

**TITLE**

Multimodel Analysis of the Atmospheric Response to Antarctic Sea Ice Loss at Quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>

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1 **Multi-Model Analysis of the Atmospheric Response to Antarctic Sea Ice Loss at**  
2 **Quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Projected Antarctic sea-ice loss weakens the tropospheric westerly jet and favors the  
9 negative phase of the Southern Annular Mode (SAM).
- 10 • Negative SAM response to sea-ice loss damps but does not fully offset the positive SAM  
11 response to increased CO<sub>2</sub>.
- 12 • Sea-ice loss causes near-surface warming over the high-latitude Southern Ocean, but  
13 warming does not penetrate the Antarctic continent.

14 **Abstract**

15 Antarctic sea-ice cover is projected to significantly decrease by the end of the 21st century if  
16 greenhouse gas concentrations continue to rise, with potential consequences for Southern  
17 Hemisphere weather and climate. Here, we examine the atmospheric response to projected  
18 Antarctic sea-ice loss at quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>, inferred from eleven CMIP5 models. Our study is the  
19 first multi-model analysis of the atmospheric response to Antarctic sea-ice loss. Projected sea-ice  
20 loss enhances the negative phase of the Southern Annular Mode (SAM), which slightly damps  
21 the positive SAM response to increased CO<sub>2</sub>, particularly in spring. The negative SAM response  
22 largely reflects a weakening of the eddy-driven jet, and to a lesser extent, an equatorward shift of  
23 the jet. Sea-ice loss induces near-surface warming over the high-latitude Southern Ocean, but  
24 warming does not penetrate over the Antarctic continent. In spring, we find multi-model  
25 evidence for a weakened polar stratospheric vortex in response to sea-ice loss.

26 **Plain Language Summary**

27 Increasing greenhouse gases through human activities are predicted to cause a decrease in  
28 Antarctic sea-ice cover by the end of the century. If this happens, it is unknown what the impacts  
29 on Southern Hemisphere weather and climate could be. The aim of this study was to use  
30 simulations from eleven climate models to explore the potential consequences of future Antarctic  
31 sea-ice loss. We analyzed model simulations with CO<sub>2</sub> quadrupled from pre-industrial levels,  
32 which led to large reductions in Antarctic sea-ice. We found that sea-ice loss led to warmer  
33 temperatures in the lowermost atmosphere over the Southern Ocean, but that this warming did  
34 not penetrate the Antarctic continent. Sea-ice loss also had an impact on the predominantly  
35 westerly winds that encircle Antarctica, causing them to weaken. Climate models have some

36 difficulties in representing Antarctic sea ice, and as a result, projections of Antarctic sea ice are  
37 highly uncertain. Our results imply that reducing uncertainties in projections of Antarctic sea ice  
38 may lead to better forecasts of future changes in Southern Hemisphere weather and climate.

39

## 40 **1. Introduction**

41 Accurate satellite records of polar sea ice began in 1979. Since this time, annual-mean Arctic sea  
42 ice extent (SIE) has decreased significantly by ~960 thousand square kilometers per decade  
43 (Fetterer et al., 2017), whereas annual-mean Antarctic SIE has increased by a lower, but still  
44 significant, ~54 thousand square kilometers per decade (Fetterer et al., 2017). In austral spring  
45 2016, Antarctic SIE decreased at an abnormal rate, 18% quicker than in any previous melting  
46 season in the satellite record and 46% quicker than the average melt rate (Turner et al., 2017).  
47 Possible explanations for the sudden 2016 decline include influences from the El Niño Southern  
48 Oscillation (ENSO) and an enhanced zonal wavenumber-3 pattern of the westerly jet (Schlosser  
49 et al., 2017; Stuecker et al., 2017). In addition, new research has shown that the rapid sea-ice loss  
50 led to ocean warming and enhanced upward propagation of planetary scale waves, triggering a  
51 stratospheric warming event, subsequently influencing the westerly jet and further enhancing ice  
52 melt (Meehl et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). Since 2016, Antarctic SIE has tracked well below  
53 its long-term average. It is unclear if this dramatic reduction is temporary or if the Southern  
54 Hemisphere sea ice is entering a new era of decline (Ludescher et al., 2018).

55  
56 The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5) climate models simulate, on  
57 average, a loss of sea ice over the historical period and not an increase as has been observed.  
58 This disagreement between observations and models remain poorly understood (Turner et al.,  
59 2013), but possible explanations include internal climate variability (Polvani & Smith, 2013),  
60 model biases (e.g Bracegirdle et al., 2013; Bracegirdle et al., 2018; Holland et al., 2017; Lecomte  
61 et al., 2016; Purich et al., 2016; Roach et al., 2018; Schroeter et al., 2017; Turner et al., 2013) or  
62 unresolved processes in models such as ice-sheet-ocean interactions. The same models project

63 that Antarctic sea ice will continue to decline significantly by 2100 (e.g. Collins et al., 2013;  
64 Vaughan, 2013) if greenhouse gas concentrations continue to rise, although there is significant  
65 divergence between models in the magnitude of the projected decline. Nevertheless, future trends  
66 in Antarctic sea ice may have numerous impacts on the surrounding atmosphere.

67

68 It is well understood that Arctic sea-ice loss is influencing high latitude weather and climate in  
69 the Northern Hemisphere, with thermodynamically induced warming and moistening of the  
70 atmosphere, amongst other changes. There is also emerging evidence that reduced Arctic sea ice  
71 may influence the large-scale atmospheric circulation, for example, through weakening of the  
72 mid-latitude westerly winds (e.g., Peings & Magnusdottir, 2014) and a negative shift in the North  
73 Atlantic Oscillation index (Blackport & Kushner, 2016; Deser et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2014;  
74 Peings & Magnusdottir, 2014; Screen & Simmonds, 2013; Screen et al., 2013). Several review  
75 papers have been published on the atmospheric response to Arctic sea-ice loss, including Cohen  
76 et al. (2014), Vavrus (2018) and Screen et al. (2018). The potential for such atmospheric  
77 responses to Antarctic sea-ice loss has been less well studied.

78

79 The observed gradual growth of Antarctic sea ice has been suggested to result in a slight  
80 poleward shift of the tropospheric jet in the austral winter months (Smith et al., 2017). Raphael et  
81 al. (2011) suggested that negative summer sea ice anomalies were linked to a more negative  
82 Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index and vice versa. Studies examining the atmospheric  
83 response to projected Antarctic sea-ice loss have revealed contrasting results, with Kidston et al.  
84 (2011) finding no significant impacts whereas Bader et al. (2013) and Menéndez et al. (1999)  
85 both found an equatorward shift of the tropospheric jet. More recently, England et al. (2018)

86 used the WACCM4 model to compare impacts of Arctic and Antarctic sea-ice loss. These  
87 authors found a significant equatorward shift of the eddy-driven jet in response to sea-ice loss in  
88 either hemisphere. They also found that the tropospheric and stratospheric responses to Antarctic  
89 sea-ice loss were of smaller amplitude, more vertically confined and with less seasonal variation  
90 than in response to Arctic sea-ice loss.

91

92 In this paper, we use the CMIP5 multi-model ensemble to assess the atmospheric response to  
93 projected Antarctic sea-ice loss across the Southern Hemisphere. Our study is the first to look at  
94 the impacts of projected Antarctic sea-ice loss using a multi-model ensemble.

95

## 96 **2. Data and Methods**

97 Zappa et al. (2018) introduced a novel method of estimating the response to projected sea-ice  
98 loss using existing CMIP5 simulations. Their study applied this method to analyze the  
99 wintertime atmospheric response to projected Arctic sea-ice loss and in particular, that of the  
100 North Atlantic jet. Here, we apply a very similar methodology to examine the seasonal  
101 atmospheric response to Antarctic sea-ice loss when the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is quadrupled. We  
102 use output from 11 climate models (Table S4), which had all the required experiments. Prior to  
103 analysis and to facilitate averaging across models, data were interpolated onto a T42 grid.

104

105 To estimate the coupled climate response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>, we compare 100-year means (years  
106 50-150) from the CMIP5 ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ simulations to 100-year climatologies from the  
107 preindustrial control simulations (‘piControl’). We chose to use ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ rather than any  
108 of the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) experiments (Zappa et al. (2018) used

109 RCP8.5), to avoid the complicating influences of non-CO<sub>2</sub> climate drivers, such as ozone and  
 110 aerosols, which are included in the RCPs but not in ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’. Furthermore, the use of  
 111 ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ results in scaling factors (described below) closer to unity, which reduces our  
 112 reliance on the assumption of linear scalability of the atmospheric response to SST warming and  
 113 CO<sub>2</sub> increase. The atmospheric response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> was estimated by comparing 30-year  
 114 means (years 1979-2008) from the ‘amip4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ simulations to those in the ‘amip’ simulations.  
 115 Likewise, the atmospheric response to SST warming was estimated by comparing 30-year means  
 116 from the ‘amipFuture’ and ‘amip’ simulations. The ‘amip’ simulations were prescribed with  
 117 observed variability in sea ice concentrations, sea surface temperatures (SST) and atmospheric  
 118 composition for the period 1979-2008. The ‘amipFuture’ simulations are identical to ‘amip’,  
 119 except that they have added SST perturbations derived from the CMIP3 ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ multi-  
 120 model response, scaled to have a global average warming of 4 K. The ‘amip4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ simulations  
 121 are identical to ‘amip’ except that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was quadrupled. Sea ice is kept  
 122 unchanged at present day values in both ‘amip4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ and ‘amipFuture’, so is identical to that in  
 123 ‘amip’. The fact that sea ice is unchanged, but that either SST or CO<sub>2</sub> is changed, allows for the  
 124 response to sea-ice loss to be estimated as the residual between the coupled climate response  
 125 (‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ minus ‘piControl’) and the combined and scaled atmospheric responses to SST  
 126 warming and quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>, termed  $AMIP_{sst+co2}$ , where:

127

$$128 \quad AMIP_{sst+co2} - AMIP = k_{sst} \cdot (AMIP_{Future} - AMIP) + k_{co2} \cdot (AMIP_{4xCO2} - AMIP) \quad (1)$$

129

130 Here,  $k_{sst}$  is the temperature scaling factor derived as the ratio of tropical 30°S-30°N zonal-mean  
 131 warming at 100-300 hPa in ‘amipFuture’ (relative to ‘amip’) to that in ‘abrupt4xCO<sub>2</sub>’ (relative



132 to ‘piControl’). This scaling was chosen to capture the tropical upper tropospheric warming,  
 133 which is a dominant feature (or ‘fingerprint’) of global warming.  $k_{sst}$  was calculated for each of  
 134 the eleven models, with an average of  $k_{sst} = 0.8047$ .  $k_{co2}$  is the scaling of CO<sub>2</sub> radiative  
 135 forcing, which, for our purposes is unity. Hereafter we refer to the multi-model-mean difference  
 136 between the coupled climate response and  $AMIP_{sst+co2}$ , as the inferred response to sea-ice loss.  
 137 Our estimate of the inferred response to sea-ice loss is derived as a residual from coupled model  
 138 experiments and so, it includes any effects of ocean coupling on the response to sea-ice loss (see,  
 139 e.g., Deser et al., 2015). However due to the scaling ( $k_{sst}$ ), we expect that any tropical response  
 140 to sea-ice loss, and any feedback of sea-ice-induced tropical changes on the extratropics, would  
 141 be missed by our method and instead apportioned to SST change.

142

143 The tropospheric eddy-driven jet shift was calculated using a monthly-mean jet latitude index  
 144 (Ceppi et al., 2018; Zappa et al., 2018). The zonal average of the monthly-mean climatological  
 145 zonal wind ( $\bar{u}$ ) at 850hPa was first taken for the Southern Ocean. The jet latitude ( $\phi_{jet}$ ) was then  
 146 defined as the mean latitude ( $\phi$ ) of westerlies weighted by the square of the westerly wind speed:

147

$$148 \quad \phi_{jet} = \int_{-30^{\circ}}^{-65^{\circ}} \phi \bar{u}_0^2 d\phi / \int_{-30^{\circ}}^{-65^{\circ}} \bar{u}_0^2 d\phi \quad (2)$$

$$149 \quad \bar{u}_0(\phi) = \max(0, \bar{u}(\phi)) \quad (3)$$

150

151 Unless otherwise stated, we use the shorthand ‘jet’ to refer to the tropospheric eddy-driven jet.  
 152 We define a robust response to be when nine or more of the eleven models have the same signed  
 153 response as the multimodel mean.

154

155 **3. Results**

156 In response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub>, Antarctic sea ice concentrations are reduced in all seasons and in  
157 all sectors of the Southern Ocean (Figure 1a-d). During the warmer months, sea-ice loss is  
158 mostly limited to high southern latitudes, particularly the Weddell and Ross Seas. In the colder  
159 months, sea ice reductions are simulated all around Antarctica and extend further to the north,  
160 reaching 55 °S in the Atlantic sector. The loss of sea ice is of greatest magnitude in the late  
161 austral autumn through to summer (May-December) and of weaker magnitude in the late austral  
162 summer and early autumn (January-April). The loss of sea-ice area (Figure 1e) is greatest in  
163 September ( $7.7 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ ) and least in February ( $1.6 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$ ).

164

165 As would be expected, the loss of sea-ice leads to an increase in the ocean-to-atmosphere heat  
166 flux at the ocean surface. Figure 1f shows the area-weighted surface turbulent (sensible plus  
167 latent) heat flux response, summed over Southern Hemisphere grid points where the sea-ice  
168 concentration differs between the preindustrial and quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> states. The inferred heat flux  
169 response to the sea-ice loss (Figure 1f) is largest in the austral winter (July-September), reaching  
170 a maximum of 300 TW in August, and smallest in spring to summer, with a minimum of 50 TW  
171 in January. The annual cycle of the surface heat flux response closely follows the annual cycle of  
172 sea-ice area loss; although the monthly maximum and minimum heat flux responses occur one  
173 month prior to the maximum and minimum sea-ice area loss. The heat flux response peaks in  
174 August, despite sea-ice loss being largest in August-September, because the climatological heat  
175 flux is at a maximum in July-August (not shown).

176

177 Near-surface air temperatures are significantly increased in regions of sea ice loss (Figure 2a-d),  
178 consistent with an enhanced ocean-to-atmosphere heat flux. The seasons and geographical  
179 regions of greatest warming are consistent with both the magnitude of sea-ice loss and of the  
180 surface heat flux response. Warming reaches a maximum of 7.2 K in the Amundsen Sea in  
181 austral winter. The near-surface warming does not extent far inland, probably due to the high  
182 elevation of the Antarctic continent and predominantly down-slope winds, in agreement with  
183 England et al. (2018).

184  
185 The inferred mean surface level pressure (MSLP) response to sea-ice loss (Figure 2e-h)  
186 resembles the spatial pattern of the negative phase of the SAM, with increased MSLP at high  
187 latitudes and reduced MSLP in mid-latitudes, particularly in the austral spring and summer. An  
188 increase in MSLP is simulated over the Antarctic continent in all seasons. The MSLP response is  
189 highly zonally symmetric in spring and summer. In winter, and to a lesser extent in autumn, the  
190 ring of reduced MSLP in midlatitudes is punctuated by increased MSLP in the East Pacific  
191 sector (i.e., south of Australia and New Zealand). Also, in winter, MSLP is increased in the  
192 Amundsen-Bellingshausen Sea, which implies a reduction in the intensity of the Amundsen Sea  
193 Low. The inferred response of the westerly wind in the mid-troposphere (500 hPa; Figure 2i-l) is  
194 best described as decrease in westerly wind velocity around Antarctica centered at 65 °S and an  
195 increase in mid-latitudes centered at 45 °S. This general pattern is simulated in all seasons but is  
196 of greatest magnitude in austral spring and summer, consistent with the MSLP response.

197  
198 Figure 3a-d shows the vertical profile of the inferred zonal-mean air temperature response to sea-  
199 ice loss. The near-surface warming previously discussed is confined to the lower troposphere,

200 below 500 hPa. The most notable features of the temperature response aloft are general cooling  
201 of the stratosphere across a range of latitudes and seasons, and polar stratospheric warming in  
202 austral spring. We suspect the former may be an artifact of method as both SST warming and  
203 quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> favor a cooler stratosphere (not shown). The polar stratospheric warming in  
204 spring, however, is not seen in the response to either SST warming or quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> and may  
205 indicate a weakened stratospheric polar vortex in response to sea-ice loss.

206

207 The inferred zonal-mean westerly wind response to sea-ice loss (Figure 3e-h) shows a weakening  
208 of the westerly wind at 60 °S, on the poleward flank of the eddy-driven jet, from the surface to  
209 the mid-stratosphere in all seasons, but of largest magnitude in austral winter and spring. The  
210 weakening of the stratospheric westerly wind at 60 °S is largest in spring and again, suggests a  
211 weakened stratospheric polar vortex. In October, the models depict a robust slowdown of  
212 stratospheric polar vortex by 4.5 ms<sup>-1</sup> (~10% of the climatological SPV strength in this month;  
213 Figure S3). Throughout the year, but to a lesser degree in autumn, there is strengthened westerly  
214 wind at 40 °S, predominantly in the core of the subtropical jet. The tropospheric response is  
215 largest when there is a coincident and same-signed stratosphere response, suggesting  
216 troposphere-stratosphere coupling. This result is in accordance with previous studies that have  
217 suggested increased stratosphere-troposphere coupling in the austral spring when the  
218 stratospheric polar vortex breaks down (e.g., Kidston et al., 2015).

219

220 Figures 2 and 3 suggest changes in the westerly eddy-driven jet in response to sea-ice loss, which  
221 can be better quantified using the jet latitude and jet strength metrics. The inferred eddy-driven  
222 jet latitude response (Figure 4a) shows an equatorward shift in August to February, of 1.5 °

223 latitude at its maximum in December. December and April are the only months when eight  
224 models agree on the sign of the jet latitude response, with approximately seven or fewer models  
225 agreeing on the sign of the response in other calendar months. The eddy-driven jet strength is  
226 decreased from August to December, with the biggest reduction in jet strength of  $0.75 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  found  
227 in November and corroborated by 9 models (Figure 4b). Changes in the SAM index mimic those  
228 of jet strength (Figure S3). The simplest dynamical explanation for the eddy-driven jet  
229 weakening is the reduction in the near-surface temperature gradient and resultant decreased  
230 baroclinicity (Kidston et al., 2011). We note that the jet responses to sea-ice loss are small and,  
231 in most months, of opposite sign, compared to those simulated in response to SST and  $\text{CO}_2$ . The  
232 jet strength and in particular, jet latitude responses are less robust than the 500 hPa westerly wind  
233 and zonal-mean zonal wind responses described earlier. We posit that more varied jet responses  
234 reflect differences in the average latitude of the jet across the models. Models with a more  
235 southerly located jet tend to simulate a poleward-shifted jet in response to sea-ice loss, whereas  
236 those with a more northerly located jet tend to simulate an equatorward-shifted jet in response to  
237 sea-ice loss (Figure 4c). The models that depict a strengthening jet in response to sea-ice loss  
238 have their jets too far north, at around  $40^\circ\text{S}$ , at latitudes where the westerly wind increases  
239 (Figure 3). The zonal-mean westerly wind decrease is largest at  $60^\circ\text{S}$  (Figure 3), poleward of the  
240 mean jet, and thus, the models with more poleward-located jets are also those that simulate the  
241 largest reductions in jet strength in response to sea-ice loss (Figure 4d). These relationships are  
242 strongest in winter and spring (not shown for other seasons) and are reminiscent of similar  
243 dependencies seen for the projected jet response to increased greenhouse gas concentrations  
244 (e.g., Kidston and Gerber, 2010; Bracegirdle et al., 2018).

245

**246 4. Discussion**

247 Our results suggest an overall weakening of the eddy-driven jet and negative shift in the SAM  
248 index in response to projected Antarctic sea-ice loss, particularly in austral spring. This result is  
249 in broad agreement with past studies using individual models (Bader et al., 2013; England et al.,  
250 2018; Menéndez et al., 1999; Raphael et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2017), but we are the first to  
251 provide evidence from a multi-model ensemble. The weakening of the eddy-driven jet and  
252 negative SAM in response to sea-ice loss counteract, but only partially offset, the projected jet  
253 strengthening and positive SAM in response to increased CO<sub>2</sub> (Figure S1, S2). Thus, projected  
254 sea-ice loss acts to slightly weaken the jet and SAM response to increased CO<sub>2</sub>. We have shown  
255 that the SAM response to projected sea-ice loss primarily reflects changes in eddy-driven jet  
256 strength and to a lesser extent, changes in jet latitude, consistent with England et al. (2018).

257

258 Our results suggest that in many respects, the multi-model-mean response to projected Antarctic  
259 sea-ice loss is analogous to that in response to projected Arctic sea-ice loss. Consistent features  
260 of the multi-model responses to Arctic and Antarctic include the weakening of the eddy-driven  
261 jet, shift towards the negative phase of the annular mode, and weakening of the stratospheric  
262 polar vortex, albeit with some differences in seasonality as also noted by England et al. (2018)  
263 for one model. One difference between our results and that for the multi-model-mean response to  
264 projected Arctic sea-ice loss is that near-surface temperature response to Antarctic sea-ice loss  
265 does not extend over the Antarctic continent (Fig. 2), whereas the surface temperature response  
266 to Arctic sea-ice loss does spread to the northern high-latitude continents (e.g., Zappa et al.,  
267 2018). We speculate the high elevation of Antarctica isolates the continent from the low-level  
268 sea-ice-induced warming. In contrast, Krinner et al. (2014) found a large temperature response

269 over the continent in atmosphere-only simulations with prescribed changes in sea ice and SST.  
270 This implies that broader SST warming is key to warming over the Antarctic plateau.

271  
272 Our results suggest a different seasonality to the stratospheric response to projected Antarctic  
273 sea-ice loss to that in England et al. (2018). We found a robust multi-model-mean weakening of  
274 the stratospheric zonal wind only in spring, whereas in the single model experiments of England  
275 et al. (2018), the stratospheric zonal wind was weakened in autumn and winter, but not in spring.  
276 The seasonal timing of maximum stratospheric response shown here is more in line with that in  
277 response to projected Arctic sea-ice loss. In the Northern Hemisphere, sea-ice loss appears to  
278 enhance the upward propagation of planetary scales waves causing a weakening of the polar  
279 vortex in late winter or spring (e.g., Kim et al., 2014). However, it is unclear whether this  
280 mechanism operates in the Southern Hemisphere and the zonal symmetry of multi-model-mean  
281 tropospheric circulation response implies only small changes in upward wave propagation.  
282 Further work with dedicated sea-ice perturbation experiments is required to understand the  
283 origins of the stratospheric response to Antarctic sea-ice loss.

284

285

## 286 **5. Conclusions**

287 We have undertaken the first multi-model analysis of the atmospheric response to projected  
288 Antarctic sea-ice loss. We find some robust aspects of the atmospheric circulation response to  
289 sea-ice loss across eleven models, despite large differences between the models in many aspects.  
290 Our results suggest that projected sea-ice loss causes a robust weakening of the tropospheric  
291 westerly jet and favors the negative phase of the SAM, of greatest magnitude and robustness in

292 austral spring and summer. In these regards, the response to sea-ice loss acts to weakly damp the  
293 strengthening westerly jet and positive SAM responses to increased CO<sub>2</sub>. We have shown that  
294 the SAM response to sea-ice loss primarily reflects a reduction in jet strength and to a lesser  
295 extent, an equatorward shift in the jet. In austral spring, we find multi-model evidence for a  
296 weakening polar stratospheric vortex and coupling between the stratospheric and tropospheric  
297 zonal wind responses. Sea-ice loss induces warming in the lowermost atmosphere over the high-  
298 latitude Southern Ocean, but this warming does not penetrate over the Antarctic continent.

299

### 300 **Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data**

301 We thank Thomas Bracegirdle for useful discussions and for commenting on an earlier draft of  
302 the paper. We acknowledge the World Climate Research Programme Working Group on  
303 Coupled Modelling, which is responsible for CMIP, and the modeling groups listed in Table S1  
304 for producing the simulations and making available their output. CMIP data were obtained from  
305 the British Atmospheric Data Centre. This study is supported by the “Robust Spatial Projections  
306 of Real-World Climate Change” (NERC, Research grant NE/N018486/1) and the University of  
307 Exeter.

308

### 309 **Figure captions**

310 Multi-model-mean sea ice concentration response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> in austral (a) summer  
311 (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter (July-September; JAS) and (d)  
312 spring (October-December). The black and grey contours show the sea-ice edge (15%  
313 concentration) in the quadrupled and control simulations, respectively. (e) Multi-model-mean  
314 sea-ice area (SIA) response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of calendar month. The right-hand



315 vertical axis (in blue) shows the number of models that have the same signed response as the  
316 multimodel mean, with filled dots indicating nine or more models have the same signed response  
317 as the multimodel mean and stars indicating fewer than nine models have the same signed  
318 response as the multimodel mean. (f) As (e), but for the inferred surface turbulent heat flux  
319 response, calculated as the area-weighted surface turbulent (sensible plus latent) heat flux  
320 response, summed over Southern Hemisphere grid points where the sea-ice concentration differs  
321 between the preindustrial and quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> states. The heat flux is defined as positive in the  
322 upward direction.

323  
324 Figure 2: Multi-model-mean inferred surface air temperature (TAS) response to Antarctic sea-ice  
325 loss in austral (a) summer (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter  
326 (July-September; JAS) and (d) spring (October-December). In areas enclosed by the grey  
327 contours nine or more models have the same signed response as the multimodel mean. (e-h) As  
328 (a-d), but for mean sea level pressure (MSLP). (i-l) As (a-d), but for 500 hPa westerly wind  
329 (U500). The thick black line represents the climatological jet position.

330  
331 Figure 3: Multi-model-mean inferred zonal-mean air temperature response to Antarctic sea-ice  
332 loss in austral (a) summer (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter  
333 (July-September; JAS) and (d) spring (October-December). The black contours show the  
334 baseline climatology and hatching indicates where nine or more models have the same signed  
335 response as the multimodel mean. (e-h) As (a-d), but for zonal-mean westerly wind.

336  
337 Figure 4: Multi-model-mean inferred jet latitude response to Antarctic sea-ice loss (black line)  
338 and the combined response to SST and CO<sub>2</sub> (dashed line) as a function of calendar month. The

339 right-hand vertical axis (in blue) shows the number of individual models that have the same  
340 signed response to sea-ice loss as the multi-model-mean, with filled dots indicating nine or more  
341 models agree and stars indicating fewer than nine models agree. (b) As (a), but for jet strength.  
342 (c) Jet latitude response to Antarctic sea-ice loss as a function of the climatological jet latitude in  
343 the preindustrial control simulation for each model (crosses) and for austral winter (red) and  
344 spring (black). Also shown are the linear relationships and their associated correlation  
345 coefficients. (d) As (c) but for jet strength.  
346

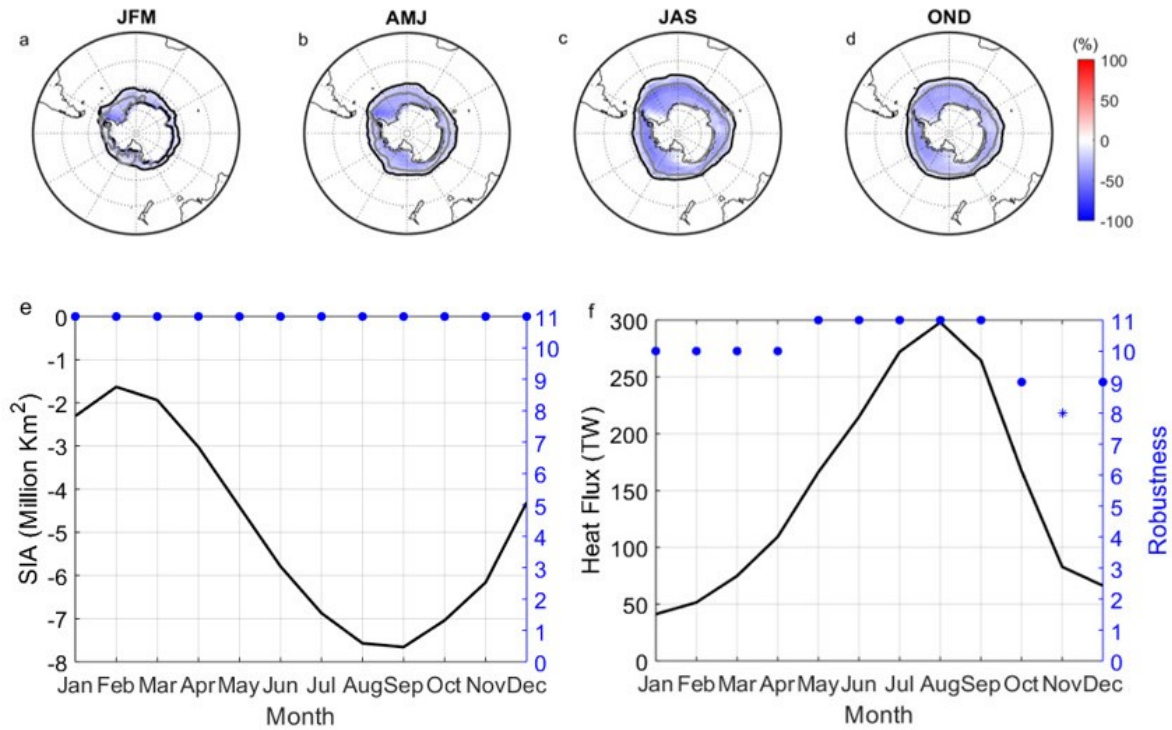
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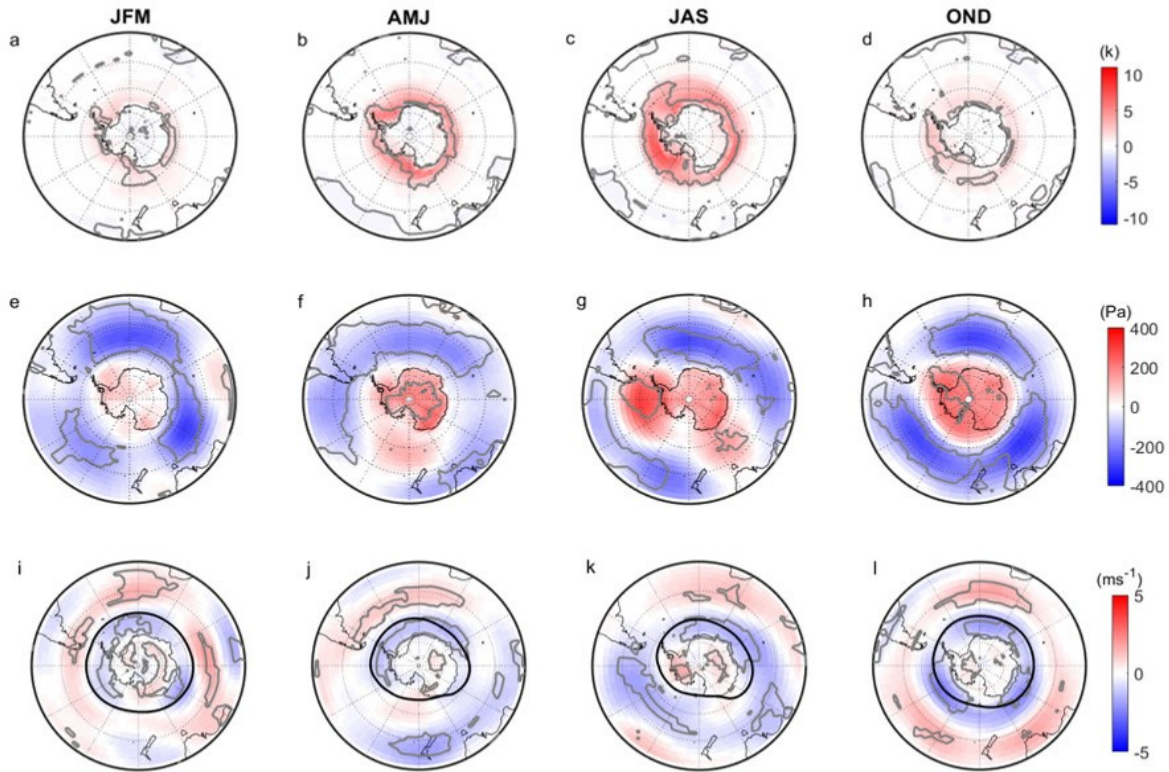
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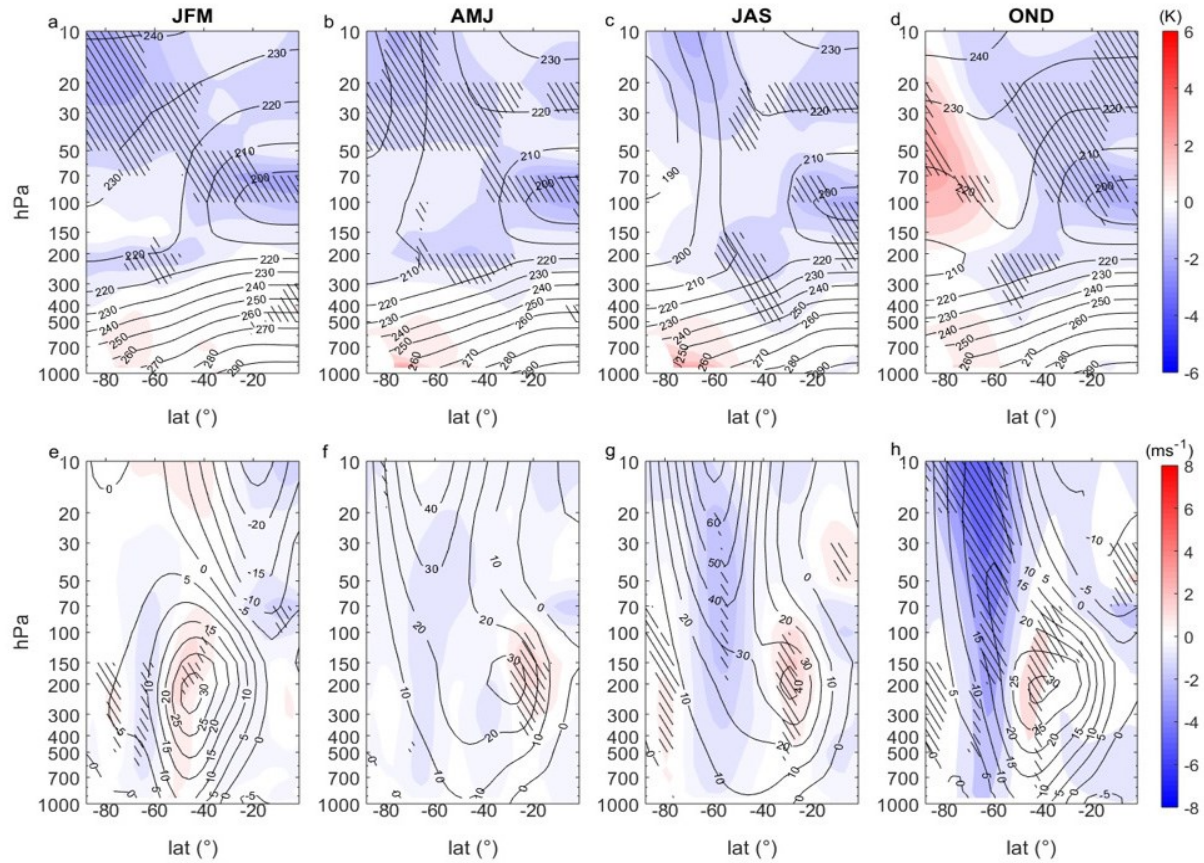
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 475 **Figure 1:** Multi-model-mean sea ice concentration response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> in austral (a)  
 476 summer (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter (July-September; JAS)  
 477 and (d) spring (October-December). The black and grey contours show the sea-ice edge (15%  
 478 concentration) in the quadrupled and control simulations, respectively. (e) Multi-model-mean  
 479 sea-ice area (SIA) response to quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of calendar month. The right-hand  
 480 vertical axis (in blue) shows the number of models that have the same signed response as the  
 481 multimodel mean, with filled dots indicating nine or more models have the same signed  
 482 response as the multimodel mean and stars indicating fewer than nine models have the same signed  
 483 response as the multimodel mean. (f) As (e), but for the inferred surface turbulent heat flux  
 484 response, calculated as the area-weighted surface turbulent (sensible plus latent) heat flux  
 485 response, summed over Southern Hemisphere grid points where the sea-ice concentration differs  
 486 between the preindustrial and quadrupled CO<sub>2</sub> states. The heat flux is defined as positive in the  
 487 upward direction.



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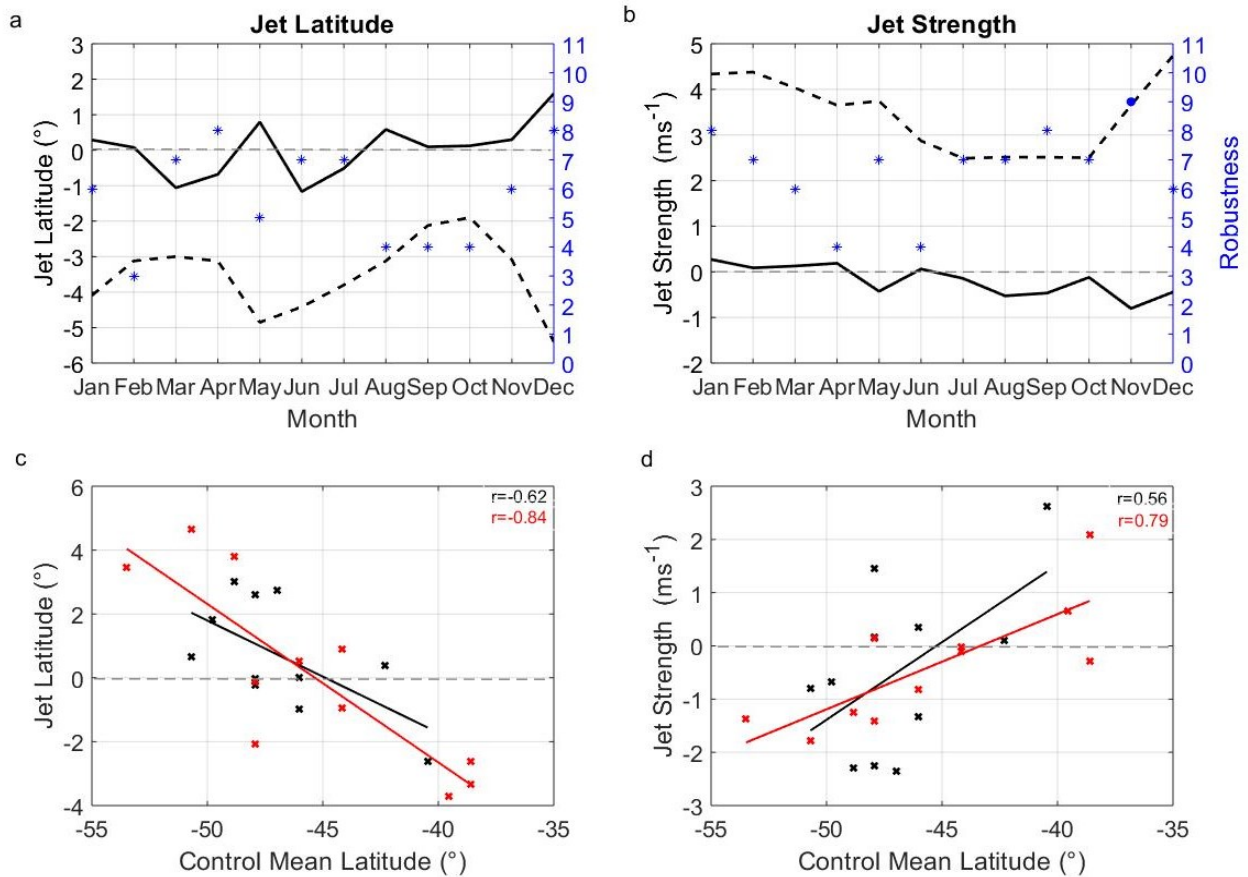
489 **Figure 2:** Multi-model-mean inferred surface air temperature (TAS) response to Antarctic sea-  
 490 ice loss in austral (a) summer (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter  
 491 (July-September; JAS) and (d) spring (October-December). In areas enclosed by the grey  
 492 contours nine or more models have the same signed response as the multimodel mean. (e-h) As  
 493 (a-d), but for mean sea level pressure (MSLP). (i-l) As (a-d), but for 500 hPa westerly wind  
 494 (U500). The thick black line represents the climatological jet position.





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**Figure 3:** Multi-model-mean inferred zonal-mean air temperature response to Antarctic sea-ice loss in austral (a) summer (January-March; JFM), (b) autumn (April-June; AMJ), (c) winter (July-September; JAS) and (d) spring (October-December). The black contours show the baseline climatology and hatching indicates where nine or more models have the same signed response as the multimodel mean. (e-h) As (a-d), but for zonal-mean westerly wind.



502

503 **Figure 4:** Multi-model-mean inferred jet latitude response to Antarctic sea-ice loss (black line)

504 and the combined response to SST and CO<sub>2</sub> (dashed line) as a function of calendar month. The

505 right-hand vertical axis (in blue) shows the number of individual models that have the same

506 signed response to sea-ice loss as the multi-model-mean, with filled dots indicating nine or more

507 models agree and stars indicating fewer than nine models agree. (b) As (a), but for jet strength.

508 (c) Jet latitude response to Antarctic sea-ice loss as a function of the climatological jet latitude in

509 the preindustrial control simulation for each model (crosses) and for austral winter (red) and

510 spring (black). Also shown are the linear relationships and their associated correlation

511 coefficients. (d) As (c) but for jet strength.

512