

1 **The Large-scale Climate in Response to the Retreat of the West Antarctic**

2 **Ice Sheet**

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ABSTRACT

18 Based upon coupled climate simulations driven by present day and condi-
19 tions resembling the Marine Isotope Stage 31 (WICE-EXP), insofar the West
20 Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) configuration is concerned, we demonstrate that
21 changes in the WAIS orography lead to noticeable changes in the oceanic and
22 atmospheric circulations. Compared with the present day climate, the WICE-
23 EXP is characterized by warmer conditions in the Southern Hemisphere (SH)
24 by up to 5°C in the polar oceans and up to 2°C in the Northern Hemisphere
25 (NH). These changes feed back on the atmospheric circulation weakening
26 (strengthening) the extratropical westerlies in the SH (northern Atlantic). Cal-
27 culations of the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) show that modification of the
28 WAIS induces warmer conditions and a northward shift of the westerly flow,
29 in particular there is a clear weakening of the polar jet. These changes lead
30 to modification of the rate of deep water formation reducing the magnitude
31 of the North Atlantic Deep Water, but enhancing the Antarctic Bottom Water.
32 By evaluating the density flux we have found that the thermal density flux
33 has played a main role in the modification of the meridional overturning cir-
34 culation. Moreover, the climate anomalies between the WICE-EXP and the
35 present day simulations resemble a bipolar seesaw pattern. These results are
36 in good agreement with paleoreconstructions in the framework of the Ocean
37 Drilling and ANDRILL Programs.

38 **1. Introduction**

39 The large-scale Earth's topography has long been recognized to influence the climate system
40 (Justino and Peltier (2006), Hamon et al. (2012), Kageyama and Valdes (2000)). For instance, the
41 shape of the Antarctic ice sheet can potentially modify the stationary and transient atmospheric
42 waves, the wind stress and thus the oceanic circulation (e.g. Justino et al. (2014), Knorr and
43 Lohmann (2014)).

44 Past changes of continental and seaice from 65 to 1 Ma are primarily induced by changes in the
45 configuration of the astronomical forcing (e.g. Scherer et al. (2008)). Recently, the influence of
46 the atmospheric CO₂ concentration in leading the onset of the Antarctic glaciation has also been
47 explored (DeConto and Pollard (2003)). DeConto et al. (2007) argued that once ice sheets are
48 established, seasonal seaice distribution is highly sensitive to astronomical forcing and ice sheet
49 geometry due to modification of the regional temperature and low-level winds.

50 As demonstrated by Zachos et al. (2001), the orography of the Antarctic ice sheet has changed
51 substantially during the history of Earth. Lowering the Antarctic ice sheet height can result in
52 a thermal forcing associated with the ascending lapse-rate inducing local warming (Justino et al.
53 (2014)). Moreover, modification of the ice sheet mass balance leads to an anomalous pattern of
54 the radiative balance due to changes in surface albedo (Pollard and DeConto (2005), Pekar and
55 DeConto (2006), Pollard et al. (2005)). Of particular interest is the Marine Isotope Stage 31
56 (MIS31), that occurred $\sim 1,08$ - $1,07$ Ma (million years ago, see Figure 1) in the early Pleistocene.
57 This period is characterized by substantial deglaciation of the west Antarctica ice sheet (WAIS,
58 Naish et al. (2009)). DeConto et al. (2012) using a 3-D ice sheet-shelf and global climate model
59 to reconstruct the SST and seaice, have demonstrated a nearly complete collapse and subsequent
60 recovery of marine ice in West Antarctica in the early Pleistocene.

61 These modelling results have been confirmed by The Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) sites 1090
62 and 1165 showing that the MIS31 interval was considerably warmer than present. Additional
63 support has been given by the marine glacial record of the AND-1B sediment core, recovered from
64 the Ross ice shelf by the ANDRILL programme. Naish et al. (2009) have in particular documented
65 astronomically-induced oscillations in the WAIS which collapsed at periodical intervals.

66 Previous investigations of the climate response to Antarctic ice sheet (AIS) variation have
67 demonstrated that removal of the WAIS may increase the surface temperature by up to 4.9°C
68 at DOME F and by up to 5.0°C at Dome C (Holden et al. (2010)). Goldner et al. (2013) evaluating
69 the impact of adding an AIS to a "greenhouse world" mimicking the Eocene, and subtracting the
70 AIS from the modern Antarctica, argued that the climatic feedbacks induced by the AIS did not
71 lead to decreasing global mean surface temperature during the Eocene-Oligocene transition.

72 However, the authors demonstrated that the climate response due to the AIS changes is strongly
73 modulated by the atmospheric CO₂ concentration. The climate response to modifications of the
74 Antarctic topography has also been studied by Knorr and Lohmann (2014). In evaluating the
75 role of an AIS expansion in the middle Miocene, it has been found that the ice sheet growth was
76 accompanied by a warming in the surface waters of the SH Polar Ocean, which has been driven by
77 atmosphere-ocean feedbacks on the initial wind field. Despite these efforts, the impact of distinct
78 ice sheet configuration, such as during the MIS31 interval, on the wind driven and the thermohaline
79 circulation (THC) has not been addressed in details.

80 To investigate the anomalous pattern of the austral seaice and SST DeConto et al. (2007) have
81 applied the GENESIS climate model coupled to surface model components including a nondy-
82 namical 50-meter slab ocean. Although this modeling design has improved our understanding of
83 coupled mechanisms of past climate change, it assumes a fixed deep-to-surface ocean heat flux.
84 Thus, crucial ocean-atmosphere feedbacks that are important for the reorganization of the large-

85 scale climate are ignored. This limitation, however, can be overcome in coupled modelling
86 studies using full ocean models. This also allows evaluation of changes in the THC, oceanic and
87 atmospheric heat fluxes, and it provides a unique opportunity to study the influence of the WAIS
88 in a global perspective. Moreover, the results can have relevance to both past interglacials when
89 the WAIS retreated and potentially to future WAIS configurations.

90 **2. Coupled climate simulations**

91 In order to investigate the global climate response to retreat of WAIS resembling the WAIS con-
92 ditions during the MIS31 interval (e.g. seaice, surface temperatures, the THC and oceanic and
93 atmospheric heat fluxes), two model simulations have been performed with the Speedy-Ocean
94 (SPEEDO) coupled model (Severijns and Hazeleger (2010)). A modern simulation driven by
95 present day boundary conditions (MOD) and a second experiment that includes the ice sheet
96 topography characteristic of the MIS31 interval (WICE-EXP). The MOD experiment has been
97 described in detail in a previous publication (Justino et al. (2014)). The simulations (MOD and
98 WICE-EXP) were run to equilibrium for 1000 years and the analyses discussed herein are based
99 upon the last 50 years of each simulation.

100 The reason for performing a long numerical simulation is because of the need to reach a quasi-
101 steady state. As stated in Danabasoglu et al. (1996) and according to their approach, the solution
102 of the present study is defined by a quasi-steady state when the simulated seasonal and annual
103 cycles become cyclic. This means that the analysed variables show little variation between cycles.
104 The spin-up time for a given integration remains a topic of debate in the scientific community.
105 Supposing that the interest is on oceanic equatorial surface fields, this spin-up time can be achieved
106 with a few years of integration. However for mid-latitudes and deep waters, this time can be much
107 longer, reaching decadal to centennial time scales.

108 The atmospheric component of the SPEEDO coupled model, called Simplified Parametrization,
109 primitive-Equation Dynamics (SPEEDY), is a hydrostatic spectral model with 8 vertical layers
110 (925, 850, 700, 500, 300, 200, 100 and 30 hPa) and horizontal truncation T30, which corresponds
111 to a horizontal resolution of 3.75° . It uses the divergence-vorticity equation. The oceanic com-
112 ponent of the SPEEDO is the Coupled Large-Scale Ice-Ocean model (CLIO, Goosse and Fichefet
113 (1999)). This model is based on the primitive equations (Navier Stokes equations) and uses free
114 surface with a thermodynamic/dynamic parameterization of the seaice component. CLIO also
115 employs a parameterization for vertical diffusivity, which is a simplification of the Mellor and
116 Yamada turbulence scheme (Mellor and Yamada (1982)).

117 The ability of the SPEEDO model to reproduce basic features of the mean modern climate has
118 been extensively analysed in Severijns and Hazeleger (2010). For example, the model is able
119 to reproduce the large-scale mean flow in the Atlantic region and captures the South Atlantic
120 Convergence Zone. The North Atlantic climatological atmospheric features, such as the mean
121 and eddy geopotential height and the NAO variability of the atmospheric component of SPEEDO
122 (SPEEDY), have been shown to compare well with present day observations (Kucharski et al.
123 (2006)). The atmospheric climatology of SPEEDY is also systematically verified with respect to
124 observations in http://users.ictp.it/~kucharsk/speedy8_clim_v41.html.

125 In order to further evaluate the reliability of SPEEDO to simulate the present day seasonal model
126 variability, is shown in Figure 2 the first harmonic of precipitation, near air surface temperature
127 and zonal winds, as well as in the NCEP/NCAR Reanalysis 1 (NNR1) and the Global Precipita-
128 tion Climatology Project (GPCP). The first order harmonic of meteorological parameters shows
129 long-term effects, while higher order harmonics show the effects of short-term fluctuations. The
130 harmonic analysis is a useful tool to characterize different climate regimes and transition regions.

131 Moreover, it provides the possibility to identify dominant climate features in the space-time do-
132 main.

133 Figures 2a,d show higher seasonality over North America and northeastern Asia with values up
134 to 30°C, a feature that is properly reproduced by the MOD simulation. Over the SH extratropics,
135 both datasets agree on an enhanced seasonal cycle over South America, Africa and Australia,
136 although over oceanic regions the SPEEDO simulation displays weaker seasonality as compared
137 with the NNR1.

138 Turning to precipitation (Fig. 2b,e), SPEEDO simulates a narrower band of precipitation in the
139 tropical Atlantic region, thus, smaller amplitude of the seasonal cycle as compared with GPCP. It
140 should be noted, however, that the MOD simulation reasonably reproduces the annual cycle of pre-
141 cipitation over the tropical forests of South America, Africa and Indonesia, as well as the precip-
142 itation pattern associated with monsoon systems (e.g the Indian and South America monsoons).
143 Evaluation of the zonal wind seasonal cycle demonstrates that the MOD simulation exhibits higher
144 amplitude of the northeastern trade winds and the SH extratropical westerly flow compared to the
145 NNR1. This deficiency around Antarctica may very likely be due to an overestimation of the
146 winter seaice area which can enhance the seasonal meridional thermal contrast. Elsewhere, the
147 SPEEDO model can properly reproduce the seasonal fluctuation of the zonal atmospheric flow
148 evident in the NNR1.

149 Figure 3a shows that in the zonal mean near surface temperature, SPEEDO compares well with
150 the observed patterns. The largest difference between the model and the observations is located
151 to the south of 75°S, where the steep topography of Antarctica plays a substantial role. This is
152 a recurrent limitation in low resolution models as demonstrated by Justino et al. (2010). Sev-
153 eral known problems have also been identified in the NNR1 in Antarctica as demonstrated by
154 Chapman and Walsh (2007).

155 Analyses of precipitation (Fig. 3b) demonstrate that the MOD simulation is able to reproduce
156 the most significant characteristics evident in the NNR1 data. The observed and simulated values
157 over the equatorial regions associated with the Inter-Tropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ) exceed
158 6mm/day. The SPEEDO model can also reproduce the NH precipitation pattern in the storm
159 track regions over the 40°-60°N latitudinal belt. Differences, however, between the simulated and
160 NNR1 rainfall are found around 40°-60° in the Southern Hemisphere.

161 *a. The WICE-EXP Simulation design*

162 The ice sheet reconstruction characteristic of the MIS31 interval has been achieved by applying
163 a combined ice sheet/ice shelf model, coupled to a high-resolution new treatment of grounding-
164 line dynamics and ice-shelf buttressing to simulate Antarctic ice sheet variations over the past five
165 million years (Fig. 1b, Pollard and DeConto (2009)). Figure 1c shows topography anomalies
166 between these two simulations (WICE-EXP and MOD), that are by up to 2000m located in the
167 current WAIS region. Elsewhere changes are smaller than 800m.

168 It is important to note that the inclusion of the MIS31 ice sheet topography
169 (Fig. 1, Pollard and DeConto (2009)) leads to highly significant changes in the shape of the
170 Antarctica ice sheet, with large ice free areas in west Antarctica. To include the effect of diabatic
171 heating on the surface radiative balance the surface albedo is modified. In the MOD simulation
172 the Antarctic ice sheet albedo is $\sim 70\%$, an intermediate value between the bare ice (54%) and
173 snowfall (85%). In the WICE-EXP the albedo over ice free regions is computed by the oceanic
174 model component. It should be noted that present time estimates of albedo based on observations
175 in Antarctica are restricted to a few locations. Nevertheless, model estimates have proposed an ice
176 sheet albedo varying from 70 to 85% (Munneke et al. (2011)).

177 Both simulations are run under atmospheric CO₂ concentration of 380 ppm and present day
178 astronomical configuration. This allows for an isolated evaluation of the climatic effect associ-
179 ated with the WAIS collapse. It is important to notice that the MIS31 event experiment does not
180 cover all aspects of this period. However, the sensitivity experiment can be applied to any "super-
181 interglacial" of the early Pleistocene, or any of the periods in the Pliocene with a collapsed WAIS,
182 when it comes to an investigation of changes in topography and albedo of the AIS.

183 *b. Atmospheric circulation*

184 The annual mean near surface air temperature (T_{2m}) under present day conditions (Fig. 4a) ex-
185 hibits the characteristic pattern with milder (warmer) temperatures over the extratropics (tropics),
186 and lower temperature in the polar regions over Antarctica due to high continental elevation and
187 the seaice effect. Turning to changes between the two simulations (MOD and WICE-EXP, Fig.
188 4b), it is evident that warming has occurred under WICE-EXP as compared with modern condi-
189 tions. Furthermore, the SH warming also extends significantly northward over the tropical region
190 and mid-latitudes, in particular over the western hemisphere. It should be noted that most changes
191 in T_{2m} are statistically significant at 95% level based on the t-test. Temperature differences over
192 the western Antarctica, where changes in topography are largest, can reach values as high as 7°C
193 (Fig. 4b). Over the eastern part of Antarctica lower temperatures are noted in the WICE-EXP
194 by up to -5°C, compared to the MOD run. The simulated WICE-EXP warming/cooling over the
195 ice cap is due to the combined direct and indirect influences of lapse-rate effect which follows
196 changes in topography, in particular the collapse of the WAIS. This is opposite to what has oc-
197 curred during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM), in the sense that during the LGM the WAIS
198 was approximately 1000m higher than presently (e.g Whitehouse et al. (2012), Justino and Peltier
199 (2006), Peltier (2004)). Interior ice elevations of the WAIS remains, however, uncertain. Ackert

200 et al. (2007) propose a WAIS approximately 125 m above the present surface during the 11.5 ka
201 interval.

202 Over the polar oceans, anomalies are associated with enhanced warm advection from reduced
203 WAIS and increased oceanic heat flux due to the substantial reductions in seaice thickness. It
204 is important to note that the reduction in seaice area induces the albedo-seaice-ocean feedback
205 leading to further warming. Over the mid-latitudes and tropics the WICE-EXP warming may be
206 primarily related to weaker surface winds, and reduced evaporative cooling. It should be noted
207 that colder conditions over the northern Atlantic are found in the region of deep water formation.
208 This is in line with enhanced surface winds, as will be discussed later.

209 A brief comparison between the WICE-EXP results and the Pliocene Model Intercomparison
210 Project (PlioMIP, Haywood et al. (2010)) demonstrates many similarities. For instance, Chan et al.
211 (2011) and Haywood et al. (2009), based on OAGCM simulations, report higher zonal averaged
212 air temperature at high latitudes by up to 5°C accompanied by a decrease in the equator-to-pole
213 temperature gradient (Zhang et al. (2012)). A large increase can be found in particular at polar
214 latitudes. Indeed, this warming is a common feature in the PlioMIP: experimental design, mid-
215 Pliocene boundary conditions and implementation special issue
216 (http://www.geosci-model-dev.net/special_issue5.html).

217 In WICE-EXP the anomalous pattern of temperatures modifies the meridional thermal gradi-
218 ent and therefore the surface wind configuration. These changes in the thermal structure of the
219 atmosphere are in accordance with the thermal wind relation which suggests a weakening of the
220 westerly flow in the WICE-EXP simulation. The wind magnitude (Fig. 4d) reveals a substantial
221 slowdown of the polar jet and the extratropical westerlies, however the sub-tropical jet has been
222 strengthened around 30°S. This is particularly evident over the subtropical Atlantic ocean.

223 Turning to the Northern Hemisphere (NH), one may note an enhancement of the trade winds
224 and the mid-latitude westerly flow which is clearly depicted over the Atlantic and Pacific basins.
225 Hence, warmer air advection is expected to be intensified over Scandinavia and Eurasia leading to
226 warmer temperatures in the WICE-EXP as compared with the MOD simulation (Fig. 4b).

227 Changes in temperature and surface winds are also associated with modification in the geopotential
228 height at 700hPa (GH700, Fig. 4e,f). The main observed features of the present day stationary
229 waves in the SH are reasonably reproduced in our MOD simulation. Despite the coarse spatial
230 resolution of the SPEEDO atmospheric component, the model is able to reproduce the current low
231 pressure system over the Ross and Amundsen-Bellingshausen seas (Hosking et al. (2013)).

232 The absence of the WAIS leads to highly significant changes in GH700 (Fig. 4f), in particu-
233 lar over the mainland of Antarctica and oceanic regions south of 50°S. This is primarily due to
234 increased thickness of the column caused by enhanced lower tropospheric warming (Fig. 4b,f).
235 Further analysis demonstrates that over the subtropical Atlantic ocean near the South America
236 coast and around the 40°S latitudinal belt over Australia and the Pacific ocean, GH700 contracts
237 so as to become of lesser extent as compared with modern conditions.

238 One should keep in mind that the substantial warming over west Antarctic in the WICE-EXP
239 leads to distinct SH climate symmetry, which modified the spatial-temporal polar climate variabil-
240 ity associated with the SAM, as will be discussed later. Justino and Peltier (2005) argued that the
241 polar climate variability is strongly modulated by the direct mechanical effect of ice sheet topog-
242 raphy (lapse rate), and by the effect of diabatic heating due to the marked change in the spatial
243 variation of surface albedo.

244 The Z700 changes in the NH show an intensification of the Azores high and a deepening of
245 the Icelandic low (Fig. 4f). This feature may indicate an intensification of the positive phase
246 of the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO). During the positive phase of the NAO, warmer condi-

247 tions are observed in Scandinavia that are accompanied by increased maritime air advection and
248 strong westerly flow over the northern Atlantic. These patterns are well reproduced by the climate
249 anomalies between the WICE-EXP and the MOD simulations.

250 The precipitation pattern depicted in the SH subtropics by the MOD simulation is primarily
251 dominated in the Pacific and Indian Oceans by the influence of the recurrent baroclinic systems
252 (Fig. 4g). In South America the precipitation band is primarily associated with the South Atlantic
253 Convergence Zone (Fig. 4g). Also evident is the precipitation in the storm track region of the
254 north Atlantic and Pacific.

255 In comparison with the MOD simulation, the WICE-EXP shows a decrease in precipitation in
256 the tropical oceans, except over the Pacific (Fig. 4h). Positive anomalies are noted in the subtropics
257 in the SH which are statistically significant. It is interesting to stress that the subtropical region
258 experiences a substantial increase in precipitation related to the northward displacement of the main
259 baroclinic zone due to changes in the meridional thermal gradient. These areas are also placed in
260 good agreement with areas with reduced GH700 (Fig. 4f). Changes in the NH are weaker, although
261 increased precipitation is evident in the northern Atlantic storm track region and in eastern Asia/
262 Pacific.

263 *c. Southern Annular Mode*

264 Based upon comparison of the MOD and WICE-EXP climates, in what follows the impact of
265 these differences upon the spatial structure of the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) and its related
266 features are investigated. SAM is responsible for the migration of the subtropical upper-level jet
267 and variations in the intensity of the polar jet (Carvalho et al. (2005)), as well as for the intensi-
268 fication of an upper-level anticyclonic anomaly, weakened moisture convergence, and decreased
269 precipitation over southeastern South America. Empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis has

270 been performed on Z700 monthly data throughout the 50 years of each model experiment. SAM
271 is displayed in terms of the spatial pattern of its amplitude (Fig. 5), obtained by regressing the
272 hemispheric Z700 anomalies upon the monthly leading principal component (PC) time series.

273 The leading pattern of variability in the MOD simulation (Fig. 5a) is characterized by an annu-
274 lar structure over the entire hemisphere which is dominated by two areas of strong out-of-phase
275 variability located over mid-latitudes (40° - 55° S) and the polar region (Fig. 5a). Although differ-
276 ences may be identified between our modeled SAM and the SAM resulting from climate system
277 models of higher complexity (e.g Justino and Peltier (2006), L'Heureux and Thompson (2006)),
278 it is evident that the SPEEDO provides a reasonable depiction of this atmospheric mode, charac-
279 teristic wave number 3 . The first modeled EOF accounts for 54% of the total variance and is well
280 separated from the second EOF which explains 6%. The temperature response to SAM is shown
281 in Figure 5b. Fluctuations of SAM lead, during the positive phase, to slightly warmer near surface
282 (colder) conditions in the subtropical (polar) region. This warming is evident in the southern At-
283 lantic and southern South America regions and over the Antarctic peninsula, over Australia and
284 the Tasman Sea, and southern Africa. It should be emphasized that during the positive phase of
285 SAM our MOD simulation predominantly indicates positive near surface temperature anomalies
286 globally (Fig. 5b). These characteristics are accompanied by weaker (stronger) westerlies in the
287 vicinity of 30° S - 45° S (45° - 60° S, Fig. 5c).

288 Figure 5d shows the differences between SAM (first EOF of Z700) as a result of modification
289 in the WAIS structure along with the modeled present day SAM. It should be noted that SAM
290 in the WICE-EXP is no longer characterized by a predominant dipolar structure and it explains
291 48% of the climate variability, i.e lower variance as compared with the present day SAM. For
292 instance, meridional changes in Z700 between the polar and extratropical regions in the MOD
293 simulation may reach values up to 70 hPa, whereas in the WICE-EXP values do not exceed 30

294 hPa. Moreover, the well defined high pressures centres under MOD conditions are much weaker
295 in the WAIS collapsed situation (Fig. 5d).

296 However, the southern Atlantic anticyclone is intensified which may increase the oceanic mois-
297 ture advection to the subtropical part of South America (Fig. 5d). It should be noted, moreover,
298 that the strengthening of this mid-latitude center of action in the WICE-EXP reduces the migra-
299 tion of colder extratropical air masses, creating a blocking situation. This further reduces the sea-
300 sonal climate variability in South America/southern Atlantic. The opposite is found over southern
301 Africa/Indian ocean and subtropical Pacific (Fig. 5d). Carvalho et al. (2005) discussed the de-
302 gree of involvement of the seasonal subtropical climate and SAM, and the existence of strong
303 teleconnection between the polar and subtropical regions in the SH has been demonstrated.

304 SAM-induced modification of the near surface temperature by changes in the WAIS (Fig. 5e)
305 shows strong warming over the Antarctica peninsula/Bellinghausen sea as well as over the polar
306 ocean between 0-150°E. Over the eastern hemisphere, this clearly reflects the weakening of the
307 SAM in the WICE-EXP. However, over the western hemisphere including the Antarctica penin-
308 sula, this cannot be assumed because SAM is no longer characterized by the annular structure.
309 In terms of changes in the zonal wind, we found negative (positive) anomalies in the polar re-
310 gion (subtropics) and intensified wind curl in the WICE-EXP, as compared with the present day
311 simulation (Fig. 5f).

312 These climate anomalies between the MOD and the WICE-EXP experiments and the differences
313 between the climate response to SAM in the two simulations, reveal that despite the small area of
314 the WAIS compared with the entire Antarctica, it plays a prominent role in setting up the SH
315 atmospheric conditions.

316 *d. Oceanic conditions*

317 In what follows is discussed the role of the WAIS topography upon the oceanic conditions.
318 Despite the low resolution of our oceanic component, the coupled model is able to simulate the
319 intensified SST meridional thermal contrast (cold tongue) along the western coastal margins of
320 South America as well as the coastal upwelling in Africa (Fig. 6a). It should be noted that a
321 thorough evaluation of the present climate has been provided by Justino et al. (2014) and Severijns
322 and Hazeleger (2010). As should be expected, changes in SST exhibit many similarities with the
323 near surface air temperature anomalies (Figs. 4b, 6a), in particular in the extratropical region.

324 It is interesting to note that compared with the MOD simulation, WICE-EXP shows warmer
325 conditions primarily confined in the SH. However, the warming along the latitudinal belt between
326 30-60°S shows values as high as 4°C in the southern Atlantic. Lower SSTs up to -2°C are found in
327 the northern Pacific and Atlantic. This SST anomalous pattern resembles the oceanic response to
328 increased freshwater into the northern Atlantic during the last glacial cycle (e.g. Rahmstorf (1996),
329 Manabe and Stouffer (1995), Knutti et al. (2004)). These investigations suggested that changes
330 in the rate of deep water formation and subsequently the reduction in the meridional oceanic heat
331 transport was the primary contributor to the existence of the bipolar seesaw (Broecker (1998)).
332 This assumption is further analysed in our study.

333 Figure 6c shows the present day seaice as simulated by the MOD run. Sea ice has a direct im-
334 pact on the radiation budget of the climate system by affecting the net incoming solar radiation
335 due to its high albedo (i.e. decreasing the absorption of solar radiation). Therefore, modification
336 of the seaice cover may induce warming/cooling due to the seaice albedo feedback. As com-
337 pared with satellite data, Severijns and Hazeleger (2010) argued that the seaice representation in

338 SPEEDO yields understimation of seaice in late summer and overstimation in late winter in both
339 hemispheres.

340 Present day seaice thickness can reach values in the SH by up to 1m in the Weddell Sea and
341 up to 1.2m in the Arctic ocean (Fig. 6c). Figure 6d shows that changes in the WAIS lead to
342 substantial reduction in the seaice thickness in both hemispheres. This is more evident in the
343 Weddell and Bellingshausen seas, where atmospheric induced SST anomalies are the primary
344 candidate to impose these changes. The importance of the wind field for leading changes in seaice
345 has been explored by Lefebvre et al. (2004).

346 Figures 6e and 6f show the vertical distribution of zonally averaged ocean temperature anoma-
347 lies, globally (Fig. 6e) and for the Atlantic basin (Fig. 6f). Globally the ocean temperature shows
348 an overall warming from 60°S to 50°N in the WICE-EXP in comparison with the MOD simu-
349 lation, which is more pronounced in the Southern Hemisphere down to 1000m depth. However,
350 underneath this level lower temperatures are simulated in the WICE-EXP as compared with the
351 MOD run.

352 In the Atlantic sector there has been an oceanic warming down to 1500m with values as high
353 as 4.5°C. Below 1500m the ocean temperatures are much lower than the global average in the
354 Atlantic. Marshall and Speer (2012) also argue that warmer surface conditions in the vicinity
355 of the Antarctic continent may be related to water supplied from deeper layers along inclined
356 outcropping density surfaces.

357 This vertical distribution of temperature may modify deep convection in the main sites of deep
358 water formation. Indeed, this has been found to be the case. Figure 7 shows the anomalous pattern
359 of the Meridional Overturning Circulation (MOC) as delivered by the WICE-EXP simulation.
360 These results have demonstrated that the absence of the WAIS produces a remarkable weakening
361 in the southward flow of the MOC (i.e North Atlantic Deep Water, NADW), as compared with

362 present day conditions. It is also evident (Fig. 7 top) that the northward returning flow (e.g.
 363 Antarctic Bottom Water, AABW) is intensified in the interior ocean. One may argue that this
 364 oceanic feature may be related to increased loss of heat to the atmosphere in the SH polar ocean
 365 and therefore enhanced downwelling.

366 It should be stressed that an additional contribution to this anomalous MOC in the WICE-EXP
 367 simulation, in particular in the SH, may arise from an anomalous Deacon cell which is primarily
 368 linked to the westward atmospheric flow (Marshall and Speer (2012), Speer et al. (2000)).

369 To further investigate these changes we have computed the annual density flux as proposed by
 370 Schmitt et al. (1989) and Speer and Tziperman (1992). The surface density anomalies (a combina-
 371 tion of the thermal and the haline density anomalies) have the potential to generate thermohaline
 372 circulation changes. To evaluate the thermal and haline contributions to the density changes in
 373 WICE-EXP, the thermal and haline components of the density flux ($kgm^{-2}s^{-1}$, Fig. 7a,b) are
 374 computed. The surface density flux based on Schmitt et al. (1989),

$$F_{\rho} = \alpha F_t + \beta F_S = -\alpha \frac{Q}{C_P} + \beta \rho \frac{(E - P - R - I)S}{1 - S}, \quad (1)$$

375 includes the thermal expansion ($\alpha = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial T} |_{p,S}$) and the haline contraction coefficient ($\beta =$
 376 $\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial S} |_{p,T}$). In these expressions, C_P, ρ, p, T and S are specific heat, density, pressure, sea
 377 surface temperature and salinity, respectively. Q, E, P, R and I represent net heat flux, evaporation,
 378 precipitation, runoff and water flux by sea-ice melting and growth, respectively.

379 In the northern Hemisphere (not shown) there are two regions of strong density gain; in the
 380 western North Atlantic, where cold and dry continental air masses blow onto relatively warm
 381 waters of the Gulf Stream and North Atlantic Current. The second region of density gain is in
 382 the Nordic Seas, due to a negative net heat flux associated to strong cooling of surface waters.

383 The contribution of the haline density flux to the total density is much smaller. However, it may
384 dominate the density gain at the ice/water interface.

385 Figure 7 shows the surface density flux for MOD and the anomalies between WICE-EXP and
386 MOD. Under present day conditions the region of strongest density gain is located in the Antarctic
387 continental margins, in particular in the Ross and Bellingshausen Seas (Fig. 7a,b). This is pri-
388 marily associated with the dominance of cold air embedded in the westerly flow and due to the
389 influence of katabatic winds. The second region of density gain is the southern Atlantic, where the
390 model experiences a negative net heat flux associated with strong cooling of surface waters. The
391 areas of density loss around the 30°-60°S correspond to areas where precipitation/snowfall excess
392 linked to the storm track dynamics is expected (Fig. 7b,c).

393 As for present-day climate, the simulated deep water formation in WICE-EXP is also controlled
394 by the thermal density flux. Due to the stronger vertical gradient of temperature in the ocean-
395 atmosphere interface, the thermal density flux anomalies (Fig. 7d) generate substantial changes
396 in the surface density (not shown). An increase in the vertical air-sea temperature contrast, and
397 therefore the loss of heat from the ocean to the atmosphere, leads to strong convective mixing and
398 an enhancement of the SH deep water formation in WICE-EXP.

399 The total (thermal+haline) density flux anomalies are dominated by changes in the thermal flux.
400 Haline flux anomalies are most important over the 30°-60°S latitudinal belt. These findings serve
401 to highlight the importance of the WAIS for the rate of formation of the SH branch of the MOC,
402 in particular for the formation of the deep water in the Ross/Bellingshausen sea and the southern
403 Atlantic.

404 Paleoreconstructions focusing on the MIS31 period (e.g. Streng et al. (2011), Scherer et al.
405 (2008)) have shown periodic seaice-free conditions at the time, in particular in the Ross Sea. As
406 demonstrated by Scherer et al. (2008) sea surface temperatures were 3-5°C warmer than present

407 day. Evaluations of deep-sea sediments recovered at ODP sites 1094 and 1165 (Maiorano et al.
408 (2009), Flores and Sierro (2007)) revealed that the absence of the WAIS leads to a southward
409 displacement of the polar front in the South Atlantic sector. These anomalous patterns indicated
410 by the reconstruction are reasonably simulated by our climate model experiments presented here.
411 It should be stressed that the similarities between the modelling results and reconstructions dis-
412 cussed above solely consider the spatial pattern of differences between the MOD and WICE-EXP
413 simulations due to the limitation of the modelling setup in terms of boundary conditions. Thus,
414 our work is not intended to provide a truly realistic account of the reconstructions.

415 **3. Summary and concluding remarks**

416 Through two 1000 years coupled climate simulations of present day and a sensitivity experi-
417 ment taking into account the reduced WAIS topography, we have demonstrated that changes of
418 the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) orography leads to remarkable changes in the oceanic and
419 atmospheric circulations. In the WICE-EXP simulation, the Southern Hemisphere warms by up
420 to 8°C in the polar oceans whereas the Northern Hemisphere warms by up to 2°C in comparison
421 with the present day climate. Hence, seaice is reduced in the both hemispheres SH. These changes
422 induce a weakening (strengthening) of the extratropical westerlies in the SH (northern Atlantic) in
423 agreement with the thermal wind relation.

424 Changes in the WAIS also induce a anomalous pattern of temperature and westerlies associ-
425 ated with SAM. Indeed, a northward shift of the westerly flow and a weakening of the polar jet
426 have been identified. These changes lead to modification in the rate of deep water formation re-
427 ducing the magnitude of the North Atlantic Deep Water but enhancing the Antarctic Botton Water
428 formation. By evaluating the density flux we argue that the thermal density flux plays the main role
429 for the modification of the meridional overturning circulation. Moreover, the climate anomalies

430 between the WICE-EXP and the MOD simulations resemble the bipolar seesaw pattern (Broecker
431 (1998)).

432 One may assume that the magnitude of the idealized ocean's response to fresh water input (as
433 WAIS retreated), compared with the response to mechanical/topographic atmospheric forcing,
434 should be weaker, particularly for changes in the deep water formation. Stouffer et al. (2007)
435 argued that due to the climatological surface winds, which induce surface water northward, fresher
436 sea surface water in the Southern Ocean will be spread into the other ocean basins.

437 Studies such as Aiken (2008), investigating the role of sea ice in the global climate system,
438 demonstrated that a fresh water forcing equivalent to 100-yr melt of Southern Hemisphere sea ice
439 leads to surface cooling but subsurface warming related to decreased overtuning. It is claimed,
440 however, that those responses are weak, and the initial state recovers over decades. Additional 0.4
441 Sv of freshwater to the seaice melting experiment also confirms the relatively weak response of
442 the SH to such forcing.

443 By using a three-dimensional Earth system model of intermediate complexity (EMIC), Swinge-
444 douw et al. (2008) argued that the climatic impact of AIS melting is primarily induced by interac-
445 tions with the ocean and sea ice, and less dependent on fresh water discharge.

446 The lack of integrated paleoclimate data as well as the absence of astronomical and CO₂ forcing
447 in our experiment, limit the value of a detailed data-model comparison with the MIS31 epoch.
448 The MIS31 interglacial occurred during an extreme peak in astronomical eccentricity that pro-
449 duced very high austral summer insolation anomalies, followed by very intense boreal summers
450 approximately 10,500 yrs later. If accounted for here, this certainly would have impacted the
451 model results. However, generic sensitivity test of the global response to a smaller WAIS, as pre-
452 sented here, have relevance to both past interglacials when WAIS retreated and possibly to the
453 future when the WAIS can be affected by the anthropogenic forcing.

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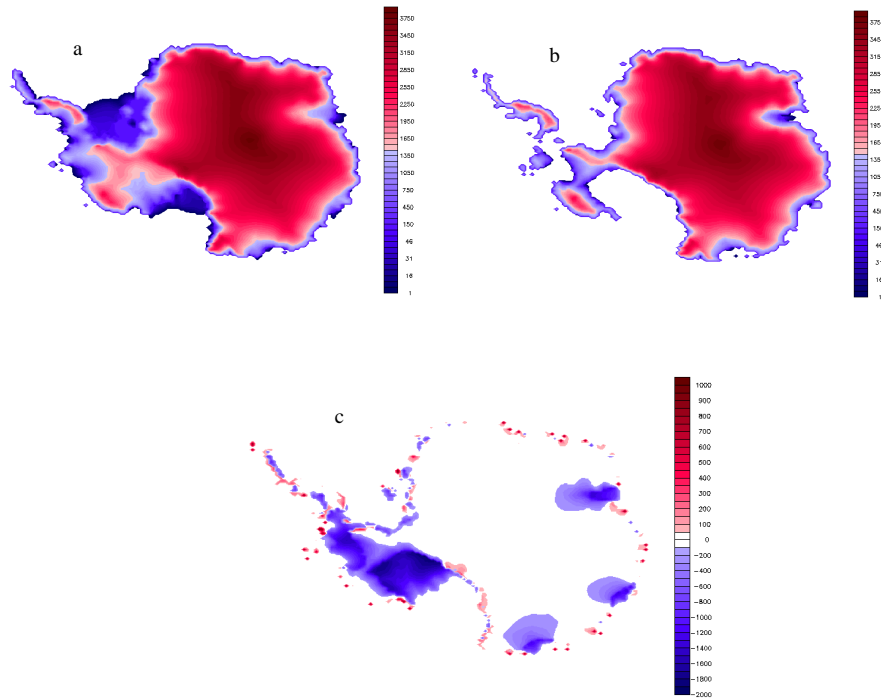
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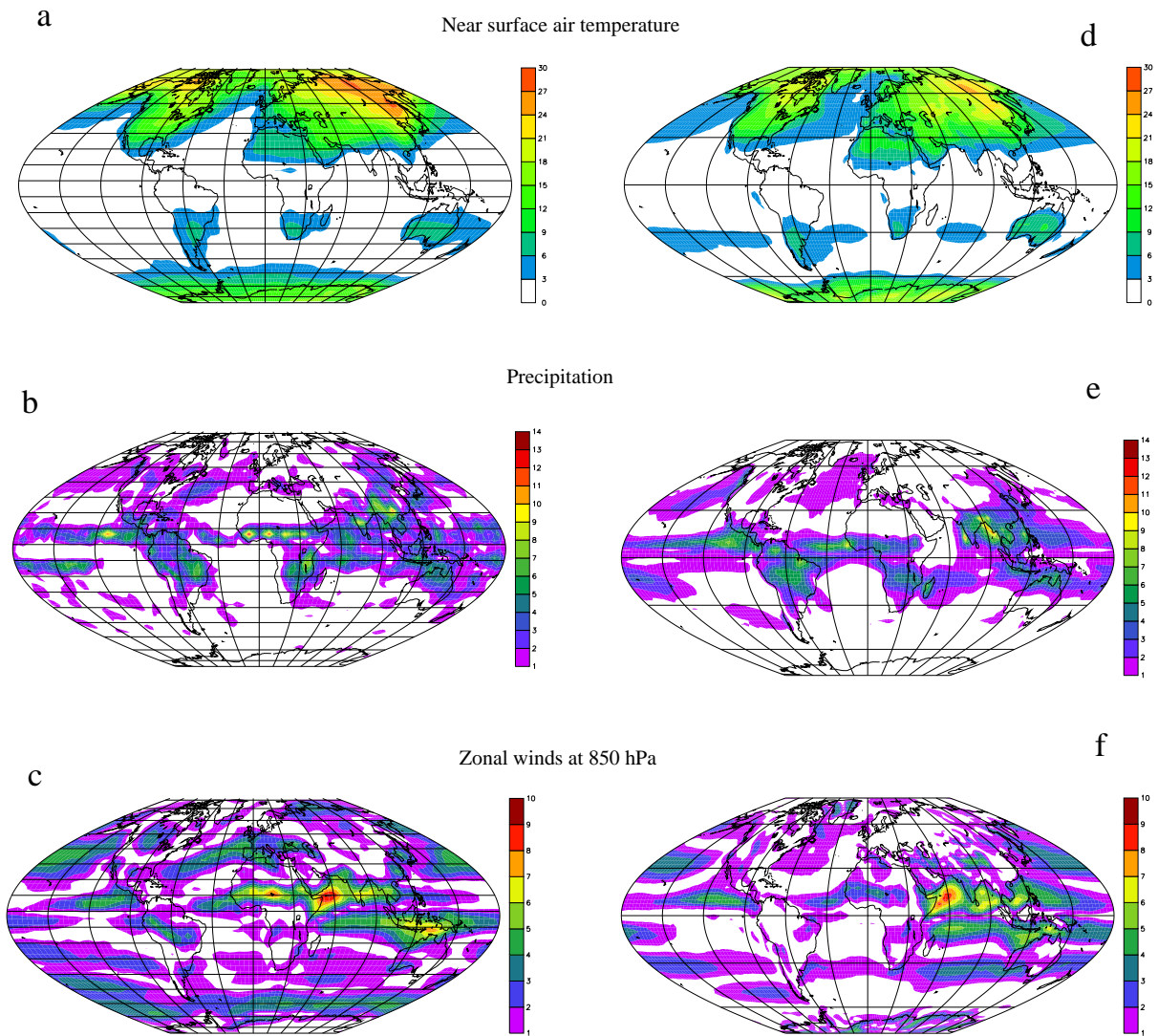
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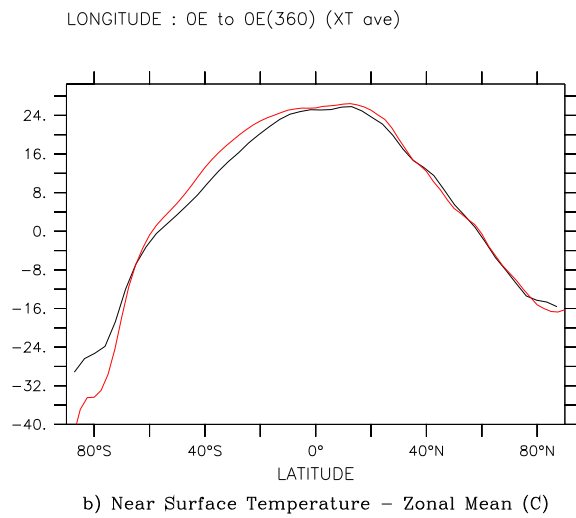
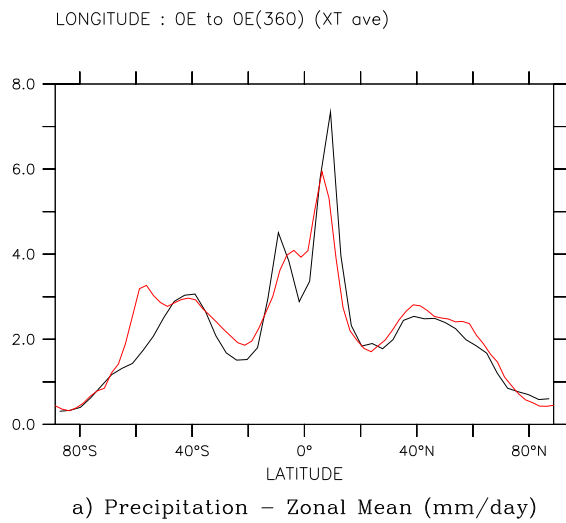
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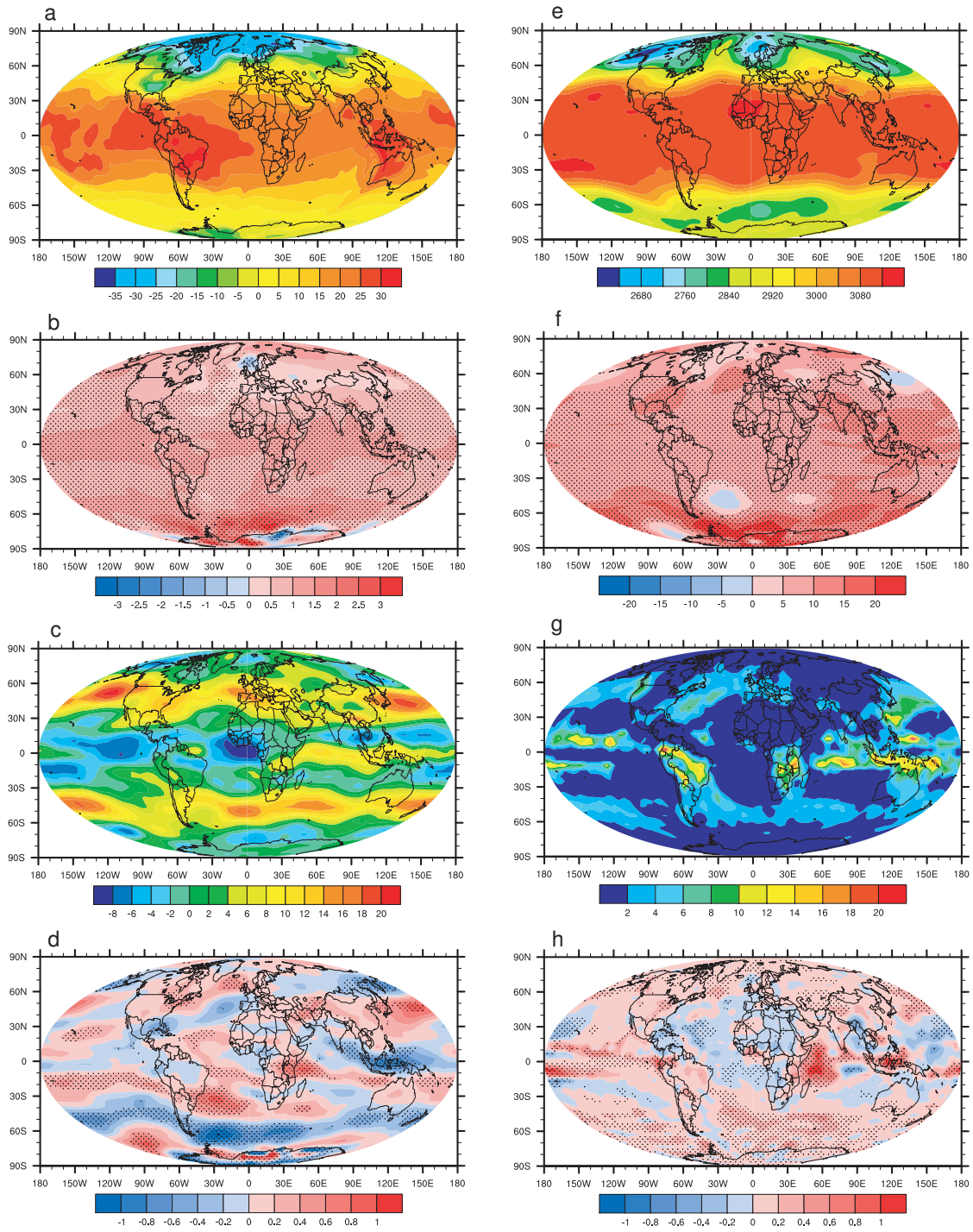
637 FIG. 1. Present day topography (a), WICE-EXP topography (b) and the differences between the WICE-EXP
 638 and MOD simulation (c). The unit is meter



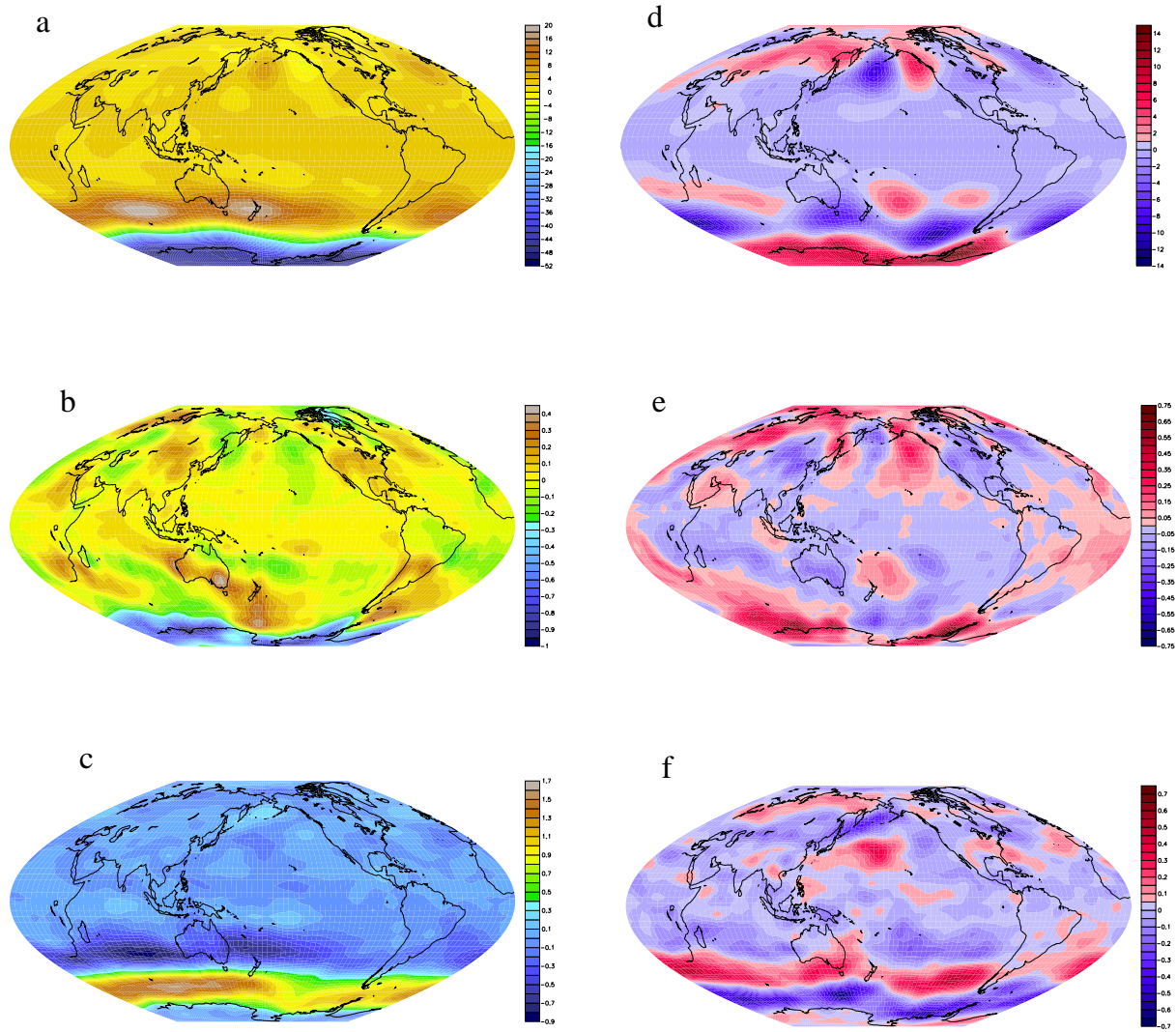
639 FIG. 2. (a) Amplitude of the first harmonic of the near surface air temperature [$^{\circ}\text{C}$], (b,c) is the amplitude for
 640 precipitation [mm/day] and the zonal winds [m/s] at 850 hPa for MOD simulation. (d, e and f) is the same but
 641 for the NNR1 and GPCP datasets



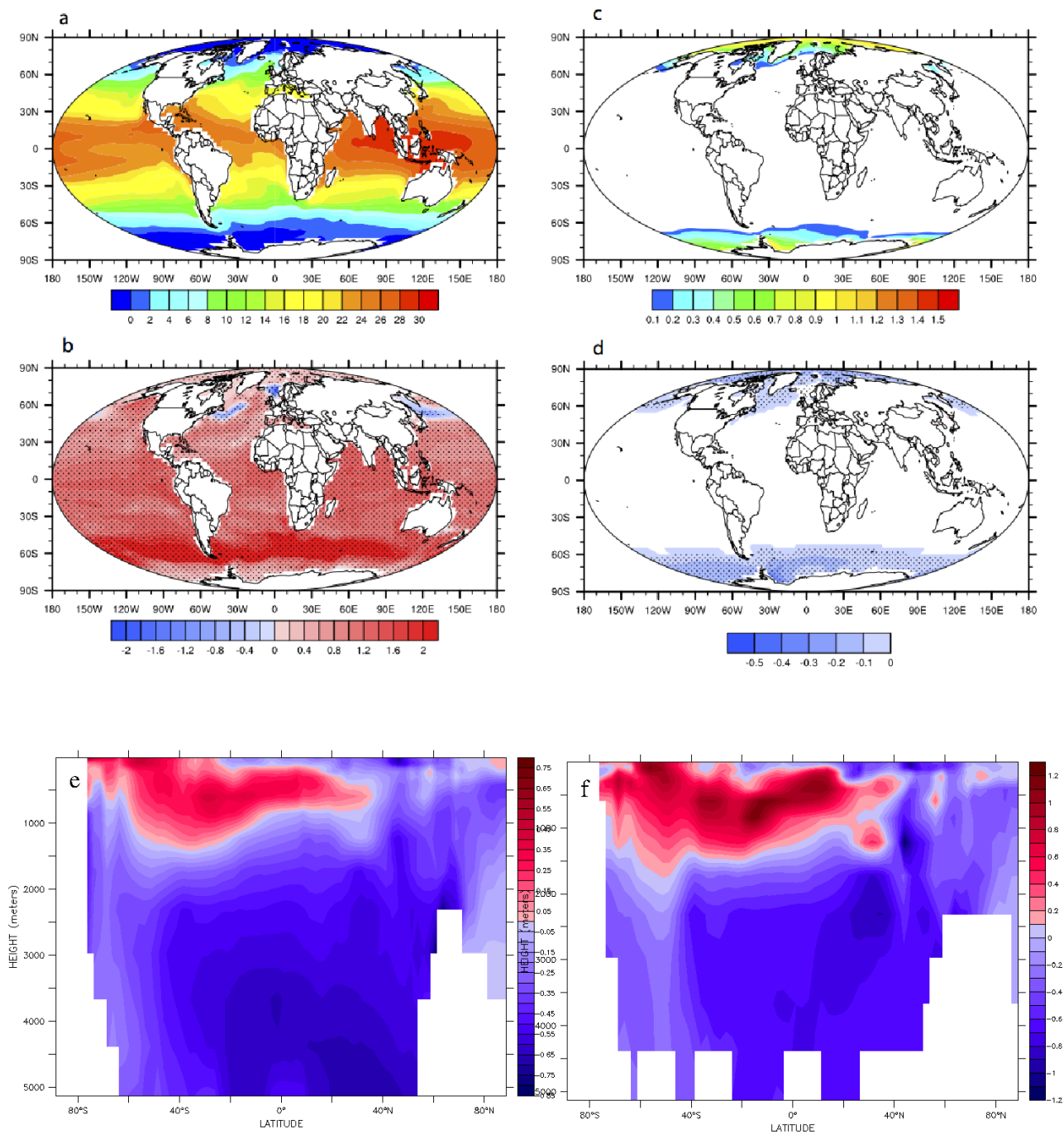
642 FIG. 3. (a) Zonally averaged precipitation [mm/day] and (b) near surface air temperature [°C]. The black (red)
 643 line is for MOD simulation (GPCP and NNR1)



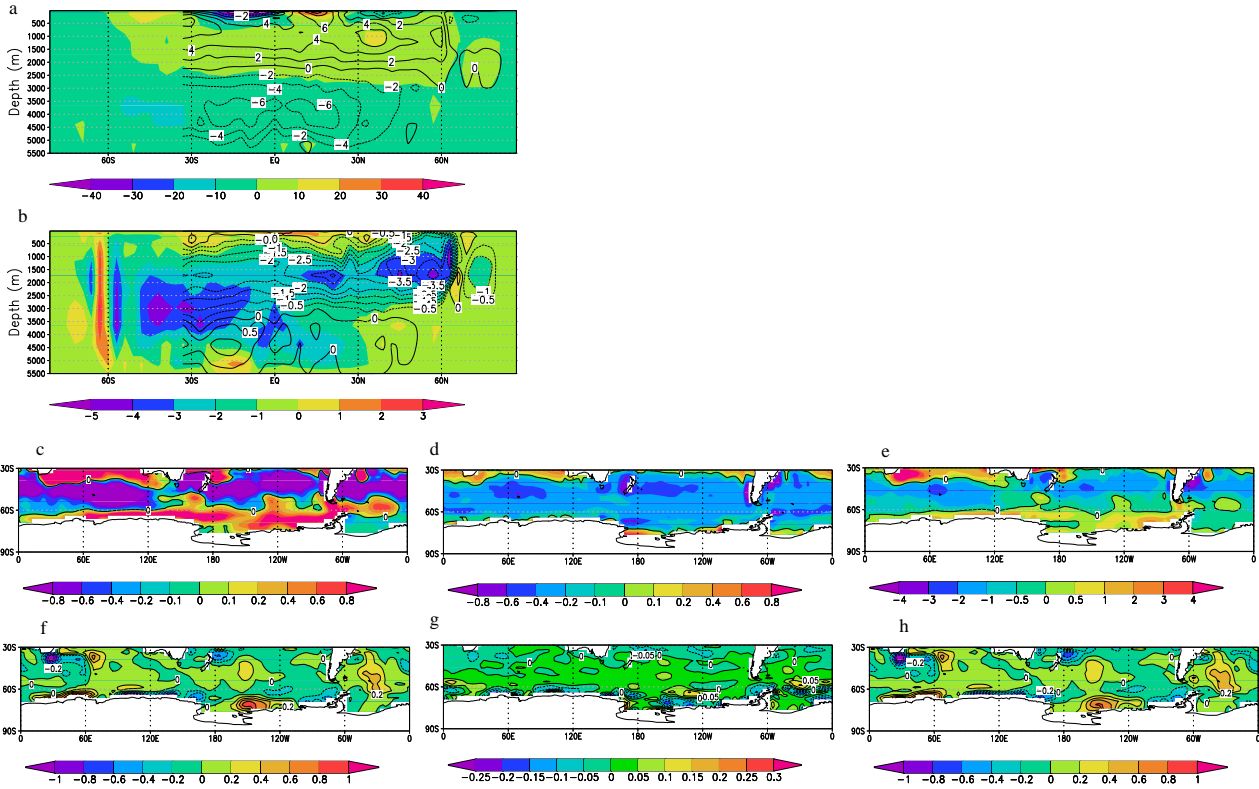
644 FIG. 4. (a) Annually averaged near surface temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) for the MOD simulation and (b) is the differences
 645 between the WICE-EXP and MOD simulations. (c) and (d) are the same but for zonal winds, (e) and (f) are the
 646 same as in (a) and (b) but for the geopotential height at 700hPa [meters]. (g) and (h) are the same as in (e) and (f)
 647 but for precipitation (mm/day). Dotted regions are statistically significant at 95% level based on student t-test.



648 FIG. 5. (a) Z700 [m], (b) near surface temperature [$^{\circ}$ C], (c) near zonal wind (m/s) response associated with the
 649 positive phase of Southern Annular Mode in the MOD simulation. (d), (e) and (f) show differences between the
 650 WICE-EXP and MOD simulations. The patterns are displayed as amplitudes by regressing hemispheric climate
 651 anomalies upon the standardized first principal component time series. Please note that figures are shown with
 652 different labels.



653 FIG. 6. Annually averaged sea surface temperature (SST, °C) for the MOD simulation and (b) the differences
 654 between the WICE-EXP and MOD simulations. (c) Annually averaged sea ice thickness for MOD, and (d) is
 655 the differences between the WICE-EXP and MOD simulations. Dotted regions are statistically significant at
 656 95% level based on student t-test. (e) is the all-basin annually zonally averaged vertical ocean temperatures
 657 differences between the WICE-EXP and the MOD simulation. (f) is the same as (e) but averaged only in the
 658 Atlantic basin.



659 FIG. 7. (a) Meridional overturning circulation for the MOD simulation, global ocean (shaded) and the At-
 660 lantic (contour). (b) is the differences between the WICE-EXP and MOD simulations (a). Annually averaged
 661 annual density flux in MOD [$10^{-6} \times kgm^{-2}s^{-1}$]. (c) thermal contribution, (d) haline contribution and (e) ther-
 662 mal+haline. (f), (g) and (h) the same as a,b,c but for the differences between the WICE-EXP and the MOD
 663 simulation.