

1 **Is Recent Sea Ice Expansion in the Southern Ocean**
2 **Anthropogenic?**

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13 Though Arctic sea ice extent has been declining, sea ice in the Southern
14 Ocean has experienced modest expansion since the 1970s. This weak pos-
15 itive trend results from sea ice growth in the western Ross Sea (WRS) that
16 slightly exceeds shrinkage near the western Antarctic Peninsula and in the
17 southern Bellingshausen Sea. While the shrinkage near the western Antarc-
18 tic Peninsula and in the southern Bellingshausen Sea is consistent with rapid
19 warming in West Antarctica, the growth in the WRS appears contradictory
20 in light of the warming, albeit small, over nearby Northern Victoria Land.
21 Here we present results from an annually resolved ice core suggesting that
22 the WRS sea ice advance may be largely natural in origin. We examine vari-
23 ations of the δD content of the Talos Dome ice core shown to be well cor-
24 related with WRS ice cover (the coefficient is -0.53, $p < 0.008$). The δD con-
25 tent has varied irregularly about its long-term mean for the past eight cen-
26 turies, and does not exhibit any significant trend over the past 150 years, the
27 period of anthropogenic influence on global climate. The very red δD vari-
28 ability spectrum is a strong indication for an internal mode of decadal vari-

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29 ability in the WRS. In fact, this mode greatly complicates efforts to detect
30 or predict future climate change in the Southern Hemisphere high-latitudes.

1. Recent Sea Ice Evolution

31 Sea ice records are most reliable after 1979, so we first examine the post-1979 Southern
32 Ocean sea ice trends (Fig. 1). The sea ice advance in the WRS is particularly puzzling,
33 given the modest warming over nearby Northern Victoria Land [Cavalieri et al., 1997;
34 Cavalieri and Parkinson, 2008; Steig et al., 2009]. This counterintuitive sea ice advance
35 has been attributed, at least in part, to an observed positive trend [Liu et al., 2004]
36 in the Southern Annular Mode (SAM), the dominant pattern of Southern Hemisphere
37 extratropical variability. The SAM trend is likely forced by both an anthropogenic increase
38 in atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations and depletion of the stratospheric ozone in
39 the Southern Hemisphere high-latitudes [Arblaster and Meehl, 2006; Cai and Cowan,
40 2007]. Although it does induce positive sea ice anomalies in the WRS, these are of much
41 smaller magnitudes than observed [Liu et al., 2004].

42 Alternatively, the observed sea ice advance may be interpreted as internal climate vari-
43 ability. There are at least two possible mechanisms by which climate variations on decadal
44 or longer time scales can be generated in the WRS. First, they may arise from intrinsic
45 variations in thermohaline circulations involving deep water formation in the Ross Sea
46 [Saravanan and McWilliams, 1995; Santos and England, 2008]. Second, they may arise
47 from interaction between the Antarctic Circumpolar Current and oceanic mesoscale ed-
48 dies [Wolff et al., 1991; Hogg and Blundell, 2006]. Both mechanisms induce variations in
49 ocean circulation, which in turn produce sea ice anomalies.

50 Though the observed sea ice advance in the WRS could conceivably be internally-forced,
51 it is impossible to determine whether such an internal mode of variability exists in the

52 WRS with existing sea ice records. To illustrate this, we show in Fig. 2 (blue line)
53 the post-1979 sea ice record in the areas of the WRS with large positive sea ice trends,
54 corresponding to the black box in Fig. 1. Sea ice in the WRS has exhibited a positive
55 trend since 1986, and the largest trend occurs over the period 1986-1996. Conversely,
56 prior to 1986 sea ice was declining. This decline hints that the WRS sea ice variation in
57 the past 3-4 decades may be oscillatory and that the post-1979 trend could reflect the
58 dominance of the increasing phase of an internal variation.

59 Observed sea ice records in the Southern Ocean prior to 1979 do exist, as the earliest
60 satellite-measured sea ice records began in 1973 [Knight, 1984]. However, the early records
61 are not often used in recent sea ice analysis, due to the quality concerns. Since they may
62 contain critical information on past sea ice variations impossible to obtain otherwise, here
63 we examine them, but with caution. As shown in Fig. 2, sea ice records over the period
64 1973-1978 appear consistent with the records after 1979, as the transition from 1978 to
65 1979 appears rather smooth. With the early years included, the sea ice variations appear
66 more oscillatory, and the sea ice trend decreases almost by half, from 5.9% to 3.1% per
67 decade.

2. Ice Core–Sea Ice Relationship

68 Because sea ice records in the early years may be helpful in the interpretation of recent
69 sea ice trends, below we validate the early records by exploiting climate information
70 preserved in an antarctic ice core—drilled at Talos Dome [Stenni et al., 2002]. As marked
71 in Fig. 1, Talos Dome is located a few hundred km away from the WRS area with largest
72 positive sea ice trends. In Fig. 2, we also show the δD content, a well-known climate

73 proxy [Jouzel et al., 1997; Petit et al., 1999; Jouzel et al., 2003; Stenni et al., 2002], of the
74 Talos Dome ice core for the same time period. There is a good correspondence between
75 sea ice variations and δD variations during their periods of overlap. Almost all maximum
76 (minimum) negative values of the δD content are associated with a sea ice maximum
77 (minimum) in the WRS within a ± 1 year offset, which is also the reported dating error of
78 the Talos Dome ice core [Stenni et al., 2002]. Moreover, the positive sea ice trend during
79 the 1986-1996 period corresponds very well to the decreasing trend of the δD content,
80 and the negative sea ice trend during the 1973-1986 period corresponds very well to the
81 increasing trend of the δD content. The correspondence is consistently seen in both the
82 1973-1978 and 1979-1996 periods, a further indication of the likely reliability of sea ice
83 records in the early years.

84 Statistical analysis reveals a significant correlation between sea ice cover in the WRS
85 and the δD content of the Talos Dome ice core, with the coefficient, -0.53 ($p < 0.008$). This
86 relationship likely arises from a strong link between the climates of the two locations. For
87 example, as shown in Fig. 3, surface temperature in the WRS, based on ship and buoy
88 measurements, is well-correlated with station-observed surface temperature at Talos Dome
89 (the coefficient > 0.8 , $p < 0.01$). Thus there is a high degree of regional coherence in a basic
90 climate variable on interannual time scales and longer. This coherence probably arises
91 from the fact that larger (smaller) WRS sea ice extent induces lower (higher) temperature
92 over the WRS, and the cold (warm) near surface air is advected to Talos Dome [Trenberth,
93 1991; Simmonds and Keay, 2000]. This would lower (raise) the δD content of precipitation
94 at Talos Dome, explaining the observed relationship between WRS sea ice and Talos

95 Dome δD . Of course, other factors may influence the isotope ratio. Most important in
96 this region is the increased (decreased) distance from the moisture that results in a more
97 (less) negative isotopic ratio. Other factors include isotopic composition of the moisture
98 source and precipitation amount [Cole et al., 1999; Schmidt et al., 2007] which are also
99 affected by sea ice extent in the WRS, given the coherence of climate in the region.

100 As shown in Fig. 4a, the δD content of the Talos Dome ice core extends back to 1217.
101 In light of the ice core-sea ice relationship, we can use the δD content as a proxy for past
102 sea ice cover in the WRS. Here we are concerned with past sea ice variations on decadal
103 or longer time scales rather than those from year to year, as decadal-scale information
104 is better preserved in the δD content (Fig. 2). The δD content has varies irregularly
105 about its long-term mean for the past eight centuries, and does not exhibit any significant
106 trend over the past 150 years. These suggest that recent δD variations are most likely the
107 signature of natural variability rather than anthropogenic climate change. By extension
108 then, recent sea ice variations in the WRS are likely natural in origin. Such large, low-
109 frequency fluctuations in the δD content are a strong indication for an internal mode of
110 decadal variability in the WRS. A simple way to measure the time scale for such a mode
111 is to calculate the lag-one year autocorrelation [Manabe and Stouffer, 1996]. Lag-one year
112 autocorrelations of the δD content and satellite-measured sea ice records are 0.68 and
113 0.66, both suggesting a strong decadal mode in the region.

3. Decadal Variability in Climate Simulations

114 The climate system's large and persistent decadal variability in this region is generally
115 not seen in the output from current climate models. We demonstrate this by examining

116 13 control climate simulations with models used in the Fourth Assessment Report of the
117 Intergovernmental Panel of Climate Change. In the simulations, radiative forcing agents
118 are held constant so that all simulated climate variability is internally-generated. Lag-one
119 year autocorrelations of simulated sea ice variations in the WRS are shown in Fig. 4b.
120 Comparison with lag-one year autocorrelation of the δD content reveals that modes of
121 decadal variability in most simulations are weaker than observed. Only one simulation
122 (produced by CNRM CM3) exhibits a strong mode of variability. The inability of the
123 current generation of climate models to produce modes of decadal variability compara-
124 ble with those that are observed may have significant consequences for climate change
125 prediction in the Southern Hemisphere high-latitudes. As modeling studies suggest [Man-
126 abe and Stouffer, 1996], strong decadal modes of variability are probably associated with
127 variability in deep oceanic overturning circulations. Such regions ought to respond slowly
128 to anthropogenic forcing [Stouffer et al., 2006]. Therefore, by underestimating decadal
129 modes, the models may predict anthropogenic climate change at a faster pace.

4. Future Evolution of WRS Sea Ice

130 The signatures of both internal variability and anthropogenic forcing in recent WRS ice
131 variations suggest that in the near-future sea ice cover in the region is likely determined
132 by the evolution of both factors. Given past sea ice variations inferred by the δD content,
133 we can speculate about the evolution of internal variability. As shown in Fig. 2, the WRS
134 ice cover was very high over the period from 1995 to 2007. Judging from δD variations
135 (Fig. 4a), this period was one of roughly 7 periods in the 8 centuries with very high sea ice
136 cover. Thus, sea ice may retreat in the coming decade(s), due in large measure to natural

137 factors. Nevertheless, given the high likelihood of continued greenhouse gas accumulation
138 in the atmosphere, the SAM trend may persist into the future [Kushner et al., 2001],
139 reinforcing sea ice extension in the WRS. Meanwhile, other anthropogenic influences such
140 as the general warming and freshening of surface water may also modulate future sea ice in
141 the region [Stouffer et al., 2006], further complicating efforts to project sea ice evolution.
142 Disentangling these natural and anthropogenic influences is thus a crucial step toward a
143 reliable sea ice projection in the WRS.

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213 Fig. 1: Annual-mean sea ice trends (% per decade) over the period 1979-2007, based on HadISST
214 data set [Rayner et al., 2003]. Contour interval is 2% per decade. Core region of the trends (black
215 box), defined as longitude/latitude bands containing 6% per decade contours is used to construct
216 regional-means in the WRS throughout this paper. Talos Dome is marked as “TD”.

217 Fig. 2: Annual-mean sea ice records and annual-mean δD content of the Talos Dome ice core
218 during their periods of overlap. The sea ice records are based on HadISST data set [Rayner
219 et al., 2003].

220 Fig. 3: Geographic distribution of correlation coefficients of observed regional-mean surface
221 temperature in the WRS to observed surface temperature in the Southern Hemisphere mid to
222 high-latitudes during the 1958-2002 period [Chapman and Walsh, 2007]. The data were de-
223 trended prior to the calculations. For clarity, only contours larger than 0.5 are shown. These
224 coefficients are statistically significant at a 99% level or higher.

225 Fig. 4: (a) Annual-mean δD content with the 9-year unweighted running mean of the Talos Dome
226 ice core. 7 periods with very low δD content are numbered. (b) Lag-one year autocorrelation
227 of sea ice cover in the WRS in 13 control climate simulations. Models used to perform the
228 simulations are CGCM3.1(T63), UKMO HadCM3, MIROC3.2(medres), CCSM3, GFDL CM2.0,
229 CSIRO Mk3.5, CGCM3.1(T47), GFDL CM2.1, MRI CGCM2.3.2, PCM, GISS-ER, IPSL CM4
230 and CNRM CM3. They are ordered according to their values of lag-one year autocorrelation.
231 The lengths of the simulations vary from 330 to 500 years. All data sets were de-trended prior
232 to the calculations. Green line denotes lag-one year autocorrelation of the δD content.

sea ice trend
(1979-2007)







