

# Observing the subglacial hydrology network and its dynamics with a dense seismic array

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- 3 Observing the subglacial hydrology network and its dynamics with a
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#### 15 **Competing Interest Statement:**

16 The authors declare that they have no competing final	ncial interests
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#### 21 This PDF file includes:

- 22 Main Text
- 23 Figures 1 to 4

#### 24 Abstract

25 Subglacial water flow strongly modulates glacier basal motion, which itself strongly influences the 26 contributions of glaciers and ice sheets to sea-level rise. However, our understanding of when and 27 where subglacial water flow enhances or impedes glacier flow is limited due to the paucity of direct 28 observations of subglacial drainage characteristics. Here we demonstrate that dense seismic array 29 observations combined with an innovative systematic seismic source location technique allows for 30 the first time the retrieval of a two-dimensional map of a subglacial drainage system, as well as its 31 day-to-day temporal evolution. We observe with unprecedented detail when and where subglacial 32 water flows through a cavity-like system that enhances glacier flow versus when and where water 33 mainly flows through a channel-like system that impedes glacier flow. Most importantly, we are 34 able to identify regions of high hydraulic connectivity within and across the cavity and channel 35 systems, which have been identified as having a major impact on the long term glacier response 36 to climate warming. Applying a similar seismic monitoring strategy in other glacier settings, 37 including for ice sheets, may help to diagnose the susceptibility of their dynamics to increased 38 meltwater input due to climate warming.

#### 39 Significance Statement

40 Our understanding of when, where and under which conditions subglacial water flow favors or 41 impedes glacier flow remains uncertain mainly because of sparse field observations. This strongly 42 limits our capability to assess the susceptibility of glaciers and ice-sheets to a future increase in 43 meltwater input due to climate warming. Here we overcome classic observational difficulties by 44 establishing an innovative seismic-based approach. From dense-seismic array observations we 45 retrieve with unprecedented detail the two-dimensional map of a subglacial hydrology network. 46 We observe its day-to-day evolution from a cavity-dominated system that favors glacier flow to a 47 channel-dominated system that impedes glacier flow. Although our method was applied on an 48 Alpine Glacier, it is easily adaptable and readily applicable to other settings such as Greenland or 49 Antarctica.

50

#### 51 Main Text

52

#### 53 Introduction

54

55 Meltwater produced at the surface of a glacier is mostly routed to its bed through crevasses and 56 moulins and flows towards its terminus through the subglacial drainage system<sup>1</sup>. In this system, 57 water pressure regulates the ice-bed mechanical coupling, which determines the glacier sliding speed, and therefore has major effects on the stability of glaciers and ice sheets<sup>2,3</sup> and their 58 59 contributions to sea-level rise<sup>4-6</sup>. Subglacial water pressure shows complex dependency on the 60 subglacial route that the water follows, and in particular on whether the water flows through a 61 distributed and inefficient system<sup>7</sup> (e.g. cavity-dominated for hard bed glaciers) or a localized and 62 efficient system<sup>8</sup> (channel-dominateddrainage system is expected to be associated with a, 63 comparatively, lower water pressure, which promotes low glacier sliding speeds<sup>8,10–12</sup>. Where 64 cavities are hydraulically well connected to channels they drain into the efficient drainage system, which tends to lower the overall water pressure<sup>13</sup>. In addition, recent observations<sup>13</sup> 65

66 suggested that hydraulically isolated areas of the bed with very low permeability<sup>15</sup> regulate glacier basal traction during winter<sup>16</sup> and over multi-annual timescales<sup>17</sup>. The spatial persistence of high 67 water pressure at the glacier bed<sup>14</sup> thus depends on the subglacial drainage system configuration 68 69 and the hydraulic connectivity across the cavities and from the cavities to the channels. However, current observations of subglacial drainage systems are rather point-scale<sup>14,18</sup> (e.g., via ice-70 71 drilling) or spatially-integrated<sup>19,20</sup> (e.g. via dye tracing experiments or hydrochemical analysis), 72 such that they provide only partial representations of the heterogeneous nature of the subglacial drainage system. It thus remains uncertain where and when isolated cavities, connected cavities, 73 74 and/or channels operate, and therefore under what conditions (e.g., water supply rate, glacier 75 geometry) meltwater supply to the glacial bed enhances or limits glacier flow.

76 Recent studies have indicated that turbulent subglacial water flow generates detectable seismic noise<sup>21</sup> given flow velocities of the order of a meter per second<sup>22</sup>, that can be used to retrieve the 77 78 physical properties of subglacial channels (e.g., water pressure, conduit size)<sup>22,23</sup> as well as to 79 estimate their location in space<sup>24,25</sup>. Previous studies that have attempted to spatially track water 80 flow have documented their azimuthal distribution, but not their epicentral coordinates<sup>24-26</sup>. 81 Location of epicentral coordinates of simultaneously active and spatially spread noise sources indeed represents a major seismological challenge<sup>27</sup>, since it requires observations of the 82 83 wavefield all around the targeted sources with high enough resolution to deal with its strong incoherency<sup>28,29</sup>. Here, we demonstrate that well-resolved maps of subglacial drainage systems 84 85 can be retrieved using particularly dense seismic arrays and by adapting the matched-field processing (MFP) technique<sup>28</sup> to the particularity of dealing with spatially spread sources. 86

#### 87 Seismic monitoring and source location strategy

We use the 1-month seismic record from 98 three-component sensors that was acquired at the
surface of glacier d'Argentière (French Alps; Fig. 1) during the onset of the 2018 melt-season
(see Methods and ref.<sup>30</sup> for detailed description of the experiment and ref.<sup>23</sup> for a broader
glaciological context). At this location, subglacial water flow strongly influences glacier dynamics<sup>31</sup>

92 and generates continuous seismic noise that is most pronounced in the [3-7] Hz frequency range<sup>23</sup>, in which seismic wavelengths are on the order of [200-500] m<sup>32</sup>. Our seismic array 93 94 covers an area of 400 x 600 m<sup>2</sup> with a 40-m to 50-m sensor spacing and an aperture (i.e. largest 95 distance between stations; Fig. 1) of ca. 720m. Such configuration allows subwavelength 96 sampling while covering all azimuthal directions around the targeted sources, which are two 97 necessary conditions for retrieving the epicentral coordinates of seismic sources through 98 application of MFP<sup>28,29</sup>(Methods). MFP consists of recursively matching the predicted and observed phase delays (Methods), and has been extensively applied to locate spatially well-99 100 separated sources, such as those generated by hydrothermal activity<sup>33</sup>, oil and gas injection<sup>34</sup>, 101 iceguakes<sup>32</sup>, or englacial moulins<sup>32</sup>. However, it has been little applied to locate spatially distributed noise sources<sup>34,35</sup>. We adapt this technique to provide such particularity through a 102 103 systematic analysis of the phase coherence over 1-s-long time windows. Within each window, we 104 apply an efficient gradient-based minimization algorithm that allows us to locate up to 29 105 simultaneously active sources (Methods).We obtain each source location from maximizing the 106 correlation between the observed and the modeled phase delays. We refer to this maximum 107 correlation as the MFP output, which ranges from 0 to 1. An MFP output close to 1 indicates 108 global phase coherence, as expected for a dominant and punctual source<sup>36</sup>, while a low MFP 109 output indicates several local phase coherences, as expected for multiple sources simultaneously 110 acting over the area. We note that we only keep the sources that are located within 400 m of the 111 center of our array and are associated with realistic physical properties (i.e., wave velocities, 112 source depth; Fig. 2b, c). This yields more than a million seismic sources per day (Fig. 2a).

#### 113 Retrieving the geometry of the subglacial system

In Figure 2d, e, we show the normalized spatial distribution probability of the source location
obtained over the study period for high and low MFP output ranges, as indicated in Figure 2a. We
observe that events associated with high (i.e., global) phase coherence (MFP output, >0.8) are
mainly located at the glacier surface (Fig. 2b) where crevasses are observed (Fig. 2e), and are

118 associated with phase velocities that are typical of surface waves<sup>37</sup> (ca. 1580 m.s<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. 2c). This 119 is consistent with these events corresponding to crevasse-induced icequakes (Fig. 1). On the 120 contrary, sources associated with low (i.e., local) phase coherence (MFP output, [0.05-0.3]) are 121 preferentially located at depth near the ice-bed interface (Fig. 2b). The associated phase 122 velocities (Fig. 2c) vary by up to ca. 3600 m.s<sup>-1</sup>, which is consistent with body waves being 123 generated additionally to surface waves, and thus with sources that occur at depth<sup>38</sup>. The spatial 124 distribution of these sources show two elongated regions located along the glacier centerline (one 125 at maximum ice thickness and one 50 m further down-glacier) where hydraulic potential 126 calculations allow materializing the likely location of subglacial channel(s) (Fig. 2d; see Methods 127 for details on the hydraulic potential calculations). All of these concomitant features lead us to 128 interpret these observed seismic sources as a depiction of the geometry of the subglacial 129 drainage system. The characteristic width of the observed spots (ca. 50 m, Fig. 2d) is much 130 greater than might be expected for a single subglacial channel (on the order of meter to few 131 meters<sup>8</sup>), which could result from the location resolution being limited by the seismic wavelength 132 investigated (expected to be 1/6 to 1/2 times the ca. 300m wavelength; see Methods) or from the 133 presence of multiple channels. The absence of clear source locations in the up-glacier part of the 134 array (Fig. 3) might be caused by reduced or less turbulent subglacial water flow there, compared 135 to the down-glacier part, where over-deepening of the glacier bed might favor unstable and more 136 turbulent water flow<sup>39</sup>.

137

#### 138 Observing the switch from a cavity-like to a channel-like drainage system

We further investigate whether with our observational technique we can retrieve the different
components of a subglacial drainage system by evaluating temporal changes in the source
location maps together with the subglacial flow parameters that characterize average water
drainage efficiency and water pressure conditions at the glacier bed<sup>22,23</sup> (see Methods for details).
We calculate source location maps averaged over 2-day time windows (Fig. 3) and use the

144 combined seismic signal amplitude and water discharge measurements to invert for spatially-

145 integrated changes in the hydraulic pressure gradient and hydraulic radius of the subglacial

drainage system (Fig. 4) $^{22,23}$ . All maps are obtained from sources yielding a similar phase

147 coherence (i.e. associated with MFP output within the same narrow [0.07-0.16] range) such that

they are retrieved with a similar accuracy (see Methods).

149 We observe that sources are spatially more distributed at the beginning of the period (until ca. 150 May 10; Fig. 3) than when averaging source locations over the whole period (Fig. 2d). At this time 151 the hydraulic pressure gradient (Fig. 4a, green line) varies significantly with the discharge (from 152 0.1 m<sup>3</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup> to 2 m<sup>3</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup>; Fig. 4b, blue line) and the hydraulic radius remains constant (Fig. 4a, purple 153 line), which indicates low drainage efficiency<sup>23</sup>. This time period is also associated with marked 154 glacier surface acceleration (velocity increases by up to ca. 50%) due to enhanced basal sliding<sup>31</sup> as a result of the subglacial water pressurization<sup>7</sup>. These concomitant observations provide 155 156 strong support that with our source location analysis we can observe water flow in the cavity-like 157 system. This has not been suggested in previous cryoseismic studies<sup>21-23,25</sup> on the premise that fast and turbulent water flow speeds (as m.s<sup>-1</sup>; i.e., seismically detectable<sup>22</sup>) only occur in 158 159 channels. However this is consistent with borehole field observations<sup>14,40</sup> and with theoretical 160 studies that have envisioned channel-like flow in connections between cavities (referred to as 161 orifices)<sup>9</sup>.

162 While progressing through time (from ca. May 10), the subglacial water flow localizes into a 163 narrower zone (Fig. 3). This transition towards a channel-dominated system is well revealed by the significant increase in the two-dimensional coefficient of determination R<sup>2</sup> (Fig. 4a) calculated 164 165 between the spatial pattern observed for May 25-26 (Fig. 3o) and each of the patterns shown in 166 Figure 3. Concomitantly, and in contrast to the first part of the period, we observe a doubling of 167 the hydraulic radius with a reduced and almost unvarying hydraulic pressure gradient, which 168 indicates that the increasing drainage efficiency lowers the basal water pressure. Such an 169 increase in drainage efficiency is consistent with the increase in water discharge not resulting in

glacier acceleration, but rather in slight deceleration<sup>41</sup>. Our seismic analysis therefore provides
independent observational support for the hypothesis that the development of an efficient and
channel-like system reduces the basal water pressure and favors slower glacier flow.

173

## 174 Implications for the monitoring of hydraulic connectivity within and across subglacial 175 drainage systems

176 The presence of seismically detectable turbulent water flow within the cavity-like drainage system 177 suggests that this system is, at least in certain places, associated with high hydraulic connectivity. 178 The absence of seismic sources over many areas of the glacier bed indicates that these, 179 comparatively, have lower hydraulic connectivity, and could correspond to hydraulically isolated 180 portions of the bed with higher potential for water storage <sup>13,15</sup>. This shows not only that our 181 seismic analysis can determine when and where the transition from a cavity-like to a channel-like system occurs, but also that it can identify locations with high hydraulic connectivity within the 182 183 cavity-like system and from the cavity- to the channel-like systems. This implies that we can 184 evaluate which areas of the glacier bed are efficiently connected to channels, and thus drained 185 when they develop, versus the areas where water is stored and is thought to regulate the basal 186 traction over multi-year timescales<sup>15,17</sup>. Yielding such observations in other settings like 187 Greenland has the potential for identifying locations where ice dynamics are expected to be 188 particularly sensitive to the foreseen increase in melt water input rates due to climate warming<sup>3</sup>.

#### 189 Perspectives and limitations

A successful application of our methodology to other glacier systems like Ice-Sheet outlet glaciers relies on the capability to conduct subwavelength sampling over representative areas (Methods), ranging from about 1x1km<sup>2</sup> (e.g. Russel Glacier's tongue<sup>42</sup>) up to about 10x10km<sup>2</sup> (e.g. central trunk of Pine Island Glacier<sup>43</sup>). These scaling constraints can be can be fulfilled through deploying c. 100 up to c. 10,000 sensors in these areas, which we foresee as achievable in the near future given the recent ease of dense seismic array installations in remote areas<sup>44-46</sup>.

196 Although the present seismic approach yields unprecedent insights on subglacial hydrology from 197 the local (Fig. 3) up to the glacier (Fig. 4) scales, future applications will likely still strongly benefit 198 from combination with complementary in-situ observations. Such a combination will guide the 199 strategy for conducting local (e.g., via ice-drilling) or spatially-integrated (e.g. via dye tracing 200 experiments or hydrochemical analysis) measurements in targeted and representative places 201 identified from the seismic observations. Complementary measurements in those targeted places 202 will also help enhance the level of quantitative interpretation of seismic observations through giving more quantitative constraints on the behavior of key physical variables (pressure, flow 203 204 speed, connectivity) in each identified subglacial hydrology system. This integrated strategy will 205 allow to better extrapolate physical constraints from the local up to the glacier-wide scale, which 206 will ultimately facilitate the assimilation of seismic observations in subglacial hydrology – ice 207 dynamics coupled models, which otherwise remain poorly constrained across scales<sup>47</sup>.

#### 208 Conclusion

209 In this study, we provide well-resolved spatial observations of a localized efficient channel-like 210 system geometry and of the extent of a distributed inefficient cavity-like system. We show that 211 with an adapted systematic seismic investigation of low spatial phase coherences we can locate 212 multiple seismic noise sources induced by subglacial water flow that act at the same time. This 213 location procedure is feasible from very low water discharge (~0.1 m<sup>3</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup>) to peak melt-season 214 water discharge. Thus, we can simultaneously observe the distributed and localized drainage 215 systems through time and space, and evaluate the hydraulic connectivity within and across these 216 systems along with their changes through time. Our geophysical approach is also exportable to 217 other glaciers in remote areas, from mountain glaciers to ice caps, especially with the current easing of dense-seismic arrays<sup>46</sup> and distributed acoustic sensing<sup>44,48</sup> deployments. Our novel 218 219 way of investigating subglacial drainage systems will allow the glaciological community to diagnose the susceptibility of ice sheets<sup>15,17</sup> and mountain glaciers<sup>14,47</sup> to increased meltwater 220 221 input due to climate warming and/or extreme melt and rainfall events. Our approach will also be

particularly appropriate to study processes that generate similar spatially spread seismic noise in
 other environments, such as for lava flows on volcanoes<sup>49</sup>, tremors in fault zones<sup>50</sup>, and sediment
 transport in rivers<sup>51</sup>.

225

#### 226 Materials and Methods

227

#### 228 Dense seismic array survey

All of the stations have a 500-Hz sampling rate and a low cut-off frequency of 4.5 Hz. The nodes were installed at a depth of 30 cm into the 4-m-thick snow cover, and had to be reinstalled on May 11 due to snow melt, which occurred at a rate of 5 cm.day<sup>-1</sup>. We refer the reader to ref.<sup>30</sup> for the detailed description of the experiment.

#### 233 Complementary measurements

234 Concomitant with our seismic survey, we use continuous records of subglacial water discharge, 235 which was measured in excavated subglacial tunnels maintained by the hydroelectric power 236 company Emosson S.A. at ca. 600 m downstream of the center of the node-array (at 2173 m 237 a.s.l.). We also installed four GNSS stations at the corners of the seismic array to measure glacial 238 surface velocity, which was on the order of 0.1 m.day<sup>-1</sup> at this time of the year and for this part of 239 the glacier<sup>31</sup>. One week prior to the seismic deployment, we conducted a ground penetrating 240 radar campaign over the study area with a 5-MHz signal, to improve the previous estimates of the bed topography reported by ref. <sup>52</sup>. Also, in September 2018, we conducted an aerial survey to 241 242 derive a digital elevation model of the glacier surface using stereo-photogrammetry. Combining 243 these two digital elevation models, we calculated the ice thickness distribution over the study 244 area, as shown in Figure 1. The ice thickness reached up to 270 m at the center of the seismic 245 array, with a well-marked talweg (i.e., valley-shaped bed) aligned in the glacier flow direction, and 246 a progressive diminution of the ice thickness down-glacier both within the area covered by our 247 array and from the location of our array towards the glacier terminus. The reader should refer to

ref.<sup>30</sup> for the detailed description of the complementary data associated with this seismic
experiment.

#### 250 Matched field processing

251 Matched field processing (MFP) consists of providing a probabilistic estimate of the epicentral 252 coordinate of dominant source <sup>28</sup> from evaluation of the phase coherence of the seismic signal 253 over an array of sensors. The method consists of recursively matching the phase delays of a 254 model-based synthetic wave-field (i.e., the 'trial source') with the phase delays observed between 255 the sensors over the array. A condition for this method to be applicable is that spatially coherent phase information can be extracted between nearby sensors<sup>28</sup>, which requires interstation 256 257 spacing of less than one-half of the investigated wavelength. We satisfy this conditions with our 258 40 to 50 m interstation spacing for a 200 to 500m investigated wavelength.

We first compute the discrete Fourier transform of a given data vector d(t) recorded by the 98 sensors over a frequency  $\omega$ , to obtain the complex data vector  $d(\omega)$  and to calculate the

261 corresponding cross-spectral density matrix as

262 
$$K(\omega) = d(\omega)d^{H}(\omega)$$

263 where H is the Hermitian transpose. The cross-spectral density matrix captures the relative 264 spatial phase difference between the sensors. We then define a set of values to be explored for 265 trial sources. In this study, we set four degrees of freedom for the MFP processing, with a depth, range and phase velocity grid (X, Y, Z, C). An important condition for retrieving source epicentral 266 267 coordinate (i.e. X, Y, Z) and not only source back azimuth is to have a source-to-array distance 268 not greater than two to three times the array aperture (i.e. largest distance between stations)<sup>29</sup>. 269 We satisfy this condition with a c. 750 m array aperture for a c. 270m source-to-station 270 distances<sup>23</sup> (i.e. maximum glacier thickness<sup>53</sup>). For each element a of these four dimensions of 271 the grid we model the Green's function replica vector  $d(\omega, a)$  under the hypothesis of a 272 homogenous medium as

273 
$$d(\omega, \mathbf{a}) = \exp\left(\frac{i\omega r_a}{c}\right),$$

where *c* is the medium velocity and  $r_a$  is the distance between each receiver and the trial source position *a*.

To match the observed cross-spectral density matrix with the replica vector, we calculate theBartlett processor as

278 
$$B_{Bartlett}(\omega, \mathbf{a}) = \sum_{\omega} |d(\omega, \mathbf{a})^{H} K(\omega) d(\omega, \mathbf{a})|.$$

This operation is equivalent to cross-correlation between the observed wave-field phase and the modeled one. We refer to the  $B_{Bartlett}(\omega)$  values as the MFP output. The MFP output is calculated at specific frequencies, and ranges from 0 to 1. The closer to 1 the MFP output is, the more the modeled phase matches the observations. Sources that generate a signal resulting in similar phase coherence (i.e. MFP output value) are expected to be localized with a similar accuracy<sup>28</sup>.

285 We perform source location over 1-s-long signal segments of the vertical component only. We 286 filter the signal within the [3-7] Hz frequency range that is the most sensitive to subglacial water 287 flow induced seismic noise<sup>21,23–25</sup>, and coherently apply the MFP for each 0.4 Hz within this 288 range. To maximize the efficiency of our algorithm and minimize the computational costs, we use 289 a gradient-based minimization algorithm (i.e., Nelder-Mead optimization<sup>54</sup>) to converge to the best 290 match between the trial and the observed phase delays, rather than exhaustive grid-search 291 exploration. The convergence criterion is reached when the variance of the values obtained over the last five iterations of the optimization is <1e<sup>-2</sup>, with a maximum of 3000 iterations. Our 29 292 293 different starting points used for optimization are located 250 m below the glacier surface, and 294 they uniformly cover an area of 800 × 800 m<sup>2</sup> centered on the array (Fig. 2d). We set the initial 295 velocity to 1800 m.s<sup>-1</sup>. The 29 point locations found per signal segment (1 s) after convergence 296 are all located in the same place if clear global convergence exists (i.e., high MFP output) or at up

to 29 different locations if up to 29 local minima exist (i.e., low MFP output). The MFP output
value can also be understood as an indicator of the number of receivers over which the signal is
coherent; e.g., a value of 0.1 indicates a source that generates a signal coherent over 10% of the
array. We found that this approach is comparable to using sub-arrays of variable sizes to perform
the MFP over different areas of the glaciers. Further details on the methods and related physics
can be found in ref. <sup>55</sup>.

#### 303 Matched field processing output statistics

304 We narrow the MFP output selection by keeping only: (1) the location that yields realistic phase 305 velocities ([1200-3600] m.s-1); and (2) the localizations at  $\pm 400$  m from the array center and  $\leq 400$ 306 m below the glacier surface. The number of located sources after this selection (Fig. 2a) 307 decreases as the MFP output increases, with >5000 daily sources associated with MFP output 308 <0.05, and <1 daily source associated with MFP output >0.75. Figure 2b, c shows the distribution 309 of the source properties (vertical position), and Figure 2e, f shows the spatial probability of the 310 source location over the complete study period for two MFP output bands of ([0.07-0.16] and 311 [0.75-0.99]). These locations correspond to real and detectable seismic events, since MFP output is much higher than expected for random noise (see ref.<sup>30</sup>, Fig. 9). This two-dimensional 312 313 representation is obtained by summing the total number of sources in each  $8 \times 8 \text{ m}^2$  cell of an  $800 \times 800 \text{ m}^2$  (x, y) grid centered on our seismic array. 314

It is important to note that at low MFP output (e.g., [0.07-0.16]) only a few sensors distinguish the source. This leads to a shorter aperture of the effective seismic array, which limits depth resolution. The trend to higher probability of the source location at depth is however observed here for tens of thousands of sources. The 2-day averaging is long enough to gather sufficient statistics, while it is also short enough to correctly investigate the temporal evolution with high enough spatial accuracy (Fig. 3).

#### 321 Source location precision

322 When compared to the crevasse field at our study location (Fig. 1), we observe that our MFP 323 analysis yields source locations with MFP output >0.75, a precision in range down to 10 m (Fig. 2) for an average wavelength  $\lambda$  of ca. 300 m at 5 Hz<sup>37</sup>. While the expected Rayleigh limit gives 324 maximum resolution of  $\lambda/4$  (ca. 75 m at 5 Hz) in the far-field domains<sup>27</sup>, laboratory experiments<sup>56</sup> 325 326 suggest that the seismic signal bears information of spatial structures down to  $\lambda/8$  (ca. 32 m at 5 327 Hz) in the near-field of sources. Our unique instrumental set-up combined with our systematic 328 analysis of phase coherence allow us to overcome the Rayleigh far-field limitations and obtain 329 two-dimensional maps of source locations with resolution in the range of ca. 10 m for high MFP 330 outputs. For lower MFP outputs, we expect lower resolution due to the smaller aperture of the 331 array that is sensitive to local phase coherence. We acknowledge that the width of the area 332 shown in Figure 2d might not represent the true width of a single subglacial channel, which is expected to be of the order of one to few meters at this location<sup>23</sup>. The observed width of c. 50 m 333 334 could be due to the uncertainty for the source location or to the presence of multiple channels

335 Hydraulic potential calculation

336 We calculate the hydraulic potential  $\Phi$  following ref.<sup>1</sup>, as:

337 
$$\Phi = \rho_w g z_b + K[\rho_i g (z_s - z_b)]$$

338 where g is the acceleration due to gravity (9.81 m.s<sup>-2</sup>),  $\rho_w$  is the density of water (1000 kg.m<sup>-3</sup>),  $\rho_i$ 339 is the density of ice (917 kg.m<sup>3</sup>),  $z_h$  and  $z_s$  are the elevation of the glacier bed and surface (m), 340 respectively, and K is the ratio of water pressure to ice overburden pressure; i.e., a uniform 341 flotation fraction. A value of K near 0 represents a condition where basal water pressure is 342 negligible in comparison to ice overburden pressure, and a value near 1 represents a condition 343 where basal water pressure is high enough to significantly counterbalance ice overburden 344 pressure. Here we use a flotation fraction of 0.5, which is likely to represent a case where the subglacial drainage system has developed enough to efficiently drain the bed<sup>1,57</sup>, and therefore 345 346 reduce subglacial basal water pressure. We consider this flotation fraction to best represent the

347 subglacial water pressure condition in our location at the end of our study period when we 348 observe a decreasing glacier velocity while water discharge still increases (Fig. 4a). We then 349 calculate the water flow directions based on the hydraulic potential gradients, by following the path that minimizes the gradient with a minimum upstream area of 150 m<sup>2</sup> for the waterway, to 350 351 initiate the use of TopoToolBox, developed by ref.<sup>58</sup>. We show in Figure Supp. 1 that different 352 values of flotation fraction (K = [0.1, 0.5, 0.9]) result in a similar predicted waterway pattern. The 353 expected localization of subglacial water flow thus does not depend much on the flotation fraction, 354 likely as a result of the V-shape of the Argentière glacier being particularly pronounced.

355

#### 356 Inverting hydraulic properties using water discharge and seismic power measurements

We use the theoretical framework of ref.<sup>22</sup> to invert for the hydraulic properties of subglacial 357 358 turbulent water flow using simultaneous measurements of subglacial water discharge and seismic 359 power. The seismic power P is calculated at each sensor using the vertical component of ground 360 motion within [3-7] Hz and the Welch method over 4-s time windows with 50% overlap, as reported in ref. <sup>23</sup>. The physical framework relates the changes in the measured seismic power P 361 362 and discharge Q to changes in channel hydraulic radius R and hydraulic pressure gradient S. The 363 basis of these relations is that turbulence within water flow generates frictional forces that act on 364 the boundaries of the channels (i.e., ice, glacier bed) and create ground motion. This approach 365 has been recently shown to be applicable over our study area<sup>23</sup>. The hydraulic radius R is defined 366 as the ratio of the cross-sectional area of the channel flow to its wetted perimeter. The hydraulic 367 pressure gradient S is a function of both the rate of change of water pressure and the bed slope 368 in the flow direction. In the case of constant bed slope and channel geometry, increasing S 369 means closed and pressurizing channel flow. Both variables are defined for subglacial conduits 370 where turbulent water flow dominates. We calculate median values of R and S using the median 371 seismic power P over the 98 sensors and the water discharge Q, as follows

372 
$$S = S_{ref} \left(\frac{P}{P_{ref}}\right)^{24/41} \left(\frac{Q}{Q_{ef}}\right)^{-30/41}$$

374 
$$R = R_{ref} \left(\frac{P}{P_{ref}}\right)^{-9/82} \left(\frac{Q}{Q_{ef}}\right)^{-33/82}$$

where the subset ref is the reference state, which is April 26 in this study. In the main text, when referring to the temporal evolution of R and S, we therefore refer to their relative changes with respect to this reference period. We evaluate P over the [3-7] Hz frequency band, as it has been shown by ref. <sup>23</sup> to be the best suited in area for studying turbulent water flow. The reader is referred to refs. <sup>22,23</sup> for more details.

We stress that the inversions of hydraulic properties depend on the average seismic amplitude, with very little dependency on the spatial variations. Therefore, our inversions are to be considered independent of the source location, even if they both arise from the seismic signals. This also implies that our inversions represent averaged hydraulic conditions of the drainage system.

385 State of knowledge on the main features of channels and cavities

Cavities form in the downstream lee of bedrock bumps, due to ice sliding over the bed, and they close through ice creep. Cavities can be filled with water, which reduces the apparent rugosity of the glacier bed and weakens the ice–bed mechanical coupling<sup>39</sup>. For soft-bed glaciers, inefficient drainage systems also include unconsolidated layers of low permeability<sup>59</sup>. Weakly connected cavities can have permeability that are lower by ca. 9 orders of magnitude than that of connected cavities<sup>15</sup>. For a similar hydraulic gradient to that of connected cavities, turbulent water flow within a weakly connected system therefore requires much higher flow velocities.

Subglacial channels can be of the R-type<sup>8</sup> when melted into the ice by turbulent dissipation of
 heat, or of the N-type<sup>60</sup> when dug into the basal sediments by the flowing water or etched into

395	bedrock by carbonate dissolution <sup>61</sup> . Both types close through ice creep. When developing and
396	reaching steady-state, a subglacial channel tends to have lower water pressure than cavities,
397	which therefore drains the connected cavity system.
398	
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400	
401	Acknowledgments
402	
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405	Alpes). Most of the computations presented in this paper were performed using the GRICAD
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418 Codes and data availability

419	The time series of	physical	quantities meas	ured at Argentiè	ère glacier ov	er the 2017	and 2018
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- 420 melt-season can be found at <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3701520</u>. All of the data associated
- 421 with the dense array experiment can be found at <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3971815</u>. The
- 422 spatial maps of source locations, glacier geometries and hydraulic potentials as well as the code
- 423 used to processed these data can be found at <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4024660</u>. Part of
- 424 the dataset of the seismic signals acquired during RESOLVE-Argentière can be found at
- 425 <u>https://doi.org/10.15778/RESIF.ZO2018</u> in link with ref.<sup>30</sup>. Contact U.N. at
- 426 ugo.nanni0158@gmail.com or ugo.nanni@univ-grenoble-alpes.fr for questions related to the
- 427 above described datasets and codes.
- 428
- 429

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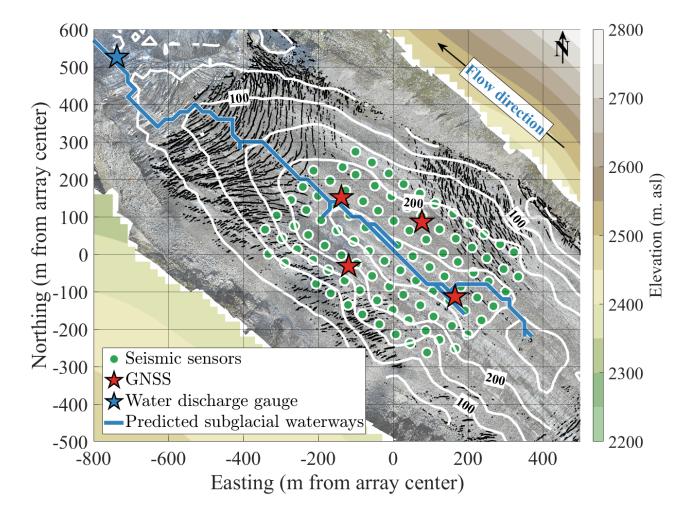
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580		

- 583 Figures and Tables

**Figure 1.** 



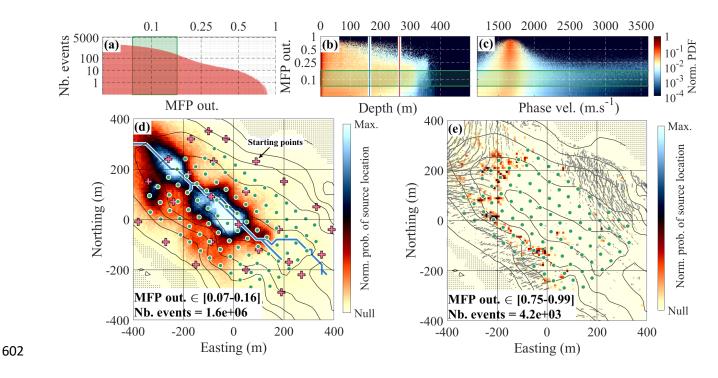


Monitoring set-up of Glacier d'Argentière. Aerial view of the Glacier d'Argentière field site (France,
Mont Blanc mountain range) and location of the instruments used in this study. The seismic
network (green dots) is composed of 98 seismic stations with Fairfield Nodal Z-Land 3
components, which are indicated according to their positions at the beginning of the survey
period. Surface displacement was measured through four GNSS stations that functioned during
the study period (red stars). Subglacial water discharge (blue star) was measured through direct

- 593 access to the glacier base from excavated tunnels. White contour lines show 50-m-spaced ice
- thickness contours, as obtained from combined radar measurements and surface elevations. The
- 595 blue line shows the subglacial waterways as predicted from hydraulic potential calculations (see
- 596 Methods). The glacier flows toward the northwest (top left). Aerial view provided by Bruno
- 597 Jourdain.



601 Figure 2.

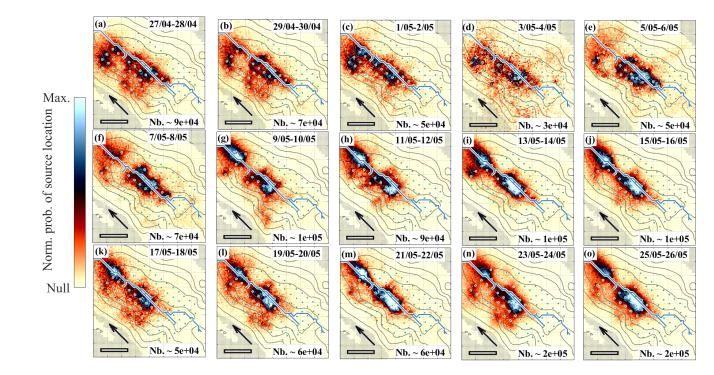


603 Statistics and two-dimensional representation of the matched-field processing (MFP) output for 604 the 5 ±2 Hz frequency range. (a) Distribution of the average number of events located per day 605 after applying the selection as a function of the MFP output. Green shaded area shows the [0.07-606 0.16] MFP output range for which the spatial distribution of the sources was investigated. (b) 607 Normalized probability distribution of the MFP output as a function of source depth relative to the 608 surface. The vertical red line shows the maximum ice thickness; the blue line shows the median 609 ice thickness. The green shaded areas show the [0.07-0.16] MFP output range. (c) Normalized 610 probability distribution of the MFP output as a function of the phase velocity. Note that the color scales are logarithmic and the distribution is normalized per MFP output band of 0.01. The green 611 612 shaded areas show the [0.07-0.16] MFP output range. (d, e) Two-dimensional representation of 613 the normalized probability of the source location obtained with 8 × 8 m2 pixels grid for the study 614 area for the two MFP output ranges [0.07-0.16] (d) and [0.75-0.99] (e). Contour lines show 50-m-

- spaced ice thickness contours, as shown in Figure 1. The gray shading shows ice-free areas. The
- green dots show the seismic array. The blue line in (d) shows the subglacial waterways as
- 617 predicted from the hydraulic potential calculation, as shown in Figure 1. The black dots in (e)
- show crevasse locations, as shown in Figure 1. The pink crosses in (d) show the locations of the
- 619 29 starting points used in the location algorithm.

#### 621 Figure 3.

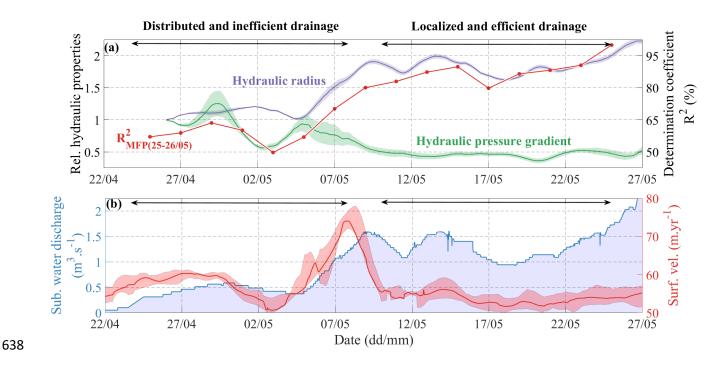
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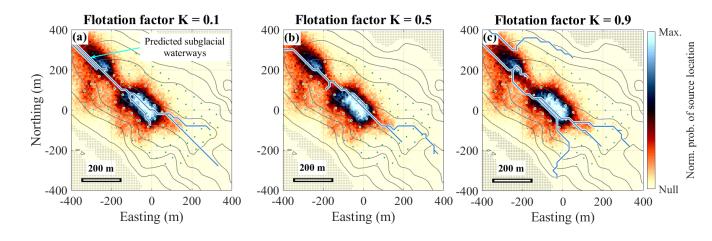
624 Two-dimensional maps of subglacial water flow source location obtained from matched-field 625 processing (MFP). Temporal evolution of the spatial patterns of the source location densities 626 obtained for the 5 ±2 Hz frequency range and the [0.07-0.16] MFP output range. All of the maps 627 are averaged over 2-day time windows, with the associated number of the sources located shown 628 in the bottom right corner (Nb.). Color scale ranges are normalized for each time window using 629 maximum probability. (o) The characteristic pattern used in Figure 4 for calculation of the 630 coefficient of determination. Contour lines show the 50-m-spaced ice thickness contours, as 631 shown in Figure 1. The gray shading shows ice-free areas. Scale bars (bottom left): 200 m. The 632 blue lines show the subglacial waterways, as predicted from the hydraulic potential calculation, 633 and as shown in Figure 1. Black arrows show glacier and subglacial water flow directions.

634



Temporal evolution of the subglacial hydraulic properties, seismic observations, and glacier flow. 639 640 (a) Left axis shows the relative hydraulic properties, as averaged over the 98 sensors. Hydraulic pressure gradient with ±1 median absolute deviation (MAD), as the shaded envelope (green), and 641 642 hydraulic radius with ±1 MAD, as the shaded envelope (purple). Both values are expressed as 643 relative to April 26. Right axis shows temporal evolution of the spatialized seismic observations 644 using the determination coefficient R2 of the source location pattern shown in Figure 3o (red). 645 The closer this coefficient is to 1, the more the drainage system is observed to be channelized. 646 (b) Subglacial water discharge (blue line) with shaded blue area under the curve added for ease 647 of reading. Median surface velocity over the four on-ice GNSS stations (red line) with the 648 minimum/maximum shaded envelope.

649 **Supplementary Figure 1.** 





Two-dimensional representation of the normalized probability of the source location obtained with

652 8 × 8 m2 pixels grid for the study area for the two MFP output ranges [0.07-0.16] as shown in Fig.

2d. The blue line shows the subglacial waterways as predicted from hydraulic potential

654 calculations for three different values of flotation fraction K (see Methods for details). Green dots

655 show seismic sensors location.