

Seasonal variations in Greenland Ice Sheet motion: inland extent and behaviour at higher elevations

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Abstract

We present global positioning system observations that capture the full inland extent of ice motion variations in 2009 along a transect in the west Greenland Ice sheet margin. *In situ* measurements of air temperature and surface ablation, and satellite monitoring of ice surface albedo and supraglacial lake drainage are used to investigate hydrological controls on ice velocity changes. We find a strong positive correlation between rates of annual ablation and changes in annual ice motion along the transect, with sites nearest the ice sheet margin experiencing greater annual variations in ice motion (15 -18 %) than those above 1000 m elevation (3 - 8 %). Patterns in the timing and rate of meltwater delivery to the ice-bed interface provide key controls on the magnitude of hydrologically-forced velocity variations at each site. In the lower ablation zone, the overall contribution of variations in ice motion to annual flow rates is limited by evolution in the structure of the

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subglacial drainage system. At sites in the upper ablation zone, a shorter period of summer melting and delayed establishment of a hydraulic connection between the ice sheet surface and its bed limit the timeframe for velocity variations to occur. Our data suggest that land-terminating sections of the Greenland Ice Sheet will experience increased dynamic mass loss in a warmer climate, as the behaviour that we observe in the lower ablation zone propagates further inland. Findings from this study provide a conceptual framework to understand the impact of hydrologically-forced velocity variations on the future mass balance of land-terminating sections of the Greenland Ice Sheet.

Key words:

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Our ability to make robust predictions about the future mass balance
3 of the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS), and therefore its contribution to sea-
4 level change, is limited by uncertainty about how the dynamic component
5 of mass loss (i.e. due to changes in ice motion) will respond to anticipated
6 changes in atmospheric temperature (IPCC, 2007; Pritchard et al., 2009). In
7 land-terminating sections of the GrIS, variations in ice velocity are initiated
8 when surface meltwater gains access to the ice-bed interface, lubricating
9 basal motion (Zwally et al., 2002; Van de Wal et al., 2008; Joughin et al.,
10 2008; Shepherd et al., 2009; Bartholomew et al., 2010). This effect is both
11 widespread (Joughin et al., 2008; Sundal et al., 2011) and persistent each
12 summer (Van de Wal et al., 2008; Sundal et al., 2011; Zwally et al., 2002)
13 near the ice sheet margin. Initial observations show that summer velocities
14 in land-terminating sections of the GrIS can be 50% faster than in winter
15 (Van de Wal et al., 2008; Joughin et al., 2008), and that summer velocity

16 variations increase annual ice motion by 6 - 14 % in the lower ablation zone
17 (Bartholomew et al., 2010). A direct positive relationship between rates of
18 surface melting and basal motion would create a mechanism to significantly
19 increase rates of mass loss from the GrIS in a warming climate by drawing
20 more ice to lower elevations where ablation rates are higher (Parizek and
21 Alley, 2004). This process allows the dynamic component of the GrIS mass
22 balance to respond to climatic variability within decades or less, yet is not
23 considered in current sea-level projections made by the Intergovernmental
24 Panel on Climate Change (IPCC).

25 Recent observations (Bartholomew et al., 2010; Sundal et al., 2011) and
26 theoretical work (Pimentel and Flowers, 2010; Schoof, 2010) suggest, how-
27 ever, that the contribution of seasonal velocity variations to annual rates
28 of ice motion at a particular site is limited by evolution in the structure of
29 the subglacial drainage system. Each summer in the lower ablation zone,
30 sustained inputs of meltwater from the ice sheet surface transform the sub-
31 glacial hydrological system into an efficient network of channels that can
32 evacuate large quantities of water rapidly (Bartholomew et al., in press).
33 This moderates the lubricating effect of meltwater on ice velocities by re-
34 ducing the pressure within the hydrological system for a given volume of
35 water (Kamb, 1987; Van de Wal et al., 2008). It has been observed that late
36 summer velocities near the GrIS margin are lower for a given intensity of
37 surface melting than earlier in the season (Bartholomew et al., 2010; Sundal
38 et al., 2011). As a result, it is not expected that increased annual ablation
39 rates at a specific location will necessarily stimulate faster ice flow than at
40 present; in this respect the process could be seen as self-limiting (Van de
41 Wal et al., 2008). By extension, it has been argued that summer, and there-
42 fore annual mean ice velocities at a given site on the GrIS could be *lower*

43 in high ablation years than in low ablation years because channelisation of
44 the subglacial hydrological system occurs more quickly (Truffer et al., 2005;
45 Pimentel and Flowers, 2010; Sundal et al., 2011).

46 A key feature of hydrologically-forced velocity variations in the GrIS is
47 also that they propagate inland from the ice sheet margin on a seasonal
48 basis, in response to the onset of surface melting at successively higher
49 elevations (Bartholomew et al., 2010). The initiation of hydrologically-forced
50 ice velocity variations is dependent on the development of a conduit from the
51 ice sheet surface to allow surface meltwater to access the ice-bed interface.
52 In a warmer climate we expect summer melting of the GrIS to be more
53 intense, affecting a wider area for a longer time period than is currently the
54 case (Hanna et al., 2008), providing greater volumes of surface meltwater.
55 The melt regime will be amplified because the hypsometry of the GrIS,
56 which flattens inland, gives a non-linear expansion of the area of the GrIS
57 experiencing melt in response to a rise in the equilibrium-line altitude (ELA).
58 It is therefore possible that seasonal velocity variations in the GrIS will
59 propagate further inland in response to climate warming. One mechanism
60 to allow this is drainage of supraglacial lakes, which have the potential to
61 concentrate surface meltwaters into large enough reservoirs to propagate
62 fractures through ice that is >1000 m thick (Alley et al., 2005; Das et al.,
63 2008; Krawczynski et al., 2009).

64 Current debates over whether increased melt rates across the GrIS will
65 induce greater dynamic mass loss can therefore be reduced to whether in-
66 creased mass loss due to inland propagation of velocity variations in warmer
67 years will more than offset any potential reduction in mass loss due to ear-
68 lier onset of channelisation in the lower ablation zone. However, uncertainty
69 remains over the effect of increased meltwater production on dynamic be-

70 haviour in the lower ablation zone - observations to date do not show con-
71 clusively whether annual mean ice velocities will increase or decrease in a
72 warmer climate (Van de Wal et al., 2008; Joughin et al., 2008; Bartholomew
73 et al., 2010; Sundal et al., 2011) and a more detailed understanding of the
74 response of the subglacial drainage structure to large inputs of surface melt-
75 water is required. In addition, while diurnal ice velocity variations have been
76 observed up to 72 km from the GrIS margin in a short-term study (Shepherd
77 et al., 2009), it is not clear that patterns in hydrologically-forced dynamic
78 behaviour observed near the ice sheet margin are replicated at higher eleva-
79 tions. While singular lake drainage events have been described in detail (Das
80 et al., 2008), it has not been shown that the integrated effect of widespread
81 meltwater generation and lake drainage (McMillan et al., 2007; Box and Ski,
82 2007; Sundal et al., 2009) is a significant and sustained increase in glacier
83 flow speed at higher elevations.

84 A secondary effect of meltwater inputs to the glacier system on ice dy-
85 namics is ‘cryo-hydrologic warming’, whereby heat conduction from water
86 within the englacial system causes ice temperatures to be raised (Phillips
87 et al., 2010). Increased temperatures will reduce ice viscosity and thus con-
88 tribute to faster ice flow. It has been suggested that, in a warmer climate,
89 drainage of meltwater into the ice sheet across a wider area will also cause
90 a rapid thermal response in deep layers of the GrIS, compounding the effect
91 of meltwater drainage on ice velocities (Phillips et al., 2010).

92 The aim of this study is to provide a clearer understanding of the mech-
93 anisms which control the magnitude and extent of hydrologically-forced dy-
94 namic behaviour at elevations up to and beyond the current ELA *on a*
95 *seasonal basis*. This is motivated by the need to incorporate these processes
96 in numerical models which predict the future evolution of the GrIS and the

97 current lack of comprehensive empirical data with which to inform them
98 (Parizek, 2010). The thermal effect of meltwater, which affects ice defor-
99 mation rates rather than basal motion, does not have a significant seasonal
100 signal (Phillips et al., 2010) and is not considered here.

101 We present continuous ice velocity measurements, derived from global
102 position system (GPS) observations, that capture the full inland extent of
103 seasonal velocity variations along a land-terminating transect at $\sim 67^\circ\text{N}$ in
104 western Greenland during the 2009 melt season (Figure 1). Measurements
105 were made at seven sites up to 1716 m elevation, which is ~ 115 km inland
106 from the GrIS margin. The ice motion record is compared with *in situ*
107 and satellite observations of air temperatures, surface melt characteristics
108 and supraglacial lake evolution within the region of study, as well as with
109 proglacial hydrological data (Bartholomew et al., in press).

110 **2. Data and Methods**

111 *2.1. GPS data*

112 We used dual-frequency Leica 500 and 1200 series GPS receivers to col-
113 lect the season long records of ice motion at each site. Each GPS antenna
114 was mounted on a pole drilled several metres into the ice, which froze in
115 subsequently, providing measurements of ice motion that were independent
116 of ablation. The GPS receivers collected data at 30 second intervals that
117 were processed using a kinematic approach relative to an off-ice base station
118 (King, 2004) using the Track 1.21 software (Chen, 1999; King and Bock,
119 2006). Conservative estimates of the uncertainty associated with position-
120 ing at each epoch are approximately ± 1 cm in the horizontal direction and
121 ± 2 cm in the vertical direction. The data were smoothed using a Gaus-

122 sian low-pass filter to suppress high-frequency noise without distorting the
123 long-term signal. Daily horizontal velocities reported in this paper (Figure
124 2a-g) are calculated by differencing the filtered positions every 24 hours.
125 Shorter-term variations in ice velocity were derived by differencing positions
126 across a 6 hour sliding window, applied to the whole timeseries of filtered
127 positions for each site. This window length was chosen in order to highlight
128 short-term variations in the velocity records while retaining a high signal to
129 noise ratio. Estimates of the magnitude of daily cycles in horizontal velocity
130 are therefore minimum estimates. Unfortunately, the quality of the GPS
131 data at site 1 was compromised by technical problems, and we are unable
132 to resolve short-term variations in horizontal velocity at this site.

133 Uncertainties associated with the filtered positions are <0.5 cm in the
134 horizontal and <1 cm in the vertical directions, corresponding to annual
135 horizontal velocity uncertainties of <3.7 m yr⁻¹ and <14.6 m yr⁻¹ for the
136 24 hour and 6 hour velocity measurements respectively. We used the stan-
137 dard deviation of 24 hour and 6 hour sliding window velocities from site 7,
138 which has the longest processing baseline and experienced negligible veloc-
139 ity variations, to estimate the noise floor in the GPS velocity records. The
140 standard deviations for 24 hour and 6 hour velocities at site 7 are 5.6 m yr⁻¹
141 and 19.5 m yr⁻¹ respectively. These values compare well with the calculated
142 uncertainties and represent conservative error estimates for our dataset.

143 The values for winter background ice-velocities are derived from the dis-
144 placement of each GPS receiver between the end of the summer melt season
145 and the following spring (Bartholomew et al., 2010). The reported contri-
146 bution to annual ice flux from the hydrologically-forced summer ice velocity
147 variations is the percentage by which the observed annual displacement ex-
148 ceeds that which would occur if the ice moved at winter rates all year round.

149 *2.2. Air temperature and surface ablation*

150 Simultaneous measurements of air temperature were made at each GPS
151 site to constrain melt rates, and show that the velocity data cover the whole
152 seasonal melt cycle. Measurements of air temperature were made using
153 shielded Campbell Scientific T107 temperature sensors connected to Camp-
154 bell Scientific CR800 dataloggers (sites 1, 3 and 6) and shielded HOBO
155 U21-004 temperature sensors (sites 2, 4, 5 and 7) at 15 minute intervals
156 throughout the survey period. Seasonal melt totals were also measured us-
157 ing ablation stakes at each GPS site.

158 *2.3. Proglacial discharge*

159 We made continuous measurements of water stage in the proglacial
160 stream that emerges from the terminus of Leverett Glacier. Proglacial dis-
161 charge was derived from a continuous stage-discharge rating curve calibrated
162 with repeat dye dilution gauging experiments throughout the melt-season
163 as described in detail in Bartholomew et al. (in press).

164 *2.4. Supraglacial lake evolution*

165 We used satellite observations from the Moderate-resolution Imaging
166 Spectrometer (MODIS) to study the development of supraglacial lakes within
167 the region of our GPS transect (Figure 1; delimited by the grey line). 20
168 MODIS images, spanning the period 31st May to 18th August 2009, were
169 used, representing all the days when lake identification was not impeded
170 by cloud cover. MODIS level 1B Calibrated Radiances (MOD02) were pro-
171 cessed and projected as 250 m resolution true colour images in conjunction
172 with the MODIS Geolocation product (MOD03), according to the method-
173 ology laid out by Gumley et al. (2003); see also Box and Ski (2007), and

174 Sundal et al., (2009). Lakes were digitised manually in order to allow clas-
175 sification even on days of partial or thin cloud cover, producing a dataset
176 with slightly higher temporal resolution than fully automated classification
177 (Sundal et al., 2009). Drainage events were identified as occasions on which
178 the area of a lake decreased to zero (or a very small fraction of its for-
179 mer size) without an intermediate period of refilling. Previous studies have
180 found that MODIS classification of GrIS supraglacial lakes is robust when
181 compared with higher resolution satellite data (Sundal et al., 2009) and has
182 approximate error of 0.22 km^2 per lake. However, since the lakes within
183 this region are relatively small (typically $<1 \text{ km}^2$) and there is considerable
184 uncertainty in using a depth-retrieval algorithm to determine the depth of
185 individual lakes (Box and Ski, 2007) we do not estimate individual lake vol-
186 ume. We note, however, that on the basis of a recent theoretical study of
187 supraglacial lake drainage in the western GrIS (Krawczynski et al., 2009),
188 any lake which is large enough to be resolved on MODIS images (theoret-
189 ically one $250\text{m} \times 250\text{m}$ pixel (0.0625 km^2)) will contain enough water to
190 drive a water-filled crack through 1 km of ice.

191 *2.5. Ice sheet surface characteristics*

192 We used the MYD10A1 1-day albedo product, part of the MODIS Aqua
193 snow cover daily L3 global 500 m gridded product (Hall and Salomonson,
194 2009; Hall et al., 2009), to map changes in the albedo of the ice sheet sur-
195 face in this region of the GrIS through the survey period. These data are
196 used to quantify the lowering of surface albedo associated with meltwater
197 generation and retreat of the seasonal snowline through the survey period.
198 This product provides albedo values for pixels identified as cloud free and
199 snow-covered on a 500m grid derived from a snapshot taken once per day

200 (Stroeve et al., 2006). We used 70 days of data, from April 22nd to Septem-
201 ber 20th, representing all the days on which the image was not obscured by
202 cloud cover. This time period covers the whole melt season, from before the
203 onset of melt at the ice sheet margin in spring, to the period of refreezing
204 and snowfall in the autumn. In order to integrate the albedo characteristics
205 across the region surrounding the transect, mean albedo was calculated by
206 50 m elevation bands in the study region using a surface digital elevation
207 model (Palmer et al., 2011). Albedo thresholds for snow (<0.45) and bare
208 ice (>0.66) surfaces were used to classify pixels on the basis of field observa-
209 tions along the nearby K-transect (Knap and Oerlemans, 1996). A resulting
210 transitional band between the two zones is assumed to comprise a mixture
211 of snow, ice with surface water and slush surfaces and broadly delimits the
212 transient snowline (Knap and Oerlemans, 1996).

213 **3. Hydrological forcing of velocity variations**

214 Sites 1 - 6 all experience velocity peaks that are over 100 % higher than
215 their winter background values (Figure 2a-f). These variations begin near-
216 est the margin on May 22nd, and propagate inland following the onset of
217 surface melting up to a distance of 80 km from the GrIS margin in late July,
218 at 1482 m elevation. Initial uplift of the ice sheet surface at each of these
219 sites is interpreted to signal the establishment of a local hydraulic connec-
220 tion to the ice sheet bed (Iken et al., 1983; Zwally et al., 2002; Das et al.,
221 2008; Anderson et al., 2004; Bartholomew et al., 2010). A high-velocity
222 ‘spring-event’, accompanied by uplift of the ice sheet surface, characterises
223 the start of locally-forced velocity variations at each of these sites in a man-
224 ner similar to Alpine and High Arctic glaciers (Iken et al., 1983; Iken and

225 Bindschadler, 1986; Mair et al., 2001; Bingham et al., 2008). This behaviour
226 is consistent with inputs of meltwater to a subglacial hydrological system
227 which is incapable of accommodating them without a great increase in pres-
228 sure (Röthlisberger and Lang, 1987; Iken et al., 1983; Iken and Bindschadler,
229 1986; Hooke et al., 1989; Mair et al., 2001).

230 Although a small component of the coincident vertical and horizontal ve-
231 locity changes is due to thickness changes resulting from longitudinal strain-
232 rate or stress-gradient coupling, the signals we observe cannot be attributed
233 to these effects alone. Based on motion of adjacent sites and ice thickness
234 data (Figure 1b; Bamber et al., 2001; Krabill, 2010), we calculate that
235 the thickness changes originating due to longitudinal coupling are approx-
236 imately an order of magnitude smaller than the elevation changes we have
237 recorded. They also typically operate in the opposite direction as accelera-
238 tion of downstream sites causes extension and thinning of ice upstream as
239 opposed to the uplift observed. Throughout the summer, further speed-up
240 events which are coincident with ice surface uplift confirm the role of sur-
241 face generated meltwater in forcing seasonal changes in ice motion for this
242 section of the GrIS. We also note that the evidence for hydraulically-forced
243 enhanced basal motion implies that basal temperatures along this transect
244 are at the pressure melting point.

245 Immediately prior to the spring events most sites also experience a short
246 period of increased velocity in the absence of uplift of the ice surface, which
247 we attribute to mechanical coupling to ice downglacier that is already mov-
248 ing more quickly (Price et al., 2008). At site 7, which is located at 1716 m
249 elevation, 115 km from the margin, there is no surface uplift or significant
250 ice acceleration indicating that surface generated meltwater did not pene-
251 trate to the bed this far inland (Figure 2g). Site 7 does display a small, but

252 clear, change in horizontal velocity (Figure 3), however, which can likely
253 be attributed to coupling to ice downstream. Since the magnitude of these
254 changes is insignificant in terms of annual ice flux, site 7 delimits the inland
255 extent of hydrologically forced velocity variations in 2009 for this transect.

256 *3.1. Behaviour in the lower ablation zone*

257 At sites 1 - 3, which are low in the ablation zone and experience the
258 greatest acceleration, spring-events occur early in the melt-season, near the
259 beginning of June, and ice velocity become less sensitive to air temperature
260 variations as the melt season progresses (Figure 2). This behaviour is ex-
261 plained by evolution in the structure of the subglacial drainage system in
262 response to sustained inputs of meltwater from the ice sheet surface, con-
263 sistent with previous observations and predictions of dynamic behaviour in
264 this section of the GrIS (Bartholomew et al., 2010; Pimentel and Flowers,
265 2010).

266 A recent hydrological study (Bartholomew et al., in press) supports the
267 conclusion that evolution in the structure of the subglacial drainage system
268 is responsible for limiting the magnitude of hydrologically-forced velocity
269 variations at sites 1 - 3 later in the melt season. Observations of hydro-
270 logical parameters from a catchment that drains through Leverett Glacier
271 show that an efficient subglacial drainage system expands upglacier at the
272 expense of an inefficient one as the summer progresses, a process that has
273 been observed previously on Alpine glaciers (Nienow et al., 1998). Episodic
274 increases in the runoff hydrograph (Figure 2h), which are interpreted as evi-
275 dence for dramatic re-organisation and expansion of the subglacial drainage
276 system in response to new inputs of meltwater from the ice sheet surface,
277 have a clear short-lived effect on the velocity records at sites 1, 2 and 3

278 (Figure 2a-c,h). These events indicate, firstly, that sites 1 - 3 are within
279 the hydrological catchment of the river and, secondly, that changes in the
280 subglacial drainage system have a direct impact on ice velocity downglacier
281 from where they initially occur. The large volumes of water exceed the
282 capacity of the subglacial drainage system, causing pressurisation, and a
283 concomitant reduction in basal drag (Iken and Bindshadler, 1986), as the
284 water is transported to the ice sheet margin.

285 Clear daily-cycles in horizontal velocity occur at sites 2 and 3 follow-
286 ing the spring events, and persist until mid-August. The magnitude of
287 these cycles is typically between 100 and 150 % of the mean daily veloc-
288 ity, and can be over 200 % of winter background velocity during periods
289 of significantly enhanced motion (Figure 4). Their existence indicates that
290 over-pressurisation of the subglacial drainage system also happens regularly
291 on diurnal timescales. The daily cycles in ice velocity appear to be closely
292 related to variations in air temperature, with a typical lag between peak
293 temperature and peak velocity of less than 3 hours, suggesting that they
294 occur in direct response to diurnal variations in meltwater production at
295 the ice sheet surface and that surface and englacial transit times are short
296 (Shepherd et al., 2009).

297 In addition to these short-lived events, ice velocities at sites 1, 2 and 3
298 are higher on the rising limb of the seasonal runoff hydrograph for Leverett
299 Glacier, subdued following peak discharge on July 21st, and display a re-
300 turn to winter background rates in late August, when runoff is diminishing
301 (Figure 2a-c. h). ‘Slower than winter’ ice velocities are also observed for a
302 short period at some sites once the summer melt has stopped, however this
303 signal is not large enough to have a significant impact on rates of annual ice
304 motion.

305 These findings from the lower ablation zone can be explained in physical
306 terms. Although increased efficiency of the subglacial hydrological system
307 reduces the dynamic response to absolute water input volume (Bartholomew
308 et al., 2010), lake drainage and other singular high velocity events, as well
309 as diurnal fluctuations in horizontal velocity testify that the system can
310 still be overfilled by a large enough increase in meltwater input, causing an
311 increase in subglacial water pressure (Das et al., 2008; Shepherd et al., 2009;
312 Pimentel and Flowers, 2010; Schoof, 2010). Production of surface meltwater,
313 and its delivery to the ice-bed interface, is inherently variable on timescales
314 of hours, days, weeks and months. Since the capacity of the subglacial
315 hydrological system reflects the balance between channel opening by melting
316 of the channel walls, and closure due to deformation of the surrounding ice,
317 and adjusts relatively slowly to changes in water flux (Röthlisberger, 1972;
318 Schoof, 2010), the system never reaches steady-state. We argue, therefore,
319 that once a conduit has been established to deliver surface meltwater to the
320 glacier bed, large changes in the rate of meltwater delivery to the subglacial
321 hydrological system will continue to force velocity variations.

322 This analysis explains why high-velocity events at sites 1, 2 and 3 occur
323 on the rising limb of the discharge hydrograph, when the system is contin-
324 uously challenged to evacuate larger and larger volumes of water. Later in
325 the season, when a channelised drainage system has been established, and
326 volumes of meltwater are diminishing, the drainage system is better able to
327 evacuate meltwater without overfilling, explaining the reduction in magni-
328 tude of hydrologically-forced variations in ice motion. While ice velocities
329 are subdued on the falling limb of the runoff hydrograph, velocities at sites
330 1 - 3 still exceed winter flow rates until mid-August. This appears to be the
331 result of continued diurnal fluctuations in ice velocity (Figure 4), which oc-

332 cur until there is a dramatic reduction in runoff volumes at Leverett glacier
333 after August 15th (Bartholomew et al., in press).

334 3.2. Behaviour in the upper ablation zone

335 At sites 4 - 6, which are higher in the ablation zone (>1000 m), the
336 relationship between changes in the rate of horizontal motion and the rate
337 of uplift of the ice sheet surfaces indicates that the forcing mechanism is the
338 same as in the lower ablation zone. Mapping of surface albedo using satellite
339 data shows that the observed spring-events at these sites follow the onset of
340 surface melting above their respective elevations (Figure 5), although both
341 satellite and *in situ* observations showed that the snowpack was not fully
342 removed at sites 5 and 6 by the end of the summer.

343 A key difference from the lower ablation zone is that the spring events oc-
344 cur later in the melt season (Figure 2a-g). There is also a significant time lag
345 between the onset of surface melting, as inferred from both positive degree
346 days (PDD's) and MODIS-derived albedo values, and the establishment of
347 a hydraulic connection between the ice sheet surface and its bed as inferred
348 from uplift of the ice surface. This means that significant velocity enhance-
349 ment occurs for a much shorter time period than at lower elevations. At site
350 4, surface melting begins in early June, while coincident surface uplift and
351 horizontal acceleration, which are diagnostic of local hydrological-forcing,
352 are delayed until July 5th (Figure 2d). Increased velocities prior to this
353 date, which occur without accompanying surface uplift, are explained by
354 coupling to downglacier ice and are not as large as those induced by local
355 forcing at the sites nearer the margin. *In situ* measurements of air tempera-
356 ture and satellite observations of surface albedo show that sites 5 and 6 both
357 experience prolonged surface melting from July 6th onwards, and experience

358 locally-forced velocity variations from July 12th and July 27th respectively
359 (Figure 2e,f). Later spring events and the delay between the onset of surface
360 melting and hydraulic connection between the ice surface and its bed are
361 due in part to lower rates of surface melting. In addition greater volumes of
362 water are required to propagate fractures through thicker ice (Alley et al.,
363 2005; Van der Veen, 2007). These factors both increase the time required
364 for the accumulation of sufficient volumes of meltwater to penetrate to the
365 ice sheet bed.

366 Sites 4, 5 and 6 all experienced their highest velocities during a pe-
367 riod of cooler temperatures from July 22nd to August 2nd (Figure 2d-f),
368 suggesting that drainage of stored surface water was a key factor in these
369 hydrologically-forced events. Satellite images show surface meltwater accu-
370 mulation in supraglacial lakes in this region from mid-June at elevations
371 between 1000 - 1200 m, and from 1200 m to >1600 m from early July. This
372 storage of surface meltwater is made possible by relatively low surface gra-
373 dients, which reduce the tendency for water to runoff to lower elevations
374 (Nienow and Hubbard, 2006), and allows concentration of the large volumes
375 of water required to propagate fractures to the ice sheet bed through thick
376 ice (Das et al., 2008; Box and Ski, 2007; McMillan et al., 2007; Sundal et al.,
377 2009).

378 Using MODIS imagery, we identify a number of events where changes
379 in horizontal and vertical movement at one or more of our GPS sites is
380 coincident with the disappearance of supraglacial lakes from the ice sheet
381 surface. In particular, the spring event at site 5 on July 12th is coincident
382 with disappearance of three supraglacial lakes from between 1200 - 1350 m
383 elevation (Figure 1, yellow). Widespread drainage of supraglacial lakes at
384 elevations up to 1500 m between July 19th - 23rd (Figure 1, red) corresponds

385 with increases in ice velocity at sites 4 and 5 of up to 100 m y^{-1} on July
386 21st and 22nd respectively. The peak in horizontal velocities at sites 4, 5
387 and 6 at the end of July also coincides with drainage of a lake at $\sim 1400 \text{ m}$
388 elevation and a number of lakes above $\sim 1500 \text{ m}$ between July 26th and July
389 29th (Figure 1, blue). It is not possible to be certain, using optical imagery,
390 that all lakes which disappear from the ice sheet surface drain directly into
391 englacial conduits. For example, some lakes may drain superficially either
392 into other lakes or to join with a water input point further downglacier.
393 However, the repeated coincidence of lake disappearance from the ice sheet
394 surface with changes in ice velocities suggests strongly that a large number
395 of these lakes drain to the ice-bed interface locally. Uplift of the ice surface
396 indicates that this water is delivered to a subglacial drainage system which
397 is unable to evacuate it without a large increase in water pressure, leading
398 to the enhanced basal motion (Das et al., 2008).

399 Drainage of supraglacial lakes therefore appears to be responsible for the
400 initiation of hydrologically forced velocity variations at both sites 5 and 6. It
401 is not clear that the spring event at site 4, on July 5th, is caused directly by
402 drainage of supraglacial lakes. This site is located by a large moulin which
403 becomes active each year (Catania and Neumann, 2010), and it is likely that
404 the spring event is associated with the re-opening of this moulin. A common
405 factor in the upper ablation zone, however, is that by the time a hydraulic
406 connection has been established between the ice sheet surface and its bed,
407 facilitating hydrologically-forced velocity variations, air temperatures and
408 proglacial runoff are already decreasing. Lake drainage events are known to
409 be rapid, delivering large enough volumes of water to quickly transform the
410 subglacial hydrological system into an efficient channellised network (Das
411 et al., 2008). Under these circumstances, it is unlikely that the volumes

412 of water generated at the ice sheet surface at these elevations following
413 lake drainage events will be sufficient to sustain large velocity variations
414 (Pimentel and Flowers, 2010). Accordingly, even though the temperature
415 data show considerable melting occurs at sites 4 and 5 until mid-August, we
416 do not observe any changes in ice velocity at sites above 1000 m elevation
417 beyond August 2nd.

418 *3.3. Changes in annual motion*

419 Annual mean ice velocities at sites 1 - 7 respectively are 16.7 %, 18.4 %,
420 14.8 %, 7.6 %, 5.1 %, 2.5 % and 0.2 % greater than they would be if the ice
421 flowed at winter rates all year round. We find a strong correlation between
422 the magnitude of local ablation and the percentage changes in annual ice
423 motion due to hydrologically-forced velocity variations at each GPS site
424 (Figure 6). Sites 1, 2 and 3, which are nearest the margin and below 800
425 m elevation, experience the most surface melting and show significantly
426 greater annual acceleration than those at higher elevations, with the effect
427 attenuating inland. Data from 2008 also show increases in mean annual ice
428 velocity of 13.5 % and 5.6 % at sites 3 and 4 respectively due to summer
429 velocity variations (Bartholomew et al., 2010), indicating that the velocity
430 changes that we observe in 2009 are a persistent feature of the dynamic
431 behaviour of this part of the GrIS.

432 The relationship between rates of annual ablation and the amplitude of
433 hydrologically-forced velocity change is not intuitive on the basis of previous
434 theoretical work (Pimentel and Flowers, 2010) and observations (Van de Wal
435 et al., 2008), which have suggested that higher volumes of surface meltwa-
436 ter production will ultimately reduce the impact of hydrological forcing on
437 GrIS motion. Implicit in these arguments is a concept of ‘optimum melt’:

438 too much meltwater and the hydrological system will become channelised
439 earlier in the summer, making ice velocities less sensitive to the volumes of
440 meltwater reaching the bed more quickly, reducing the impact of seasonal
441 velocity variations on the annual displacement of the ice. However, it is im-
442 portant to consider that the hydrological forcing at each site is a product of
443 both local melting *and* meltwater delivered through the subglacial drainage
444 system from further upglacier. As a result, sites nearest the margin will
445 receive disproportionately more meltwater per unit of local melting than
446 those at higher elevations. Following this logic, previous theoretical work
447 (Pimentel and Flowers, 2010) and observations (Van de Wal et al., 2008) ex-
448 pect sites nearest the margin, where the total flux of meltwater through the
449 subglacial drainage system will be greatest, to show smaller overall velocity
450 changes than sites further inland. However, despite significant differences
451 in the local volume of meltwater delivered to the ice-bed interface, we see
452 similar increases in annual ice motion at sites 1 - 3 (14.8 - 18.4 %).

453 Our findings from the lower ablation zone are consistent with the nu-
454 merical model of subglacial drainage proposed recently by Schoof (2010) and
455 suggest that hydrologically-forced ice velocity variations are controlled more
456 strongly by variations in the rate, rather than the absolute volume, of melt-
457 water production and delivery to the ice-bed interface. In particular, this
458 reflects a temporary imbalance between the volume of water within the sub-
459 glacial drainage system, and its inability to evacuate this water without an
460 increase in pressure over a wide enough area to significantly affect basal mo-
461 tion (Kamb et al., 1994). We argue that in a warmer climate, where greater
462 volumes of surface meltwater are produced in the lower ablation zone, the
463 seasonal rising limb and shorter-term variations in water delivery to the sub-
464 glacial drainage system will continue to cause significant increases in annual

465 ice motion despite the potential for an earlier ‘switch’ from a distributed to a
466 channelised subglacial drainage system (Schoof, 2010). However, the overall
467 magnitude of velocity variations will continue to be limited by evolution in
468 the structure of the subglacial drainage system, which responds to inputs of
469 surface meltwater over a longer period (Mair et al., 2002; Anderson et al.,
470 2004; Bartholomew et al., 2010; Schoof, 2010).

471 While development in the efficiency of the subglacial drainage system
472 also exerts some control on hydro-dynamic behaviour at higher elevations,
473 the dominant limiting factor on the contribution of velocity variations to an-
474 nual ice motion at sites in the upper ablation zone is the shorter duration and
475 later establishment of the hydraulic connection between the ice sheet sur-
476 face and its bed. The expectation that surface melting will be more intense,
477 and spatially extensive, in a warmer climate (Hanna et al., 2008), leads us
478 to suggest that, in future, sites at higher elevations are likely to experience
479 velocity variations for a longer period of time, allowing a greater annual
480 change in ice velocity. In particular, higher rates of meltwater production
481 would allow lakes that fill and subsequently drain to reach the volume re-
482 quired to propagate cracks through thick, cold ice earlier in the summer
483 season (Krawczynski et al., 2009). We therefore expect that the behaviour
484 observed at sites 1 - 3 would be extended to higher elevations, creating a
485 positive relationship between atmospheric warming and dynamic mass loss
486 in land-terminating sections of the GrIS, albeit one that is modified by de-
487 velopment in the structure of the subglacial drainage system.

488 We do not infer direct cause and effect between bulk volumes of surface
489 ablation and changes in ice motion on the basis of the relationship shown in
490 Figure 6. Instead, our data show contrasting regimes in hydrologically-forced
491 dynamic behaviour of the GrIS at different elevations within the ablation

492 zone, which provide a compelling explanation for the relationship between
493 total surface ablation and changes in annual ice motion. We therefore believe
494 that our data provide a realistic basis for parameterisation of ice flow models
495 that are used to predict the future evolution of the GrIS (Parizek and Alley,
496 2004).

497 **4. Conclusions**

498 Our data show that seasonal changes in horizontal ice velocity along a
499 ~ 115 km transect in a land-terminating section of the western GrIS, are
500 forced by the generation of surface meltwater which is able to reach the
501 ice-bed interface. These velocity variations propagate inland from the ice
502 sheet margin to progressively higher elevations in response to the onset of
503 surface melting, and the creation of a hydraulic connection between the ice
504 sheet surface and its bed. We find a positive relationship between rates
505 of annual ablation and percentage changes in annual ice motion along the
506 transect, with sites nearest the ice sheet margin experiencing greater annual
507 variations in ice motion (15 -18 %) than those above 1000 m elevation (3 -
508 8 %).

509 Patterns in the timing and rate of meltwater delivery to the ice-bed
510 interface are key controls on the magnitude of hydrologically-forced velocity
511 variations at each site. In the lower ablation zone (<800 m elevation),
512 ‘spring events’ occur early in the melt season and the overall contribution
513 of variations in ice motion to annual flow rates is limited by evolution in
514 the structure of the subglacial drainage system (Bartholomew et al., 2010).
515 At these sites, hydrologically-forced ice acceleration is greatest on the rising
516 limb of the seasonal runoff hydrograph, when the hydraulic capacity of the

517 subglacial drainage systems is consistently exceeded. However, we find that
518 this behaviour is not replicated at sites in the upper ablation zone (>1000
519 m), where the period of summer melting is shorter, and the establishment of
520 a hydraulic connection between the ice sheet surface and its bed is delayed,
521 limiting the timeframe for velocity variations to occur.

522 In a warmer climate we expect seasonal melting of the GrIS surface to
523 extend over a wider area, and to be more prolonged (Hanna et al., 2008).
524 This makes it likely that volumes of meltwater sufficient to reach the ice-
525 bed interface will accumulate further from the ice sheet margin and that
526 the timing of meltwater input will occur earlier each summer (Sundal et al.,
527 2009; Krawczynski et al., 2009). Our data therefore support the hypothesis
528 that inland propagation of hydrologically-forced velocity variations will in-
529 duce greater dynamic mass loss in land-terminating sections of the GrIS in
530 a warmer climate, as patterns of hydro-dynamic behaviour observed in the
531 lower ablation zone extend upglacier. These considerations provide a con-
532 ceptual framework to understand the positive relationship between annual
533 rates of surface ablation and percentage variations in annual ice velocity,
534 and can be used to improve numerical simulations used for predicting the
535 impact of hydrologically-forced variations in ice velocity on the future mass
536 balance of the GrIS (Parizek, 2010).

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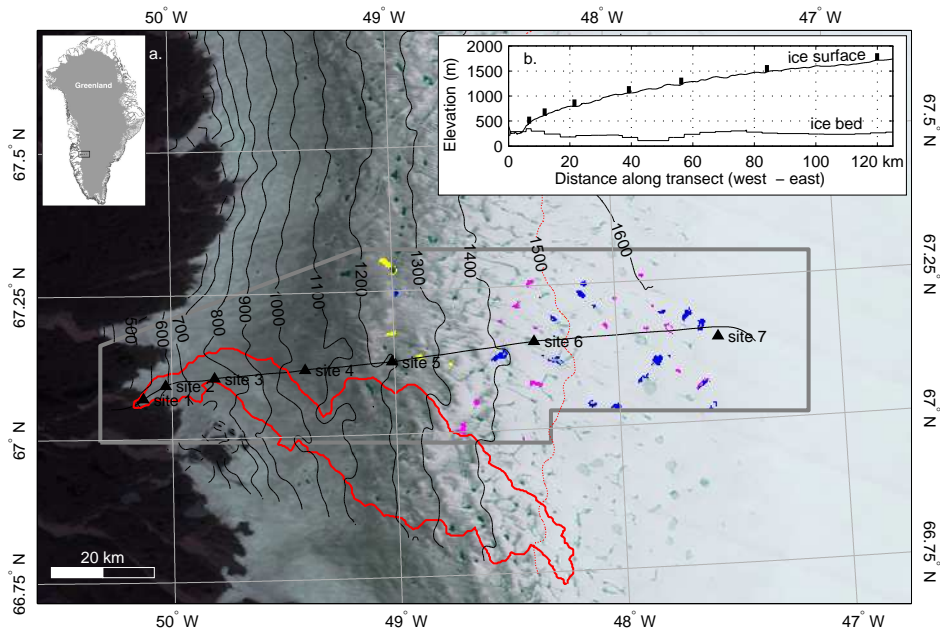


Figure 1: a. Location of the study region on the western margin of the GrIS. The GPS sites are located along a transect across an altitudinal range of 450 - 1700 m a.s.l. Simultaneous measurements of air temperature and seasonal measurements of ablation were made at each site. The ELA in this region is at 1500 m (Van de Wal et al., 2005). Contours are produced from a digital elevation model derived from InSAR (Palmer et al., 2011) at 100 m intervals. Lakes which drain in the interval between sequential MODIS satellite images during the survey period are denoted by coloured patches which represent their surface area immediately prior to drainage (yellow: July 11th-15th; red: July 19th-23rd; blue: July 26th-29th). The region in which lake drainage events were monitored is enclosed by the grey box and the catchment of the river which drains through Leverett glacier and which was also monitored in 2009 is shown in red (Bartholomew et al., in press). b. Ice surface (Krabill, 2010) and bed elevation (Bamber et al., 2001) profiles along the transect (black line, main figure). The locations of the GPS sites are shown by black vertical marks.

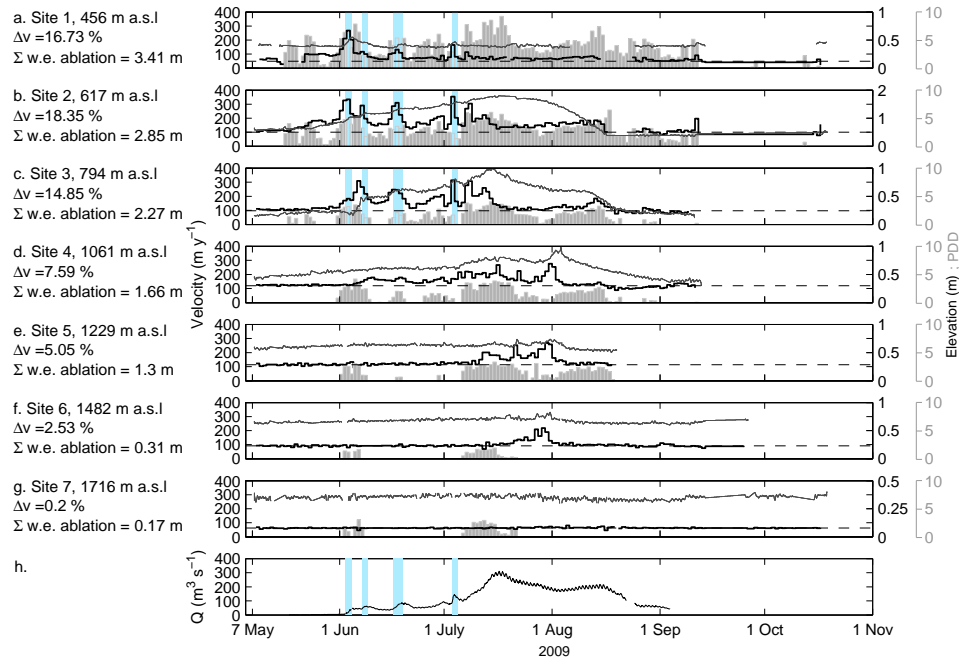


Figure 2: a-g. 24-h horizontal velocity (black stairs), surface height (grey line) and positive-degree days (grey bars) at sites 1-7 for the survey period. The surface height is shown relative to an arbitrary datum, with a linear, surface-parallel, slope removed. Winter background velocity (black dashes) is determined by bulk movement of each GPS site over the subsequent winter. Text to the left of each panel shows the elevation, percentage annual velocity change due to summer velocity variations compared with values if the ice moved at winter rates all year and the total surface ablation in water equivalence at each site for the whole survey period. h. Discharge hydrograph (black; m^3s^{-1}) from Leverett Glacier in 2009. The estimated catchment for this outflow channel (Bartholomew et al., in press) is shown on Figure 1 and contains GPS sites 1, 2 and 3. The blue shaded sections identify pulses of meltwater which are associated with dramatic reorganisation and expansion of the subglacial drainage system within the catchment.

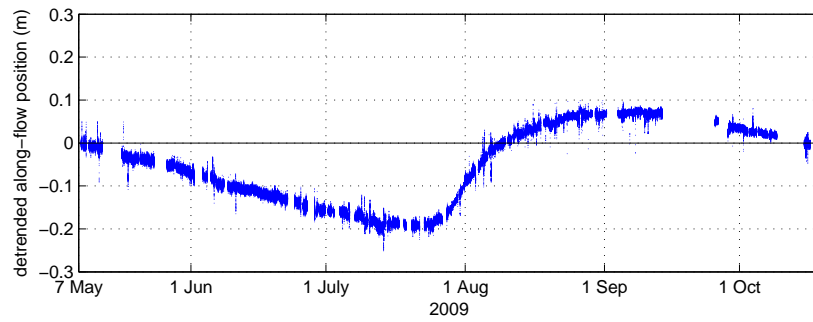


Figure 3: Detrended along-flow position for the GPS at site 7. The residual value indicates the observed distance in metres of the GPS from the expected position if it flowed at its mean rate for the whole survey period. Negative slopes therefore occur when the velocity is slower than the survey period average and *vice versa*.



Figure 4: a. Daily cycles in horizontal ice velocities at sites 2 (blue) and 3 (magenta) for ~ 3 weeks in late-July/early-August. 24-hour mean velocities are shown by black stairs and coloured lines indicate winter background velocities. b. Temperature record for sites 2 (blue) and 3 (magenta) for the same period.

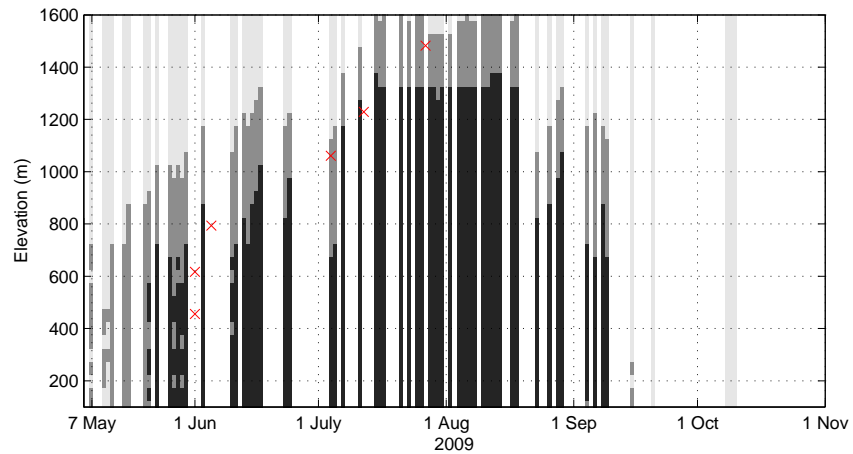


Figure 5: Ice sheet surface conditions inferred using the MODIS MYD10A1 1-day albedo product. Thresholds for bare ice (<0.45 ; black) and snow (>0.66 ; light grey) are used to delimit zones across the study region by elevation (y-axis) throughout the survey period (x-axis). A transitional zone (dark grey) is assumed to comprise a mixture of snow, slush, surface water and bare ice surfaces and broadly delimits the altitudinal extent of surface albedo changes caused by melting of the ice sheet surface (Knap and Oerlemans, 1996). The timing and elevation of the onset of hydrologically forced velocity variations, which occur at sites 1 - 6 successively, is denoted by red crosses.

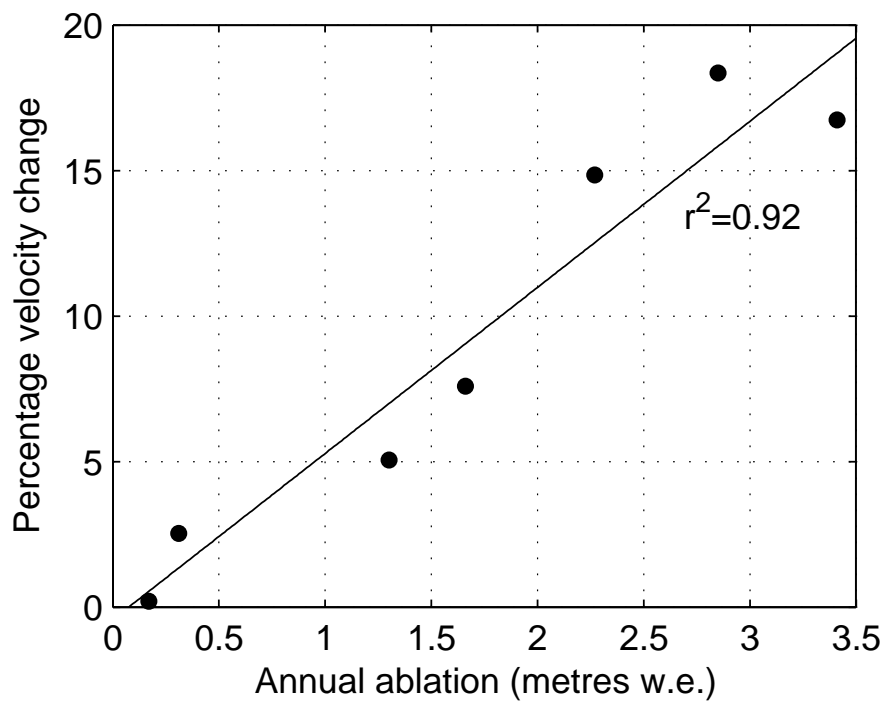


Figure 6: Percentage change in mean annual ice velocity vs. total surface ablation (m w.e.) at the GPS sites. The increase in annual ice velocity is calculated as the percentage by which the observed annual displacement exceeds that which would occur if the ice moved at winter rates all year round.