

1 Introduction

Tides and ocean swells produce ice shelf bends and, thus, they can initiate break-up of sea-ice in the marginal zone (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978; Goodman et al., 1980; Wadhams, 1986; Squire et al., 1995; Meylan et al., 1997; Turcotte and Schubert, 2002) and also they can excite ice-shelf rift propagation. Strong correlations between rift propagation rate and ocean swells impact have not revealed (Bassis et al., 2008), and it is not clear to what degree rift propagation can potentially be triggered by tides and ocean swells. Nevertheless, the impacts of tides and of ocean swells are the parts of the total force (Bassis et al., 2008) that produces sea-ice calving processes in ice shelves (MacAyeal et al., 2006). Thus, the understanding of vibrating processes in ice shelves is important from the point of view of investigations of ice-sheet-ocean interaction and of sea level change due to alterations in the rate of sea-ice calving.

The modelling of ice-shelf bends and of ice-shelf vibrations were developed, e.g. in Holdsworth and Glynn (1978), Goodman et al. (1980), Wadhams (1986), Vaughan (1995), Turcotte and Schubert (2002), using the approximation of a thin plate. These models allow to simulate ice-shelf deflections and to obtain bending stresses emerging due to the vibrating processes, and to assess possible effects of tides and ocean swells impacts on the calving process. Further development of elastic-beam models for description of ice-shelf flexures implies the application of visco-elastic rheological models. In particular, tidal flexures of ice-shelf were obtained using linear visco-elastic Burgers model in Reeh et al. (2003) and using the nonlinear 3-D visco-elastic full Stokes model in Rosier et al. (2014).

Ice-stream response to ocean tides was described by full Stokes 2-D finite-element employing a non-linear visco-elastic Maxwell rheological model by Gudmundsson (2011). This modelling work revealed that tidally induced ice-stream motion is strongly sensitive to the parameters of the sliding law. In particular, a non-linear sliding law allows the explanation of the ice stream response to ocean forcing at long-tidal periods

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(MSf) through a nonlinear interaction between the main semi-diurnal tidal components (Gudmundsson, 2011).

A 2-D finite-element flow-line model with an elastic rheology was developed by O. V. Sergienko (Bromirski et al., 2010; Sergienko, 2010) and was used to estimate mechanical impact of high-frequency tidal action on stress regime of ice shelves. In this model seawater was considered as incompressible, inviscid fluid and was described by the velocity potential.

In this work, the modelling of forced vibrations of a buoyant, uniform, elastic ice-shelf, which floats in shallow water of variable depth, is developed. The simulations of bends of ice-shelf are performed by a full 3-D finite-difference elastic model. The main aim of this work is to derive the eigen-frequencies of the system, which includes the buoyant, elastic ice-shelf and the sea water under the ice-shelf, implying that, in suitable conditions a resonant-like vibration can be induced by the incident ocean wave (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978; Bromirski et al., 2010). In other words, here we consider the same mechanism for generating the bending stresses at locations along an ice-shelf far from the grounding zone due to vibration of the ice-shelf in a mode higher than the fundamental (nontidal theory for ice-shelf fracture), like was considered in (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978). Furthermore, the attempt to apply the general elastic theory instead of well-developed thin plate theory is launched here (in 3-D case).

2 Field equations

2.1 Basic equations

The 3-D elastic model is based on the well-known momentum equations (e.g. Lamb, 1994; Landau and Lifshitz, 1986):

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(ii) detailed numbers and positions of the crevasses (iii) detailed seafloor topography under the ice-shelf.

The complementary shear stress, which can be derived in the full model, in the case of high-frequency free vibrations are an order of magnitude less in the maximum than the maximal value of the σ_{xx} component. Thus, in general, the analysis of shear stresses justifies the application of the thin plate theory in the case of high-frequency vibrations, when the ice displacements are relatively small. Nevertheless, the results, evidently, maintain the fact what the shear stresses should reinforce the dislocations in the nodes (of the mode), wherein shear stresses reach the local maxima/minima (Fig. 4b). Furthermore, the 3-D model reveals the maximum of the shear stresses at the grounding line (at the fixed edge of the plate), thus the high-frequency vibrations can reinforce the tidal impact in the grounding zone.

In the forced vibration problem, in which the dissipative factors are neglected, the amplitudes in the peaks (Fig. 2), in general, are undefined (unlimited). To modelling the realistic finite motion in the peaks, we can consider limitation of the ingoing overall water flux in the model, which is based on the original equations for the water layer (continuity equation and Euler equation). This model includes applicable boundary conditions for ingoing water flux and, hence, yields the specific amplitude spectrums with limited amplitudes in the resonant peaks (Konovalov, 2014).

The shape of the plate deflection obtained at a frequency, which is beside the eigenvalue, depends on the type of the boundary conditions applied at the lateral edges. Specifically, the staggered order for nodes and antinodes, which is observed in the modes obtained in the free vibration problem (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978), likewise, can be obtained in the full model wherein the pressure perturbations are applied at the lateral edges (Fig. 5). If the pressure perturbations are expressed as $P' = P'_0 \cos(kx + \alpha)$, the ice-shelf deflection takes the shape (for some peaks), when the nodes/antinodes follow in a staggered order (Fig. 5). However, the spatial and the temporal variables, evidently, can not be separated in the ocean surface wave, which

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is described as $P' = P'_0 \cos(\omega t + kx + \alpha)$, thus, the boundary condition $\frac{\partial P'}{\partial n} = 0$ at the lateral edges was considered as the basic.

The observations on the Ross Ice Shelf have shown that more significant mechanical impacts on the Ross Ice Shelf result from the infragravity waves with periods from about 50 to 250 s (Bromirski et al., 2010). These waves are generated along continental coastlines by nonlinear wave interactions of storm-forced shoreward propagating swells (Bromirski et al., 2010). The model developed here reveals five distinct resonance peaks in the infragravity part of the spectrum (Fig. 6). The results of the modelling prove the conjecture about the possible resonant impact of the infragravity waves to the Antarctic ice-shelves.

Thus, the full 3-D model yields to qualitatively same results, which were obtained in the model based on the thin-plate approximation (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978). In addition, the full model allows to observe 3-D effects, for instance, vertical distribution of the stress components. In particular, the full model reveals the increasing in shear stress, which is neglected in the thin-plate approximation, from the terminus towards the grounding zone with the maximum at the grounding line in the case of high-frequency forcing.

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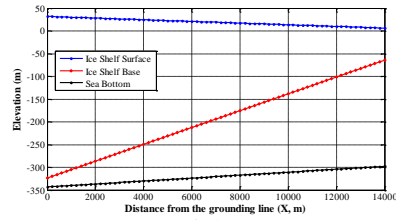


Fig. 1.a

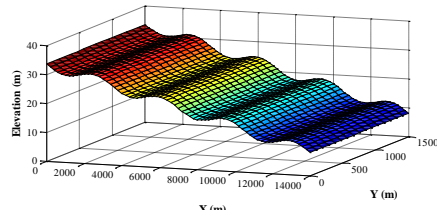


Fig. 1.b

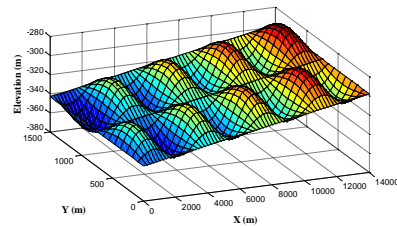


Fig. 1.c

Figure 1. (a) Ice-shelf centre-line cross-section. Ice-shelf thickness at fixed end (at grounding line) is equal to 355 m and tapers to 71 m at the terminus (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978); (b) ice-shelf “rolled” surface (sinusoidally perturbed in x direction surface); (c) “bumpy” sea bed (sinusoidally perturbed sea bed).

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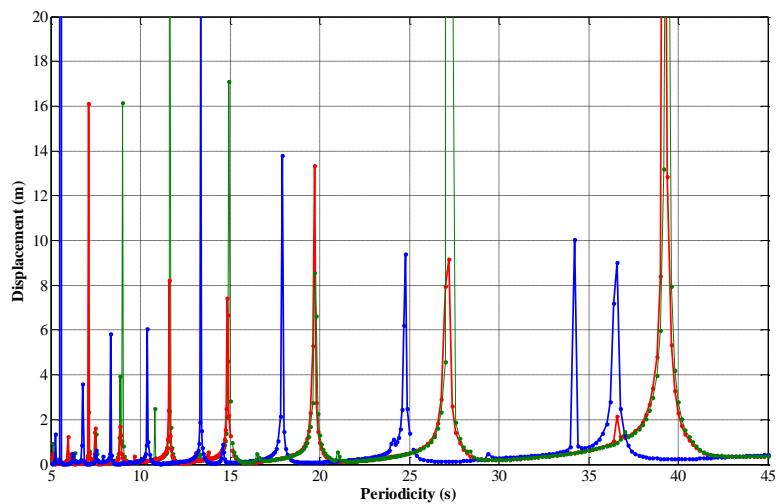


Figure 2. The amplitude spectrums – maximal ice-shelf deflection vs. ocean wave periodicity. Curve 1 (red color) is the amplitude spectrum obtained for the origin geometry of the system (Fig. 1a). Curve 2 (blue color) is the amplitude spectrum obtained for “rolled” ice surface (Fig. 1b). Curve 3 (green color) is the amplitude spectrum obtained for “bumpy” sea bed (Fig. 1c). Amplitude of the incident wave is equal to 1 m.

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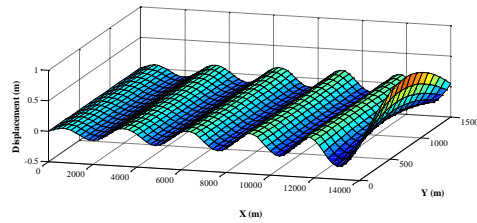


Fig. 3,a

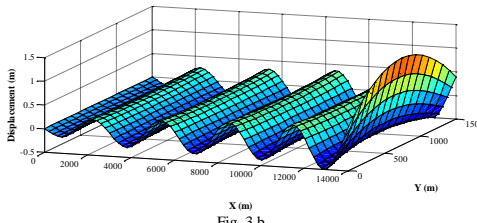


Fig. 3,b

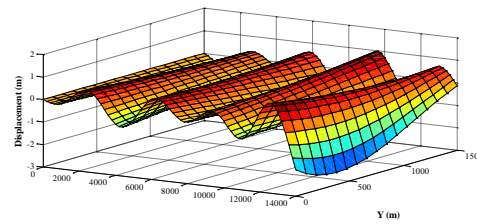


Fig. 3,c

Figure 3. Ice-shelf deflections obtained for the three modes: **(a)** period is equal to 14.9 s; **(b)** period is equal to 19.7 s; **(c)** period is equal to 27.1 s. Young’s modulus $E = 9$ GPa, Poisson’s ratio $\nu = 0.33$ (Schulson, 1999).

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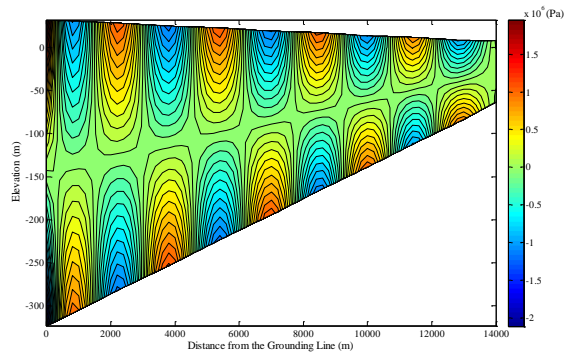


Fig. 4,a

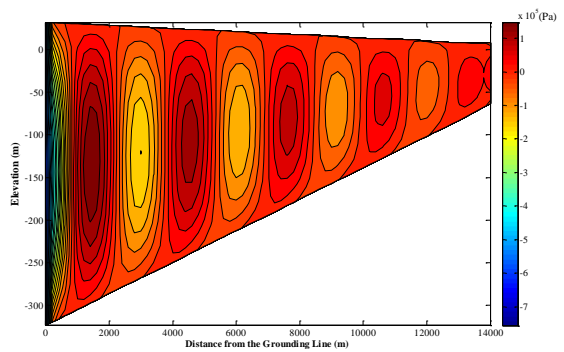


Fig. 4,b

Figure 4. The distributions of **(a)** longitudinal stress σ_{xx} and **(b)** shear stress σ_{xz} along the centerline. The stress distributions correspond to the second mode, which is shown in Fig. 3b.

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