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Ice-sheet losses track high-end sea-level rise projections

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Observed ice-sheet losses track the upper range of AR5 sea-level predictions. Recent mass loss is driven in Antarctica by ice dynamics and in Greenland by extreme surface melt events. Ice-sheet models must account for short-term variability in the atmosphere, oceans and climate to accurately predict sea-level rise.

The Antarctic and Greenland ice-sheets contain enough water to raise global sea-level by 58 m¹ and 7 m², respectively. As the largest source of potential sea-level rise (SLR)³, modest losses from these ice-sheets will increase coastal flooding⁴ and affect oceans through freshwater input⁵. Accurately forecasting SLR improves flood risk assessment and adaptation. Since the satellite record began in the 1990s, Antarctica and Greenland together have raised global sea-levels by 17.8 mm, and the volume of ice lost has increased over time^{1,2}. Of this, 7.2 mm originate from Antarctica, where ocean-driven melting and ice-shelf collapse have accelerated ice flow¹; the remaining 10.6 mm come from Greenland which, despite holding less ice, accounts for 60% of the recent ice-sheet contribution as oceanic and atmospheric warming have increased ice discharge and surface meltwater runoff². We compare

24 observations of Antarctic¹ and Greenland mass change² to IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (AR5)
25 SLR projections³ during their 10-year overlap, and we assess model skill in predicting ice
26 dynamic and surface mass change.

27

28 [Observed and predicted mass change](#)

29 Projecting the ice-sheet contribution remains one of the most uncertain components of the
30 global sea-level budget³. Progressive ice-sheet model development has improved their skill⁶
31 and will continue to as descriptions of ice-sheet flow and climate system interactions
32 advance⁷. In AR5, the ice-sheet contribution by 2100 is forecast from process-based models
33 simulating changes in ice flow and surface mass balance (SMB) in response to climate
34 warming³. Driven by the century-scale increase in temperature forced by representative
35 concentration pathways (RCPs), global mean SLR estimates range from 280-980 mm by 2100
36 (Figure 1). Of this, the ice-sheet contribution constitutes 4–420 mm³. The spread of these
37 scenarios is uncertain, scenario-dependent and increases rapidly after 2030 (Figure 1).

38

39 During 2007–2017, satellite observations show total ice-sheet losses increased global sea-
40 level by 12.3 ± 2.3 mm and track closest to the AR5 upper range (13.7-14.1 mm for all
41 emissions pathways) (Figure 1). Despite a reduction in ice-sheet losses during 2013-2017—
42 when atmospheric circulation above Greenland promoted cooler summer conditions and
43 heavy winter snowfall²—the observed average SLR rate (1.23 ± 0.24 mm/yr) is 45% above
44 central predictions (0.85 ± 0.07 mm/yr) and closest to the upper range (1.39 ± 0.14 mm/yr)
45 (Figure 2). These upper estimates predict an additional 145–230 mm (179 mm mean) of SLR
46 from the ice-sheets above the central predictions by 2100. 150 mm of SLR will double storm-
47 related flooding frequency across the west coasts of North America and Europe and in many

48 of the world's largest coastal cities⁴. Ice-sheet losses at the upper end of AR5 predictions
49 would expose 44–66 million people to annual coastal flooding worldwide⁸. SLR in excess of 1
50 m could require US\$71 billion of annual investment in mitigation and adaptation strategies⁹

51

52 [Separating ice-sheet processes](#)

53 The ice-sheet response to climate forcing comes from the SMB (net balance between
54 accumulation and ablation processes) and the dynamic response to changes in ice flow,
55 calving of icebergs, and melting at the ice-ocean interface. AR5 provides separate projections
56 for these components (Figure 2)³. AR5 SMB simulations were based upon a regional climate
57 model (RCM) ensemble, extended with temperature-based polynomials driven by surface air
58 temperatures from general circulation models (GCMs)³. Ice dynamic contributions were
59 derived from studies carried out using ice-sheet models forced by, but not coupled to,
60 atmospheric and ocean model outputs. In this way, the atmosphere and ocean can impact
61 the ice-sheet but not vice versa. In 2013, when AR5 was released, few models were available
62 to simulate the complex calving processes and ice dynamical contributions to SLR. Instead,
63 ice dynamics were projected using parameterisations for calving at selected outlet glaciers
64 and scaled based on the published range of SLR³. Process-based models considered in AR5
65 have generally produced lower estimates of SLR than semi-empirical models based on
66 paleoclimate reconstructions¹⁰. As SLR from SMB and dynamic components of ice-sheet mass
67 balance differ substantially in Antarctica and Greenland, we consider their contributions
68 separately.

69

70 We compare the observed^{1,2} and modelled³ ice dynamical and SMB contributions during the
71 overlap period (Figure 2). During 2007–2017, Antarctic ice dynamics contributed 4.6 ± 2.3 mm

72 (Supplementary Figure 1) to global sea-level, at the same average rate projected by the AR5
73 mid-level scenario (0.47 ± 0.05 mm/yr) (Figure 2). We note, however, a large spread between
74 AR5 Antarctic ice dynamic projections, which range from 3–34 mm by 2040 and predict a
75 negative sea-level contribution in the lower scenarios from 2030 (Supplementary Figure 1).
76 Despite all scenarios predicting Antarctic mass gains from increasing snowfall, the continent's
77 estimated SMB (0.05 ± 0.13 mm/yr) has reduced slightly and is closest to the upper range ($-$
78 0.02 ± 0.04 mm/yr). In Greenland, dynamic ice losses estimated from satellite observations
79 during 2007–2017 (0.26 ± 0.13 mm/yr) track the lower range of predictions (0.22 ± 0.04
80 mm/yr). However, these AR5 projections were based on kinematic scaling and do not
81 explicitly simulate ice flow³. Surface mass losses in Greenland raised global sea-levels by an
82 estimated 4.6 ± 1.8 mm during 2007–2017 at an average rate of 0.46 ± 0.23 mm/yr, 28 %
83 higher than the upper range of scenarios (0.36 ± 0.06 mm/yr).

84

85 High interannual variability in the observed mass change—notably for the Antarctic dynamic
86 (0.46 ± 0.16 mm/yr) and Greenland surface (0.46 ± 0.23 mm/yr) components (Figure 2)—is
87 not reproduced in AR5 and may not represent the longer-term mass imbalance. For
88 Greenland in particular, changes in atmospheric circulation¹¹ induced extreme melting¹² and
89 substantial variability meltwater runoff not captured in AR5 predictions², which are forced by
90 annual temperature changes and do not reproduce the persistence in the North Atlantic
91 driving these short-term weather events. In addition, clouds modulate¹³ surface melting, and
92 climate model biases in clouds and their formation processes may be partly responsible for
93 both over- and under-estimating surface melt. Future studies would benefit from a
94 comparison over the full 25-year observational record, during which satellites provide

95 continuous and complete coverage over both ice-sheets, to better contextualize variability
96 within the long-term record.

97

98 Outlook

99 Advances in ice-sheet modelling are expected through experiments such as the Ice-sheet
100 Model Intercomparison project for CMIP6 (ISMIP6)⁶, which will deliver process-based
101 projections from standalone ice-sheet models forced by output from coupled atmosphere-
102 ocean GCMs, in time for AR6 in 2022. These efforts will improve predictions of the ice
103 dynamical response, particularly in Antarctica where the spread among AR5 scenarios is large,
104 through advanced representations of ice-ocean interactions which extrapolate GCM ocean
105 forcing into ice-shelf cavities⁷. Modelling of surface processes is also improved by using RCMs
106 to increase the spatial resolution of atmospheric GCM forcing and capture SMB variations
107 found in steep topography at ice-sheet margins⁶.

108

109 Challenges remain in modelling ice-sheet dynamic and SMB processes. Descriptions of ice-
110 ocean interactions are hindered by coarse GCM resolution, and potential feedbacks in ocean
111 circulation due to freshwater input are not accounted for⁶. Dynamic ice loss is driven by
112 marine melt and iceberg calving; improved representations of these processes in ice-sheet
113 models, and dense time series of outlet glacier observations, will improve understanding.
114 Surface forcing for ISMIP6 experiments is provided as annual averages, and establishing the
115 effects of shorter-term atmospheric variability and circulation changes on ice-sheet SMB
116 requires further work. The quality of SMB forcing is also affected by inadequacies in GCM
117 output—for example, in accurate representations of clouds and surface albedo. Such
118 challenges can be partly addressed with two-way coupling of Antarctic and Greenland ice-

119 sheet models to the atmosphere-ocean system. However, this remains a significant
120 undertaking: differing spatial and temporal resolutions required by model components must
121 be negotiated, and improving related parameterisations is essential.

122

123 Ice-sheet observational and modelling communities must also continue to collaborate. For
124 example, regional case studies of extreme events driven by short-term variability can improve
125 our understanding of ice-sheet processes. Partitioning ice-sheet projections into SMB and ice
126 dynamics in AR6, as in AR5, will allow these processes to be further understood and evaluated
127 separately. Recent experiments have assessed the ability of models to reproduce historical
128 change^{5,14,15}, increasing confidence in sea-level projections and gauging the likelihood of
129 extreme SLR from marine ice-sheet and ice-cliff instabilities. Reducing uncertainty in
130 observational datasets through collaborative processes such as IMBIE, and generating new
131 datasets (for example, of SMB and ice-shelf melt rates), will help reduce present-day biases
132 in ice-sheet models. Used together, ice-sheet observations and models will continue to inform
133 scientific debate and climate policy for decades to come.

134

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145 which produced the reconciled observations of ice-sheet mass change, and for useful
146 discussions during the course of this study.

147

148 [Data availability](#)

149 The satellite data used here are freely available at <http://imbie.org/data-downloads/> as well
150 as the IPCC sea-level rise projections, which can be downloaded from
151 <http://www.climatechange2013.org/report/full-report>.

152

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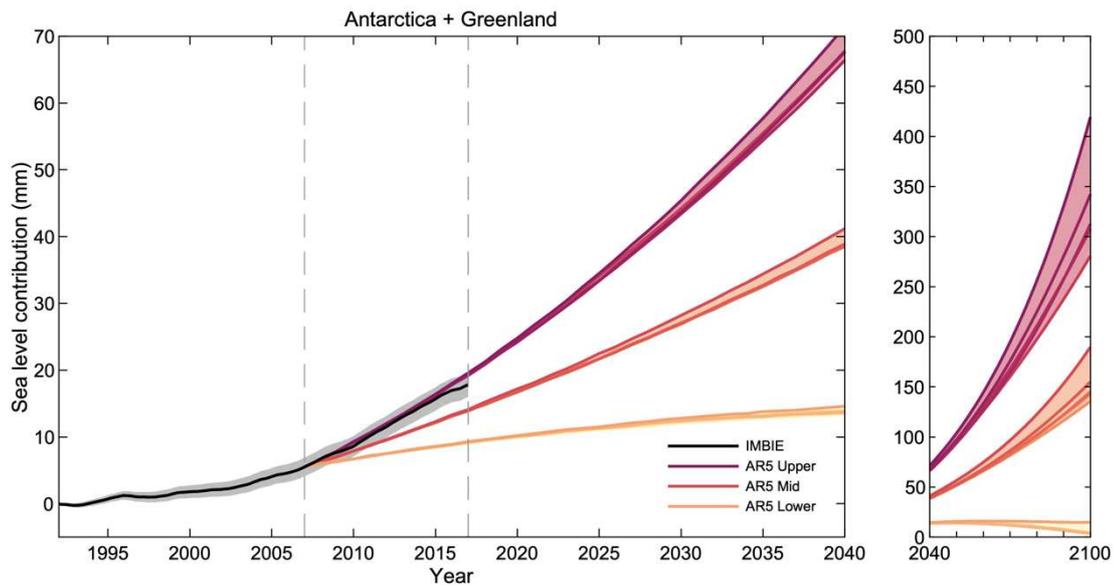


Fig. 1 | Observed and predicted sea-level contribution from Antarctic and Greenland ice-sheet mass change. The Antarctic and Greenland ice-sheet contribution to global sea-level according to IMBIE^{1,2} (black) reconciled satellite observations and AR5³ projections between 1992-2040 (left) and 2040-2100 (right). For each AR5 emission scenario, the upper (maroon), mid (orange) and lower (yellow) estimates are taken from the 95th percentile, median and 5th percentile values of the ensemble range, respectively³. Within the upper, mid and lower sets, AR5 pathways are represented by darker lines in order of increasing emissions: RCP 2.6, RCP 4.5, RCP 6.0, SRES A1B and RCP 8.5. Shaded areas represent the spread of AR5 scenarios and the 1 σ estimated error on the observations. AR5 projections have been offset to equal to the satellite record at their start date (2007).

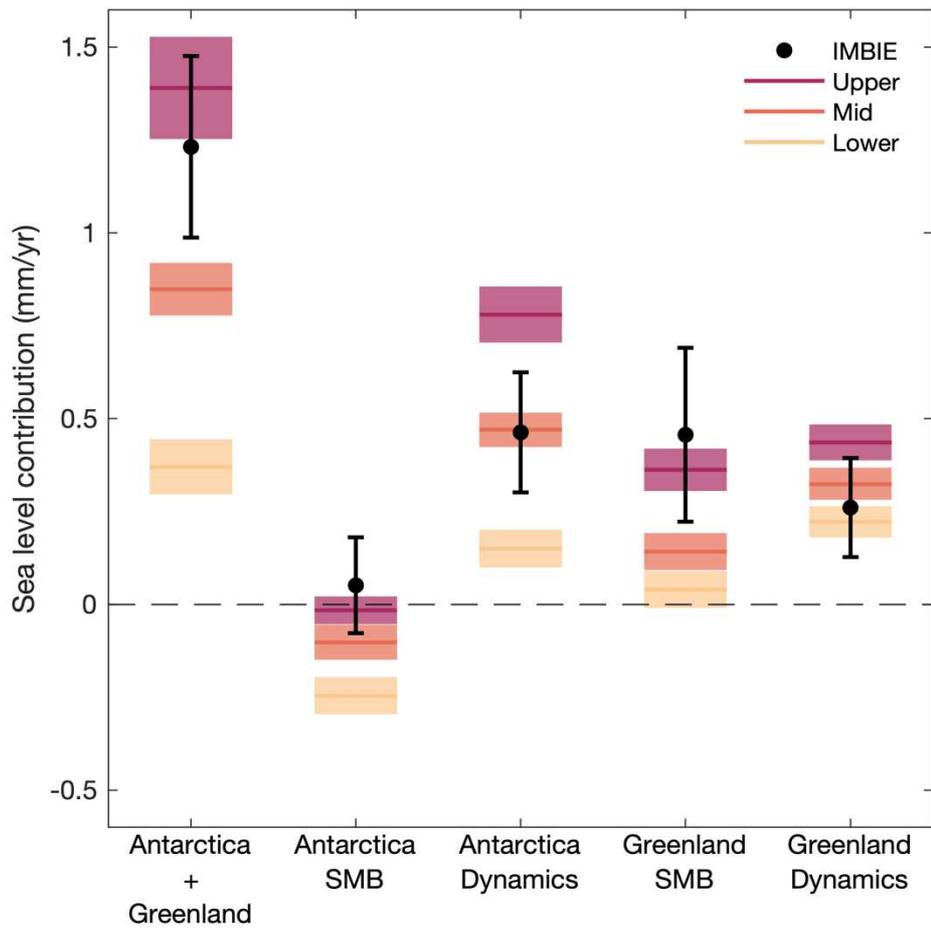


Fig. 2 | Observed and predicted annual rates of sea level rise from Antarctic and Greenland ice-sheet mass change and their individual ice dynamic and surface mass components. Average annual rates of sea-level rise, and their standard deviations, from IMBIE^{1,2} (black) and AR5³ projections during 2007-2017 including upper (95th percentile, maroon), mid (median, orange) and lower (5th percentile, yellow) estimates. Results are partitioned into the surface and ice dynamic mass change, along with the combined sea-level contribution from both ice-sheets.