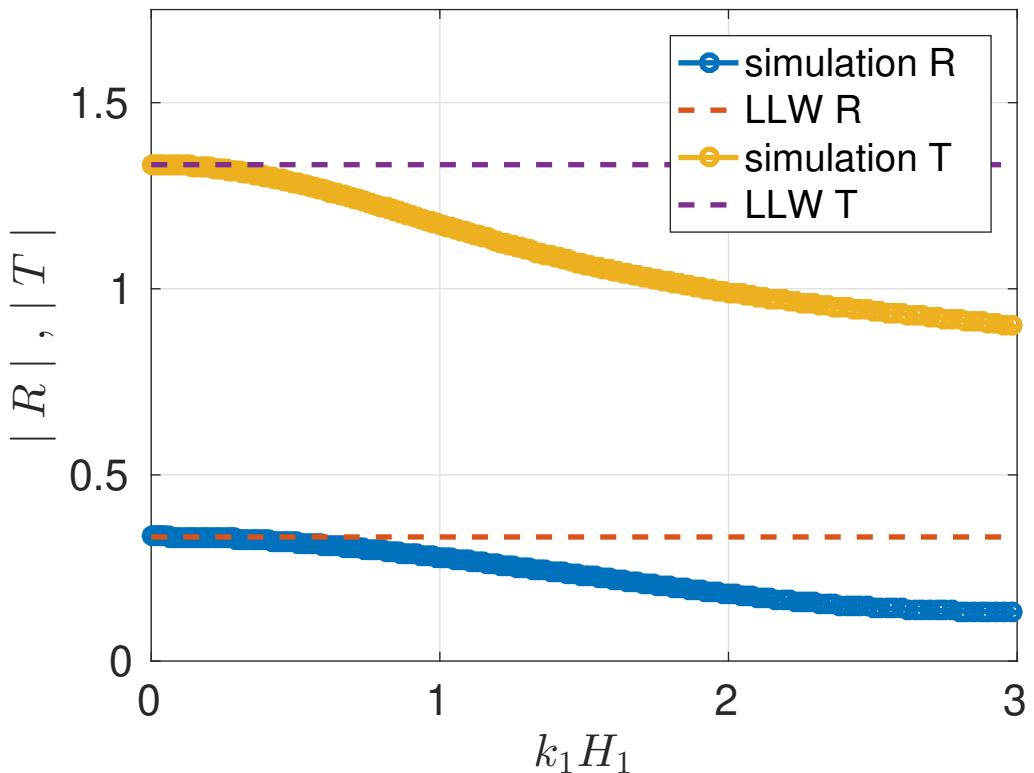


Figure 5 Reflection and transmission coefficients for the step change in water depth problem, which approach the linear long wave (LLW) solution in the low frequency limit.

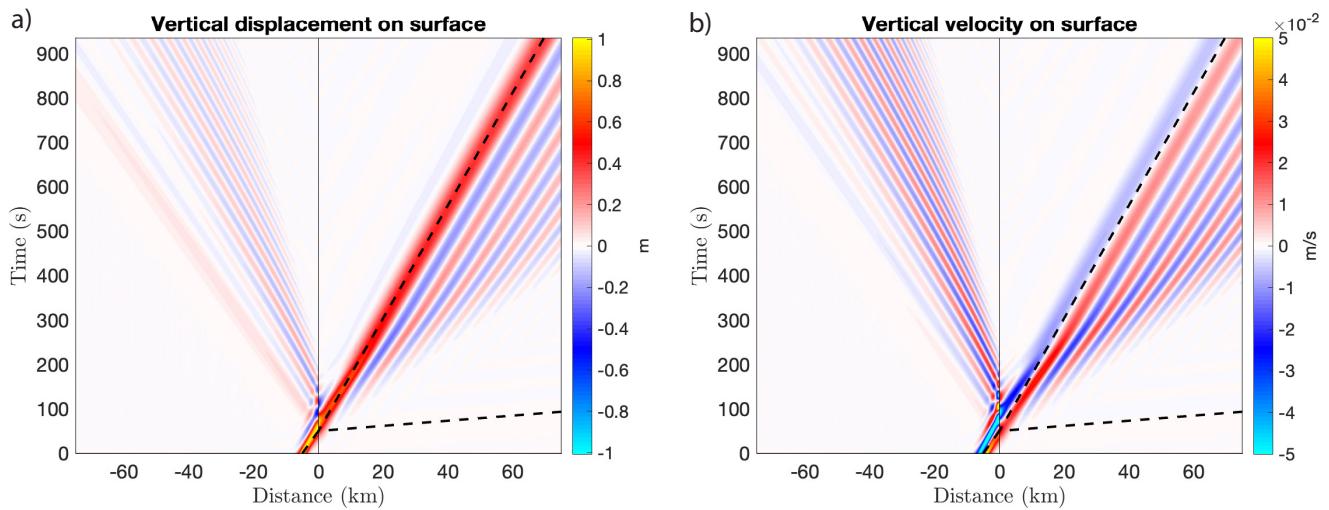


Figure 6 (a) Vertical displacement and (b) vertical velocity on the open-water and ice surface. Surface gravity waves in the open-water region are normally dispersed with the longest wavelengths traveling at the linear long wave speed $\sqrt{gH_1}$. The ice shelf response is dominated by anomalously dispersed flexural gravity waves, with the longest wavelengths traveling at the linear long wave speed $\sqrt{gH_2}$.

waves (Figure 9a), both quantified in terms of the vertical displacement amplitude on the water or ice surface. At low frequencies, the results match expectations from linear long wave theory without ice, illustrating that the additional inertia and elastic resistance to flexure of the ice are negligible. Because $H_2 < H_1$, $T > 1$ in this limit. As frequency increases, R and T both decrease, as seen for the step change in depth problem without ice (Figure 5). The decrease of R for this problem arises from the shorter wavelength waves, which involve motions of the water at depths of order the wavelength, becoming less sensitive to the water depth. In the high frequency limit, the waves simply propagate across the step without reflection. In contrast, for the ice shelf problem, the reflection coefficient begins increasing around 0.01 Hz as the stiffness and inertia of the ice shelf begin to impede wave transmission. The anticipated high frequency limit for R is unity, meaning that surface gravity waves are fully reflected.

Next we examine transmission of extensional Lamb waves, which we quantify in terms of the horizontal displacement amplitude on the ice surface (Figure 9c,d). The transmission coefficient increases as frequency decreases,

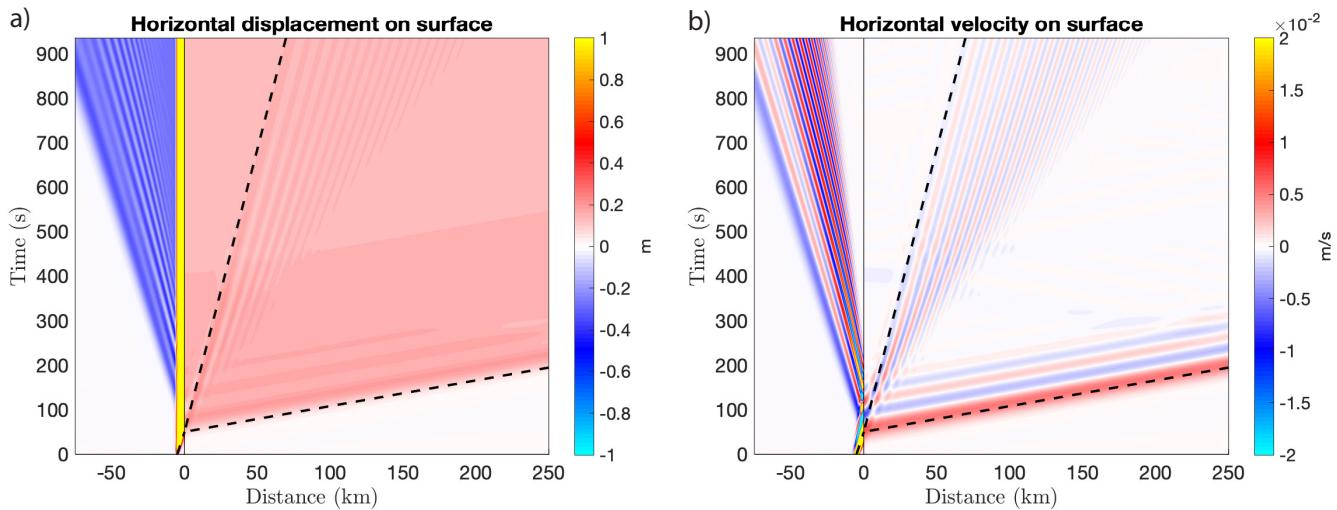


Figure 7 (a) Horizontal displacement and (b) horizontal velocity on the open-water and ice surface. In addition to surface gravity waves in the open-water region and flexural gravity waves in the ice-covered water are both visible, we also see extensional Lamb waves. These have minimal dispersion, dominantly horizontal particle motions, and propagate around the plane stress P-wave speed of ice.

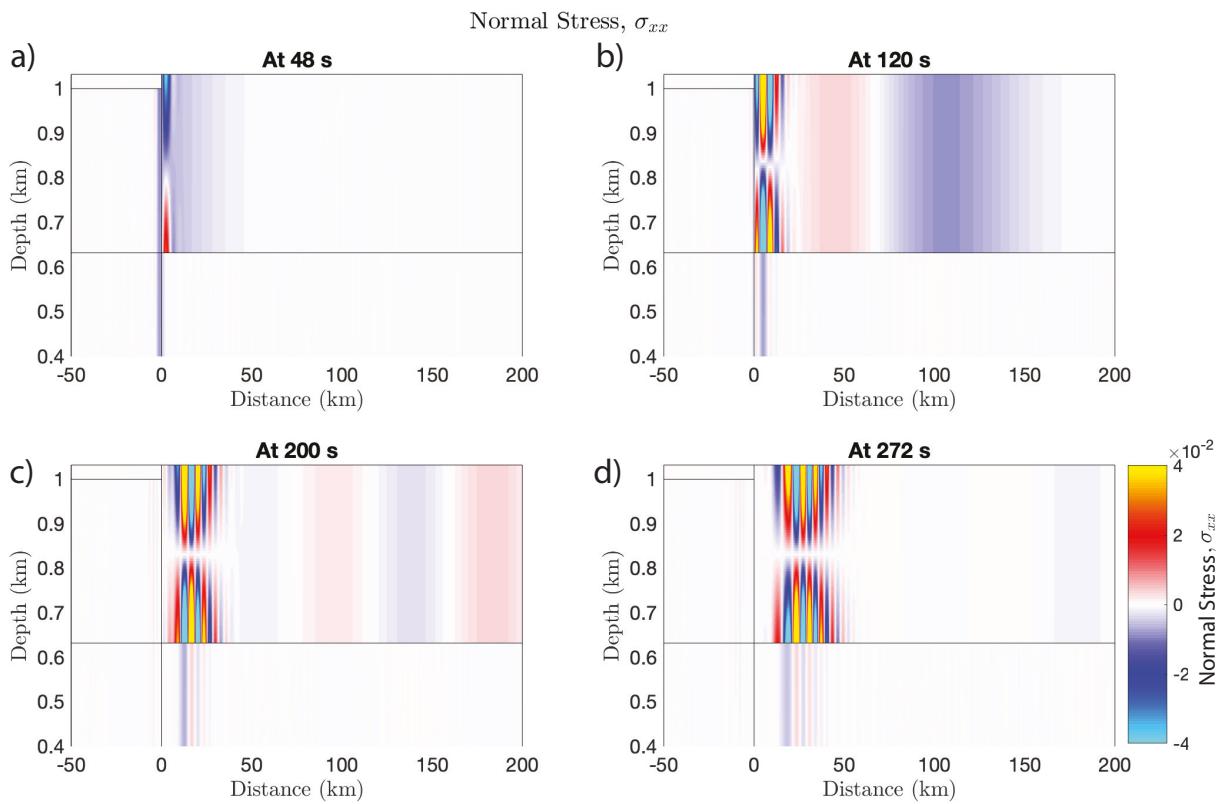


Figure 8 Tensile and compressional horizontal normal stresses (σ_{xx}) in the ice and minus pressure ($-p$) in the water, highlight the propagating long wavelength extensional Lamb waves and shorter wavelength flexural gravity waves. The extensional Lamb wave exhibits symmetric stressing about the centerline of the ice shelf, whereas the flexural gravity wave exhibits antisymmetric stressing. The largest stress changes are carried by the flexural gravity waves.

passing through unity around 0.001 Hz. Transmission coefficients larger than unity indicate that horizontal displacements of the ice surface carried by extensional Lamb waves exceed vertical displacements of the incident waves. In the low frequency limit, T diverges as ω^{-1} , a behavior that we explain in the next section.

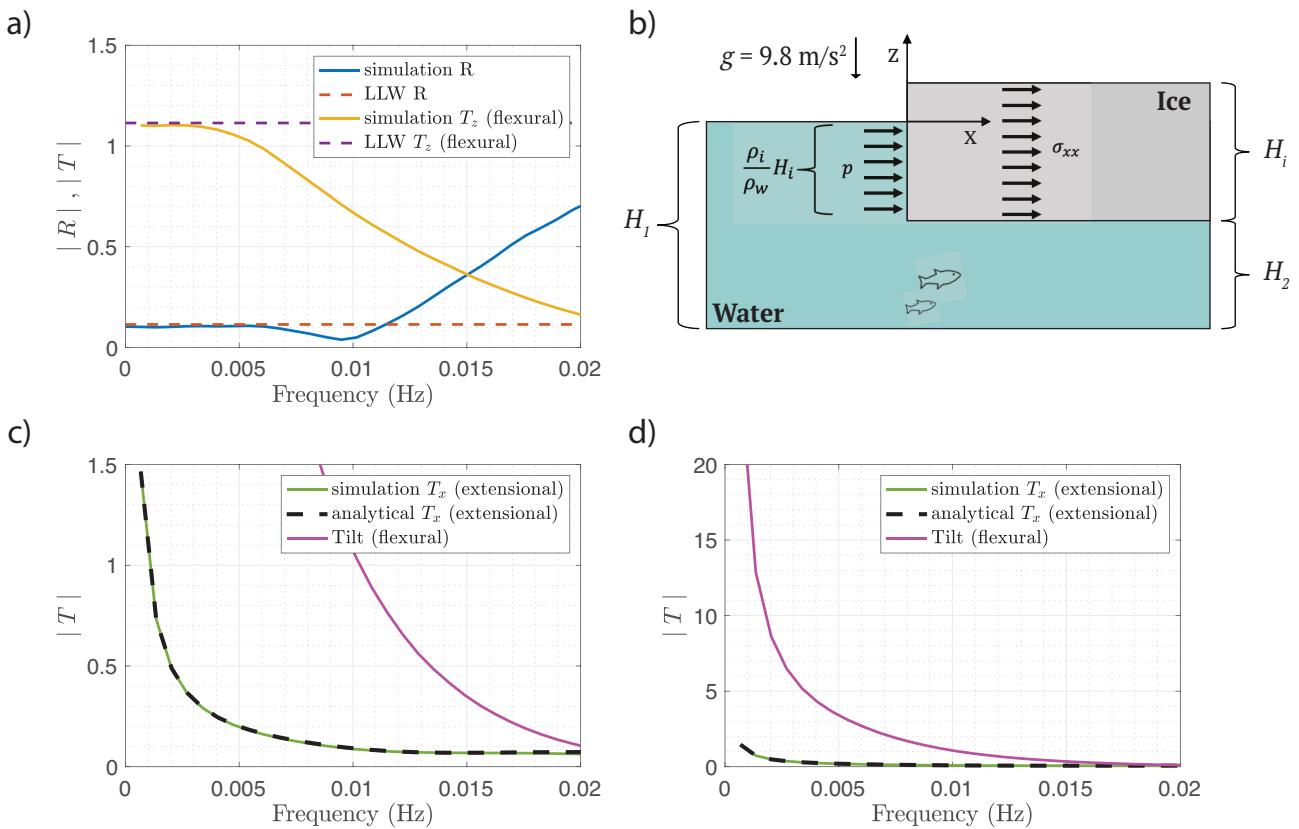


Figure 9 (a) Simulation-derived reflection coefficient (blue) and flexural gravity wave vertical transmission coefficient (yellow) with linear long wave limits for the step depth change problem (red and purple). (b) Diagram illustrating extensional Lamb wave excitation by pressure changes exerted on the ice shelf face by surface gravity waves. (c and d) Simulation-derived extensional Lamb wave horizontal transmission coefficient (green), the analytical prediction for the transmitted extensional wave given in equation (66) (black dashed), and and flexural gravity wave tilt contribution to horizontal seismometer measurements given by equation (68) (magenta).

244 5.3 Mechanism for extensional Lamb wave excitation

245 In this section we provide a quantitative theory for the excitation of extensional Lamb waves by incident surface
 246 gravity waves. The incident waves cause pressure changes in the water column and these pressure changes exert a
 247 horizontal force on the submerged portion of the ice shelf edge. This excites extensional Lamb waves. This conceptual
 248 mechanism was suggested by [Chen et al. \(2018\)](#), which we extend quantitatively as follows.

Consider an incident, time-harmonic surface gravity wave of amplitude A . The wave amplitude at the ice shelf edge differs from A because of the superposition of incident and reflected waves. By neglecting evanescent modes, we approximate the amplitude at the edge as $(1 + R)A$, where R is the frequency-dependent surface gravity wave reflection coefficient. Next we estimate the pressure change in the water column associated with the surface gravity waves as $p = \rho_w g(1 + R)IA$, where

$$I(\omega) = \frac{\rho_w}{\rho_i H_i} \int_{-(\rho_i/\rho_w)H_i}^0 \frac{\cosh(k(z + H_1))}{\cosh(kH_1)} dz, \quad (64)$$

is the normalized integral of the depth-dependent pressure changes from the eigenmode solution given in A and k is the wavenumber of surface gravity waves at angular frequency ω . The normalization is chosen so that $I \rightarrow 1$ in the low frequency limit ($kH_i \ll 1$) where pressure changes are approximately uniform over the submerged portion of the shelf front. We find that $I \approx 1$ over frequencies of interest in this study. This pressure change gives rise to a net horizontal force

$$F = p \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_w} H_i = \rho_i g(1 + R)IAH_i. \quad (65)$$

Next we assume that this force generates an effectively 1D extensional Lamb wave with depth-independent normal stress σ_{xx} and horizontal particle velocity v_x . The depth-independence of these fields holds asymptotically in the limit of horizontal wavelengths greatly exceeding ice thickness, as evident from the eigenfunctions in A. This limit

is well justified for frequencies of interest. The stress and particle velocity are related by the extensional Lamb wave impedance: $-\sigma_{xx} = \rho_i c_{ps} v_x$, where we have assumed that the phase velocity is approximately c_{ps} (Figure 2b). Force balance requires $F = -\sigma_{xx} H_i$, such that $-\sigma_{xx} = \rho_i g(1+R)IA$. Inserting this into the impedance relation, we obtain $v_x = (g/c_{ps})(1+R)IA$. Finally, using $v_x = -i\omega u_x$, we obtain the extensional Lamb wave transmission coefficient (defined as the ratio u_x/A)

$$T_{x,e}(\omega) = \frac{ig[1+R(\omega)]I(\omega)}{\omega c_{ps}}. \quad (66)$$

249 This prediction, using the $R(\omega)$ derived from the simulations, is plotted in Figure 9c,d. There is excellent agreement
 250 with the simulation-derived $T_{x,e}(\omega)$. We note that in the low frequency limit (i.e., very long period band), where
 251 the ice has negligible effect on gravity wave propagation, except by modifying the water depth, we can approximate
 252 $R(\omega) \approx R_{LLW}$, which is independent of frequency, and $I(\omega) \approx 1$. This reveals the $T_{x,e} \propto \omega^{-1}$ divergence seen in our
 253 simulation results (Figure 9c,d).

254 5.4 Tilt contribution to horizontal seismometer measurements

Our theory and simulation results provide a prediction of both horizontal and vertical displacements of the ice shelf surface, which can be compared to seismic observations. Here we combine previous results to predict the frequency-dependent ratio of horizontal to vertical displacements. We assume that horizontal displacements are dominated by extensional Lamb waves and that vertical displacements are dominated by flexural gravity waves. The predicted displacement ratio is therefore approximated as $|u_x|/|u_z| \approx |T_{x,e}(\omega)|/|T_{z,f}(\omega)|$. We focus on the low frequency limit where the ice has minimal influence on flexural gravity waves, except by reducing the water depth, so that $T_{z,f}(\omega)$ can be approximated as the LLW transmission coefficient (62). Similarly, the surface gravity wave reflection coefficient can be approximated using (61). Then, using these results in (66), and noting that for the LLW problem $1 + R_{LLW} = T_{LLW}$, we find the predicted horizontal-to-vertical displacement ratio

$$|u_x|/|u_z| \approx \frac{g}{\omega c_{ps}} \approx \frac{1 \text{ mHz}}{f}, \quad (67)$$

255 with the latter expression using the value of c_{ps} for our simulation parameters. Thus vertical displacements are
 256 predicted to be larger than horizontal displacements for frequencies greater than $\sim 1 \text{ mHz}$, whereas horizontals will
 257 be larger for lower frequencies.

258 This prediction is in apparent contradiction to observations, which can be found in power spectral density plots
 259 for horizontal and vertical seismometer data in Figure 3 of [Bromirski et al. \(2017\)](#). The observations show larger
 260 horizontal motions not just in the very long period band but also in the infragravity band. There are several possible
 261 explanations for this discrepancy. First, there could be some additional extensional Lamb wave source that is unac-
 262 counted for in our model. Turbulent drag along the base of the ice shelf during wave motions in the sub-shelf cavity
 263 would provide an additional horizontal force that would excite extensional Lamb waves. Drag of this form is widely
 264 used in shallow water wave modeling, with basal shear stress (drag) being proportional to the square of horizontal
 265 velocity. Given that this is a nonlinear forcing mechanism, frequency-dependent excitation of extensional waves
 266 cannot be quantified without detailed modeling of the broadband wavefield. We defer this to future work. Another
 267 hypothesis is that the horizontal seismometer components are not only measuring horizontal displacements, but
 268 also include contributions from tilt. Tilt effects are most important at low frequencies, and studies of atmospheric
 269 coupling to the solid Earth have identified tilt as important or even dominant at the frequencies of interest to us
 270 ([Rodgers, 1968](#); [Tanimoto and Wang, 2018](#)).

271 To explore this possibility, we follow [Rodgers \(1968\)](#) by calculating the tilt contribution to horizontal seismometer
 272 measurements as

$$\begin{aligned} u_{h,\text{tilt}} &= -\frac{g}{\omega^2} \frac{\partial \hat{w}(x, \omega)}{\partial x} \\ &= -\frac{igk}{\omega^2} \hat{w}, \end{aligned} \quad (68)$$

273 where the subscript h denotes the seismometer horizontal component and \hat{w} is the vertical displacement of the
 274 surface in the frequency domain. The final expression follows by assuming e^{ikx} dependence of the propagating
 275 wave, where k is the wavenumber for a given wave mode at angular frequency ω .

276 We calculate the tilt contribution from both extensional Lamb and flexural gravity waves, taking \hat{w} from our
 277 simulations as before, which we normalize by the amplitude of the incident surface gravity wave. We find that the
 278 contribution from extensional Lamb waves is negligible in comparison to the actual horizontal displacements carried
 279 by these waves. In contrast, the tilt contribution from flexural gravity waves, which is shown in Figure 9c,d, is larger
 280 than the horizontal extensional Lamb wave displacements over the entire frequency band of our study. Specifically,
 281 flexural gravity wave tilt is an order of magnitude larger than extensional Lamb wave horizontals at frequencies
 282 $\sim 0.001 \text{ Hz}$ characterizing the very long period band. This ratio decreases toward unity in the infragravity wave band.
 283 Thus we conclude that horizontal component seismometers are primarily measuring tilt from flexural gravity waves,
 284 especially at low frequencies.

283 Additional features of the seismic observations support this idea. Figure 9 of [Chen et al. \(2018\)](#) provides cross-
 284 correlation-based seismograms, bandpassed to 0.002-0.004 Hz, showing move-out at the flexural gravity wave speed
 285 on both vertical and horizontal components. The beamforming dispersion analysis in their Figure 8 shows larger
 286 power on the horizontal component than the vertical component along the flexural gravity wave dispersion curve at
 287 frequencies less than 0.02 Hz. This is inconsistent with the expected horizontal to vertical ratio for flexural gravity
 288 waves, but at least qualitatively consistent with our results in Figure 9.

289 6 Conclusion

290 In this work we have modeled the wave response of the ice shelf and sub-shelf ocean cavity to a surface gravity wave
 291 that is incident from open water. This was done using a depth-resolved 2D vertical cross-section model, accounting
 292 for full elastodynamics of the ice shelf, in contrast to most prior work that utilizes a bending plate model for the shelf.
 293 We extract frequency-dependent reflection and transmission coefficients from our time-domain simulation results,
 294 in particular focusing on the amplitude of transmitted flexural gravity and extensional Lamb waves. The incident
 295 waves cause pressure changes in the water column at the ice shelf edge produce a time-varying horizontal force on
 296 the submerged portion of the ice shelf edge, which excites extensional Lamb waves. A quantitative version of this
 297 theory shows excellent agreement with our simulation results.

298 Our model also provides a prediction of the horizontal and vertical displacements of the ice shelf surface, which
 299 are primarily controlled by extensional Lamb waves and flexural gravity waves, respectively. The vertical is predicted
 300 to exceed the horizontal at frequencies greater than ~ 0.001 Hz, which is not seen in seismic data from the Ross Ice
 301 Shelf ([Bromirski et al., 2017](#); [Chen et al., 2018](#)). We attribute this discrepancy to the expression of tilt from flexural
 302 gravity waves on the horizontal seismometer components, which our model predicts will be larger than extensional
 303 Lamb wave horizontal displacements at frequencies in the infragravity wave band and lower.

304 Future extensions of this work are required to explore more realistic geometries, finite-length ice shelves and
 305 interaction with grounded ice, and the extension from 2D to 3D with obliquely incident waves. Nonetheless, our
 306 work provides an important advance in understanding the wave response of ice shelves to incident ocean waves, a
 307 problem receiving growing attention due to the possible role of wave-induced stresses in fracture and calving.

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316 Data and code availability

317 Numerical simulations were performed using FDMAP (<https://bitbucket.org/ericmdunham/fdmap>). Simu-
 318 lation input files are results are available at DOI:10.25740/qy001dt7463 (<https://purl.stanford.edu/qy001dt7463>).

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409 A Wave modes in ice-covered water

410 In this appendix, we seek $e^{i(kx-\omega t)}$ solutions for an elastic ice shelf over an acoustic ocean with gravity. This problem
411 was solved by [Press and Ewing \(1951\)](#) for infinitely deep water and by [Lipovsky \(2018\)](#) for finite depth (but incom-
412 pressible) water. For simplicity we do not use the hat notation for frequency-domain fields that is used in the main
413 text. The solution is developed by solving for the response in the ice and water, separately, to an imposed pressure
414 P on the side bounding the ice-water interface. For the ice, this means $-\sigma_{zz} = P$, and for the water, this means
415 $p - \rho g \eta = P$. This response includes the vertical velocity v_z at the same location, which defines the impedances of
416 the ice and water layers, Z_i and Z_w , defined as P/v_z . Enforcing interface conditions (12)–(14) is equivalent to matching
417 impedance: $Z_w = Z_i$, a convenient procedure used by [\(Biot, 1952\)](#) for a related problem. For notational convenience,
418 the $e^{i(kx-\omega t)}$ term is implied, and we denote the water depth as H and ice thickness as $2h$. Furthermore, we place
419 $z = 0$ at different locations when deriving the water and ice response to simplify the solution.

420 A.1 Impedance of acoustic ocean with gravity

The general solution in the water, with $z = 0$ being the water surface, is [\(Kundu et al., 2015\)](#)

$$p = A \sinh(\kappa z) + B \cosh(\kappa z), \quad (69)$$

$$v_x = \frac{k}{\rho_w \omega} [A \sinh(\kappa z) + B \cosh(\kappa z)], \quad (70)$$

$$v_z = \frac{\kappa}{i \rho_w \omega} [A \cosh(\kappa z) + B \sinh(\kappa z)], \quad (71)$$

$$\eta = A \frac{\kappa}{\rho_w \omega^2}, \quad (72)$$

where $\kappa = \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2/c_0^2}$ and the coefficients A and B are to be determined. Setting $v_z = 0$ on $z = -H$ gives

$$\begin{aligned} & A \cosh(\kappa H) \\ & - B \sinh(\kappa H) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (73)$$

Next we enforce $p - \rho_w g \eta = P$ on $z = 0$ to obtain

$$-\frac{g \kappa}{\omega^2} A + B = P. \quad (74)$$

It follows that

$$A = \frac{\sinh(\kappa H)}{D_0} P, \quad (75)$$

$$B = \frac{\cosh(\kappa H)}{D_0} P, \quad (76)$$

$$D_0 = \cosh(\kappa H) - \frac{g \kappa}{\omega^2} \sinh(\kappa H), \quad (77)$$

where $D_0 = 0$ is the dispersion relation for wave modes in an ocean with a free surface on top. The impedance is

$$Z_w = \frac{i \omega \rho_w D_0}{\kappa \sinh(\kappa H)}. \quad (78)$$

421 **A.2 Impedance of elastic ice shelf**

Next we solve for the response of an elastic ice shelf of thickness $2h$. It is convenient to set $z = 0$ along the centerline with boundary conditions enforced at $z = \pm h$. The displacements and traction components of stress are

$$u_x = k(A_1 e^{-pz} + A_2 e^{pz}) + i q (B_1 e^{-qz} - B_2 e^{qz}), \quad (79)$$

$$u_z = i p (A_1 e^{-pz} - A_2 e^{pz}) - k (B_1 e^{-qz} + B_2 e^{qz}), \quad (80)$$

$$\sigma_{xz}/\mu = -2kp (A_1 e^{-pz} - A_2 e^{pz}) - i (k^2 + q^2) (B_1 e^{-qz} + B_2 e^{qz}), \quad (81)$$

$$\sigma_{zz}/\mu = -i (k^2 + q^2) (A_1 e^{-pz} + A_2 e^{pz}) + 2kq (B_1 e^{-qz} - B_2 e^{qz}), \quad (82)$$

for coefficients A_i , B_i and

$$p = \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2/c_p^2} \quad (83)$$

$$q = \sqrt{k^2 - \omega^2/c_s^2}. \quad (84)$$

422 Note that symmetric modes will have $A_1 - A_2 = 0$ and $B_1 + B_2 = 0$, whereas antisymmetric modes will have
423 $A_1 + A_2 = 0$ and $B_1 - B_2 = 0$.

Next we enforce $\sigma_{xz} = 0$ on $z = \pm h$, $\sigma_{zz} = 0$ on $z = h$, and $\sigma_{zz} = -P$ on $z = -h$:

$$-2kp (A_1 e^{-ph} - A_2 e^{ph}) - i (k^2 + q^2) (B_1 e^{-qh} + B_2 e^{qh}) = 0, \quad (85)$$

$$-2kp (A_1 e^{ph} - A_2 e^{-ph}) - i (k^2 + q^2) (B_1 e^{qh} + B_2 e^{-qh}) = 0, \quad (86)$$

$$-i (k^2 + q^2) (A_1 e^{-ph} + A_2 e^{ph}) + 2kq (B_1 e^{-qh} - B_2 e^{qh}) = 0, \quad (87)$$

$$-i (k^2 + q^2) (A_1 e^{ph} + A_2 e^{-ph}) + 2kq (B_1 e^{qh} - B_2 e^{-qh}) = -\frac{P}{\mu}. \quad (88)$$

Then form linear combinations of the resulting equations to highlight excitation of symmetric and antisymmetric modes. Symmetric modes are determined by

$$-2kp \sinh(ph)(A_1 + A_2) - i (k^2 + q^2) \sinh(qh)(B_1 - B_2) = 0, \quad (89)$$

$$-i (k^2 + q^2) \cosh(ph)(A_1 + A_2) + 2kq \cosh(qh)(B_1 - B_2) = -\frac{P}{2\mu}, \quad (90)$$

and antisymmetric modes by

$$-2kp \cosh(ph)(A_1 - A_2) - i (k^2 + q^2) \cosh(qh)(B_1 + B_2) = 0, \quad (91)$$

$$-i (k^2 + q^2) \sinh(ph)(A_1 - A_2) + 2kq \sinh(qh)(B_1 + B_2) = -\frac{P}{2\mu}. \quad (92)$$

The determinants of the coefficient matrices provide the dispersion relations for symmetric ($D_S = 0$) and antisymmetric ($D_A = 0$) modes of an elastic layer bounded by free surfaces:

$$D_S = 4k^2 pq \sinh(ph) \cosh(qh) - (k^2 + q^2)^2 \cosh(ph) \sinh(qh), \quad (93)$$

$$D_A = 4k^2 pq \cosh(ph) \sinh(qh) - (k^2 + q^2)^2 \sinh(ph) \cosh(qh). \quad (94)$$

The dispersion relations $D_S = 0$ and $D_A = 0$ are more often written as ?e.g.,>lamb1917waves, achenbach1973wave, achenbach2003reciprocity

$$\frac{\tanh(qh)}{\tanh(ph)} = \frac{4k^2 pq}{(k^2 + q^2)^2} \quad (\text{symmetric}), \quad (95)$$

$$\frac{\tanh(qh)}{\tanh(ph)} = \frac{(k^2 + q^2)^2}{4k^2 pq} \quad (\text{antisymmetric}). \quad (96)$$

The coefficients are given by

$$A_1 + A_2 = \frac{i (k^2 + q^2) \sinh(qh)}{D_S} \frac{P}{2\mu}, \quad (97)$$

$$B_1 - B_2 = -\frac{2kp \sinh(ph)}{D_S} \frac{P}{2\mu}, \quad (98)$$

$$A_1 - A_2 = \frac{i (k^2 + q^2) \cosh(qh)}{D_A} \frac{P}{2\mu}, \quad (99)$$

$$B_1 + B_2 = -\frac{2kp \cosh(ph)}{D_A} \frac{P}{2\mu}, \quad (100)$$

and hence,

$$A_1 = i(k^2 + q^2) \left[\frac{\sinh(qh)}{D_S} + \frac{\cosh(qh)}{D_A} \right] \frac{P}{4\mu}, \quad (101)$$

$$A_2 = i(k^2 + q^2) \left[\frac{\sinh(qh)}{D_S} - \frac{\cosh(qh)}{D_A} \right] \frac{P}{4\mu}, \quad (102)$$

$$B_1 = -2kp \left[\frac{\sinh(ph)}{D_S} + \frac{\cosh(ph)}{D_A} \right] \frac{P}{4\mu}, \quad (103)$$

$$B_2 = -2kp \left[-\frac{\sinh(ph)}{D_S} + \frac{\cosh(ph)}{D_A} \right] \frac{P}{4\mu}. \quad (104)$$

Next we calculate impedance of the ice as $Z_i = P/v_z$, where $v_z = -i\omega u_z$ is evaluated at $z = -h$:

$$Z_i = \frac{2i\rho_i c_s^4}{\omega^3 p F}, \quad (105)$$

$$F = \frac{\sinh(ph) \sinh(qh)}{D_S} + \frac{\cosh(ph) \cosh(qh)}{D_A}. \quad (106)$$

424 A.3 Dispersion relation for coupled ice-water system

The dispersion relation for the coupled system is obtained by matching impedance, $Z_w = Z_i$, yielding

$$\frac{\omega \rho_w D_0}{\kappa \sinh(\kappa H)} = \frac{2\rho_i c_s^4}{\omega^3 p F}. \quad (107)$$