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Exact solutions for ice flow across the no-slip to free-slip transition

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Exact solutions for ice flow across the no-slip to free-slip transition

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ABSTRACT. The downhill flow of a viscous ice stream across a no-slip to free-slip transition remains elusive to exact solutions due to the existence of singularities. Here we replace the point-wise sharp transition by a functional dependency of parametrised horizontal length. Analytical solutions are found for the steady Navier-Stokes flow with Newtonian properties. Our solution remains smooth and well-behaved across the entire domain. The upper surface deflection is observed if sliding is sufficiently reduced upstream of the transition. Ice flow overturning is possible under sharp basal transitions, illustrating that ice-core dating can be biased by the transition zone effect. The pressure singularity arises in the limit where the basal transition becomes discontinuous. Previous singular solutions are a result of a physically unrealistic domain definition. A simple ice-sheet–shelf junction is constructed from the analytical solutions, and admissible grounding line positions are identified by exploring a range of ice flux values. These solutions satisfy both contact inequalities for multiple flux values, demonstrating that equilibrium positions are not discrete, but rather form a continuous set of solutions. As a result, the grounding line position is not univocally determined by the ice flux in the linearised problem.

24 **INTRODUCTION**

25 Ice discharge into the ocean is the main control of the Antarctic mass balance (Rignot and others, 2019). In
26 marine regions, the rate of this discharge is governed by the transition where ice streams become afloat, and
27 it represents more than 80% of the total outflow (Bamber and others, 2000; Pritchard and others, 2012).
28 These so-called grounding zones are pivotal for reliable predictions of sea-level rise, as they capture the
29 coupling between ice sheets and ice shelves. The complexity of grounding zones arises from the mechanical
30 transition of two coexisting types of flow, where both shear and longitudinal stresses are relevant. The
31 extent of these transition zones is not restricted to the exact flotation position, but rather covers a few
32 ice thicknesses as longitudinal stresses propagate into the grounded ice sheet (Chugunov and Wilchinsky,
33 1996).

34 The first *ad hoc* results were obtained by Weertman (1974) with the aim of identifying viable grounding
35 line equilibria. Chugunov and Wilchinsky (1996) and Wilchinsky and Chugunov (2001) then applied a
36 matched asymptotic analysis to couple the grounded and floating parts of an ice sheet assuming a steady
37 grounding line position. Fowler (2011) later arrived to a similar formulation, relaxing the stationary
38 condition via an explicit grounding line migration. Omitting this (small) transitory term, the pivotal
39 result is the existence of a relationship between ice flux and thickness at the grounding line (in agreement
40 with Chugunov and Wilchinsky, 1996; Wilchinsky and Chugunov, 2001). The fundamental question of
41 whether this problem has a unique solution remains open (Schoof and Hewitt, 2013). Numerical solutions
42 suggest that the solution may not be unique, but rather span a narrow range (Nowicki and Wingham, 2008).
43 The underlying reason concerns contact inequalities (absent in Chugunov and Wilchinsky, 1996) that must
44 be met on either side of the contact line. Already suggested by Hindmarsh (1993), numerical results also
45 support the hypothesis that ice discharge through the grounding line could be history dependent in the
46 absence of sliding (Nowicki and Wingham, 2008), yet further analytical work is needed.

47 The case of rapid sliding is simpler, since a depth-integrated membrane model can be used for both
48 floating and grounded regions (Schoof, 2007b). Asymptotic matching with a boundary layer near the
49 grounding line yields a flux boundary condition for both depth-integrated (Schoof, 2007b) and full-Stokes
50 (Schoof, 2011) models, under the assumption of continuous longitudinal stresses (across the grounding
51 line). Numerically, the work of Nowicki and Wingham (2008) was also extended to the rapid sliding case
52 by Durand and others (2009), showing good agreement with the asymptotic theory of Schoof (2007b).

53 Grounding lines present a situation where basal traction changes abruptly, yet this is also found in other
54 regions such as the transition between frozen/thawed basal conditions (Hutter and Olunloyo, 1980; Barcilon
55 and MacAyeal, 1993), glacier thrust faults (Kleman and Hättestrand, 1999; Moore and others, 2010), and
56 deformable subglacial sediment beds (Schoof, 2004, 2012). The problem of the thermal bed transition
57 of mountain glaciers was first investigated by Hutter and Olunloyo (1980) using a Wiener-Hopf method,
58 concluding that the normal stresses are singular and concentrated at the transition. A more sophisticated
59 version of the problem was then tackled by Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993), following the mathematical
60 treatment presented in Richardson (1970). Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993) additionally consider a free
61 surface that could ultimately reveal changes in basal conditions, motivated by the increasing satellite data.
62 The authors estimate a surface deflection of $\sim 20\%$ ice thickness over the transition, though singularities
63 in ice pressure exhibit an inconsistency with the necessary assumptions that justify a solution.

64 Abrupt changes in basal conditions are also present across the ice flow direction, particularly in the
65 ice-stream shear margins (e.g., Raymond, 1996; Jackson and Kamb, 1997). While the central part of
66 these fast flowing regions is dominated by longitudinal stresses, the behaviour in the side margins is
67 rather complex, involving lateral shearing and thermoviscous feedbacks that potentially form temperate
68 ice (Schoof, 2012; Meyer and Minchew, 2018). Idealised models for shear margins thus cope with an abrupt
69 transition from free-slip to no-slip at the ice-bed interface (Perol and Rice, 2015; Meyer and others, 2016),
70 where the development of temperate ice dictates its location, and it has been obtained both numerically
71 (Jacobson and Raymond, 1998; Suckale and others, 2014) and analytically (Schoof, 2004, 2012). Under
72 plastic bed conditions, Schoof (2004) showed that sliding zones across the ice flow are part of the solution
73 and thermomechanically controlled by heat dissipation. Therefore, the extent of the sliding region cannot
74 be arbitrarily prescribed, as simplistic assumptions produce stress singularities at the shear margins. The
75 temperature solution allows to determine the speed of the transition point based on the obstacle problem
76 constrains (Fowler, 2013), resembling the method used in studying grounding line dynamics (Nowicki and
77 Wingham, 2008).

78 A fundamental caveat of idealised models investigating the frozen/thawed transition is the absence of
79 sub-temperate sliding (Shreve, 1984; Fowler, 1986), first suggested by laboratory experiments illustrating
80 that regelation occurs a few degrees below melting point (Telford and Turner, 1963; Gilpin, 1980). The
81 assumption that a sliding law only applies when the basal temperature reaches the pressure melting point
82 is incorrect (Fowler and Larson, 1978, 1980), and it leads to either velocity (Huybrechts and Payne, 1996)

83 or stress (Hutter and Olunloyo, 1980) discontinuities (singular in the latter). Instead, gradual subglacial
84 water production should be considered through a continuous increase in sliding over a small temperature
85 range as the melting point is approached (i.e., ~ 1 K, Fowler, 2011), and values implemented in models
86 often range from -3.0 to -0.5°C (Pollard and DeConto, 2009, 2012; Pattyn, 2017). This captures the
87 mechanism by which the ice starts to slide when pressure variations across the bedrock are sufficient to
88 partially melt the ice, thus lubricating the base in patches (Robin, 1976; Hindmarsh and le Meur, 2001;
89 Pattyn and others, 2004). The so-called patched lubrication suggests that sub-temperate sliding may occur
90 in the transition between frozen (no-slip) to temperate beds (free-slip), supported by molecular adhesion
91 (Raraty and Tabor, 1958; Barnes and others, 1971) and the predicted existence of isolated frozen parcels
92 at the ice-bed interface of temperate glaciers (Robin, 1976).

93 The absence of sub-temperate sliding further leads to the paradox of a refreezing bed (Mantelli and
94 others, 2019). If sliding is discontinuous (i.e., a "hard switch" transition), rapid vertical advection of cold
95 ice associated with the horizontal speed-up inevitably refreezes the bed across the transition. A region
96 of sub-temperate sliding thus alleviates the problem of rapid down-draw of cold ice, and yields a smooth
97 transition between the two regimes. The stability of such a construction is investigated by Mantelli and
98 Schoof (2019), concluding that steady-state solutions are unstable, hence leaving open the question of how
99 the transition from a cold (non-sliding) to a temperate bed (sliding) operates.

100 Here, we analytically solve a long-standing problem in glaciology: the flow of a viscous ice stream
101 across a no-slip to free-slip transition. The problem formulation parametrises the horizontal extent of the
102 basal transition to study potential changes in flow behaviour. The velocity and pressure fields are smooth
103 and well-behaved throughout the transition, overcoming previous difficulties. Exact solutions demonstrate
104 that singularities in pressure are restricted to discontinuous bed transitions. The structure of the ice
105 flow exhibits an overturning circulation, indicating that the stratigraphic sequence of the ice cores can be
106 biased if collected downstream of the basal transition. A simple ice-sheet–shelf junction is constructed
107 from the analytical solutions, and admissible grounding line positions are identified by exploring a range
108 of ice flux values. Results show that the grounding line position is not univocally determined by the ice
109 flux in the linearised problem, demonstrating that equilibrium positions are not discrete, but rather form a
110 continuous set of solutions. This work sheds light on the physical behaviour of a complex mechanical region
111 that fundamentally controls the Antarctic mass balance, while providing a benchmark framework to test
112 ice-sheet models.

113 **PROBLEM DEFINITION**

114 We account for the simplest problem that embodies a change in the basal friction of an ice stream: the
 115 flow of a layer of viscous fluid overlying a boundary which changes from no-slip to stress-free (Fig. 1).
 116 The upper surface of the layer is assumed stress-free, and can adopt a shape consistent with the conditions
 117 at the base. The lower boundary parametrises the horizontal extent of the change from no-slip to free-
 118 slip conditions in the direction of the flow. This is the novelty of the formulation, aimed to circumvent
 119 the expected singularities in the flow over abrupt transitions (Batchelor, 1976; Richardson, 1970; Carrier,
 120 2014). Robust physical motivation supports this choice, since the assumptions for a discontinuous sliding
 121 law are incorrect, and sub-temperate sliding naturally reflects the gradual production of a liquid water
 122 layer in polythermal conditions (Fowler and Larson, 1980; Fowler, 2011).

123 To ensure analytical tractability, the problem considers the steady-state Navier-Stokes flow of an in-
 124 compressible, homogeneous and Newtonian fluid. The x -axis lies along the basal boundary and the z -axis
 125 is normal to the latter (Fig. 1). In this coordinate system, the steady Navier-Stokes equations read:

$$\begin{cases} \rho(uu_x + wu_z) &= -p_x + \mu\nabla^2 u + \rho g \sin\alpha \\ \rho(uw_x + ww_z) &= -p_z + \mu\nabla^2 w - \rho g \cos\alpha \\ u_x + w_z &= 0 \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

126 where $u(x, z)$ and $w(x, z)$ are the velocity components along the x and z axis, $p(x, z)$ is the pressure, ρ is
 127 the constant density, μ is the viscosity, g is the gravitational constant and α is the slope angle. Subscripts
 128 denote partial differentiation.

129 The left lateral boundary represents no-slip conditions via a parabolic profile (i.e., Poiseuille flow,
 130 Batchelor, 1976):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u &= 3az \left(1 - \frac{z}{2}\right) \\ w &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } x = 0, \quad (2)$$

131 and the right boundary depicts a laminar flow in the absence of vertical shear, corresponding to free-slip
 132 conditions (plug flow):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u &= a \\ w &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } x = L, \quad (3)$$

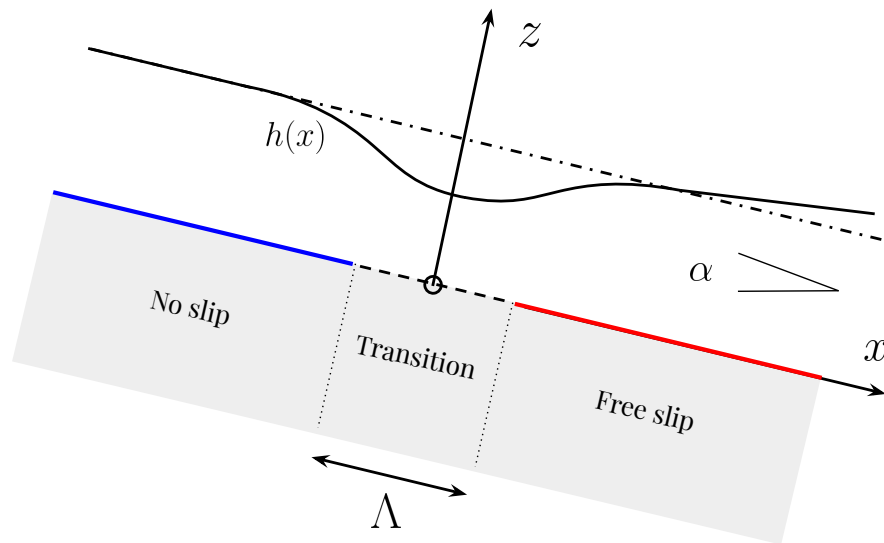


Fig. 1. Steady Navier-Stokes flow of a 2D viscous ice stream over an inclined plane. The basal transition from no-slip to free-slip leads to a regime shift from Poiseuille to plug flow. Note that the point-wise sharp transition is replaced by a smooth functional dependency of parametrised horizontal length Λ .

133 where the total flux $q = \int_0^h u dz$ is determined by the parameter a .

134 The basal boundary conditions are:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} u = f(x, \Lambda) \\ w = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{ at } z = 0 \quad (4)$$

135 where $f(x, \Lambda)$ is a functional dependency that characterizes the horizontal scale of the transition from no-
136 slip to free-slip in terms of the parameter Λ . The values of $f(x, \Lambda)$ at the lateral boundaries are consistent
137 with the Poiseuille and plug flow, respectively.

138 On the free surface $z = h(x)$, the stresses must be continuous. In other words, they must have values
139 identical to those of air (assumed to be at rest). Setting the atmospheric pressure to zero at the surface
140 interface for convenience, we find that:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} -h_x (-p + 2\mu u_x) + \mu (u_z + w_x) = 0 \\ -h_x \mu (u_z + w_x) + \mu (-p + 2\mu w_z) = 0 \end{array} \right\} \text{ at } z = h(x), \quad (5)$$

141 ensuring that the surface is not subject to tangential stress.

142 The formulation is completed by imposing that there is no mass transfer between the atmosphere and
143 the free surface of the ice:

$$w = uh_x \text{ for } z = h(x). \quad (6)$$

144 This kinematic boundary condition ensures that the displacement along the z-axis follows the free
145 surface curvature.

146 Small slope approximation

147 Despite these assumptions, the problem remains too complex for analytical treatment. If the slope α is
148 considered small, a linearized version of the problem can be obtained through a perturbation analysis in α
149 (a detailed derivation of the Taylor expansion can be found in Barcilon and MacAyeal, 1993).

150 The zeroth-order problem is trivial since it does not involve the flow: the ice surface is parallel to
151 the bed everywhere $h^{(0)}(x) = H$ and the pressure is hydrostatic $p^{(0)}(z) = \rho g(H - z)$. The flow arises
152 considering the first-order problem in α , where the Navier-Stokes equations (Eq. 1) can be written as:

$$\begin{cases} 0 &= -p_x^{(1)} + \mu \nabla^2 u^{(1)} + \rho g \\ 0 &= -p_z^{(1)} + \mu \nabla^2 w^{(1)} \\ 0 &= u_x^{(1)} + w_z^{(1)} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

153 with the corresponding boundary conditions:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} -h^{(1)} p_z^{(0)} - p^{(1)} 2\mu w_z^{(1)} &= 0 \\ u_z^{(1)} + w_x^{(1)} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } z = h^{(0)}(x) \quad (8)$$

154 The kinematic boundary Eq. 6 condition is simplified to:

$$w^{(1)} = 0 \text{ for } z = h^{(0)}(x). \quad (9)$$

155 Lastly, the bottom boundary condition translates to:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u^{(1)} &= f(x, \Lambda) \\ w^{(1)} &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } z = 0 \quad (10)$$

156 where $f(x, \Lambda)$ is a sigmoid function that characterizes the horizontal extent of the transition from no-slip
157 to free-slip:

$$f(x, \Lambda) = \frac{a}{1 + e^{-\frac{1}{\Lambda}(x-L/2)}}, \quad (11)$$

158 where the numerator a is imposed for consistency with the lateral boundary conditions.

159 The parameter Λ determines the horizontal length scale over which the sigmoid responds, yielding
160 sharper transitions as Λ decreases. The transition is thus equivalent to Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993) in
161 the limit $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$ (i.e., where the transition becomes discontinuous).

162 The lateral boundary conditions maintain the same structure as in the full problem (Eq. 2 and 3), but
163 explicitly referred to the first-order flow response $u^{(1)}$ and $w^{(1)}$.

164 ANALYTICAL SOLUTION

165 The physical problem (Fig. 1) translates mathematically into solving the biharmonic equation in a finite
166 2D domain with the corresponding boundary conditions (Fig. 2). Introducing the dimensionless variables:

$$\tilde{x} = \frac{x}{H}, \quad \tilde{z} = \frac{z}{H}, \quad \tilde{u} = \frac{\rho g H^2}{\mu} u^{(1)}, \quad \tilde{w} = \frac{\rho g H^2}{\mu} w^{(1)}, \quad \tilde{p} = \frac{p^{(1)}}{\rho g H}, \quad \tilde{h} = \frac{h^{(1)}}{H}, \quad (12)$$

167 where tildes are hereinafter dropped to lighten the notation.

168 The first-order problem takes the following succinct form:

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} 0 &= -p_x + \nabla^2 u + 1 \\ 0 &= -p_z + \nabla^2 w \\ 0 &= u_x + w_z \end{aligned} \right. \quad (13)$$

169 with the corresponding boundary conditions:

$$w = u_z = 0 \text{ at } z = 1, \quad (14)$$

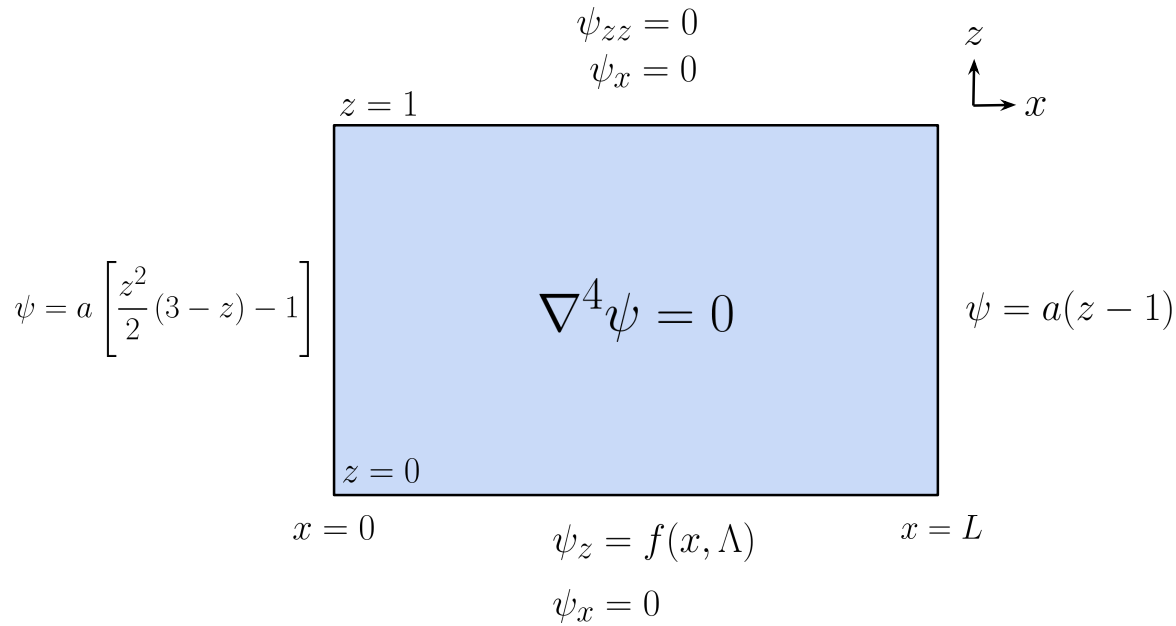


Fig. 2. Mathematical formulation of the problem. The imposed lateral boundary conditions correspond to Poiseuille flow ($x = 0$) and plug flow ($x = L$). The steady Navier-Stokes flow of a 2D viscous glacier is mathematically equivalent to solving the biharmonic equation $\nabla^4\psi = 0$. The basal boundary condition $f(x, \Lambda)$ captures a transition from no-slip to free-slip consistent with Poiseuille and plug flow, respectively.

170 and:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} u &= f(x, \Lambda) \\ w &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ at } z = 0. \quad (15)$$

171 The deflection of the upper surface can be computed from the dynamical boundary condition Eq. 8
172 once the problem is solved (Eq. 13):

$$h = p - 2w_z \text{ at } z = 0. \quad (16)$$

173 We shall introduce the stream function $\psi(x, z)$, where the velocity components are defined as:

$$\begin{cases} u &= \psi_z \\ w &= -\psi_x. \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

174 so that the problem reduces to solving the biharmonic equation $\nabla^4\psi = 0$ (Batchelor, 1976).

175 Separation of variables

176 The finite domain definition allows the problem to be solved by separation of variables (also known as the
 177 Fourier method), rather than dealing with a Wiener-Hopf equation as in previous studies (e.g., Richardson,
 178 1970; Hutter and Olunloyo, 1980; Barcilon and MacAyeal, 1993). This technique has previously been used
 179 in glaciology to obtain exact transitory solutions of ice temperatures (Moreno-Parada and others, 2024).
 180 The horizontal extent of the domain is chosen so that the lateral boundary conditions do not interfere with
 181 the solution near the basal transition.

182 The separation of variables requires both the problem and the boundary conditions to be linear, thus
 183 ensuring the superposition of all normal modes. The problem has inhomogeneous boundary conditions (as
 184 formulated in Fig. 2), and a change of variables is needed to obtain homogeneous boundary conditions
 185 and compute the eigenvalues. Given the polynomial form of the lateral boundary conditions in the x -axis
 186 (Fig. 2), a simple transformation:

$$\tilde{\psi}(x, z) = \psi(x, z) - \psi(0, z) \left(1 - \frac{x}{L}\right) - \psi(L, z) \left(\frac{x}{L}\right), \quad (18)$$

187 yields homogeneous boundary conditions along the x -axis, permitting the expansion in eigenfunctions in
 188 such direction (see Appendix for derivation details). In the vertical axis, orthogonality of the eigenfunction
 189 ensures that boundary conditions are met: basal transition and the free-stress upper surface.

190 The standard separation of variables approach looks for solutions of the form:

$$\tilde{\psi}(x, z) = X(x)Z(z), \quad (19)$$

191 where the functions $X(x)$ and $Z(z)$ are to be determined. Using the ansatz in Eq. 19, it follows:

$$\frac{X_{xxxx}}{X} + 2\frac{X_{xx}Z_{zz}}{XZ} + \frac{Z_{zzzz}}{Z} = 0, \quad (20)$$

192 Upon differentiation with respect to z , we can obtain a separable equation:

$$\frac{X_{xx}}{X} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{Z_{zzzz}Z - Z_{zzzz}Z_z}{Z_{zzz}Z - Z_{zz}Z_z} = +\lambda^2, \quad (21)$$

193 for some constant λ .

194 The solution $\tilde{\psi}(x, z) = X(x)Z(z)$ of the first-order Navier-Stokes problem must satisfy these equations.
 195 The problem has been reduced to solving two ODEs. For the z -axis, the fourth-order ODE reads:

$$Z_{zzzz} - 2\lambda^2 Z_{zz} + \lambda^4 Z = 0, \quad (22)$$

196 yielding a solution of the form $Z(z) = (A + Bz)e^{\lambda z} + (C + Dz)e^{-\lambda z}$.

197 Analogously, we find a second-order ODE along the x -axis:

$$X_{xx} - \lambda^2 X = 0, \quad (23)$$

198 where direct integration results in $X(x) = E \cos(\lambda x) + F \sin(\lambda x)$.

199 Given that the problem and the boundary conditions are linear, any linear combination of a sequence of
 200 solutions is also a solution. Under proper convergence assumptions, an infinite series will also be a solution.
 201 After imposing boundary conditions over the x -axis (i.e., $E = 0$), the general solution reads:

$$\tilde{\psi}(x, z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sin(\lambda_n x) \left[(A_n + B_n z) e^{\lambda_n z} + (C_n + D_n z) e^{-\lambda_n z} \right], \quad (24)$$

202 where $\lambda_n = n\pi/L$, and the coefficients A_n , B_n , C_n and D_n are determined from the boundary conditions
 203 imposed on the z -axis (see Appendix for derivation details).

204 The problem is now analytically solved: velocities and pressure can be obtained upon differentiation
 205 directly from the stream function (Eq. 24), while the surface deflection is readily computed by the boundary
 206 condition (Eq. 16). Different horizontal scales of the basal transition are considered, as parametrised by Λ .
 207 The results are first presented for $\Lambda = 0.1$, where Λ has the same units as x (Eq. 11). Since the coordinate
 208 system is normalised by the unperturbed ice thickness H , a value $\Lambda = 0.1$ implies that the transition from
 209 no-slip to free-slip has a natural length of $0.1 \cdot H$ (i.e., a 10% of the unperturbed thickness).

210 The velocity fields are smooth and consistent with the imposed boundary conditions (Fig. 3). For
 211 the horizontal component of the velocity, a parabolic profile at $x = 0$ and plug flow $x = L$ are found
 212 at the lateral boundaries. At the base ($z = 0$), the velocity remains strictly zero until the transition is
 213 approached, resulting in a gradual increase within the horizontal scale dictated by Λ , and centred in the
 214 midpoint $x = L/2$. The velocity magnitude remains constant along the x -axis. The vertical component of
 215 the velocity is symmetric with respect to the axis of the transition location ($x = L/2$), reaching a global

216 minimum in the lower half.

217 The structure of this subsidence entails a pressure drop at $x = L/2$, reaching negative values due to the
218 vertical velocity gradients along the z -axis (Fig. 3c). The vertical extent of the pressure drop is limited to
219 the lower $\sim 20\%$ of the ice thickness. Upstream of the transition, the pressure shows a slight increase that
220 leads to an upper surface elevation (Fig 4c). As the transition is approached, the vertical gradients in w
221 overcome the increase in pressure, and yield surface deflection. The free surface exhibits a minimum that
222 is found upstream of the symmetry axis of the basal transition. Downstream, the gradients w_z decrease,
223 the pressure shows a linear increase, and so does the free surface.

224 HORIZONTAL SCALE OF THE BASAL TRANSITION

225 The introduced parameter Λ simply controls the horizontal scale of the basal transition from no-slip to
226 free-slip via a smooth sigmoid function (Eq. 11). This permits to study the solution behaviour in terms of
227 Λ , while avoiding the singular behaviour expected for abrupt boundary conditions.

228 Sufficiently large values of Λ entail positive values of both pressure $p(x, z)$ and vorticity $\eta(x, z) = u_z - w_x$
229 (Fig. 5). As the transition becomes sharper, the basal pressure narrows and deepens around the transition
230 ($x = L/2$), reflecting a localised response in the flow (Fig. 5 and Fig. 4d). As a result, the free surface
231 elevation only shows deflection if the basal transition is sharp. These results align with previous numerical
232 work in similar setups, where surface deflection across the ice-sheet–ice-shelf transition is only found where
233 grounded ice is not allowed to slide (Nowicki and Wingham, 2008). Minor differences are only found
234 regarding the location of the surface local minimum: our analytical solution reaches the lowest value
235 upstream of the transition, as opposed to the downstream minimum in the numerical results of Nowicki
236 and Wingham (2008).

237 The vorticity also exhibits a regime shift as Λ decreases (Fig. 5a and 5b). Negative values are reached,
238 illustrating that an overturning in the ice flow is possible downstream of the transition. The vorticity
239 structure around the transition is mainly dictated by the vertical velocity therein, given the large horizontal
240 gradients in w compared to the vertical gradients in u (Fig. 3).

241 The discontinuous transition limit

242 As already noted by Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993), difficulties related to singularities in pressure arise if
243 the transition is discontinuous (i.e., the sliding regime initiates at a given piecewise location). In terms of

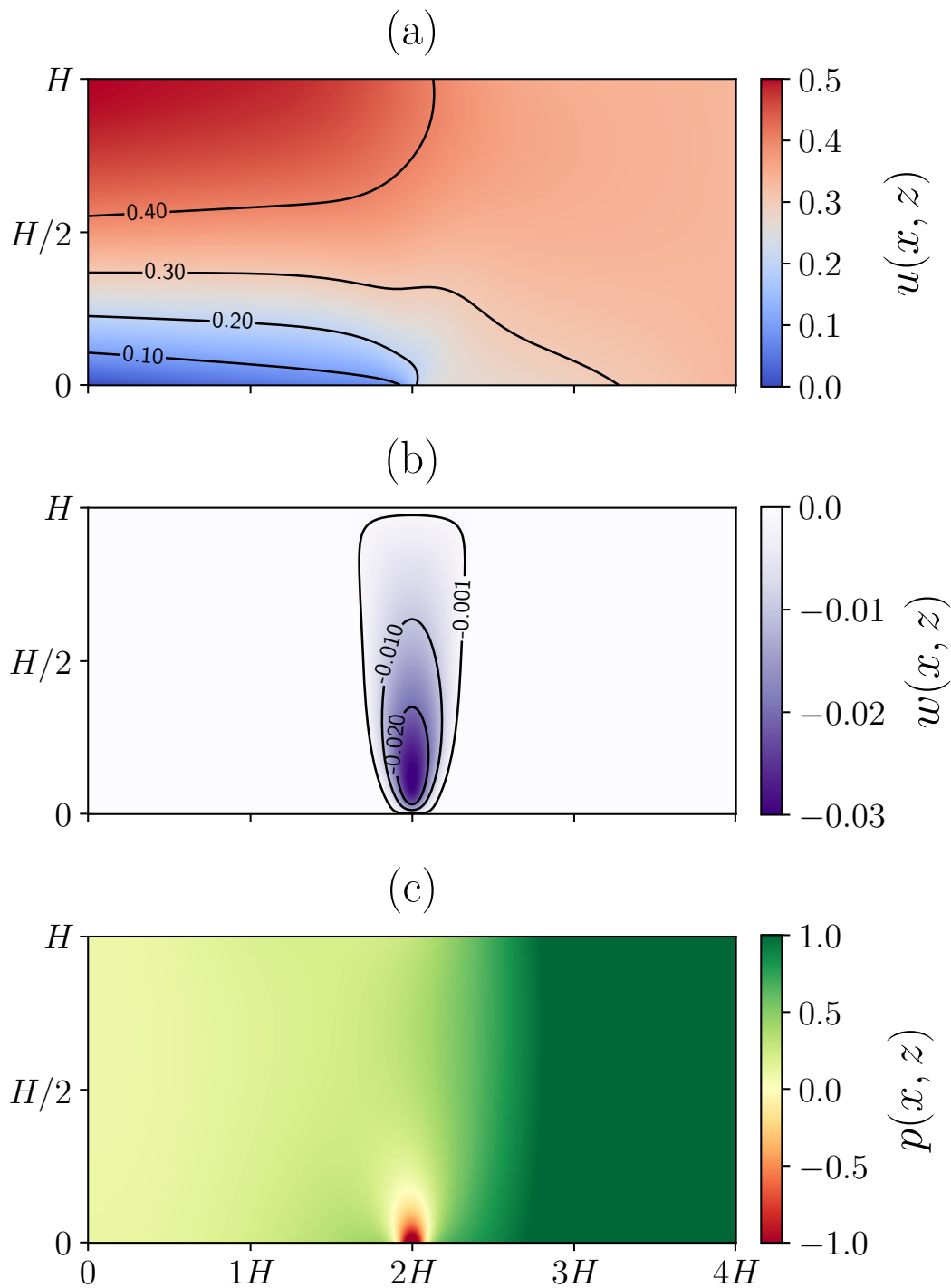


Fig. 3. Velocity and pressure solutions from Eq. 24: (a) Horizontal component $u(x, z)$, (b) Vertical component $w(x, z)$, and (c) Pressure field $p(x, z)$. Poiseuille and plug flow are imposed as lateral boundary conditions at $x = 0$ and $x = L$, respectively. In all panels, $\Lambda = 0.05$.

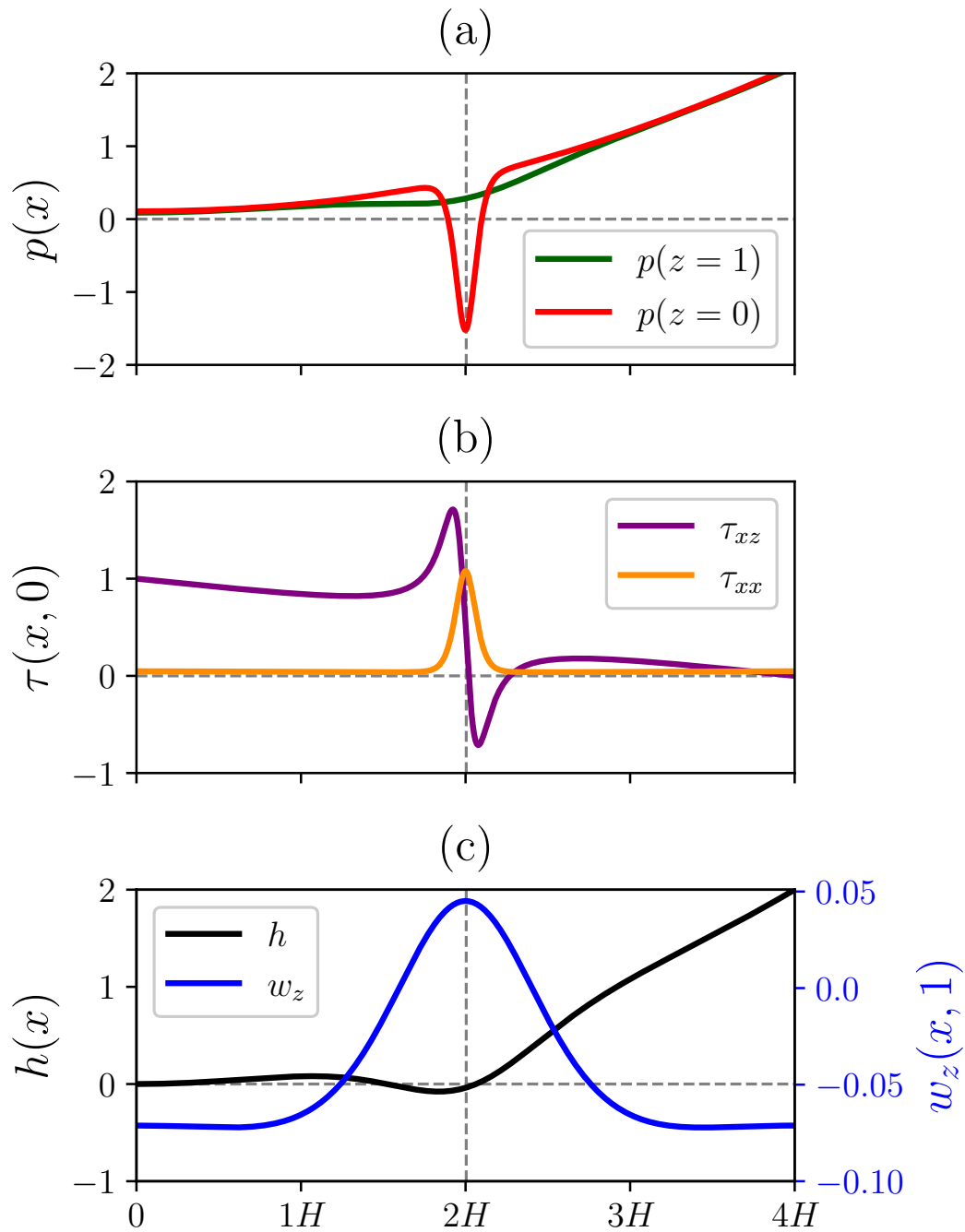


Fig. 4. (a) Pressure solutions. (b) Stresses. (c) Free surface elevation (black) and vertical velocity gradient (blue) along the z -axis. Note that the linear increase in the free surface is compensated by the downwards sloping bed (i.e., the zeroth-order surface incline), yielding the total height $h^{(0)} + \alpha h^{(1)}$ horizontal. $\Lambda = 0.05$ in all panels.

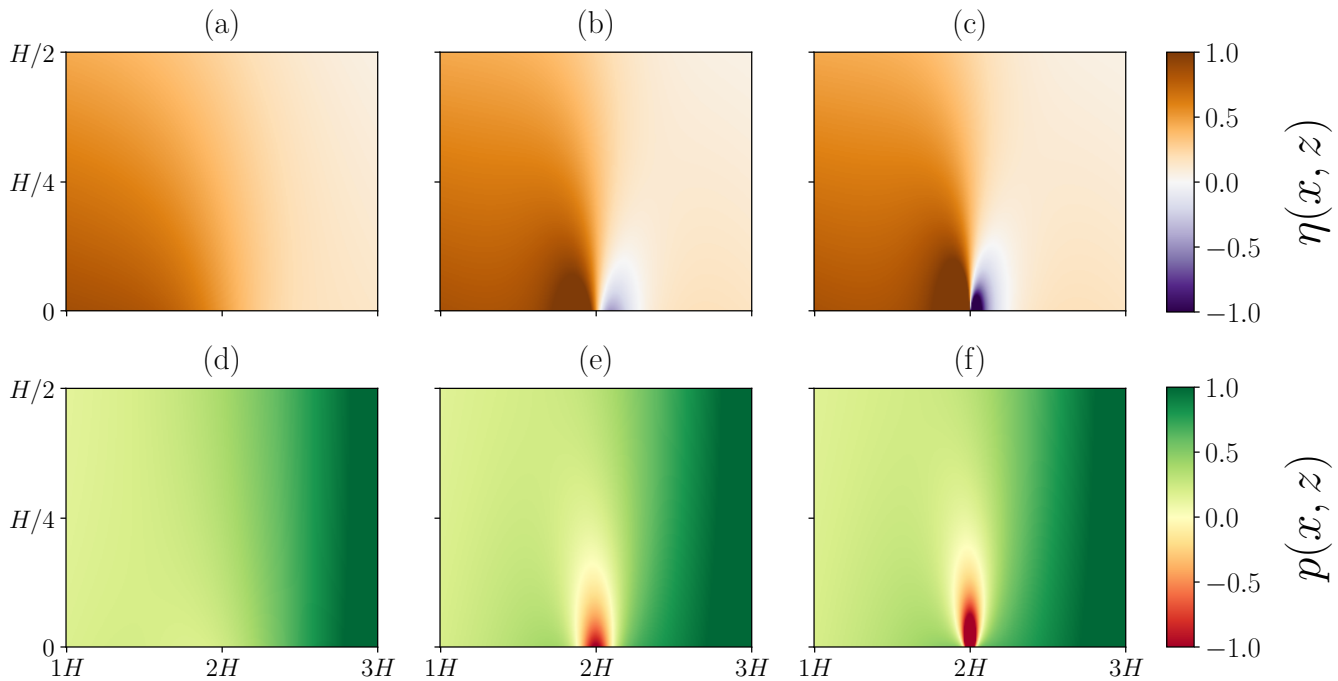


Fig. 5. Vorticity $\eta(x, z)$ (first row) and pressure field $p(x, z)$ (second row) for $\Lambda = 0.25$ (first column), $\Lambda = 0.05$ (second column), and $\Lambda = 0.01$ (third column). Note that that both spatial axes are zoomed in onto the basal transition.

our formulation, this scenario is equivalent to $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$, where the transition exhibits a step behaviour.

This section shows that the pressure singularity appears precisely in the limit $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$, demonstrating that it is purely the result of an idealised domain formulation (as singularities are typical of abrupt changes in boundary conditions, England and Sih, 1971). To prove it, we denote by ζ the harmonic conjugate of vorticity η , so that both functions satisfy the Cauchy-Riemann conditions $\eta_x = \zeta_z$ and $\eta_z = -\zeta_x$. This permits to express the momentum balance (Eq. 13) as:

$$\begin{cases} 0 &= -p_x - \zeta_x + 1 \\ 0 &= -p_z - \zeta_z \end{cases} \quad (25)$$

Direct integration allows to compute the pressure:

$$p(x, z) = x - \zeta(x, z) + C, \quad (26)$$

where C is a constant.

The problem now reduces to understanding the convergence behaviour of $\zeta(x, z)$. From our solution

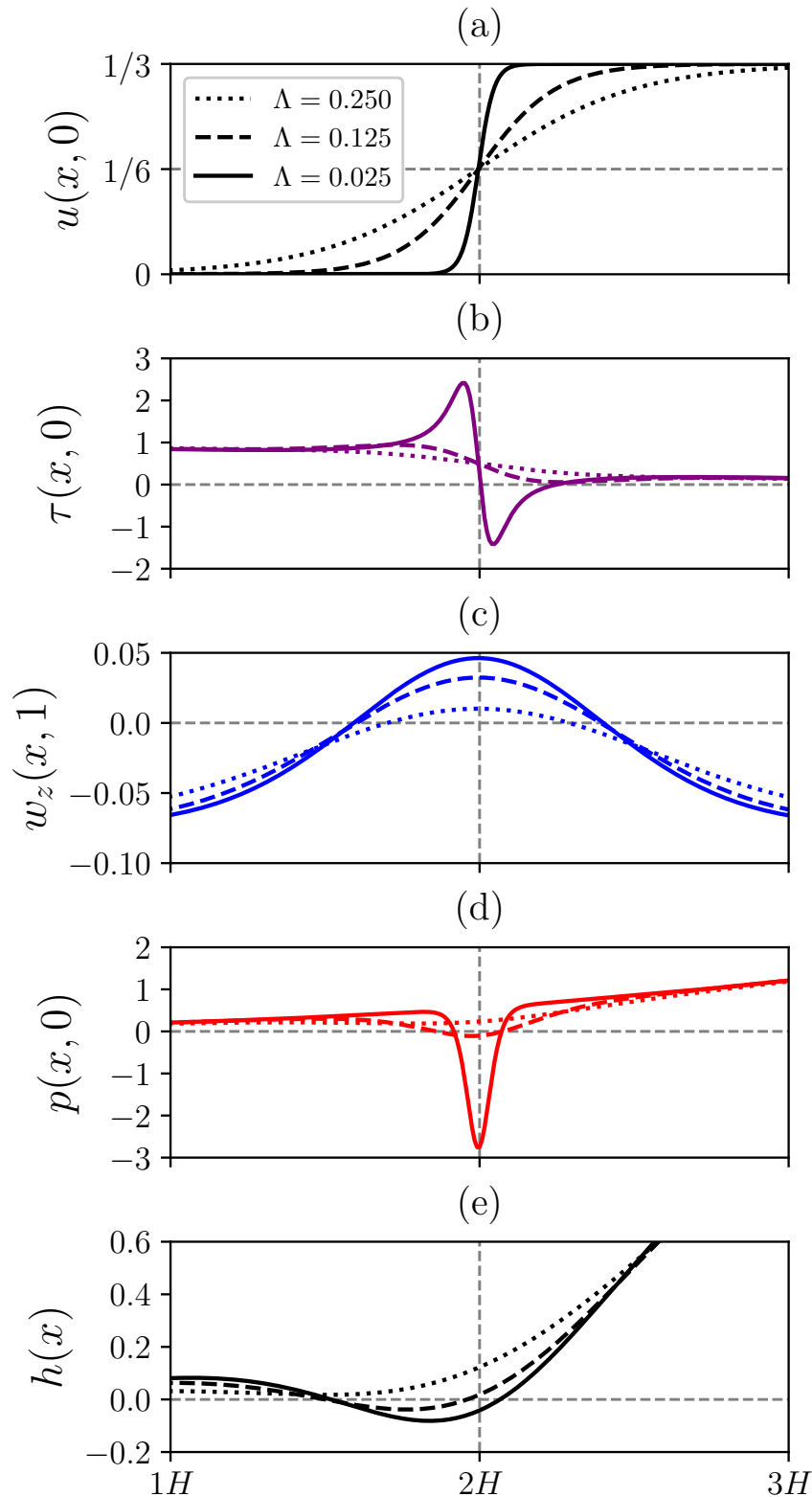


Fig. 6. Sensitivity to basal transition length scale Λ . (a) Basal boundary condition $u(x,0)$. (b) Vertical shear stress $\tau = u_z(x,0)$. (c) Surface vertical velocity gradient along the z -axis $w_z(x,1)$. (d) Basal pressure $p(x,0)$. (e) Free surface elevation $h(x)$ (first-order perturbation). Note that the x -axis spans $\pm 1H$ around the transition.

(Eq. 24), we can directly obtain the corresponding value centred at the transition ($x = L/2, z = 0$):

$$\zeta(L/2, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2\lambda_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) [-2\lambda_n A_n - 2C_n + D_n]. \quad (27)$$

Since the coefficients are obtained analytically, direct inspection shows an exponential decay in all coefficients, but D_n (see Appendix). The only non-vanishing term yields:

$$\zeta(L/2, 0) \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \lambda_n \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) F_n. \quad (28)$$

We first consider the smooth and continuous transition. For non-zero Λ , the sigmoid derivative is bounded by a positive constant, and there are no singularities in pressure given the symmetry of the expression for F_n (integrating by parts, see Appendix):

$$\zeta(L/2, 0) \lesssim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(n\pi)}{n} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) = 0. \quad (29)$$

On the contrary, in the discontinuous case ($\Lambda \rightarrow 0$), the sigmoid function is equivalent to a step function (i.e., a Heaviside function centred at $x = L/2$), and the analytical integration of F_n exhibits $\mathcal{O}(1/n)$ convergence that is compensated by λ_n :

$$\zeta(L/2, 0) \sim \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos^2\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right) = \infty, \quad (30)$$

which clearly diverges.

This result demonstrates that the pressure at the transition only diverges if the basal transition is discontinuous, in agreement with previous analytical (Barcilon and MacAyeal, 1993) and numerical work (Lestringant, 1994; Chugunov and Wilchinsky, 1996; Nowicki and Wingham, 2008).

A SIMPLE ICE-SHEET-SHELF JUNCTION

The transition considered here simply reflects a change in basal friction (Eq. 4). This regime shift is found in a wide variety of domains, such as frozen/thawed conditions and deformable sediment beds. One of the most significant scenarios is the grounding zone, where shearing ice flows towards a frictionless inviscid ocean water. Although such a problem exhibits certain differences compared to our original formulation

271 (Eq. 7), it deserves attention given the geometrical simplicity.

272 The grounding line position is a free boundary problem; either implicitly time-dependent, as in Schoof
 273 (2007a), or explicit Stefan-type, as in Robison and others (2010), which requires further conditions to
 274 determine its position x_{gl} . These conditions are known as contact inequalities, and require (1) the lower
 275 boundary of the ice shelf to detach from the bed, and (2) the normal stress to attain or exceed the pressure
 276 that sea water would exert at such location (i.e., otherwise water would intrude between the ice and the
 277 bed). Denoting by $l = l(x)$ the height of the bottom surface of the ice shelf, the contact inequalities can
 278 be expressed as (Nowicki and Wingham, 2008):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} &\geq -p_w \hat{\mathbf{n}}, & z = b(x), \quad x < x_{\text{gl}} \\ l(x) &> b(x), & z = l(x), \quad x > x_{\text{gl}} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (31)$$

279 where p_w is the water pressure, $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$ is the unit normal vector to the boundary and $\sigma_{ij} = -p\delta_{ij} + \tau_{ij}$ is the
 280 Cauchy stress tensor in the normal and deviatoric decomposition (index notation).

281 It is illustrative to study the geometry of the ice sheet–shelf junction by including the corresponding
 282 boundary condition at the bottom of the ice shelf (assumptions in the problem formulation are described
 283 in the Discussion section). Downstream of the grounding line, the lower free surface corresponds to the
 284 ice-water interface of the ice shelf, and is obtained assuming inviscid conditions between the two fluids.
 285 The dimensionless dynamic condition therein reads (Schoof, 2011):

$$\left. \begin{aligned} (p + \varrho l - 2u_x)l_x + u_z + w_x &= 0 \\ p + \varrho l + 2u_x + (u_z + w_x)l_x &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \text{at } z = 0, \quad x > x_{\text{gl}}, \quad (32)$$

286 where $\varrho = \rho_w/\rho$ is the water-ice density ratio.

287 Given that the full Stokes problem is already solved (Eq. 24), we can readily obtain the shelf geometry
 288 $l = l(x)$ and study its behaviour for different fluxes and basal transitions (Fig. 7). Since we do not solve for
 289 a free boundary problem, the position of the grounding line is imposed before solving the Stokes problem
 290 (as in Nowicki and Wingham, 2008). This approach allows us to diagnose whether the imposed grounding
 291 line position satisfies the contact inequalities.

292 For simplicity, the position of the grounding line is set first at $x_{\text{gl}} = L/2$ (Fig 7a). Upstream of x_{gl} , the
 293 upper surface is nearly parallel to the bed, as dictated by the zero-th order contribution $h^{(0)}$ (recall Fig
 294 4c). Within the first half ice-thickness downstream of x_{gl} (from $x = 2.0$ to $x = 2.5$), the surface deflection

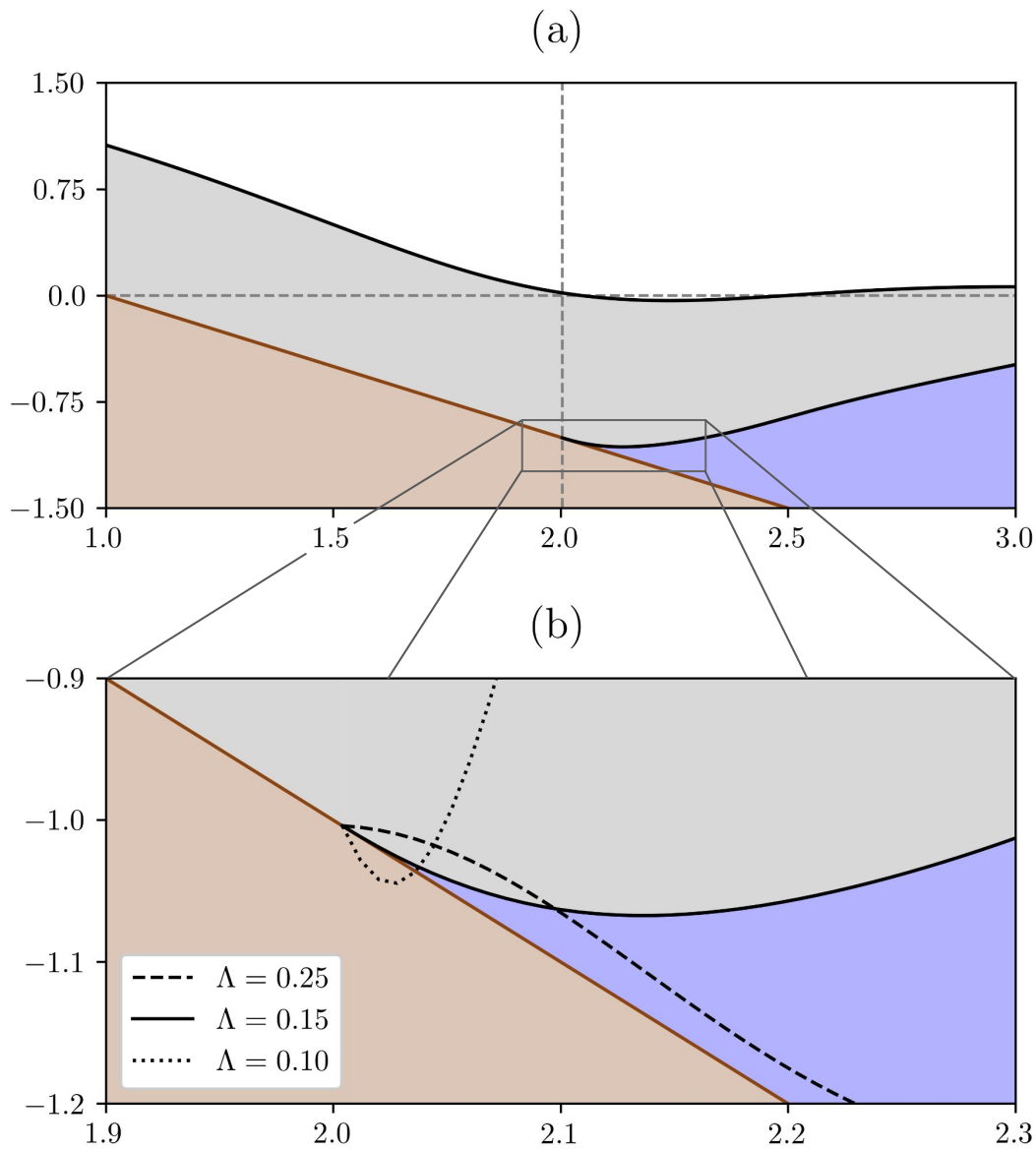


Fig. 7. Analytical free surfaces calculated from dynamic boundary conditions at the ice-air (upper surface) and ice-water (ice shelf bottom surface) interfaces, respectively. The grounded line position is imposed at $x_{gl} = L/2$. (a) Ice-sheet-shelf transition. (b) Zoomed in region comparing three different transition regimes in terms of Λ . Note that $\Lambda = 0.10$ illustrates a Stokes solution violating the first contact inequality (i.e., the ice does not detach from the bedrock). The bedrock height is referred to the dimensionless small-slope approximation $\rho g \sin \alpha = 1$.

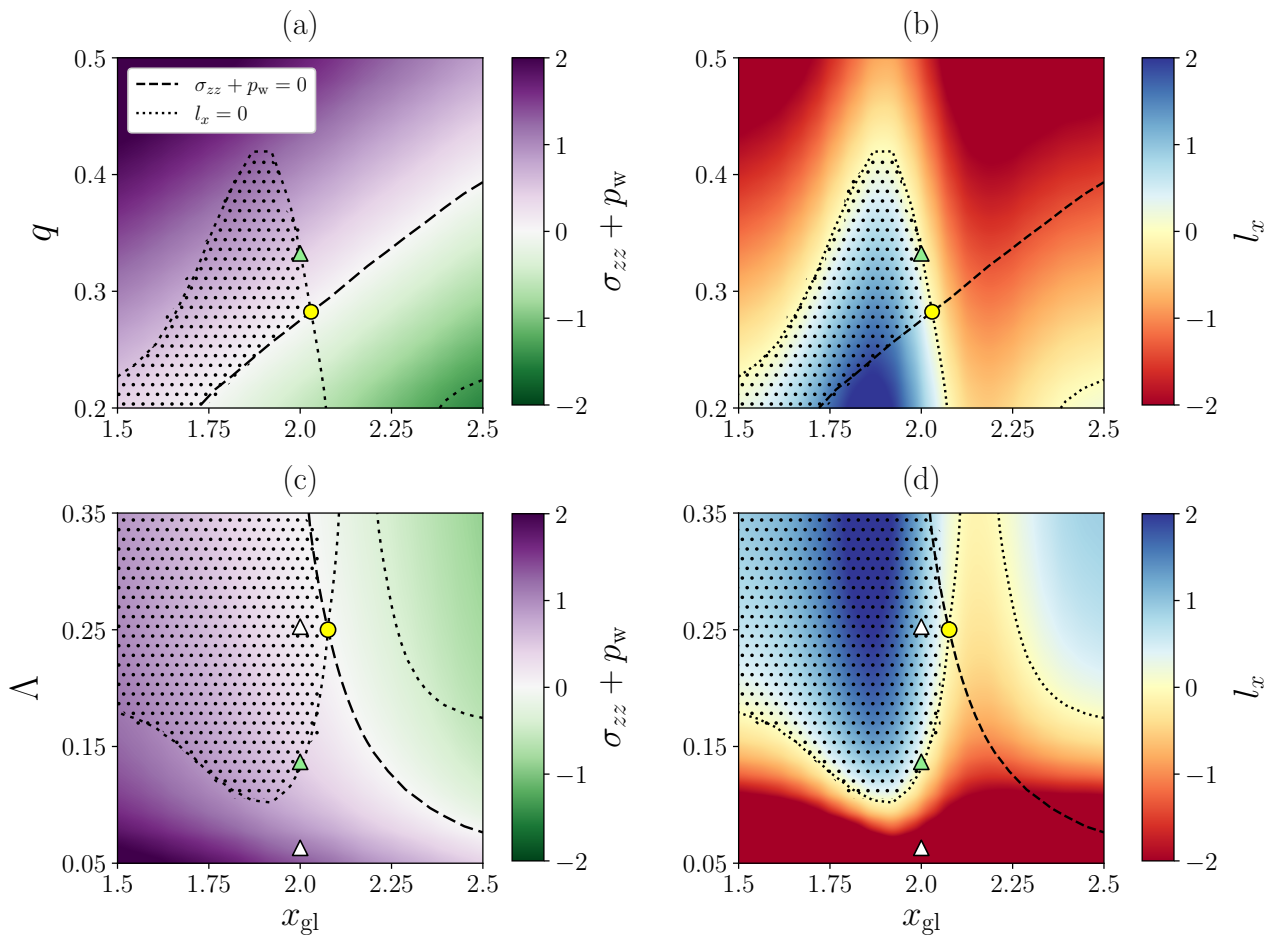


Fig. 8. Contact inequalities. Panels (a) and (c): total balance of ice normal stress σ_{zz} and water pressure p_w ($\Lambda = 0.25$). Panels (b) and (d): ice shelf lower boundary slope $l_x(x)$ ($q = 1/3$). The hatched dotted region represents pair values that satisfy both contact inequalities. The coloured triangles correspond to the solutions depicted in Fig. 7 (green, Fig. 7a; white, 7b). Yellow dots represent the limit solutions where the ice shelf detaches parallel to the bed ($l_x = 0$) and the ice normal stress equates the corresponding water pressure ($\sigma_{zz} + p_w = 0$).

reaches a minimum, beyond which the free surface becomes asymptotically flat. The lower boundary of the shelf detaches nearly parallel from the bed, and its shape sensitivity due to the basal transition is further shown in Fig 7b. Three different values are represented to illustrate the restriction of the second contact inequality (Eq. 31₂), only satisfied by the two highest values ($\Lambda = 0.15$ and 0.25), since the bottom of the ice shelf lies above the corresponding bedrock height. In contrast, $\Lambda = 0.10$ showcases a non-detaching shelf that is not permissible for the imposed grounding line position at $x_{gl} = L/2$, as the abrupt basal transition produces stress gradients capable of bending downwards the flow of ice (e.g., Ribe, 2001; Schoof, 2011).

A detaching ice shelf only meets one inequality for an admissible grounding line position, given that normal stresses must also attain the corresponding water pressure (Eq. 31). We next explore what values

of Λ and q simultaneously satisfy both contact inequalities for a fixed grounding line position (Fig. 8). From the pressure balance (Fig. 8a and 8c) and the bottom shelf geometry (Fig. 8b and 8d), it is possible to identify a region with admissible grounding line positions (black dotted hatch, Fig. 8). In other words, those flow solutions with an imposed grounding line satisfying both contact inequalities. Multiple values of Λ and q are admissible for a given location x_{gl} , implying that equilibrium positions are not discrete, but rather form a continuous set of solutions. An infinite number of pair values (Λ, q) within a certain range are compatible with a given grounding line position. As a result, the ice flux does not univocally determine the position of the grounding line under a small-slope approximation.

ASYMPTOTIC CONSISTENCY OF THE FIRST-ORDER PROBLEM

The linearized version of the problem was obtained by truncating a Taylor expansion in terms of the slope angle α . The pressure field then reads $p(x, z; \alpha) = p^{(0)} + \alpha p^{(1)} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2)$. This implies a uniform ordering assumption in the series, meaning that the zeroth-order pressure $p^{(0)}$ must remain larger than the first-order perturbation $p^{(1)}$. In other words, the expansion must be asymptotically consistent everywhere in the fluid. This can be expressed in terms of dimensionless variables as:

$$\max_{x,z} |\alpha p^{(1)}| \ll 1, \quad (33)$$

Violating this condition only means that the linearization fails locally, not that the solution is unphysical. Hence, the validity of the linear approximation can be determined in terms of α for different values of q and Λ (Fig. 9). As pressure singularities are prone to arise at the basal transition, Eq. 33 is evaluated at $x = L/2$. Since the solution is expressed as an Fourier infinite series, truncation is performed at order $n = 10^3$ (Eq. 24).

The results show that the linear problem in α (Eq. 7) yields asymptotically consistent solutions in the parameter range explored in this study for reasonable bed slopes $\alpha = 10^{-4} - 10^{-2}$ (Fig. 9). In particular, grounding line solutions that produce vanishing (first-order) pressures at $x = x_{\text{gl}}$ are asymptotically consistent for any slope angle. The physical reason is that the parameter values compatible with such a solution cancel the downwards increase in pressure with the subsidence due to the basal drag transition (Fig. 6d). These solutions also correspond to admissible grounding line positions, as they satisfy both contact inequalities (green triangle, Fig. 8).

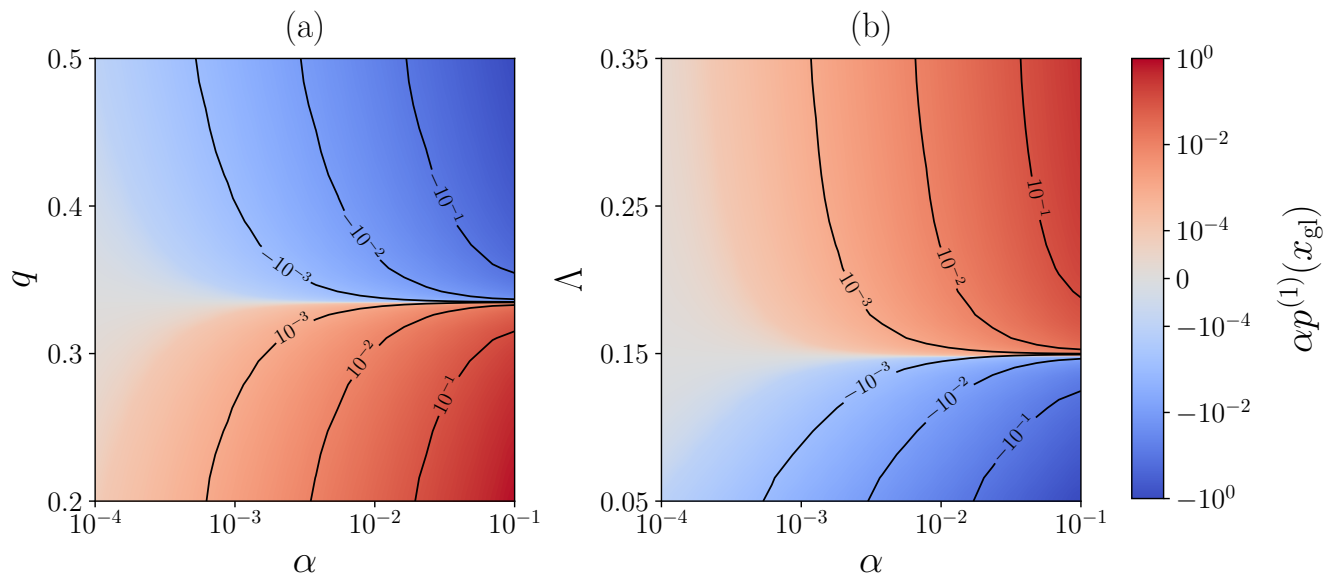


Fig. 9. Asymptotic consistency of the first-order pressure solution $p^{(1)}$ evaluated at the imposed grounding line position $x_{gl} = L/2$ for different bed slopes α . (a) Dependency on the total ice flux q . (b) Dependency on the horizontal scale of the basal transition Λ . Note that the colour bar employs a symmetric logarithmic normalization with a linear region around $\pm 10^{-4}$.

DISCUSSION

Previous analytical and numerical work has aimed to understand the ice flow behaviour across a sharp basal friction transition. Ultimately, this is an idealised representation of a grounding zone (i.e., the creeping flow of ice transitions to rapid streaming over a frictionless ice shelf) or a frozen/thawed bed transition (e.g., polythermal bed conditions along the flowline direction in a glacier). Our analytical results align in several major points with prior studies. Both the overall structure of the ice flow and the existence of a free surface deflection agree with Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993), who first showed that the velocity solution across a discontinuous transition is smooth (rather than exhibiting a jump centred at the transition, Hutter and Olunloyo, 1980). Additionally, our exact solutions confirm the existence of a free surface deflection previously found in modelling results (Lestringant, 1994; Chugunov and Wilchinsky, 1996; Nowicki and Wingham, 2008; Durand and others, 2009).

The main novelty in the present study lies on the continuous and parametrised change of basal friction, strongly motivated by sub-temperate sliding. The predicted existence of patches of frozen ice (~ 0.1 – 1.0 metres wide, Robin, 1976) in temperate glaciers agrees with previous observations by Kamb (1970). This supports the idea that ice will start to slide if pressure variations across the bedrock are sufficient to melt isolated parcels, captured by a temperature-dependent sliding law near the melting point (Fowler and

347 Larson, 1978; Shreve, 1984; Fowler, 2011). Already motivated by early laboratory experiments (Raraty
348 and Tabor, 1958; Barnes and others, 1971), this hypothesis suggests that molecular adhesion is present
349 when glaciers slide at relatively low velocities (Robin, 1976). The so-called patched lubrication implies that
350 sub-temperate sliding may occur in the transition between frozen (no-slip) to temperate beds (free-slip).
351 This mechanism thus complements the usual assumption that a thin layer of liquid water separates the
352 bedrock from the basal ice, fundamental in sliding theories of cavitation (Lliboutry, 1964, 1968).

353 Besides the robust agreement with previous work, the analytical results in this study provide deeper
354 insight on the ice flow about the transition. We have mathematically proven that pressure solutions are
355 finite and well-behaved, provided that the basal transition is continuous. This overcomes prior inconsisten-
356 cies found in Barcilon and MacAyeal (1993), where the pressure becomes negatively infinite immediately
357 downstream of the basal transition. Based on physical considerations, the authors pointed to additional
358 processes to compensate for the infinite pressure (e.g., ice rheology and thermodynamics). Our results have
359 shown that the singularity in pressure is purely a consequence of a discontinuous basal boundary condition.
360 An idealised point-wise transition is mathematically sound, yet it modifies the flow structure. Instead, a
361 continuous transition is sufficient to ensure a finite pressure field and the asymptotic consistency of the
362 solution.

363 The other fundamental change in the ice flow structure concerns overturning circulation. Previous
364 studies dismissed the possibility of such a behaviour on the basis of the ice vorticity properties (Barcilon
365 and MacAyeal, 1993). However, this conclusion relies on the assumption that pressure is singular near the
366 transition, which has been shown to be valid only on idealised discontinuous transitions. Analytical solu-
367 tions exhibit sign changes in vorticity across the transition, demonstrating that small eddies of recirculating
368 flow are possible. Unlike previously stated (Barcilon and MacAyeal, 1993), the stratigraphic sequence of
369 ice cores collected downstream can be overturned by the no-slip to free-slip transition in the bed (as first
370 shown by Weertman, 1976).

371 Previous studies aiming to understand the dynamics associated with shear- to extension-dominated
372 transitions rely on further simplifications. Viscous bending stresses are often neglected throughout the
373 entire domain (e.g., Robison and others, 2010; Pegler and Worster, 2013). Such an approximation is valid
374 for both pure shearing (Huppert, 1982) and extensional regimes (in the latter being the only component
375 of the stress tensor that can be formally neglected, Pietro and Cox, 1979; MacAyeal, 1989; Howell, 1996;
376 Pegler and Worster, 2012). Nonetheless, in the vicinity of the grounding line, the vertical shear changes

377 significantly along the flow direction, and therefore viscous bending stresses become relevant (Pegler and
378 Worster, 2013). Such stress gradients are known to produce swelling of a viscous flow exiting a pipe
379 (Richardson, 1970) or downwards bending of the ice flow (Ribe, 2001; Schoof, 2011). This is also the case
380 in our solutions under sufficiently sharp basal transitions, where the lower surface of the ice shelf does
381 not detach from the bedrock due to the strong horizontal pressure gradient. Laboratory experiments have
382 suggested that such an effect may cause the grounding line advance to persist for longer than estimated by
383 models that neglect viscous bending stresses (Pegler and Worster, 2013).

384 Analytical results demonstrate that multiple values of Λ and q are admissible for a fixed x_{gl} , implying
385 that equilibrium positions are not discrete. This was first hypothesized by (Hindmarsh, 1993, 1996), where
386 the ice flux does not univocally determine the position of the grounding line, and steady marine ice sheets
387 should be neutrally stable to changes in grounding line position. This study shows that an infinite number
388 of pair values (Λ, q) within a certain range are compatible with a given grounding line location, forming a
389 continuous set of equilibrium solutions. The stability of such solutions will be addressed in future work.

390 Upon construction of a simple ice-sheet–shelf junction, certain assumptions are necessary. Perhaps the
391 most notable concerns the extension of a constant driving stress towards floating ice (i.e., the description
392 of both ice sheet and ice shelf with Eq. 7). This overlooks two main points: (1) changes in driving force
393 as grounded ice becomes afloat and (2) misalignment between the slope x -axis and the horizontal axis. In
394 the absence of buttress, the ice shelf flow is driven by the reduced gravity $g' = g(1 - \rho)$ (depth-integrated
395 driving stress), differing from the slope stress with effective gravity $g' = g \sin\alpha$. The validity of (1) thus
396 depends on the particular angle, yielding identical stresses for $\alpha \approx 5^\circ$. That is, the (dimensionless) driving
397 stress along the flow direction of a floating shelf matches that of a downwards flow of ice sloping over $\alpha \approx 5^\circ$,
398 supporting the assumption under a small-slope approximation. Nevertheless, even if these magnitudes are
399 similar for the first-order problem in α , the axis misalignment would introduce a second-order contribution
400 $g(1 - \rho)\sin\alpha$ in the z -component of the momentum balance (Eq. 7).

401 For mathematical tractability, the ice flow was assumed to behave as a Newtonian fluid. However, ice
402 exhibits a nonlinear rheology and warrants caution interpretation. The analytical results show increasing
403 velocity gradients as the basal transition narrows, ultimately reaching a singularity for discontinuous sliding
404 conditions. Furthermore, deviatoric stresses are not the only nonlinearity: the thermo-viscous dissipation
405 is in fact integrably singular, revealing that ice temperatures can also modulate the solution (Nowicki and
406 Wingham, 2008). The exact flow behaviour across the transition for a realistic nonlinear ice rheology thus

407 remains unknown.

408 CONCLUSION

409 This work provides analytical solutions to a classical theoretical problem in glaciology: the no-slip to
410 free-slip glacier transition. Momentum conservation is imposed via Navier-Stokes flow with Newtonian
411 properties under steady-state conditions. Velocity and pressure fields are smooth and well-behaved around
412 the transition, thus overcoming difficulties found in previous studies.

413 Exact pressure solutions remain finite provided that the transition is continuous. On the contrary, if
414 the basal transition presents discontinuities, the pressure diverges and becomes negatively infinite at the
415 point-wise location of the transition. This result concludes that the asymptotic consistency of the solution
416 only breaks down in idealised geometries with a discontinuous basal transition.

417 The robust mathematical treatment provides further insight on the flow structure. The changes in
418 vorticity sign illustrate that overturning is possible, and thus the stratigraphic sequence of ice cores collected
419 downstream can be overturned by a sufficiently sharp transition at the bed. As a result, age determination
420 can be biased by the sliding–no-sliding zone effect, as first envisaged by Weertman (1976).

421 These results additionally shed light on the surface expression of acute gradients in basal conditions
422 along the flow direction, such as glacial lakes, deformable subglacial beds, and grounding zones. Analytical
423 solutions show that surface deflection is only present if bed friction conditions change over a horizontal
424 scale smaller than 20% of the ice thickness.

425 A simple ice-sheet–shelf junction is constructed from the analytical solutions, allowing for an assessment
426 of contact inequalities across the grounding line. A region with admissible grounding line positions is
427 identified by exploring a range of ice flux values. These solutions satisfy both contact inequalities for
428 multiple ice flux values, demonstrating that equilibrium positions are not discrete, but rather form a
429 continuous set of solutions. As a result, grounding line position is not univocally determined by the ice flux
430 under the small-slope approximation. The stability of such equilibrium solutions will be analysed in future
431 work.

432 Lastly, this analytical work provides a framework for testing the accuracy and performance of numerical
433 Stokes models in highly complex regions, where ice flow is dictated by two coexisting regimes: shear creeping
434 and longitudinal stresses.

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438 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

439 The code used to produce all results and figures is available as a persistent Zenodo repository (Moreno-
440 Parada, 2026): <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.20287174>.

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583 APPENDIX A: FOURIER COEFFICIENTS.

584 The solution of the problem after transformation via change of variables must satisfy all boundary condi-
585 tions. In the x -axis, the conditions are straightforward and lead to an expansion in terms of the eigenfunc-
586 tions $\sin(\lambda_n x)$, with the corresponding eigenvalues $\lambda_n = n\pi/L$.

587 There are four additional boundary conditions along the z -axis that will uniquely determine the four
588 unknown series coefficients A_n , B_n , C_n and D_n (Fig. 2). Plugging Eq. 24 in the solution, a linear system
589 of equations is obtained for each n , which can be simply written as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \lambda_n & -\lambda_n & 1 & 1 \\ e^{\lambda_n} & e^{-\lambda_n} & e^{\lambda_n} & e^{-\lambda_n} \\ \lambda_n e^{\lambda_n} & \lambda_n e^{-\lambda_n} & e^{\lambda_n} (2 + \lambda_n) & -e^{-\lambda_n} (2 - \lambda_n) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} A_n \\ B_n \\ C_n \\ D_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ F_n \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad (34)$$

590 where $F_n = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L \tilde{f}(x, \Lambda) \sin(\lambda_n x) dx$ and $\tilde{f} = f(x, \Lambda) - ax/L$.

591 The liner system can be directly solved by Gaussian elimination without numerical solvers. The coef-
592 ficients thus read:

$$A_n = F_n \left[\frac{1}{e^{-2\lambda_n} - 1} + \frac{1}{e^{-2\lambda_n}(1 - \lambda_n) + 1} \right], \quad (35)$$

$$B_n = -A_n, \quad (36)$$

$$C_n = F_n \left[1 - \frac{1}{e^{-2\lambda_n}(1 - \lambda_n) + 1} \right], \quad (37)$$

595

$$D_n = \frac{F_n}{e^{-2\lambda_n}(1 - \lambda_n) + 1}. \quad (38)$$

596

Integrating F_n by parts, one arrives to:

$$F_n = \frac{1}{\lambda_n L} \int_0^L f_x(x, \Lambda) \cos(\lambda_n x) dx. \quad (39)$$

597

where boundary terms are cancelled by the term $-ax/L$.

598

For non-zero Λ , the sigmoid derivative is positive and has a global maximum, so the integral for F_n can

599

be bounded:

$$F_n \leq \frac{C}{\lambda_n L} \int_0^L \cos(\lambda_n x) dx = \frac{CL}{(n\pi)^2} \sin(n\pi) = 0. \quad (40)$$

600

for some positive constant C .

601

On the contrary, the sigmoid function controlling the basal transition is equivalent to a step function

602

in the limit $\Lambda \rightarrow 0$, thus simplifying the integral for F_n as $f_x(x)$ becomes a Dirac delta function centred at

603

the transition $\delta(x - L/2)$:

$$F_n = \frac{a}{n\pi} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right). \quad (41)$$

604

This analytical expression permits to evaluate the convergence behaviour of the pressure field in the limit

605

of a discontinuous basal transition.