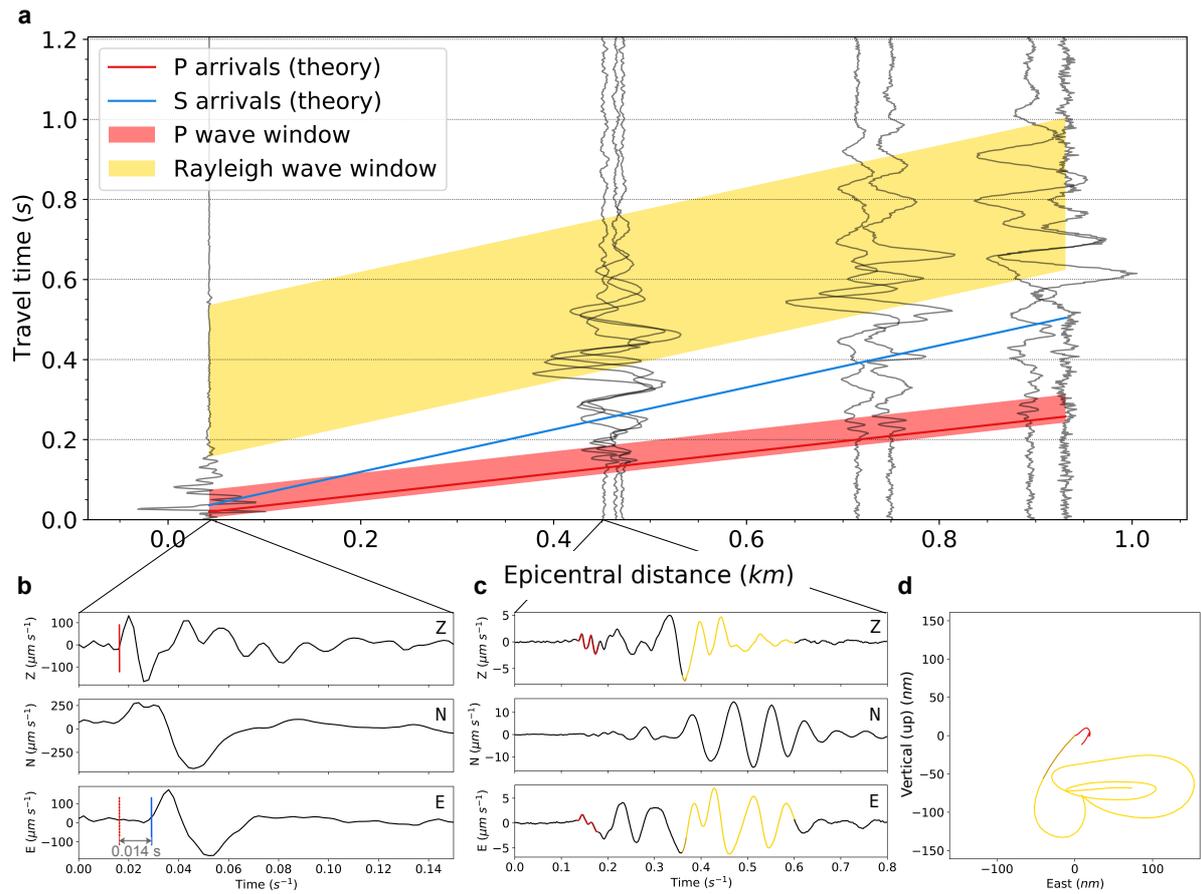


26 surface, with the 2D interpolated field from the model runs (see Figure 2a) used to derive the
27 likely crevasse depth from each receiver observation. These individual receiver observations
28 are then combined for each icequake, to provide an overall estimate of the icequake depth.
29 We independently verify crevasse depth by using S-P delay-times from receivers
30 approximately directly above the crevasse. For the event in Figure S1, the S-P delay-time
31 observed at a receiver approximately above the event is 0.014 s. With the velocity model
32 shown in Figure 1b, this corresponds to an icequake depth of ~ 25 m below surface, compared
33 to a depth of 29 ± 12 m found using the P-to-Rayleigh amplitude ratios. We are therefore
34 confident that the P-to-Rayleigh-wave amplitude ratios provide a good estimation of icequake
35 depth.
36
37



38

39 *Supplementary Figure S1 – Example of observed waveforms at seismometers from a crevasse*

40 *icequake at 14:33:52 on 28th June 2014. a) Record section showing the P-to-Rayleigh-wave*

41 *arrivals. The red and yellow regions show the windows used to calculate the P-to-Rayleigh*

42 *amplitude ratios. b) Waveforms for an arrival 43 m from the event epicentre. P and S phase*

43 *arrivals are indicated by the red and blue lines, respectively. c) Waveforms for an arrival 450*

44 *m from the event epicentre. d) Particle motions associated with the P and Rayleigh phase*

45 *arrivals in (c). Red is the P-wave phase and yellow is the Rayleigh wave phase.*

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51 **Supplementary Text S2: Derivation of maximum-dry-crevasse-depth**

52

53 The maximum depth to which a crevasse can propagate without hydrofracture is governed by
54 the tensile stress regime near the glacier surface. If the ice is under tensile stress then a
55 crevasse can form. However, as the depth through the ice increases, the ice overburden
56 pressure increases and acts to close the crevasse and prevent further fracture. At a certain
57 depth, the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth, d^* , the maximum principal tensile stress acting to
58 open crevasses becomes equal to the compressive ice overburden pressure. Below this depth,
59 the ice overburden pressure is sufficiently high to prevent opening. This crevassing model is
60 commonly referred to as the zero stress model (Colgan et al., 2016), and has been proven
61 effective in predicting real crevasse depths (Mottram & Benn, 2009).

62

63 The above statement assumes that the ice will open under any net tensile stress, which is not
64 strictly correct since the ice also has a tensile failure strength, that we do not account for here.
65 Accounting for the tensile strength of the ice would simply make d^* shallower and hence
66 increase the depth difference between icequake depths and the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth
67 equipotential, therefore increasing the likelihood of icequakes observed being associated with
68 hydrofracture. We also assume that there is a shallow firn layer at the glacier surface, of
69 lower density than the underlying ice. This lower-density layer acts to make the maximum-
70 dry-crevasse-depth deeper. We use the same local seismic refraction survey (Gudmundsson,
71 1989) as used to constrain the seismic velocities in Figure 1b to constrain the density profile
72 of this layer, making the assumption that the change in velocity in the firn-layer is dominated
73 by density rather than the bulk and shear moduli. This simplified firn density correction is
74 assumed adequate for the purposes of this study since the weight estimation of the firn layer
75 is conservative, therefore resulting in an overestimate of the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth.

76

77 To find d^* , one has to calculate the stress field near the glacier surface. This can be
78 approximately obtained using the glacier surface velocity field. For a given point on the
79 glacier, the velocity is defined by,

$$80 \quad \vec{v}_{i,j} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{i,j} \\ v_{i,j} \\ w_{i,j} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (3)$$

81 where u , v and w are the velocities in the x , y and z directions, and i, j denotes a particular
82 horizontal location within the velocity field. To obtain the velocity field for the glacier

83 surface at Skeidararjökull, we use GPS location data from the seismometers shown in Figure

84 2. The GPS data from the seismometers is more poorly constrained compared to dedicated
85 dual-frequency GPS instruments, and is sampled only once per hour. Therefore, in order to

86 reduce the GPS noise, we use a seven day moving average for the latitude, longitude and

87 elevation data. We then calculate the average velocity over the ten day period of analysis.

88 Even after applying this processing, data from only 7 stations are of sufficient quality to use.

89 We then perform a two-dimensional, second-order interpolation for these velocity data points

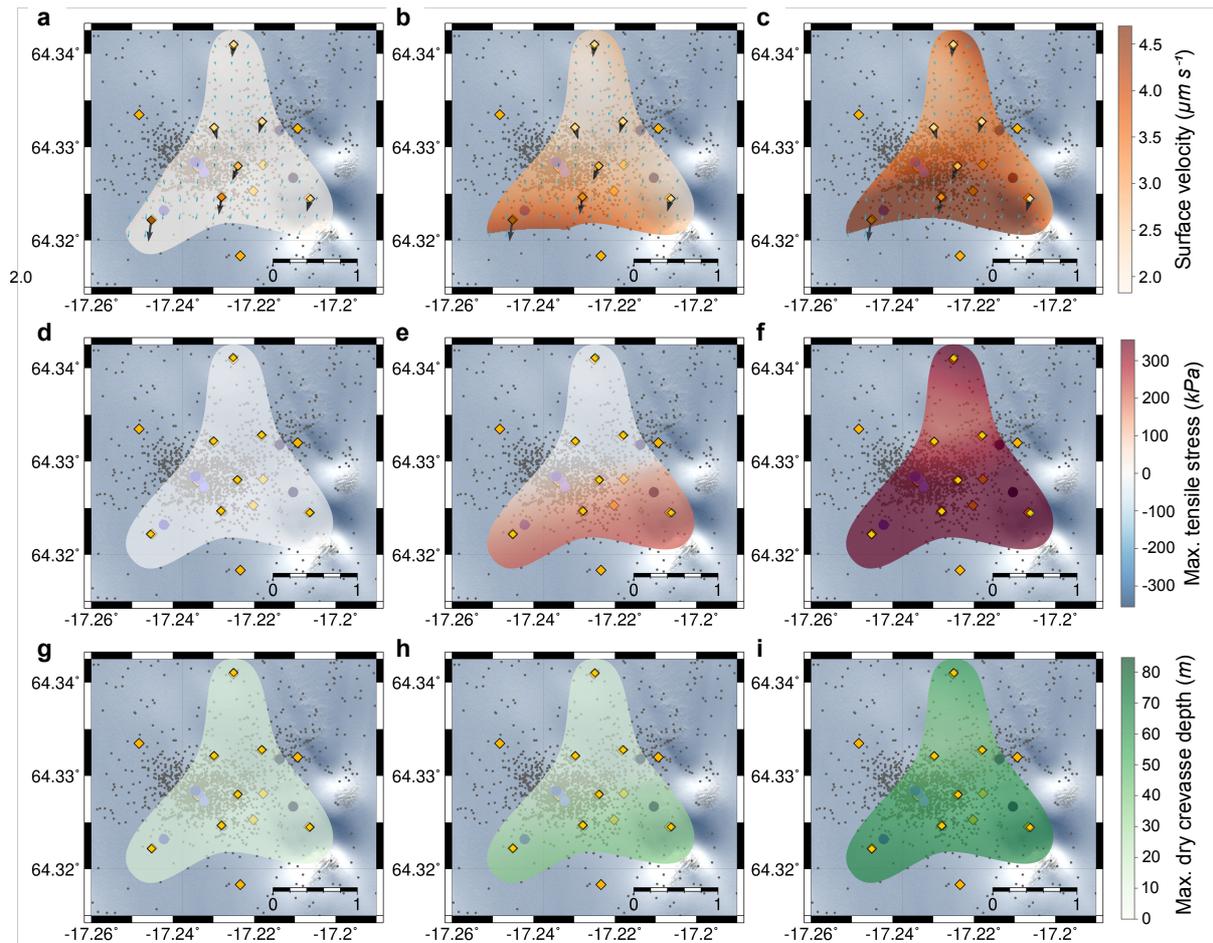
90 in order to obtain a horizontal velocity field for the network area. Due to only one station,

91 SKR12, constraining the velocity field for the upper half of the network area, the

92 interpolation scheme performs poorly outside the network, so we only analyse the velocity

93 field approximately within the network, as shown in Figure 2 and Figure S2.

94



95

96 *Figure S2 - The estimated uncertainty in the interpolated maximum surface velocity,*
 97 *maximum principal tensile stress and maximum-dry-crevasse-depth fields. (a) to (c) The*
 98 *lower, actual and upper uncertainty associated with the surface velocity field, respectively.*
 99 *(d) to (f) The lower, actual and upper uncertainty associated with the maximum principal*
 100 *stress field, respectively. (g) to (i) The lower, actual and upper uncertainty associated with*
 101 *the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth, respectively.*

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106 The velocity field can then be used to obtain the strain rate field for each point on the glacier
 107 surface. The second order strain rate tensor is given by,

$$108 \quad \dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} = \begin{pmatrix} \dot{\epsilon}_{xx} & \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} & \dot{\epsilon}_{xz} \\ \dot{\epsilon}_{xy} & \dot{\epsilon}_{yy} & \dot{\epsilon}_{yz} \\ \dot{\epsilon}_{xz} & \dot{\epsilon}_{yz} & \dot{\epsilon}_{zz} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} & \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) & \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

109 $\dot{\epsilon}_{xz}$ and $\dot{\epsilon}_{yz}$ are taken to be zero, assuming no shear with depth, a realistic approximation near
 110 the glacier surface. If one also assumes that ice is incompressible, then $tr(\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) = 0$. $\dot{\epsilon}_{zz}$ can
 111 then be found, giving,

$$112 \quad \dot{\epsilon}_{zz} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = - \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right). \quad (5)$$

113

114 To find the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth, we require the stress tensor. In order to calculate
 115 the stress tensor from the strain tensor, we need one final piece of information, the effective
 116 viscosity, η_{eff} , for a given horizontal location. Since ice behaves as a non-linear fluid, η_{eff}
 117 varies with the strain rate, $\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}$. The effective viscosity is defined as,

$$118 \quad \eta_{eff} = \frac{B}{2} (\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{eff})^{\frac{1}{n}-1}, \quad (6)$$

119 where B is given by,

$$120 \quad B = A^{-\frac{1}{n}}, \quad (7)$$

121 where the temperature-dependent rate factor $A = 5.6 \times 10^{-17} Pa^{-3} a^{-1}$ and $n = 3$,
 122 determined from laboratory studies (Glen, 1955; Nick et al., 2010). The effective strain rate,
 123 $\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{eff}$, is defined by,

$$124 \quad \dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}_{eff} = |\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}| = \left(\frac{1}{2} tr(\dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \cdot \dot{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}}) \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \quad (8)$$

125

126 The net stress tensor, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$, is then defined as the difference between the opening stress and the
 127 ice overburden stress tensor by,

$$128 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening} - \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{overburden}, \quad (9)$$

129 which can be written explicitly as,

$$130 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma} = \begin{pmatrix} 4\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{xx,ij} + 2\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{yy} & 2\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{xy} & 0 \\ 2\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{xy} & 4\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{yy} + 2\eta_{eff}\varepsilon_{xx} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} - \rho g z \mathbf{I}, \quad (10)$$

131 where ρ is the ice density, g is the gravitational constant of acceleration and z is the depth
 132 below the ice surface. $\sigma_{opening,xz}$ and $\sigma_{opening,yz}$ are zero since we have assumed no vertical
 133 shear stress with depth and $\sigma_{opening,zz}$ is zero, assuming that the ice is in hydrostatic
 134 equilibrium. At the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth is where the maximum principal opening
 135 stress equals the overburden stress, at which point z is the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth, d^* .
 136 Therefore, to find d^* we need to find the maximum principal opening stress, $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening}^*$. To do
 137 this, we rotate $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ to maximise the tensile stress,

$$138 \quad \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening}^* = \mathbf{S} \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening} \mathbf{S}^T, \quad (11)$$

139 where \mathbf{S} is a rotation matrix comprising the eigenvectors of $\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening}$. The maximum-dry-
 140 crevasse-depth at a given point on the glacier surface, d^* , is then given by (Nick et al., 2010),

$$141 \quad d^* = \frac{\max(\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{opening}^*)}{\rho g}. \quad (12)$$

142
 143 The uncertainty associated with the maximum-dry-crevasse-depth field is proportional to the
 144 uncertainty in the velocity field. To estimate the uncertainty, we calculate the standard
 145 deviation in the average velocity data and randomly perturb the velocity data used to
 146 calculate the velocity field by gaussian distributions about the average observed velocities,
 147 with the standard deviations used to constrain the width of these distributions. These gaussian
 148 distributions are sampled 1000 times. We then calculate the strain, stress, and crevasse depth

149 fields from each perturbed velocity field, and define the lower and upper uncertainties for
150 each field as the minimum and maximum values, respectively, for each point spatially within
151 the fields. This data is shown by the red dashed lines in Figure 2d, and all the fields and their
152 associated uncertainties are shown in Figure S2.

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