

# ***Tropical forcing of Circumpolar Deep Water Inflow and outlet glacier thinning in the Amundsen Sea Embayment, West Antarctica***

*E.J. STEIG<sup>1\*</sup>, Q. DING<sup>1</sup>, D.S. BATTISTI<sup>2</sup>, A. JENKINS<sup>3</sup>*

*<sup>1</sup>Department of Earth and Space Sciences and Quaternary Research Center, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, 98195, USA*

*<sup>2</sup>Department of Atmospheric Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, 98195, USA and the Geophysical Institute, University of Bergen, NO-5007 Bergen, Norway*

*<sup>3</sup>British Antarctic Survey, Natural Environment Research Council, High Cross, Madingley Road, Cambridge, CB3 0ET, UK*

*\*To whom correspondence should be addressed: steig@uw.edu*

1 **ABSTRACT.** Outlet glaciers draining the Antarctic Ice Sheet into the Amundsen Sea  
2 Embayment (ASE) have accelerated in recent decades, most likely as a result of increased  
3 melting of their ice shelf termini by warm Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW). An ocean  
4 model forced with climate reanalysis data shows that, beginning in the early 1990s, an  
5 increase in westerly wind stress over the continental shelf edge drove an increase in  
6 CDW inflow onto the shelf. The change in local wind stress occurred predominantly in  
7 fall and early winter, associated with anomalous high sea level pressure (SLP) to the  
8 north of the ASE and an increase in sea surface temperature in the central tropical Pacific.  
9 The SLP change is associated with geopotential height anomalies in the middle and upper  
10 troposphere, characteristic of a stationary Rossby wave response to tropical SST forcing,  
11 rather than with changes in the zonally symmetric circulation. Tropical Pacific warming  
12 similar to that of the 1990s occurred in the 1940s, and thus is a candidate for initiating the  
13 current period of ASE glacier retreat. Further warming of the tropical Pacific can be  
14 expected to contribute to continued CDW inflow and continued melting of ASE outlet  
15 glaciers.

## INTRODUCTION

16 Pine Island Glacier and Thwaites Glacier, the two largest of several fast-moving outlet  
17 glaciers that drain a large fraction of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) into the  
18 Amundsen Sea Embayment, have long been recognized as critical elements of WAIS  
19 dynamics (e.g. Lingle and Clarke, 1979). Hughes (1979; 1981) argued that it is these  
20 glaciers that make the WAIS most susceptible to large-scale collapse, which almost  
21 certainly occurred during some previous interglacial periods (Scherer and others, 1998;  
22 Pollard and DeConto, 2009; Naish and others, 2009). The inferred sensitivity of the  
23 Amundsen Sea Embayment (ASE) glaciers reflects of their bed geometry, which deepens  
24 inland (Lythe and others, 2001), the small size of the floating ice shelves at their termini,  
25 and the direct exposure of the ice shelves to the influence of warm, Circumpolar Deep  
26 Water (CDW) (Jacobs and others, 1996; Nitsche and others, 2007). In the mid-1990s it  
27 was discovered that melt rates under the Pine Island Glacier ice shelf are two orders of  
28 magnitude greater than under the much larger ice shelves in the Ross and Weddell Seas  
29 (Jacobs and others, 1996). Subsequent studies using satellite imagery and interferometry  
30 revealed that the grounding lines of Pine Island Glacier as well as Smith and Thwaites  
31 glaciers had retreated recently (Rignot, 1998; Rignot, 2001), that there was significant  
32 thinning well inland of the grounding lines (Wingham and others, 1998; Shepherd and  
33 others, 2002), and that glacier surface velocities were increasing (Joughin and others,  
34 2003; Rignot, 2008).

35 Although the thinning of Amundsen Sea Embayment glaciers could in part reflect  
36 changes in surface mass balance (i.e. changes in snowfall in the drainage areas),  
37 Shepherd and others (2009) showed that the magnitude of thinning is too large to be  
38 explained that way, and that the pattern of changes is consistent with the diffusive  
39 upstream migration of a force perturbation beginning at the glacier bed (Schmelz and  
40 others, 2002, Payne and others, 2004). This in turn is consistent with a response to the  
41 thinning of the ice shelves (Shepherd and others, 2004) resulting from an increase in  
42 submarine melt rates due to enhanced delivery of heat from warm CDW, as had been  
43 suggested much earlier (Jacobs and others, 1992; 1996). These ideas were validated in  
44 2010 by direct observations made by autonomous underwater vehicle under the Pine  
45 Island Glacier ice shelf, which mapped the subglacial topography in great detail, and

46 measured water temperature, salinity, and oxygen content (Jenkins and others, 2010).  
47 These observations showed that CDW now floods the cavity below Pine Island Glacier,  
48 more than 30 km upstream of areas that were at least partially grounded as recently as the  
49 early 1970s. At several degrees above freezing, this CDW carries enough heat to be  
50 melting the ice from below at rates in excess of 50 m/year, in good agreement with  
51 estimates independently derived from the observed ice velocities and thinning rates (e.g.  
52 Rignot and others, 2008).

53 Thoma and others (2008) used a regional ice-ocean model to show that recent  
54 changes in the influx of CDW in the ASE could be attributed to changes in the frequency  
55 and strength of westerly winds over the edge of the continental shelf. The timing of  
56 modelled increases in CDW influx is similar to the timing of two distinct phases of  
57 acceleration on Pine Island Glacier, in 1974-1987 and after 1994, that were separated by  
58 a period of quiescence (Joughin and others, 2003; Rignot and others 2008; Scott and  
59 others, 2009; Wingham and others, 2009). Jenkins and others (2010) found that as of  
60 1973, the grounding line of Pine Island Glacier had already retreated from the top of a  
61 subglacial topographic ridge, suggesting that the retreat throughout the observational  
62 record, as well as into the future, was likely to be an inevitable result of the well-known  
63 marine ice sheet instability associated with deepening of the seabed inland of the ridge  
64 crest (e.g. Schoof, 2007). This finding raised a question about the relative roles of  
65 contemporaneous ocean forcing and continuing ice sheet response to an earlier event in  
66 controlling the current behaviour of the glacier. However, Joughin and others (2010)  
67 suggest that subtle topographic highpoints on the otherwise downwards slope from the  
68 ridge crest could have halted grounding line retreat, at least temporarily, and that ocean  
69 forcing could have played a role in re-starting the retreat. Furthermore, not only Pine  
70 Island Glacier, but also Thwaites and Smith Glaciers thinned in the 1990s (Shepherd and  
71 others, 2002), and glaciers are thinning at present nearly everywhere along the Amundsen  
72 Sea margin of the WAIS despite varying bed geometry (e.g. Pritchard et al., 2009).

73 Thus, while the complex interaction between bed slope, glacier dynamics and ocean  
74 forcing remains to be fully understood, the evidence appears to be firm that changes in  
75 CDW inflow to the ASE, driven by changes in local wind forcing, have played a role in  
76 influencing the thinning and retreat of glaciers in the ASE. This raises the question of

77 how the observed changes in winds in the ASE are related to larger-scale changes in  
78 atmospheric circulation. Thoma and others (2008) found that the correlation between  
79 local circulation in the ASE and commonly used indices of the large scale circulation, the  
80 Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index and the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI), was  
81 low. However, the causes of local wind changes cannot generally be ascribed to a single  
82 large-scale index, and the relevant dynamics probably depends on the season in which  
83 changes in CDW influx have occurred. In this paper, we explore the relationship  
84 between ASE winds, modelled CDW upwelling, and the large-scale circulation in more  
85 detail.

## **DATA AND METHODS**

86 Thoma and others (2008) modelled CDW intrusions onto the ASE shelf using a regional  
87 ice-ocean model based on a version of the Miami Isopycnic Coordinate Ocean Model of  
88 Bleck and others (1992) adapted to include sub-ice-shelf cavities by Holland and Jenkins  
89 (2001). They forced the model with sea level pressure and sea surface temperature  
90 variations from the NCEP climate reanalysis data (Kalnay and others, 1996). We use  
91 their monthly model output of the thickness of CDW layers (isopycnic model layers 7  
92 and 8) on the continental slope and on the inner shelf, near the margin of Pine Island  
93 Glacier, for the period 1980 through 2004. The continental shelf edge in the ASE region  
94 is oriented approximately east-west, and Thoma and others (2008) argued that increased  
95 westerlies would lead to enhanced CDW intrusion across the shelf. As a proxy for the  
96 westerlies they used a simple index for the geostrophic wind, based on the sea level  
97 pressure (SLP) difference north and south of the shelf edge. Here, we use the zonal wind  
98 stress over the shelf edge as a more direct measure of atmospheric forcing.

99 A simple explanation for the relationship between westerly wind stress and CDW  
100 inflow is the northward Ekman transport of surface waters that lifts CDW up the slope  
101 and drives it onto the outer shelf. While this process undoubtedly operates, the bulk of  
102 the inflow, which is focussed on the shelf-edge troughs, is driven by more complex  
103 interactions between the temporally varying shelf-edge currents and the spatially varying  
104 topography, and is probably related to both the overall strength and the variability of the  
105 westerly wind stress (Klinck and Dinniman, 2010). Once on the continental shelf, CDW

106 is transported into Pine Island Bay by a combination of the cyclonic circulation on the  
107 shelf and the deepening of the seabed along the axes of the main glacial troughs (Nitsche  
108 and others, 2007). Strong statistical relationships between westerly wind stress and the  
109 modelled CDW response, including a reasonable lag time (implying mean currents of ~5-  
110 10 cm/s along the main trough that extends across the continental shelf towards Pine  
111 Island Glacier) show that seasonal mean westerly wind stress is a physically meaningful  
112 measure of the atmospheric dynamics relevant to CDW inflow.

113 To obtain wind stress data, and for analysis of the large-scale climate fields, we use  
114 both NCEP2 (Kanamitsu et al., 2002) and a combination of ERA40 (1979-2004) and  
115 ERA-interim (2005-2009) reanalysis products (Uppala et al., 2005). Following other  
116 recent work (Ding and others, 2011), in some figures we show ERA40/ERA-interim data  
117 only, but the results are not dependent on which product is used. While zonal wind stress  
118 changes could occur without changes in the zonal wind speed, the monthly zonal  
119 component of wind stress and wind speed are highly correlated in this region because the  
120 variability in the meridional wind is much weaker than in the zonal wind. The wind  
121 stress and the estimate of geostrophic wind used by Thoma and others (2008) are  
122 therefore closely comparable. We use daily and monthly wind stress at 70°S, averaged  
123 over 100° W to 125°W, corresponding to the continental slope at the edge of the ASE  
124 (Fig. 1).

## **RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCAL WIND STRESS AND MODELLED CIRCUMPOLAR DEEP WATER INFLOW**

125 In the climatological mean, westerly wind stress at the ASE shelf edge occurs  
126 predominantly in fall through spring, with a maximum in late winter (Fig. 1). In austral  
127 summer, the wind stress is weak easterly. The true seasonal variability of CDW  
128 intrusions in the ASE is not known, due to the very limited available data. However, the  
129 model results of Thoma and others (2008) show the greatest quantity of CDW on the  
130 outer shelf during spring, about one month after the climatological maximum in westerly  
131 wind stress, and a subsequent maximum on the inner shelf one to two months later. The  
132 lag between wind stress over the continental slope and modelled inner shelf CDW layer  
133 thickness is quite consistent (~2.5 months) on both seasonal and interannual timescales,

134 as clearly seen in a simple lag correlation plot (Fig. 2a). A spectral coherence calculation  
135 suggests the same phase lag also extends to decadal timescales (Fig. 2b,c), though this  
136 cannot be demonstrated to be statistically significant.

137 In the early 1990s, there is a significant increase in the thickness of modelled CDW in  
138 the ASE (Figure 3), at least approximately coincident with the observation of resumed  
139 acceleration of Pine Island Glacier after 1994 (Joughin and others, 2003). This appears  
140 as a gradual increase beginning in the early 1990s, and a transition to a period of larger  
141 and more variable inner shelf layer thickness around 1994. Although the mean monthly  
142 westerly wind stress (Figure 1b) does not show such an obvious transition, there is a  
143 pronounced increase in austral fall and early winter in the early 1990s (March through  
144 June; Figure 4). Indeed, while the seasonal maximum wind stress remains in winter and  
145 spring, the westerly wind stress in fall more than doubles between the 1980s and 1990s  
146 (Figure 4). Importantly, the maximum layer thickness change between the 1980s and  
147 1990s on the outer continental shelf also occurs in fall and early winter, and the  
148 maximum layer thickness change on the inner continental shelf occurs one to three  
149 months later (Figure 3), indistinguishable from the average phase lag seen for seasonal  
150 and interannual variability. Thus, the significant increase in modelled CDW inflow  
151 between the 1980s and 1990s is the result of a shift in atmospheric conditions occurring  
152 in fall and early winter.

#### **RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LOCAL WIND STRESS AND LARGE-SCALE ATMOSPHERIC CIRCULATION**

153 We now turn to the causes of the observed variability and change in westerly wind stress  
154 in the ASE. The seasonal variations are well understood, and are associated with the  
155 development of a pattern of increased sea level pressure (SLP) immediately to the north  
156 of the ASE, a corresponding weakening of the low-pressure trough (Fig. 1) along the  
157 ASE coastline, and an eastward shift and contraction of the Amundsen Sea Low (e.g. van  
158 den Broeke, 2000; Simmonds and King, 2004). A similar pattern of variability also  
159 occurs on longer timescales, and various mechanisms have been proposed depending on  
160 the season involved. Two commonly used indices of atmospheric circulation relevant to  
161 Antarctic climate variability are the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index (e.g. Marshall,

2006), which reflects the strength of the average circumpolar westerlies, and the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI; e.g. Trenberth, 1984), which reflects conditions in the tropical Pacific. Ding and others (2011) have shown that correlation between the SOI and Amundsen Sea climate is linked more to variability in sea surface temperature (SST) in the central tropical Pacific than in the eastern Pacific region that characterizes El Niño events. The Niño3.4 region (5°S-5°N, 190°-240°E) is a commonly used measure of central Pacific SST variability.

Table 1 shows the correlation between the zonal wind stress over the ASE shelf edge and various measures of large-scale climate variability as a function of season. Statistically significant correlations in summer (DJF) are found only with the SAM index. In winter (JJA) and spring (SON), statistically significant correlations are found with measures of tropical variability but not with the SAM index. In austral fall (MAM), significant correlations are found both with the SAM index and with central tropical Pacific and South Pacific Convergence Zone (SPCZ) SSTs, as well as with the SOI. In no season is there any significant correlation with the NOAA Antarctic Oscillation Index, an alternative measure of zonally symmetric SAM variability (e.g. Mo, 2000).

	Season					
	DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	Annual	AMJ
SAM Index	<b><i>0.34</i></b>	<b>0.35</b>	0.07	0.09	0.05	0.11
Antarctic Oscillation Index	0.12	0.24	0.04	-0.01	-0.01	-0.11
Southern Oscillation Index	0.20	<b>0.36</b>	0.31	<b>0.61</b>	<b>0.60</b>	<b>0.36</b>
Eastern Tropical Pacific SST	0.21	0.19	0.13	<b>0.35</b>	<b>0.36</b>	<b>0.43</b>
Central Tropical Pacific SST	0.19	<b>0.36</b>	<b>0.34</b>	<b>0.47</b>	<b>0.53</b>	0.20
Nino3.4 SST	0.20	0.33	<b>0.37</b>	<b>0.45</b>	<b>0.55</b>	<b>0.40</b>
SPCZ SST	0.14	<b>0.49</b>	0.14	0.26	<b>0.40</b>	0.33

**Table 1.** Correlations between zonal wind stress (ERA40/ERAInterim) along the shelf edge of the Amundsen Sea Embayment, and the SAM index, AAO index, SOI, and sea surface temperatures (SST) in the tropical and subtropical Pacific (ERSST3), for the period 1979-2009. Latitude and longitude ranges for the SSTs are as follows: Eastern: 6°S-6°N, 240°-280°E; Central: 6°S-6°N, 160°-240°E; Niño3.4: 6°S-6°N, 190°-240°E; SPCZ: 20°S-8°S, 180°-240°E. Bold numbers indicate significant correlation above the 95% level, italics at the >90% confidence level.

178 The seasonal differences in correlation patterns shown in Table 1 support previous  
179 work on the causes of variability in the Amundsen Sea region. Most studies of the SAM  
180 have focused on summer, during which significant decadal trends in the SAM have  
181 occurred, particularly between the 1980s and 1990s (e.g. Thompson and Solomon, 2002).  
182 There is no significant trend in the winter or spring SAM index in the last thirty years, but  
183 there are large changes observed in Amundsen sector sea ice and Antarctic surface  
184 temperatures in those seasons (Comiso and Nishio, 2008; Steig and others, 2009) that  
185 have been linked with changes in tropical Pacific SSTs (Ding and others, 2011; Schneider  
186 and others, 2011). Turner and others (2009) showed that recent trends in sea ice as well  
187 as changes in SLP and geopotential height in the Amundsen sector are significant in the  
188 fall in the last 30 years, and suggested that those changes – reminiscent of the  
189 climatological fall-to-winter change in the Amundsen Sea Low – could be explained by  
190 changes in the SAM. While this is consistent with our finding of a significant correlation  
191 between the fall SAM index and the ASE westerlies, this result is quite sensitive to the  
192 data set and season chosen: there is no correlation with the AAO index in any season, and  
193 in the late fall/early winter season (AMJ), there is no correlation with the SAM. In  
194 contrast, wind stress in MAM and AMJ is consistently as high or more highly correlated  
195 with indices of tropical variability than with the SAM.

196 Figure 5 shows maps of the correlation between ASE zonal wind stress and SLP, the  
197 upper troposphere streamfunction,  $\psi$  ( $\mathbf{u} = \nabla \times \psi$ , where  $\mathbf{u}$  is the wind velocity), and SST  
198 for austral fall (MAM). The most prominent feature in SLP is a significant correlation in  
199 the Amundsen Sea sector of the Southern Ocean. The SLP anomalies are the surface  
200 expression of a deep coherent tropospheric circulation, with corresponding geopotential  
201 height anomalies in the middle and upper troposphere. The dynamical connection  
202 between ASE wind stress and the tropical Pacific is apparent in the correlation with the  
203 streamfunction at the 200 hPa level (Fig. 5b), which shows a sequence of positive and  
204 negative correlation centres extending from the central equatorial Pacific to the far south  
205 Pacific. These patterns, along with the nearly equivalent barotropic structure of the high  
206 latitude geopotential height anomalies, are characteristic of a stationary Rossby wave  
207 response to tropical SST forcing (e.g. Gill, 1980; Mo and Higgins, 1981; Hoskins and



208 Karoly, 1998). Correspondingly, the correlation between ASE westerly wind stress and  
209 SST features a positive SST anomaly in the central tropics, shown in Fig 5c.

210 The dynamics that are responsible for the teleconnection between the tropical Pacific  
211 and the south Pacific are well established (e.g. Sardeshmukh and Hoskins 1988; Lachlan-  
212 Cope and Connolley, 2006): anomalously high SSTs in the central Pacific force an  
213 increase in tropical convection in regions of strong potential vorticity gradients  
214 (associated with the subtropical jet east of Australia), which creates a strong Rossby wave  
215 that propagates along a great-circle path towards the Amundsen Sea. Indeed, Ding et al.  
216 (2011) showed that modest positive tropical SST anomalies in the central Pacific, very  
217 similar in pattern to that shown in Fig. 5c, force atmospheric circulation anomalies  
218 consistent in pattern and amplitude with those shown in Fig. 5(a,b) – including in the  
219 Amundsen Sea.

220 The same physics that relates tropical SSTs with interannual anomalies in ASE zonal  
221 wind stress in MAM also appears to be responsible for the decadal changes in wind stress  
222 that account for the modelled changes in CDW layer thickness. Figure 6 shows the  
223 change in SLP, upper level stream function and SST between the 1980s and the 1990s  
224 that accompany the CDW layer thickness and wind stress changes shown in Fig. 3 and 4.  
225 The patterns of surface and upper level circulation and SST changes associated with the  
226 decadal changes in the ASE zonal winds are strikingly similar to the pattern of  
227 interannual correlations. Hence, it appears that tropical SST forcing is responsible for a  
228 significant fraction of both interannual variability and decade-to-decade change in ASE  
229 zonal wind stress. Tropical SST forcing thus plays an important role in influencing the  
230 amount of warm CDW that flows across the continental shelf to bathe the PIG ice shelf  
231 and the margins of other outlet glaciers in the Amundsen Sea Embayment.

## DISCUSSION

232 The results above show that both interannual variability and longer term changes in  
233 westerly wind stress in the Amundsen Sea Embayment, relevant to forcing CDW inflow  
234 to the continental shelf, is significantly influenced by conditions in the tropics. In the  
235 annual mean, as much of 30% or more of the variance in zonal ASE wind stress can be  
236 attributed to tropical forcing, depending on which measure of tropical variability is used.

237 While regional, high latitude atmospheric processes obviously are also important – and  
238 must dominate the unforced variability – it is striking that only in the summer season  
239 does the SAM appear to play a role that is comparable with that of the tropical forcing.  
240 The largest changes in wind stress occur in fall and early winter, when tropical forcing is  
241 clearly dominant.

242 The distinction between low latitude versus high latitude forcing of the ASE wind  
243 stress has significant implications for our understanding of both recent and future changes  
244 in CDW inflow, and therefore to the past and future evolution of Pine Island Glacier and  
245 other outlet glaciers in the area. Recent changes in the SAM in summer have widely  
246 been attributed to radiative forcing resulting from the decline in stratospheric ozone  
247 (Thompson and Solomon, 2002). If changes in the ASE winds in fall were similarly  
248 attributed to ozone-related SAM changes, this would imply that as the ozone hole  
249 recovers over the next few decades, the current, apparently anomalous wind field pattern  
250 will change, implying a return to pre-1990s CDW inflow strength. The attribution of fall  
251 SAM changes to ozone forcing is problematic, however, because this would require a  
252 three to six-month lagged response to spring ozone depletion (e.g., Thomspson and  
253 Solomon 2002, Gillett and Thompson, 2003; Keeley and others 2004). Furthermore, the  
254 SAM index itself is not independent of tropical conditions: observations show, for  
255 example, that a positive SAM index is more likely to occur during a La Niña year (Fogt  
256 and Bromwich, 2006; Fogt and others, 2010). L’Heureux and Thompson (2006)  
257 concluded that about 25% of the interannual variability in the SAM can be attributed to  
258 El Niño-Southern Oscillation variability in austral summer, while Grassi and others  
259 (2005) show that the observed zonal SAM pattern change at 500 hPa geopotential heights  
260 between the 1980s and the 1990s can be simulated with an atmospheric general  
261 circulation model using observed tropical SST forcing alone. Fogt and Bromwich (2006)  
262 attributed the significant observed change in the expression of the SAM in the Amundsen  
263 Sea region between the 1980s and 1990s largely to the great number of El Niño and La  
264 Niña events during the latter decade. Thus, the role of tropical forcing is unequivocal.

## CONCLUSIONS

265 Flow of warm CDW onto the continental shelf has played a critical role in the high melt  
266 rates and recent thinning and retreat of glaciers in the Amundsen Sea Embayment region  
267 of West Antarctica. Variability in CDW inflow is strongly influenced by the strength of  
268 the westerly wind stress over the continental slope, and tropical SST forcing has played  
269 an important, if not dominant role, in recent changes in the zonal wind regime in the  
270 ASE. Continued changes in tropical SSTs can be expected in the future, due to increased  
271 global radiative forcing from anthropogenic greenhouse gases, and warming in the central  
272 tropics is particularly pronounced in most AR4 model runs (Ding and others, 2011),  
273 suggesting that the current wind stress regime in the ASE is likely to persist. In this  
274 context, it is interesting to note that significantly anomalous warming in the central  
275 tropical Pacific last occurred in the 1940s, and ice core evidence indicates that it had a  
276 comparable impact on climate in the Amundsen Sea sector of Antarctica (Schneider and  
277 Steig, 2008). While the link from wind changes to CDW inflow changes to glacier  
278 retreat is obviously not a simple linear process, this nevertheless suggests that tropical  
279 SST forcing during the 1940s is a viable candidate for the initiation of the current period  
280 of change in the Amundsen Sea ice shelves, which clearly was underway at least by the  
281 1970s. Photographic evidence (Rignot, 2002) shows that in 1947, the Pine Island  
282 Glacier ice shelf was only slightly more advanced than in the early 1970s, but that a large  
283 area of icebergs and sea ice extended seaward of the ice front suggesting the aftermath of  
284 a major calving event. Furthermore, there is independent evidence from sediment cores  
285 that a larger ice shelf occupied the ASE at some time prior to this (Kellogg and Kellogg,  
286 1997). We speculate that a more extensive ice shelf may have partially collapsed  
287 following the very large El Niño/La Niña cycle of 1941-1943.

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## FIGURE CAPTIONS

**Figure 1.** **a)** Climatological sea level pressure (hPa) for June-July-August over the Amundsen and Bellingshausen Seas, with outline of the continent in blue. Red box shows the location ( $70^{\circ}\text{S}$ ,  $100^{\circ}$  to  $125^{\circ}$  W) centered on the continental slope used for the zonal wind stress. Dashed box denotes the Amundsen Sea Embayment. **b)** Monthly zonal wind stress and **c)** daily climatological wind stress from ERA40/ERA-interim 1979-2009. Positive values are westerly.

**Figure 2.** Relationship between westerly wind stress over the continental slope and CDW layer thickness on the inner shelf in the Amundsen Sea Embayment. **a)** Correlation of monthly anomalies (mean seasonal cycle removed) of zonal wind stress with CDW layer thickness (layers 7 and 8 from Thoma and others, 2008), for December 1979 through November 2004. **b)** Spectral coherence between wind stress and CDW inner shelf layer thickness as a function of period. Dashed line shows 95% confidence limit. **c)** Phase of the coherence estimates, with 95% uncertainties (shading). Dashed line shows phase for a constant 2.5-month lead of wind stress over CDW changes. Spectral coherence and phase calculated using the Thomson multi-taper method with a bandwidth of  $\sim 0.6/\text{yr}$ . In each figure, thin lines are NCEP2 data, thick lines are ERA40/interim data.

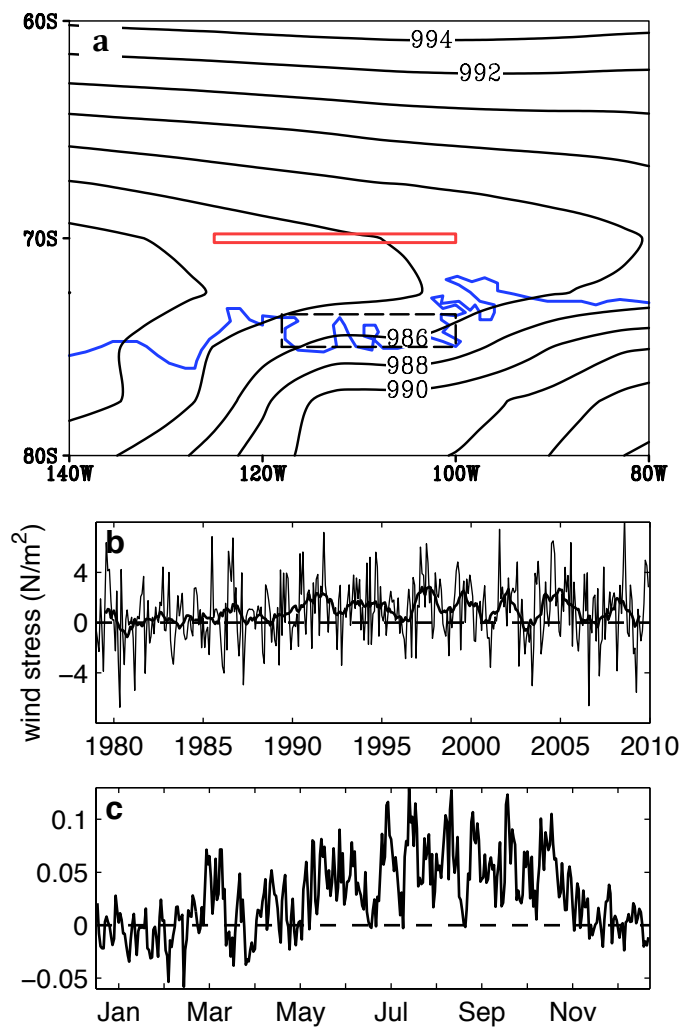
**Figure 3.** Variations in thickness of CDW layers (layers 7 and 8) on the continental slope (dashed) and inner continental shelf (solid) from Thoma and others (2008). **a)** Monthly averages from 1980 to 2004. **b)** Seasonal climatology for the period 1990-1999. **c)** Seasonal climatology for the period 1980-1989. **d)** The difference in between **b)** and **c)**.

**Figure 4.** Seasonal wind stress climatology from NCEP2 (dashed) and ERA40 (solid) for **a)** 1990-1999 **b)** 1980-1989, and **c)** their difference. Although the mean wind stress maximum occurs in the same seasons in both periods (winter and spring), the seasonal mean westerly wind stress more than doubled in the fall between the 1980s and the 1990s.

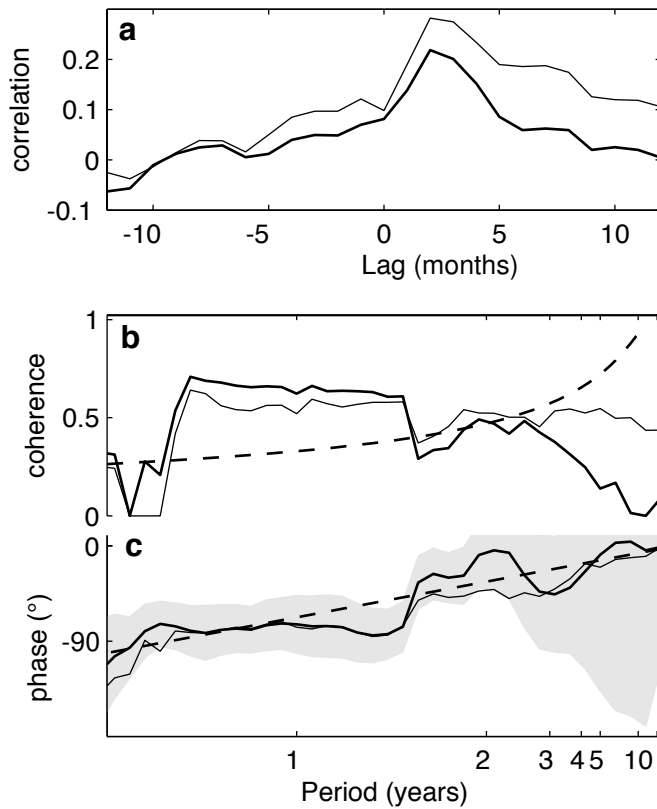


**Figure 5.** Correlation between zonal wind stress in the Amundsen Sea Embayment region (red box in Figure 1) in austral fall (MAM) **a)** sea level pressure, **b)** upper troposphere (200 hPa) stream function and **c)** sea surface temperature. Data are from ERA40/interim and ERSST3 (Smith and others, 2008) for the period 1979-2009. Areas of statistically significant correlation are shaded ( $\sim 0.35$  corresponds to 95% confidence level).

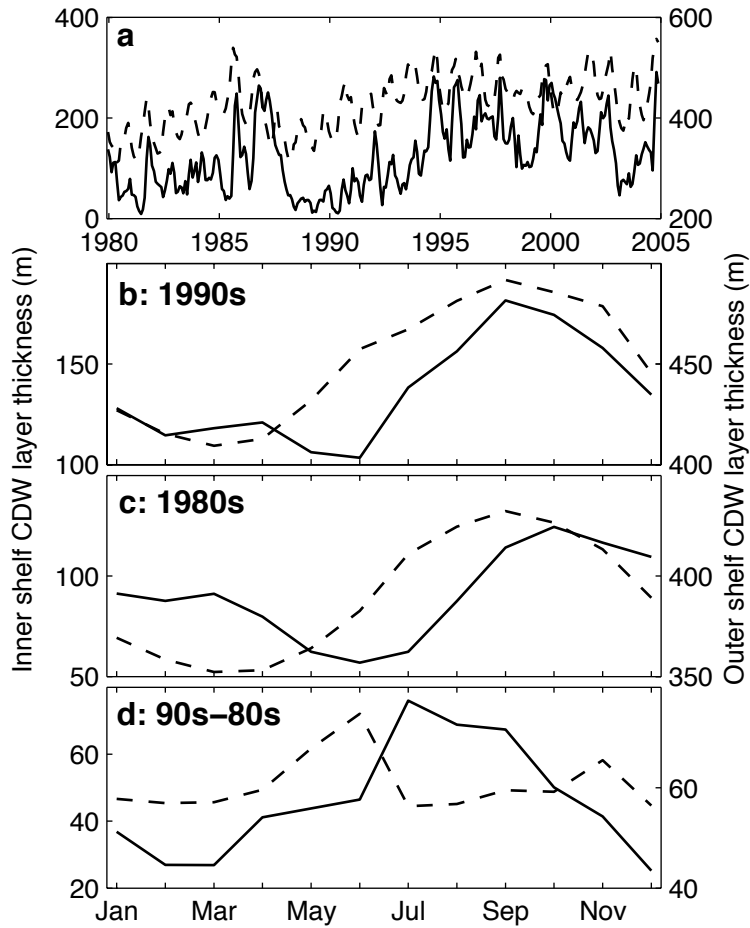
**Figure 6.** Change in **a)** sea level pressure (SLP), **b)** upper troposphere (200 hPa) stream function (Z200) and **c)** sea surface temperature (SST) variations in austral fall (MAM) between 1980-1989 and 1990-1999 from ERA40/interim and ERSST3 data.



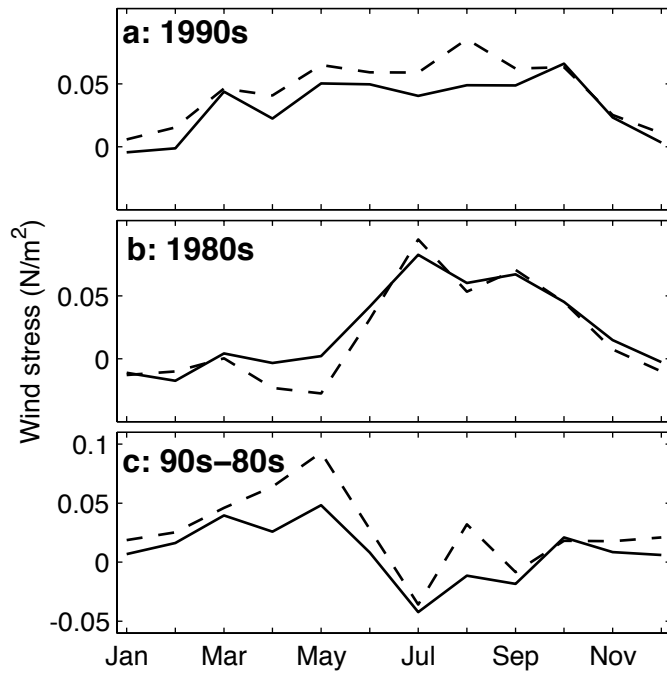
**Figure 1.** a) Climatological sea level pressure (hPa) for June-July-August over the Amundsen and Bellingshausen Seas, with outline of the continent in blue. Red box shows the location (70°S, 100° to 125° W) centered on the continental slope used for the zonal winds stress. Dashed box denotes the Amundsen Sea Embayment. b) Monthly zonal wind stress and c) daily climatological wind stress from ERA40/ERA-interim 1979-2009. Positive values are westerly.



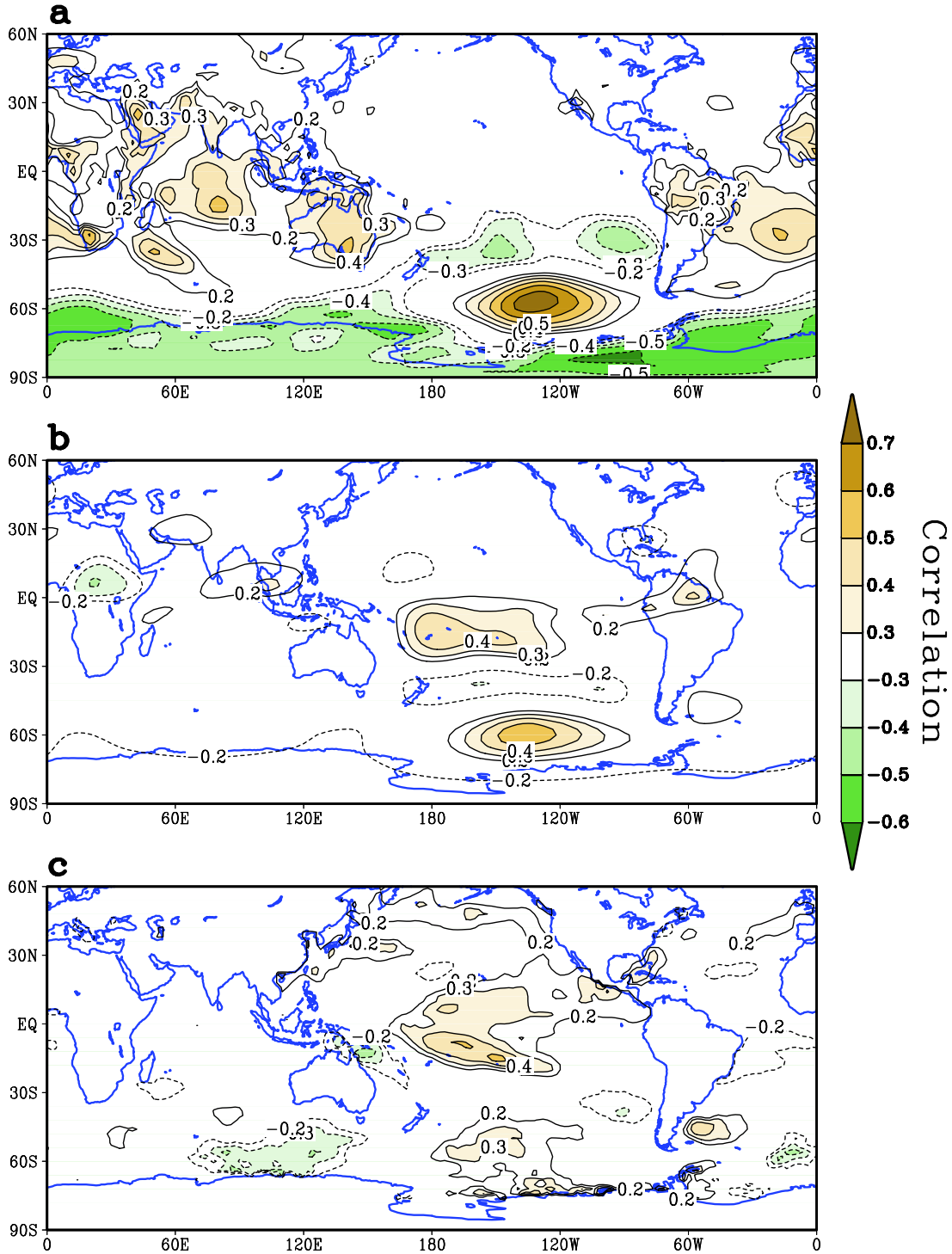
**Figure 2.** Relationship between westerly wind stress at the shelf edge and Circumpolar Deep Water layer thickness on the inner shelf in the Amundsen Sea Embayment. **a)** Correlation of monthly anomalies (mean seasonal cycle removed) of zonal wind stress with CDW layer thickness (layers 7 and 8 from Thoma and others, 2008), for December 1979 through November 2004. **b)** Spectral coherence between wind stress and CDW inner shelf layer thickness as a function of period. Dashed line show 95% confidence limit. **c)** Phase of the coherence estimates, with 95% uncertainties (shading). Dashed line shows phase for a constant 2.5-month lead of wind stress over CDW changes. Spectral coherence and phase calculated using the Thomson (1982) multi-taper method with a bandwidth of  $\sim 0.6/\text{yr}$ . In each figure, thin lines are NCEP2 data, thick lines are ERA40/interim data.



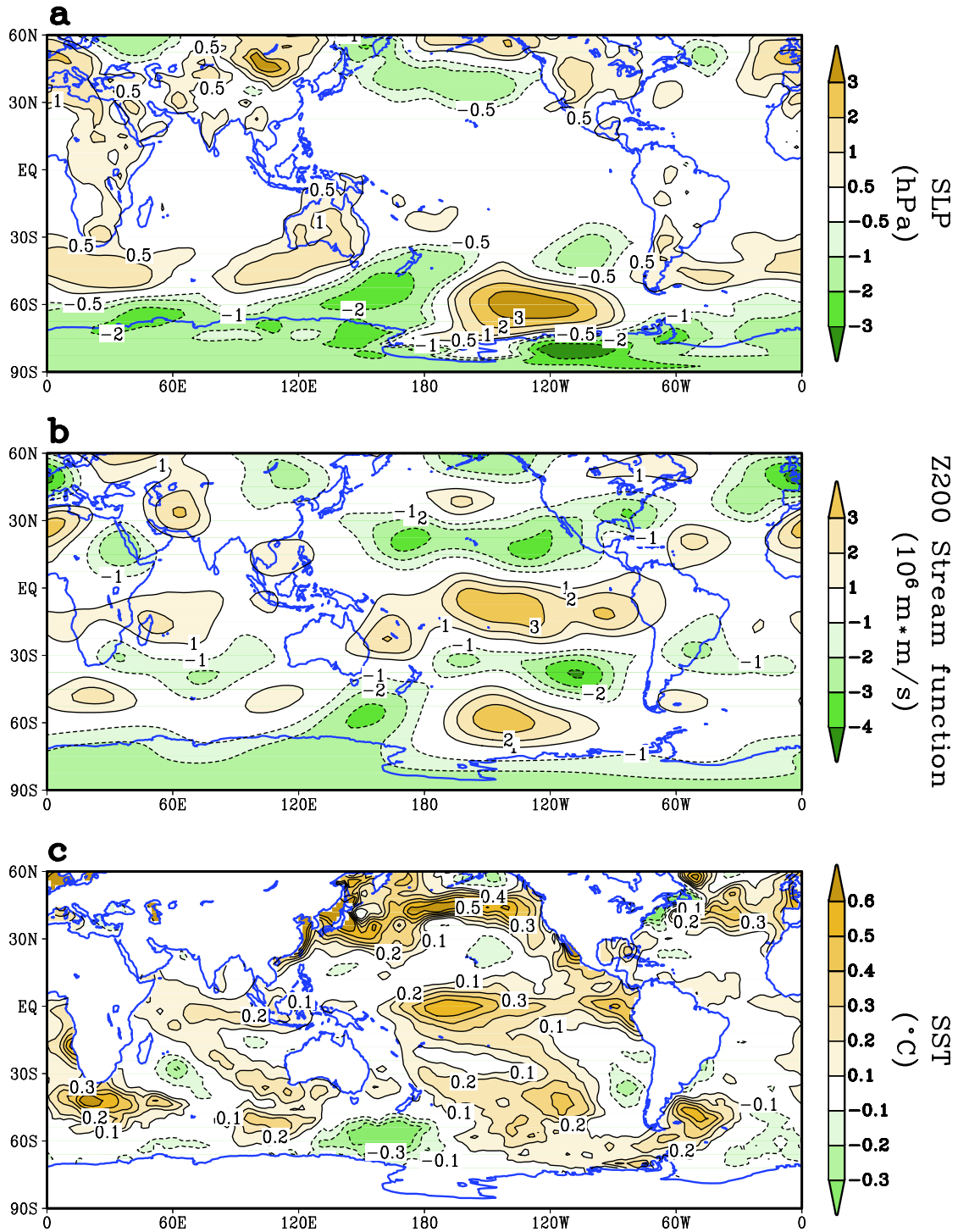
**Figure 3.** Variations in thickness of Circumpolar Deep Water layers (layer 7 and 8) on the outer shelf slope (dashed) and inner continental shelf (solid) from Thoma and others (2008). **a)** monthly averages from 1980 to 2004. **b)** seasonal climatology for the period 1980-1989, **c)** for 1990-1999, and **d)** their difference.



**Figure 4.** Monthly wind stress climatology from NCEP2 (dashed) and ERA40 (solid) for **a)** 1990-1999 **b)** 1980-1989, and **c)** their difference. Although the mean wind stress maximum occurs in the same seasons in both periods (winter and spring), the seasonal mean westerly wind stress more than doubled in the fall between the 1980s and the 1990s.



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