



1       **Atmospheric extremes triggered the biggest calving event in more than 50**  
2                       **years at the Amery Ice shelf in September 2019**

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15  
16       **Abstract**

17       Ice shelf instability is one of the main sources of uncertainty in Antarctica's contribution to future  
18       sea level rise. Calving events play crucial role in ice shelf weakening but remain unpredictable and  
19       their governing processes are still poorly understood. In this study, we analyze the unexpected  
20       September 2019 calving event from the Amery Ice Shelf, the largest since 1963 and which  
21       occurred almost a decade earlier than expected, to better understand the role of the atmosphere in  
22       calving. We find that atmospheric extremes provided a deterministic role in this event. The calving  
23       was triggered by the occurrence of a series of anomalously-deep and stationary explosive twin  
24       polar cyclones over the Cooperation and Davis Seas which generated strong offshore winds  
25       leading to increased sea ice removal, fracture amplification along the pre-existing rift, and  
26       ultimately calving of the massive iceberg. The observed record-anomalous atmospheric conditions  
27       were promoted by blocking ridges and Antarctic-wide anomalous poleward transport of heat and  
28       moisture. Blocking highs helped in (i) directing moist and warm air masses towards the ice shelf  
29       and in (ii) maintaining stationary the observed extreme cyclones at the front of the ice shelf for  
30       several days. Accumulation of cold air over the ice sheet, due to the blocking highs, led to the  
31       formation of an intense cold-high pressure over the ice sheet, which helped fuel sustained  
32       anomalously-deep cyclones via increased baroclinicity. Our results stress the importance of  
33       atmospheric extremes in ice shelf instability and the need to be accounted for when considering  
34       Antarctic ice shelf variability and contribution to sea level, especially given that more of these  
35       extremes are predicted under a warmer climate.



36 **Keywords:** Twin polar cyclones, explosive cyclones, blocking highs, ice shelf instability, calving,  
37 East Antarctica, Amery Ice Shelf.

## 38 1. Introduction

39 The rapid collapse of several Antarctic ice shelves, observed recently, and the near-instantaneous  
40 acceleration of land-ice discharge into the ocean that follows the collapse, demonstrates the  
41 sensitivity of the Antarctic cryosphere to recent warming (e.g., Smith et al., 2019; Rignot et al.,  
42 2019). However, large uncertainty remains regarding the response of ice shelves to the globally  
43 rising temperatures and to the resulting changes in the atmospheric circulation.

44 On 25 September 2019, the Amery Ice Shelf – the third largest ice shelf in Antarctica – calved  
45 iceberg D28 (1,636 km<sup>2</sup>, 210 m thick), which was the largest calving event since the early 1960s  
46 (Fig. 1). The Amery Ice Shelf is a key drainage channel in East Antarctica (Fricker et al., 2002)  
47 draining roughly 16% of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet (Galton-Fenzi et al., 2012). It is considered  
48 in balance with its surroundings (King et al., 2009; Galton-Fenzi et al., 2012), despite experiencing  
49 strong surface melt in summer. However, over the past 20 years, a large system of rifts (a precursor  
50 to calving) in the Amery Ice Shelf, known as the Loose Tooth rift system, has been developing  
51 (Fricker et al., 2005; Bassis et al., 2008). Recent studies have shown that the propagation rate of  
52 the rifts has been decreasing since 2005 due to increasing thickness of melange ice filling in the  
53 rifts, and speculated that forward propagation of the west rift might even stop (e.g., Zhao et al.,  
54 2013). Satellite images of the Amery Ice Shelf (Fig. 1) show the largest rift extending in the same  
55 direction of the ice flow, widening toward the edge of the ice shelf and from this main rift, with  
56 radial rifts extending to the west (T1) and east (T2). Earlier studies predicted that the Amery Ice  
57 Shelf would not experience a major calve until at least 2025 or later (e.g., Fricker et al., 2002), and  
58 the portion that was expected to calve first was T2 i.e., the one to the east of the current calving.  
59 This highlights the need for an improved understanding of the underlying processes of calving  
60 events and the role of atmospheric forcing in ice shelf weakening; a precursor to rapid and major  
61 changes in ice shelf stability.

62 Indeed, most of the mass loss from the Antarctic Ice Sheet – the largest uncertainty for future sea  
63 level projections – takes place at the fronts of ice shelves and glacier tongues, via iceberg calving  
64 and surface and basal melt (e.g., Pritchard et al., 2012; Shepherd et al., 2018). Compared to  
65 melting, rifting and subsequent calving is the fastest way by which marine-terminating glaciers  
66 lose mass to the ocean and contribute therefore to sea level rise (e.g., Smith et al., 2019). Despite  
67 being floating ice (i.e., changes in their mass due to calving do not have a direct contribution to  
68 sea level rise), ice shelves act to buttress inland ice by blocking the flow of ice from the interior.  
69 This restrictive force decreases when ice shelves thin or calve. Calving from floating ice shelves  
70 contributes indirectly to sea-level rise as these events accelerate the rate of ice flow from grounded  
71 ice-sheet into the ocean (e.g., Hogg and Gudmundsson, 2017). For example, on the Antarctic  
72 Peninsula, such events have been shown to increase by eight-fold the rate of ice flow inland  
73 (Rignot et al., 2004; Scambos et al., 2004). This leads to more ice discharge into the oceans and a  
74 consequent increase in the ice-sheet contribution to global sea-level rise (Hogg and Gudmundsson,  
75 2017). Ocean-driven thinning was also detected at key ice shelves of the East Antarctic Ice Sheet  
76 including the Amery Ice Shelf (Greenbaum et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2019) suggesting that this



77 region is also susceptible to rapid and large-scale ice loss (Aitken et al., 2016), and could contribute  
78 to future sea-level rise (DeConto et al., 2016; Rignot et al., 2019). Therefore, there is an urgent  
79 need to assess the sensitivity of East Antarctic ice shelves to atmospheric forcing and to understand  
80 the governing processes.

81 Beyond being part of a natural glaciological process, calving events at Antarctic ice shelves have  
82 been attracting much attention recently (e.g., Liu et al., 2015; Benn and Astrom 2018) as they were  
83 found to trigger, in some cases, the total disintegration of the parent ice shelf (Cook and Vaughan  
84 2010; Liu et al., 2015; Jeong et al., 2016; Bassis and Ma, 2016; Massom et al., 2018). These events  
85 have been attributed mainly to an enhanced regional warming (Vaughan et al., 2012; Pitchard et  
86 al. 2012) which increases surface and basal melt as well as to ocean forcing involving intense  
87 crevassing and rifting along multiple lines of weakness such as radial crevasses (Liu et al., 2015;  
88 Jeong et al., 2016; Bassis and Ma, 2016), and to regional loss of pack ice in the shelf-front area  
89 which allows storm-generated ocean swell to flex the outer margins of the shelves and lead to their  
90 calving (Massom et al., 2018). However, atmospheric-dynamics forcing during such events,  
91 particularly the wind mechanical action on rift widening both directly and via wind-induced waves,  
92 remains unexplored.

93 Despite the importance and the implications of ice shelf calving, this phenomenon remains  
94 unpredictable and is still poorly understood. Moreover, the underlying mechanisms governing  
95 Antarctic ice shelf instability, especially those associated with atmospheric extremes, remains  
96 unknown.

97 Of particular importance is the impact on Antarctic ice shelves of the poleward shift of  
98 extratropical storm tracks (Tamarin and Kaspi, 2017) and the observed increase in the number and  
99 intensity of cyclones around Antarctica over the last few decades (Wei and Qin 2016). The  
100 poleward shift of extratropical cyclones was found in reanalysis data of recent years (Fyfe, 2003;  
101 Son et al., 2008), and models project an estimated poleward shift of cyclone genesis  $1^\circ$  to  $2^\circ$  in  
102 latitude on average under enhanced greenhouse gas concentrations (Bengtsson et al., 2009; Barnes  
103 and Polvani, 2013). Importantly, this poleward shift was found to be particularly pronounced in  
104 the Southern Hemisphere (Chang et al., 2012), and the mean intensity of cyclones as well as the  
105 number of extreme cyclones are projected to increase under a warmer climate scenario (Lambert  
106 and Fyfe, 2006; Chang, 2017; Kossin et al., 2020).

107 Changes in cyclone tracks, numbers, and intensity may have significant impacts on Antarctic sea  
108 ice and land ice. In fact, weather systems (i.e., cyclones and blocks) resulting from the larger-scale  
109 circulation (e.g., Pope et al., 2017) are identified as the main driver of the observed trends in sea  
110 ice variability (Matear et al., 2015; Schemm, 2018; Turner et al., 2017; Eayrs et al., 2019).  
111 Furthermore, cyclones and their associated atmospheric rivers can induce sea ice melt (Francis et  
112 al., 2020), ice-shelf surface melt (Wille et al., 2019) and significant sea ice drift (Kwok et al., 2017;  
113 Francis et al., 2019) by virtue of their anomalous moisture and heat transport to high latitudes  
114 (Woods & Caballero, 2016; Grieger et al., 2018) and the strong surface winds they carry (Schemm,  
115 2018). Severe storms can generate energetic waves (up to 8 m) in the Southern Ocean capable of  
116 penetrating hundreds of kilometers into the sea ice covered ocean (Kohout et al., 2014; Vichi et  
117 al., 2019). Concomitantly, the sea ice cover acts as a buffer and attenuates the wave energy over



118 distance, reducing therefore the impact of storms on ice shelves (Dolatshah et al., 2018; Massom  
119 et al., 2018).

120 An extreme situation in cyclogenesis is the formation of explosive cyclones. These are developing  
121 cyclones for which the central pressure decreases by at least 24 hPa in 24 hours (Sanders and  
122 Gyakum, 1980). Explosively developing cyclones are deeper and longer-lasting compared to  
123 ordinary cyclones and they are found to be more intense in the Southern Hemisphere than in the  
124 Northern Hemisphere (Raele et al., 2019). In particular, explosive cyclones in the Indian Ocean  
125 sector of the Southern Ocean (close to South Africa) are stronger and express higher deepening  
126 rates than elsewhere around Antarctica (Raele et al., 2019). This same region (between 45°E and  
127 90°E and poleward of 40°S) – encompassing the Amery Basin – stands out in a climatological  
128 study (Allen et al., 2010) as one of three main regions for explosive cyclogenesis around  
129 Antarctica, where explosive cyclones are characterized by a 20hPa mean pressure depth relative  
130 to the surrounding pressure field. A climatological study of explosive cyclones (Lim and  
131 Simmonds, 2002) found that the number of explosive cyclones increased in both hemispheres  
132 during 1979-1999, and that positive trends of such systems are statistically significant in the  
133 Southern Hemisphere. On average, the study identified 26 explosive cyclones per year in the  
134 Southern Hemisphere and found that explosive cyclones exhibit greater mean intensity and depth  
135 relative to the entire population of ordinary cyclonic systems. A more recent climatological study  
136 over a longer period (1979–2013) reported similar findings, with an increase in the frequency of  
137 explosive cyclones in the band of 45°–55°S during winter and early spring (Wei and Qin 2016).

138 The spatial distribution of these cyclones was found to have a close association with that of strong  
139 baroclinicity. In general, the preferred region for cyclogenesis is where both a strong temperature  
140 gradient and an upper-level trough are present (e.g., Shimada et al., 2014). While high baroclinic  
141 instability associated with the horizontal temperature gradient is crucial for the formation and the  
142 intensification of cyclones (Davies, 1997, Uccellini, 1990), cyclogenesis occurs only at the  
143 entrance and exit regions of upper-level troughs (e.g., Shimada et al., 2014). Around Antarctica,  
144 the strongest temperature gradient is found during late winter-early spring along the fringes of the  
145 ice pack, making the sea-ice edge a preferred region for cyclogenesis (e.g., Schlosser et al., 2011;  
146 Stoll et al., 2018). However, the location of the temperature gradient relative to the ice edge  
147 depends strongly on the atmospheric circulation at larger scale, where a strong temperature  
148 gradient can occur poleward of the ice edge (i.e., closer to the ice shelves) during an enhanced  
149 zonal wave number three (ZW3) pattern (Francis et al., 2019). This pattern is characterized by the  
150 alternation of 3 troughs and 3 ridges around Antarctica. Strong poleward transport of heat and  
151 moisture occurs in the ascending branch of troughs and strong equatorward transport of cold air  
152 occurs in the descending branch of ridges (e.g., Raphael, 2007). This zonally-alternating pattern  
153 of cold and warm air masses creates temperature differences between the different sectors, fuels  
154 frontogenesis and promotes the development of explosive cyclones close to the ice shelves and  
155 over the sea ice cover.

156 Another aspect of the ZW3 pattern is the impact of the ridges on the propagation speed of the  
157 cyclones. In the troughs, the extratropical cyclones and the associated moisture and heat fluxes are  
158 directed poleward; once they reach the Antarctic coast they are blocked by the ridges to their east



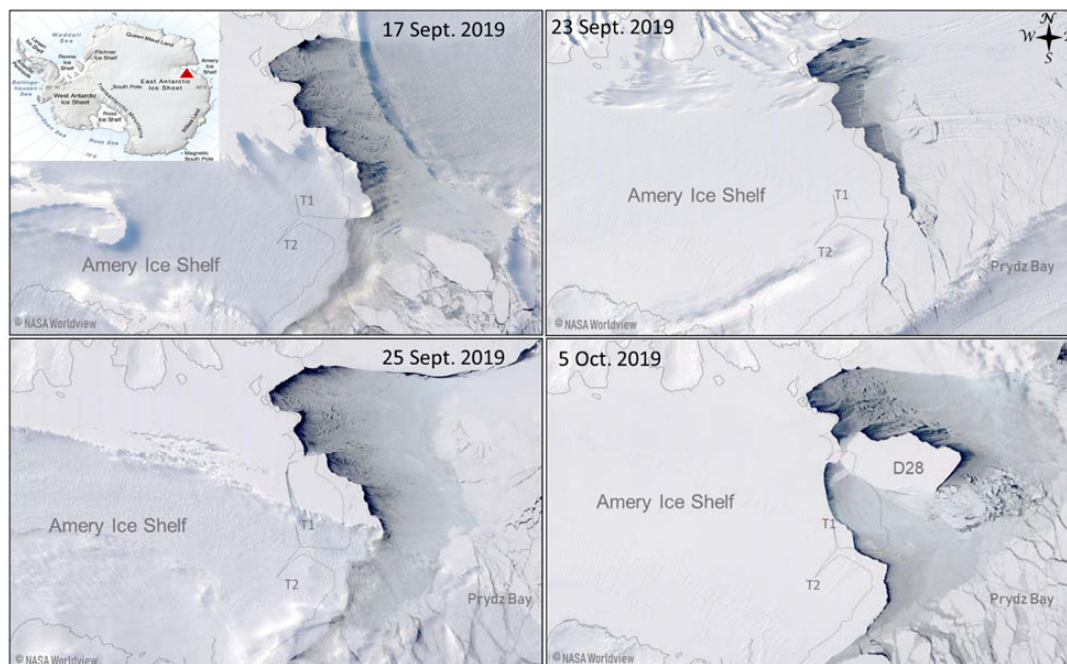


159 (Francis et al., 2019; 2020). This results in stationary cyclones over the same region for 1-2 days  
160 which in turn induces pronounced impact on the sea ice (e.g., Francis et al., 2019) and waves  
161 (Vichi et al., 2019). The same scenario can happen at the front of ice shelves during winter-spring  
162 if the cyclones form closer to the coast and/or the sea ice extent decreases under a warmer climate.  
163 Interestingly, the Antarctic sea ice extent has been decreasing since 2015 (Swart et al., 2018) and  
164 the ZW3 index has been the most positive on record during the same period (Schlosser et al., 2018;  
165 Francis et al., 2019). Increased warm air advection toward Antarctica was found to be at the origin  
166 of the observed negative anomaly in Antarctic sea ice extent in recent years (Schlosser et al., 2018).  
167 Given the dual impact of ZW3 circulation on both explosive cyclogenesis (location and intensity)  
168 and sea ice extent, this combination may result in a more pronounced impact of extreme cyclones  
169 on ice shelves.

170 Another extreme situation in cyclogenesis is the formation of twin cyclones during which the  
171 resulting effect of the mutually-interacting cyclones is twice as strong as the individual cyclones  
172 (e.g., Moustouli et al., 2002). To our knowledge, the formation of explosively developing twin  
173 cyclones has been, to date, only observed and studied in the tropics (Ferreira et al., 1996;  
174 Moustouli et al., 2002), in the mid-latitudes (Yokoyama and Yamamoto, 2019) and in the Arctic  
175 (Renfrew et al., 1997). In this study, we report for the time, the formation of polar twin cyclones  
176 near Antarctica during two consecutive events; one on 19-20 September 2019 at 60°E and the  
177 second on 23-24 September 2019 at 85°E.

178 Despite the observed poleward shift of extratropical cyclones, the increasing number and intensity  
179 of explosive cyclones around Antarctica and the decline in sea ice extent in recent years, the impact  
180 of extreme cyclones on ice shelves instability has not been investigated to date. This is the  
181 objective of this study.

182 Building on previous studies that investigated these patterns separately, we aim in this study to  
183 assess the impact of extreme cyclone activity during the largest calving event since 1963 at the  
184 Amery Ice Shelf. Using satellite data and atmospheric reanalyses, we investigate the role of  
185 atmospheric forcings in this calving event which occurred under a ZW3-like situation. The  
186 development of the explosive cyclones and their impact on sea ice and land ice conditions are  
187 addressed in section 2. Section 3 discusses our findings. The data and methods used in this study  
188 are described in section 4.



**Figure 1:** MODIS satellite visible imagery of the Amery Ice Shelf and the Loose Tooth rift system (T1 and T2) at its front. Ice conditions are shown before the calving on 17 and 23 September 2019, during the calving on 25 September 2019, and few days after the detachment of the new iceberg D28. Image credit NASA Worldview.

189

## 190 2. Results

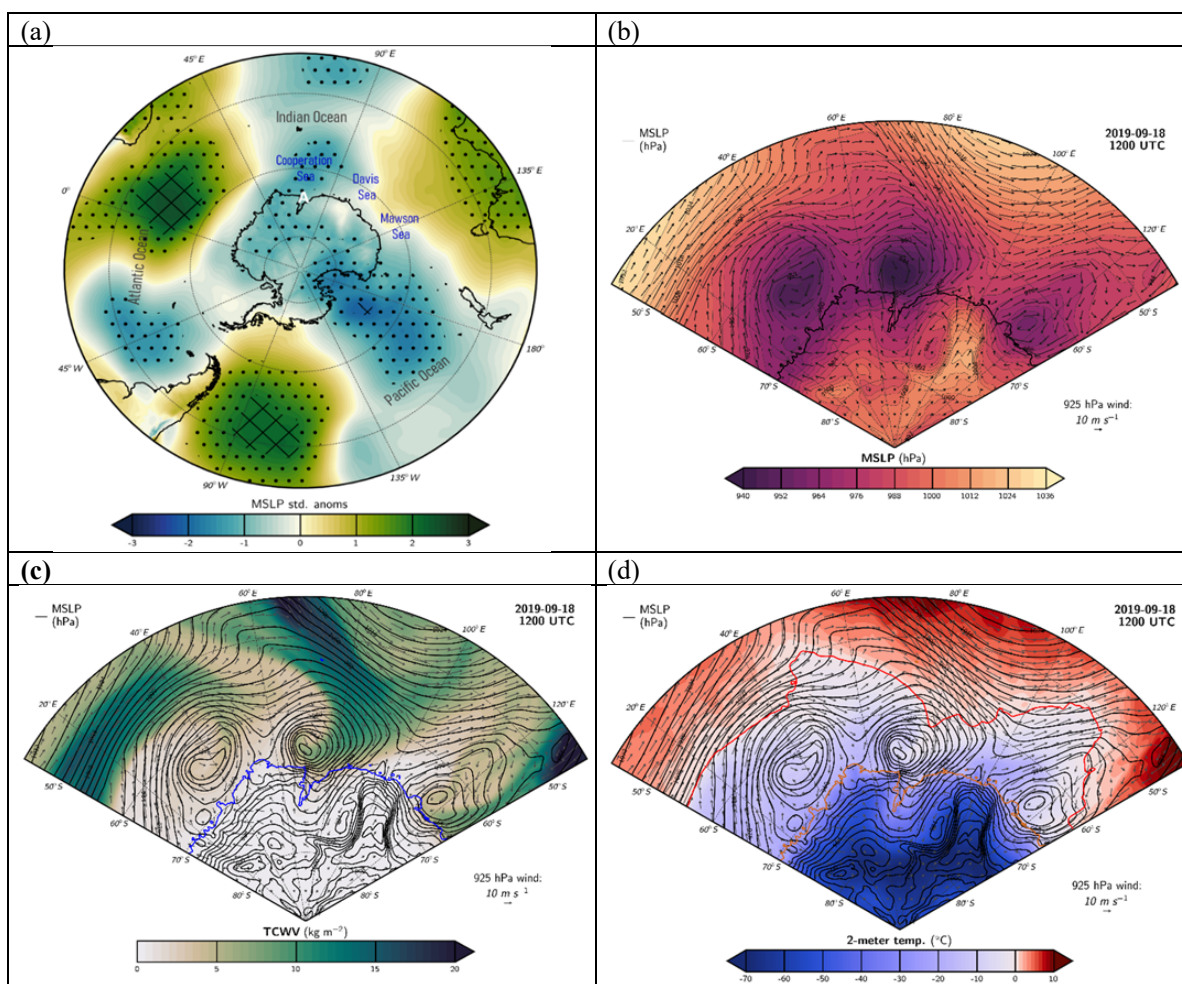
### 191 2.1 Explosive twin cyclones during 18-22 September 2019 – preconditioning

192 In September 2019, the synoptic conditions exhibited an amplified zonal wave number 3 (ZW3)  
193 pattern characterized by 3 trough/ridge systems associated with low/high mean sea level pressure  
194 (MSLP) anomalies. Compared to all Septembers in the 1979-2019 period, the broad scale MSLP  
195 anomaly indicates that, for September 2019, there was below average pressure over much of the  
196 Antarctic continent and above average pressure to the north (Fig. 2a). In the Indian Ocean sector,  
197 the MSLP anomalies exceeded one standard deviation from the mean over large areas with the  
198 strongest troughing over Cooperation and Davis Seas (Fig. 2a). To the west of this low pressure  
199 anomaly, the South Atlantic ridge exhibited strong positive anomalies exceeding 2 standard  
200 deviations from the mean (Fig. 2a). To the east of the low pressure anomaly around the Amery Ice  
201 Shelf, another pronounced ridge encompassing south Australia and the Mawson Sea with positive  
202 MSLP anomalies exceeded 1 standard deviation from the climatological mean (Fig. 2a).

203 On a daily scale, the aforementioned synoptic setting was synonym of frequent and extreme  
204 weather systems. On 17 September 2019 at 0200 UTC, an extratropical cyclone associated with a  
205 968 hPa low-pressure at its center and located at 60°S, 40°E, started to deepen while moving  
206 poleward and eastward. It reached the western side of Cooperation Sea on 18 September 2019 at



207 0200 UTC with a 940 hPa minimum pressure and remained over this region the entire day (Fig.  
 208 2b), then decayed on 19 September 2019 at 1300 UTC. The rapid deepening of the low pressure  
 209 is characteristic of explosive cyclones (e.g., Sanders and Gyakum, 1980). The explosive cyclone  
 210 on 18 September 2019 was associated with significant poleward transport of moisture (Fig. 2c)  
 211 and heat (Fig. 2d) carried by an atmospheric river propagating poleward adjacent to the low-  
 212 pressure center. The atmospheric river was associated with integrated water vapor transport (IVT)  
 213 greater than  $500 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at its core, with IVT values around  $100 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  over Prydz Bay  
 214 exceeding the 99th percentile of September climatology in this region (Fig. 3a).



**Figure 2:** Normalized anomalies of Mean Sea Level Pressure (MSLP) for September 2019 relative to the 1979-2019 September climatology. Black dots are regions where the normalized anomalies are larger than 1 standard deviation from the mean and black squares are regions where the normalized anomalies are larger than 2 standard deviations from the mean. The letter A in white indicates the location of the Amery Ice Shelf. (b) MSLP (shaded) and winds at 925hPa (vectors) at 18 September 2019 1200 UTC, (c) same as (b) but for the total column water vapor (TCWV) in colors, winds at 925hPa in vectors and MSLP in

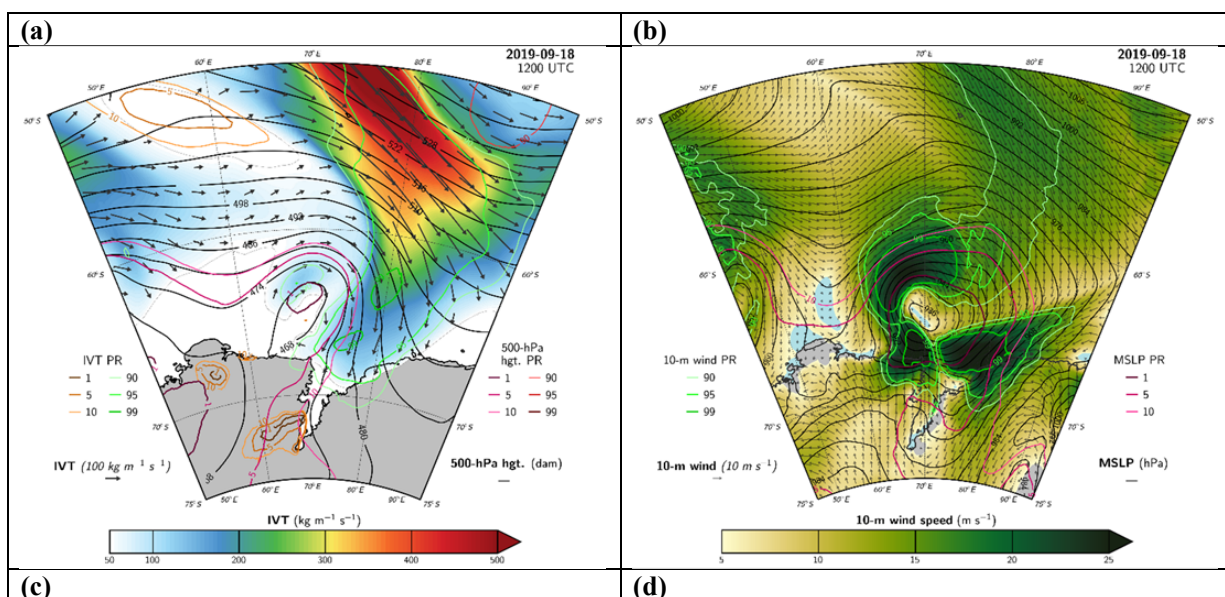


black contours, (d) same as (c) but for 2-m temperature (in colors), winds at 925hPa in vectors, MSLP in black contours and 0°C contour in red.

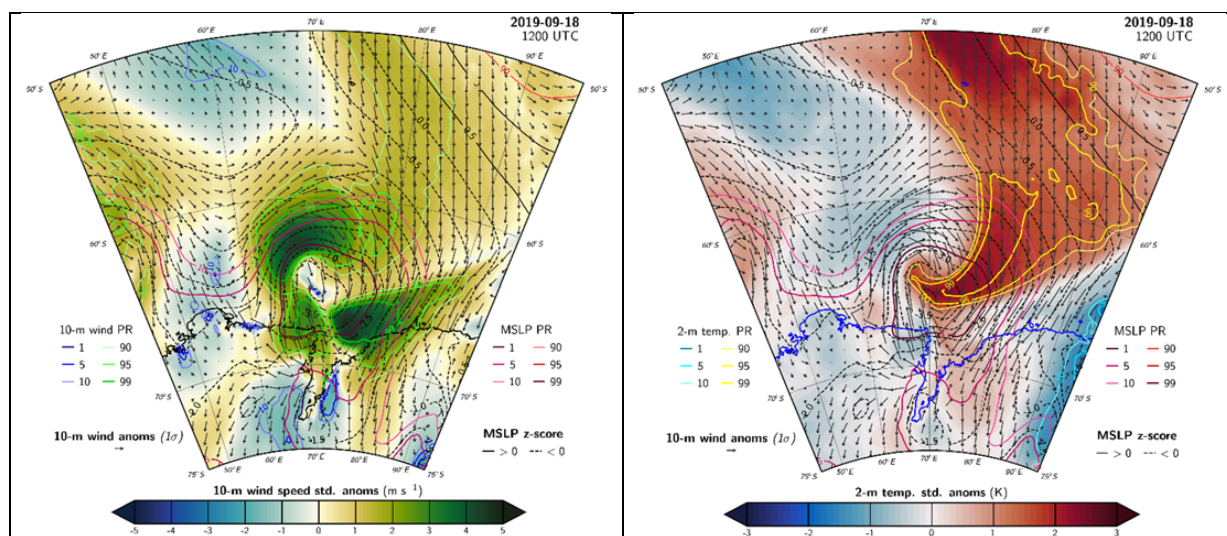
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216 In the Southern Hemisphere, where cyclonic winds spin clockwise, the highest wind speed occurs  
217 along the bent-back front of the cyclone, i.e., to the left of the low-pressure center of the cyclone  
218 (e.g., Wagner et al., 2011, Watanabe and Niino, 2014). This was observed during the explosive  
219 cyclone on 18 September 2019 which generated extremely strong surface winds to the left of its  
220 center exceeding  $20 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3b). Being stationary over Cooperation Sea but to the west of the  
221 Amery Basin, this extreme cyclone generated a sustained northeasterly wind stress over the  
222 northern part of the ice shelf (Fig. 3b), as well as strong poleward warm and moist air advection  
223 (Fig. 2c, 2d and 3a). The combination of warm temperatures brought by the cyclone/AR and strong  
224 easterly/northeasterly wind speeds was unusual (Fig. 3). MSLP anomalies during this event were  
225 in excess of  $-4$  sigma (Fig. 3b), with MSLP values below the 1st percentile of September  
226 climatology over a large area along and to the north of the ice shelf margin (Fig. 3b). Extreme  
227 wind anomalies exceeding the 99th percentile over the central and eastern ice shelf margin were  
228 associated with this cyclone from 18 September through 19 September 2019 (Fig. 3c). Likewise,  
229 there were sustained positive 2-m temperature anomalies throughout the period exceeding 2  
230 standard deviations from the climatological mean (Fig. 3d).

231







**Figure 3:** Maps on 18 September 2019 at 1200 UTC of (a) Integrated water vapor transport (IVT) shaded, geopotential heights at 500 hPa in black contours and IVT direction in black vectors, (b) 10-m wind speed in colors, 10-m wind direction in black vectors and MSLP in black contours. (c) Standardized 10-m wind speed anomalies relative to the full September record (1979-2019) (d) Same as (c) but for 2-m temperature. Colored contour lines show percentile rank extremes (1, 5, 10 and 90, 95, 99 percentile ranks) of the corresponding quantities indicated on the plots. On (c) and (d): Vectors show 10-m wind anomalies, black contours show positive MSLP anomalies and dashed black contours show negative MSLP anomalies.

232

233 The first explosive cyclone on 18 September 2019 was followed immediately by a second  
234 explosive cyclone which approached Cooperation Sea from the west on 19 September at 1400  
235 UTC with a deep low of 952hPa. At 2000UTC, this deep cyclone widened and evolved into two  
236 twin polar cyclones over the same region (Fig. 4a). The twin cyclones exhibited 960hPa low-  
237 pressure at their respective centers and remained active to the west of the Amery Ice Shelf for three  
238 consecutive days (Fig. 4a). Their signatures dissipated in the pressure field on 22 September 2019  
239 at 0000UTC. The poleward transport of heat (Fig. 4b) and moisture (Fig. 4c) towards the Amery  
240 Ice Shelf continued during this event together with extreme wind stress exceeding the 99th  
241 percentile (Fig. 4d). Being stationary to the west of the Amery Ice Shelf (Fig. 4a), the twin cyclones  
242 induced extreme easterly winds across the ice shelf, with u-wind anomalies exceeding -5 sigma of  
243 September climatology over the western ice shelf from 19 September 2019 at 1900 UTC through  
244 20 September at 1100 UTC (Fig. 4d) and below the 1 percentile u-wind values over the whole  
245 lower ice shelf area (Fig. 4d). When compared with the climatology for all months during 1979-  
246 2019, many hourly wind speeds over the ice shelf front during 18-20 September were substantially  
247 greater than the 99th percentile of climatology, with the most anomalous wind speeds on 18  
248 September (Fig. 6e).

249 On 21 September 2019, the twin cyclones merged and moved to the area in front of the Amery Ice  
250 Shelf (Fig. 4e) resulting in a deep cyclone associated with MSLP at its center below the 5<sup>th</sup>  
251 percentile. The remnant cyclone slowly meandered along the northern margin of Prydz Bay and

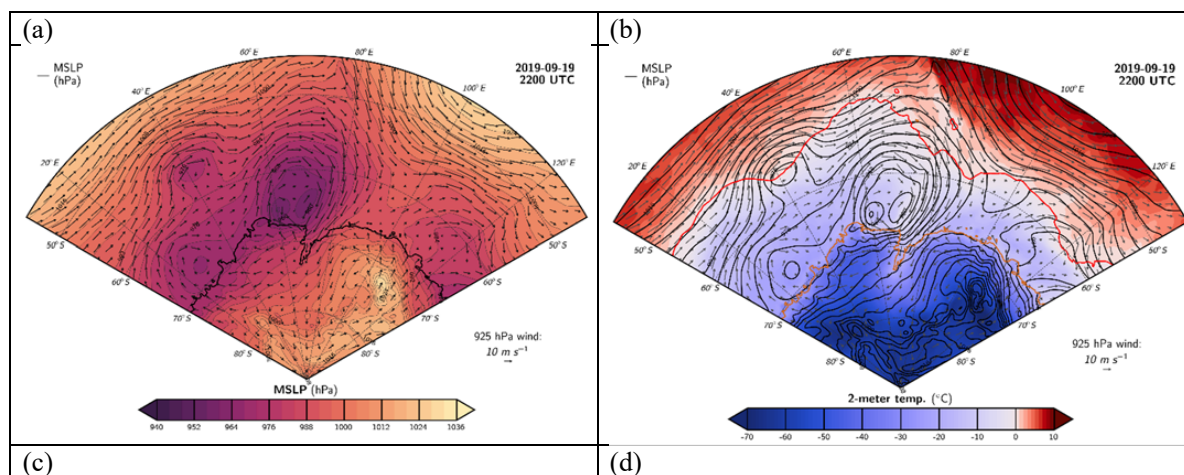


252 decayed on 22 September 2019. Anomalously warm air masses were brought by this cyclone over  
253 the margins of the Amery Ice Shelf exceeding the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile (Fig. 4e). MODIS satellite  
254 imagery on this day showed a swirling cyclone at the mouth of the Amery Ice Shelf (Fig. 4f).  
255 Sentinel-3A and 3B observations on 22 September 2019 at 0000 UTC (i.e., during the decay of  
256 the cyclones) show elevated waves at the ice-shelf front area reaching 6 m significant wave height  
257 (Fig. 4g). Waves generated by the cyclones during the 18-21 September 2019 period, when easterly  
258 wind speeds were stronger, may have been substantially higher. The easterly direction of the winds  
259 during this episode infers that the wind-induced wave at the ice shelf front occurred likely in a  
260 direction parallel to the pre-existing rift T1 at the western side of the front.

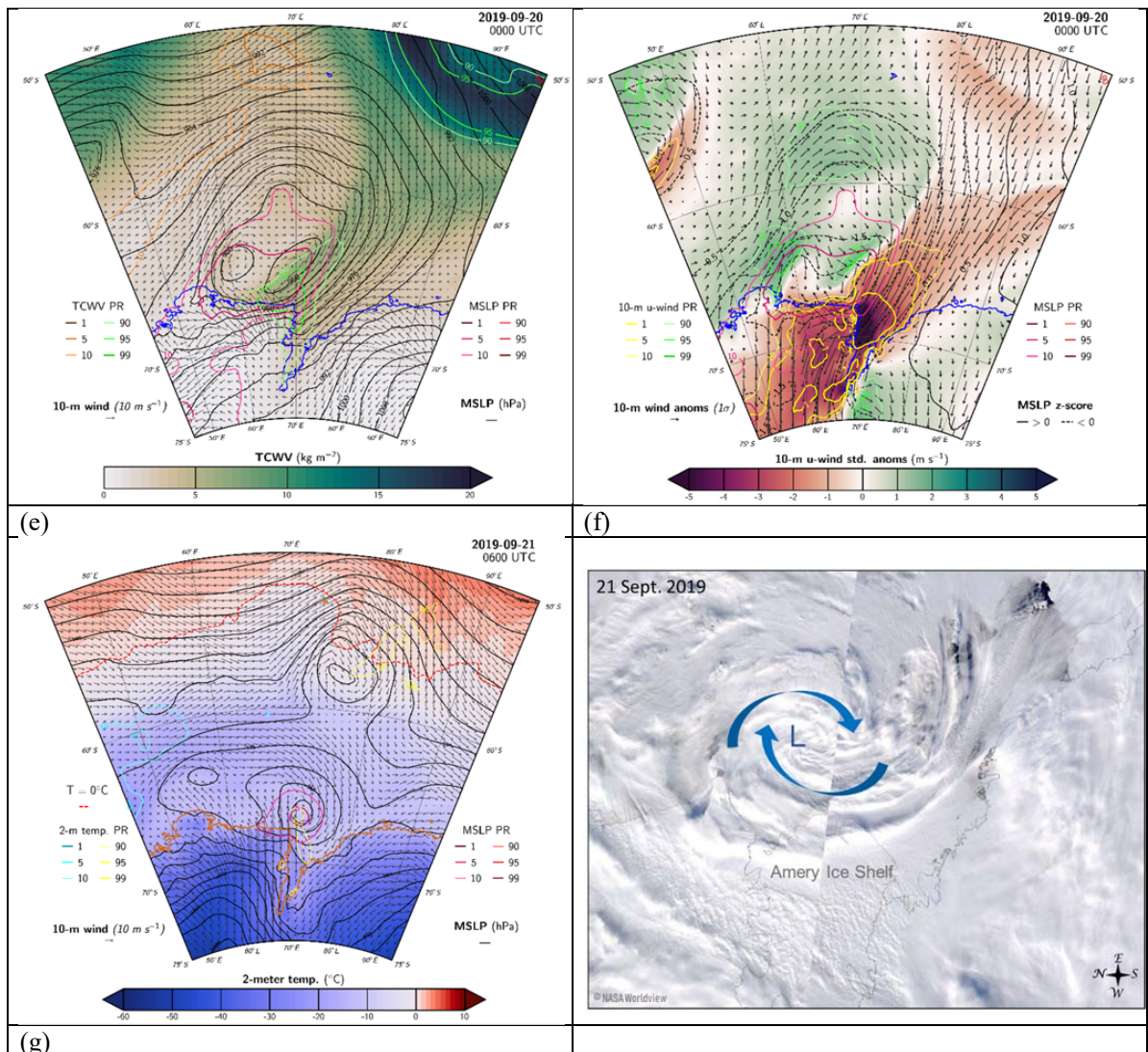
261 Surface melt during this event may have occurred briefly due to the anomalous warm and moist  
262 air masses. However, the inspection of daily satellite images of Sentinel-1 backscatter coefficient,  
263 MODIS ice surface temperature and AMSR2 brightness temperature did not show any prolonged  
264 nor significant surface melt at the Amery Ice Shelf during this event.

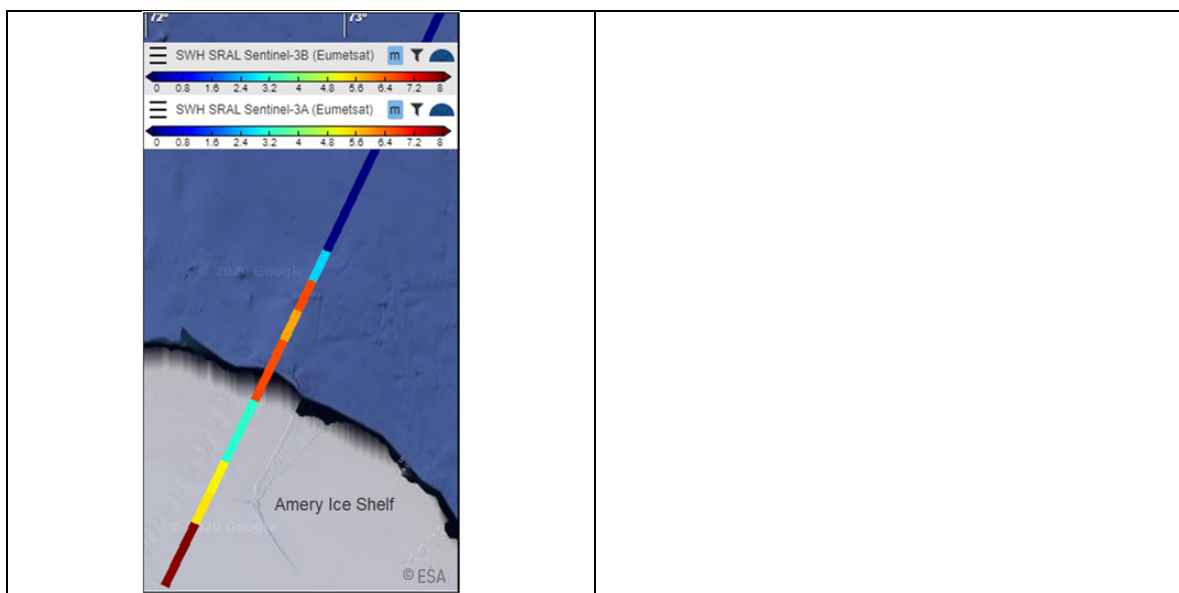
265 In summary, an extended period of strong cyclonic activity from 18-22 September 2019 resulted  
266 in exceptional period of strong easterly / northeasterly winds over the western side of the Amery  
267 Ice Shelf where the climatology shows a positive zonal component. This exceptional wind stress  
268 on the ice shelf generated strong waves in the region in front of the ice shelf. The advection of  
269 anomalous warm and moist air masses to the area at the ice shelf front may have contributed to a  
270 decrease in sea ice concentration at the front of the ice shelf, as it will be shown in section 5.

271









**Figure 4:** ERA5 reanalysis of: (a) MSLP in colors and winds at 925hPa in vectors on 19 September 2019 at 2200 UTC, (b) 2-m temperature in colors, winds at 925hPa in vectors, MSLP in black contours and 0°C contour in red on 19 September at 2200 UTC, (c) total column water vapor (TCWV) in colors, winds at 925hPa in vectors and MSLP in black contours on 20 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, (d) standardized anomalies relative to the full record (1979-2019) of 10-m u-wind on 20 September 2019 at 0000 UTC. Vectors show 10-m wind anomalies, black contours show positive MSLP anomalies and dashed black contours show negative MSLP anomalies. Colored contour lines show percentile rank extremes (1, 5, 10 and 90, 95, 99 percentile ranks) of the corresponding quantities indicated on the plots, (e) 2-m temperature in colors, 10-m winds in vectors, MSLP in black contours and 0°C contour in red dashed-line on 21 September at 0600 UTC. (f) MODIS visible imagery on 21 September 2019, image credit: NASA worldview. (g) Sentinel-3A and 3B observations of wave height on 22 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, image credit: ESA Ocean Virtual Laboratory.

272

## 273 2.2. Twin polar cyclones during 23-24 September 2019 - calving

274 Following the extended period of extreme cyclones in Cooperation sea, an explosive cyclone  
275 started to develop on 21 September 2019 centered at 45°E and 60°S. The pressure at its center  
276 deepened from 976hPa on 21 September at 1900 UTC to 952hPa on 22 September 2019 at 19 UTC  
277 (not shown). On 23 September 2019, the large explosive cyclone entered Cooperation Sea from  
278 the west with a deep low of 940 hPa (Fig. 5a). It was accompanied by an intense atmospheric river  
279 exhibiting core IVT greater than 800 kg m<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and stretching from mid-latitudes towards  
280 Antarctica (Fig. 5b). The explosive cyclone was stationary over Cooperation Sea during the whole  
281 day on 23 September 2019, being trapped between two far-south reaching blocking ridges one to  
282 the west of it and the second to its east (Fig. 5a and 5c). The cyclone intensified, increased in size  
283 and evolved into twin cyclones on 24 September 2019 at 0000 UTC associated with 952hPa low  
284 pressure at their respective centers (Fig. 5c and 5d). The mutual interaction between the two  
285 cyclones appeared as co-rotation and an eastward translation of the binary pair by the ambient

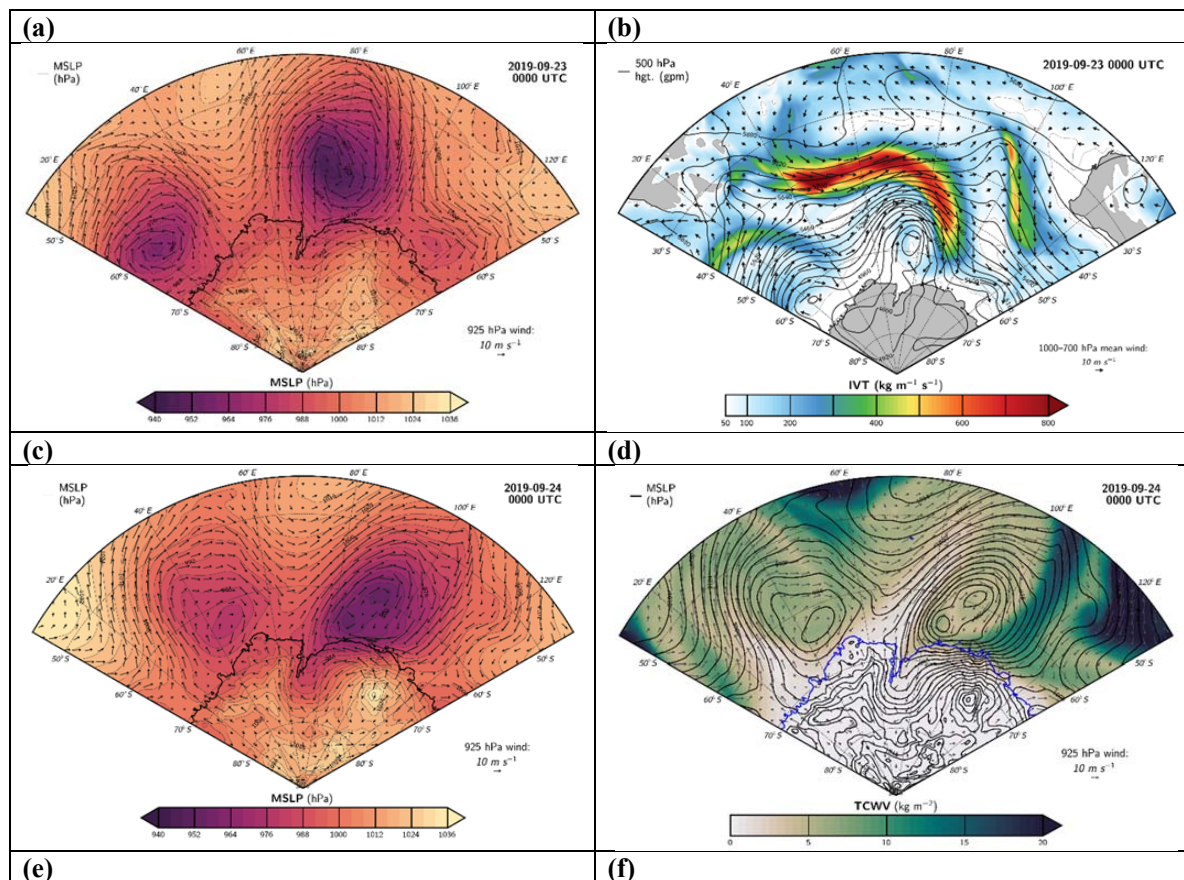


286 flow. The interplay between the cyclones lasted for one day after which the twins merged and  
287 decayed on 25 September 2019.

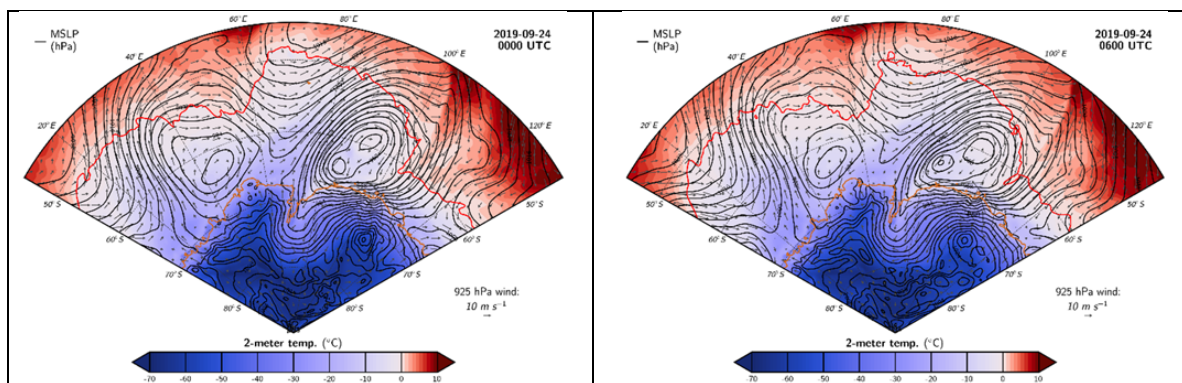
288 To the south of the twin cyclones, a cold pressure high (1036 hPa) developed over the ice sheet as  
289 a result of the accumulation of cold air due the blocking ridge to the northeast (Fig. 5c). The high-  
290 pressure advected extremely cold air masses (2-m temperature below  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) into the twin-cyclone  
291 system (Fig. 5e and 5 f) which may have fostered baroclinicity and frontogenesis, hence sustaining  
292 the twin cyclones for a longer period of time.

293 Transport of moisture from mid-latitudes toward East Antarctica continued during this period and  
294 high precipitable water amounts were continuously advected by the atmospheric river and the  
295 cyclones over the ice shelf margins (Fig. 5d). Sustained advection of exceptionally warm air  
296 masses was observed during this event as well (Fig. 5e and 5f). Air masses characterized by  $0^{\circ}\text{C}$   
297 2-m temperatures were seen to penetrate further south reaching  $66^{\circ}\text{S}$  over the region to the east of  
298 the twin cyclones during the whole day on 24 September 2019 (Fig. 5e and 5f).

299







**Figure 5:** (a) MSLP in colors and winds at 925hPa in vectors on 23 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, (b) integrated water vapor transport (IVT) in colors, geopotential heights at 500 hPa in black contours and 1000-700 hPa mean winds in black vectors on 23 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, (c) total column water vapor (TCWV) in colors, winds at 925hPa in vectors and MSLP in black contours on 24 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, (d) MSLP in colors and winds at 925hPa in vectors on 24 September 2019 at 0000 UTC, (e) 2-m temperature in colors, winds at 925hPa in vectors, MSLP in black contours and 0°C contour in red on 24 September at 0000 UTC, (f) same as (e) but at 0600 UTC.

300

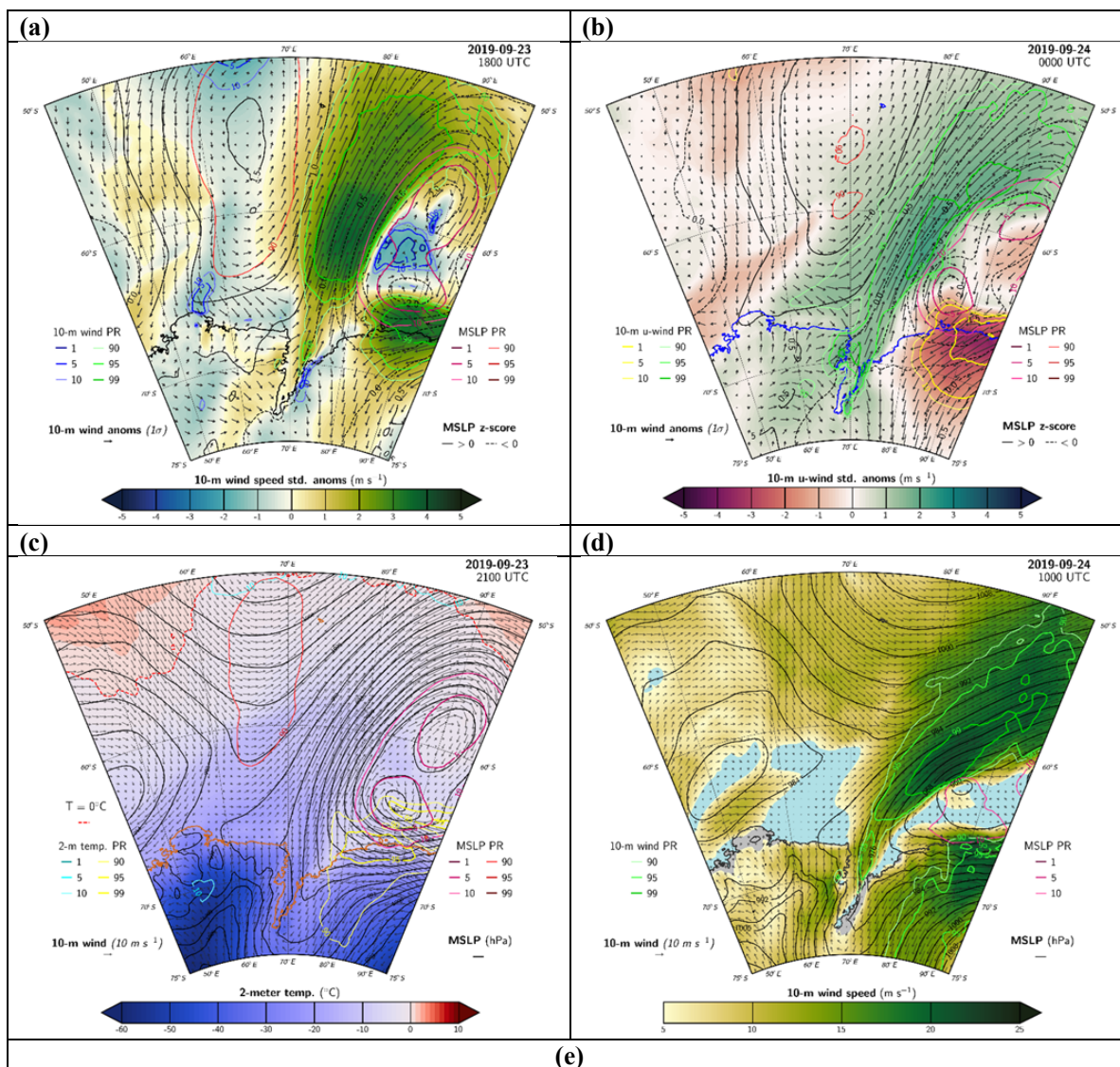
301 During 23-24 September, the deep twin polar cyclones were stationary to the east of the Amery  
302 Ice Shelf (Fig. 5) associated with MSLP anomalies at their centers below the 5th percentile (Fig.  
303 6a and 6c). They induced extreme westerlies ( $10\text{-m}$  wind speed in the order of  $17\text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) across the  
304 ice shelf with positive  $10\text{-m}$  wind anomalies exceeding 2 standard deviations from the  
305 climatological mean (Fig. 6a). The direction of the winds was also exceptional with above 99th  
306 percentile u-wind over the western ice shelf margin from 23 September 2019 at 1800 UTC (Fig.  
307 6b) through 24 September 2019 at 1200 UTC and below the 5th percentile u-wind values over the  
308 lower eastern ice shelf area (Fig. 6a and 6b). Weaker but still significant (95 percentile) westerly  
309 wind anomalies lingered during the remainder of the day on 24 September 2019 and through  
310 midday on 25 September 2019 with wind speed at  $10\text{-m}$  reaching  $15\text{ m s}^{-1}$  at the front of the ice  
311 shelf (Fig. 6d). Sustained positive  $2\text{-m}$  temperature anomalies were observed throughout the twin  
312 cyclone event over the eastern side of Prydz Bay. Warm air advection by the twin cyclones brought  
313 95 percentile rank temperatures over the eastern side of the Amery Ice Shelf and Prydz Bay on 23  
314 and 24 September 2019 and 90 percentile rank temperatures inland over Princess Elizabeth Land  
315 (Fig. 6c). These episodes of poleward advection of warm air masses may explain the observed  
316 positive-trend in surface temperatures during winter/spring seasons at Prydz Bay reported by Heil  
317 (2006) using measurements from ground stations.

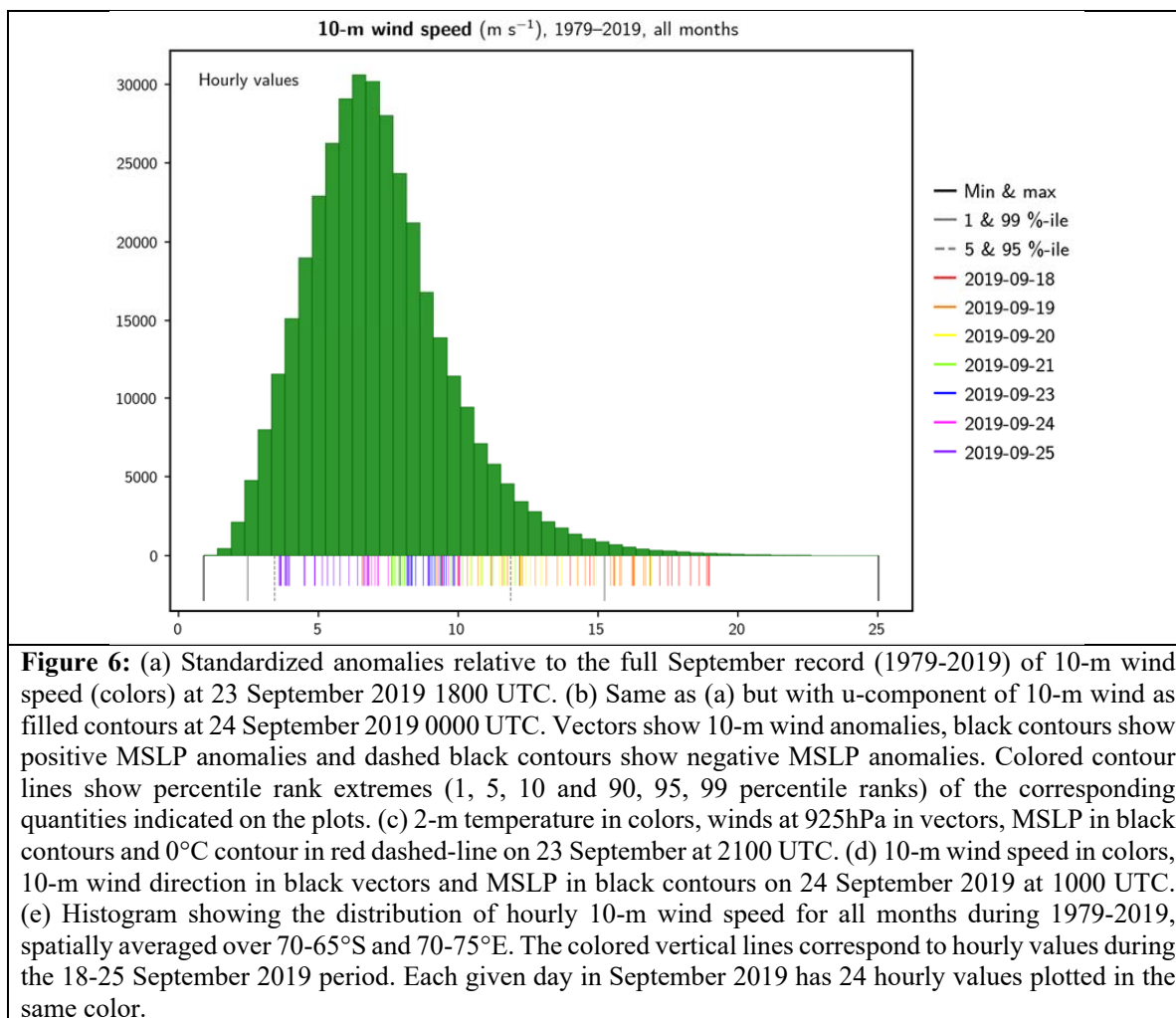
318 The distribution of hourly  $10\text{-m}$  wind speed for all months 1979-2019 over the Amery Ice Shelf  
319 front is shown in the histogram in Fig. 6f. The winds during the 18-22 September 2019 period  
320 were exceptionally unusual compared to the record. The winds during the 23-25 September 2019  
321 period were strong but not unusually extreme. This suggests that the first extreme cyclones' event  
322 had an important role in preconditioning the ice shelf front for breakoff, while the offshore winds



323 during the second event triggered the calving by pushing the iceberg-to-be out from the shelf along  
 324 the T1 rift.

325





326

### 327 2.3 Sea ice and land ice conditions

328 The anomalous atmospheric conditions during the extended period of strong cyclonic activity  
329 occurring over the ice cover in Cooperation Sea (i.e., south to the sea ice edge) had significant  
330 impacts on both sea ice and land ice (Fig. 7). The sustained period of strong cyclonic activity  
331 occurring over the sea ice pack and onto the Amery Ice Shelf caused decreases in sea ice  
332 concentration both at the mouth of the Amery Ice Shelf and further offshore. Although this study  
333 focuses on the period 17–25 September 2019, the inspection of the sequence of MODIS images for  
334 the whole month of September 2019 revealed several episodes of sea ice removal from the ice  
335 shelf front area during the 7–17 September 2019 period by offshore winds (i.e., Fig. 1). Despite  
336 the formation of new sea ice over the area, the sea ice removal may have preconditioned the sea





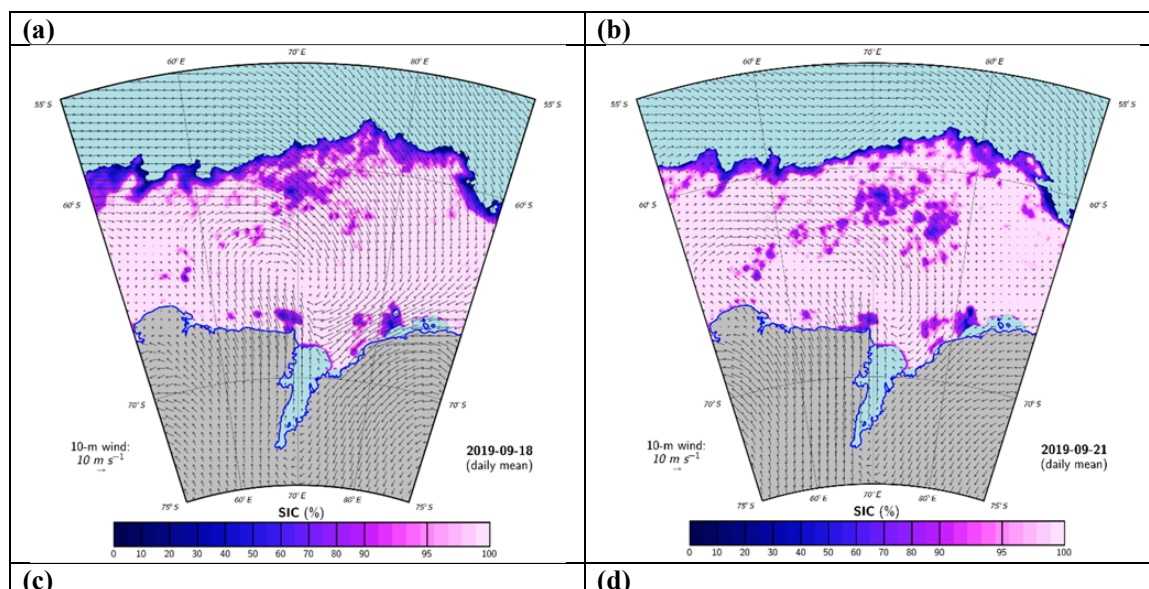
337 ice cover for further reduction during the subsequent series of extremes cyclones and increased the  
338 area of open water susceptible to ocean wave activity along the front of the ice shelf.

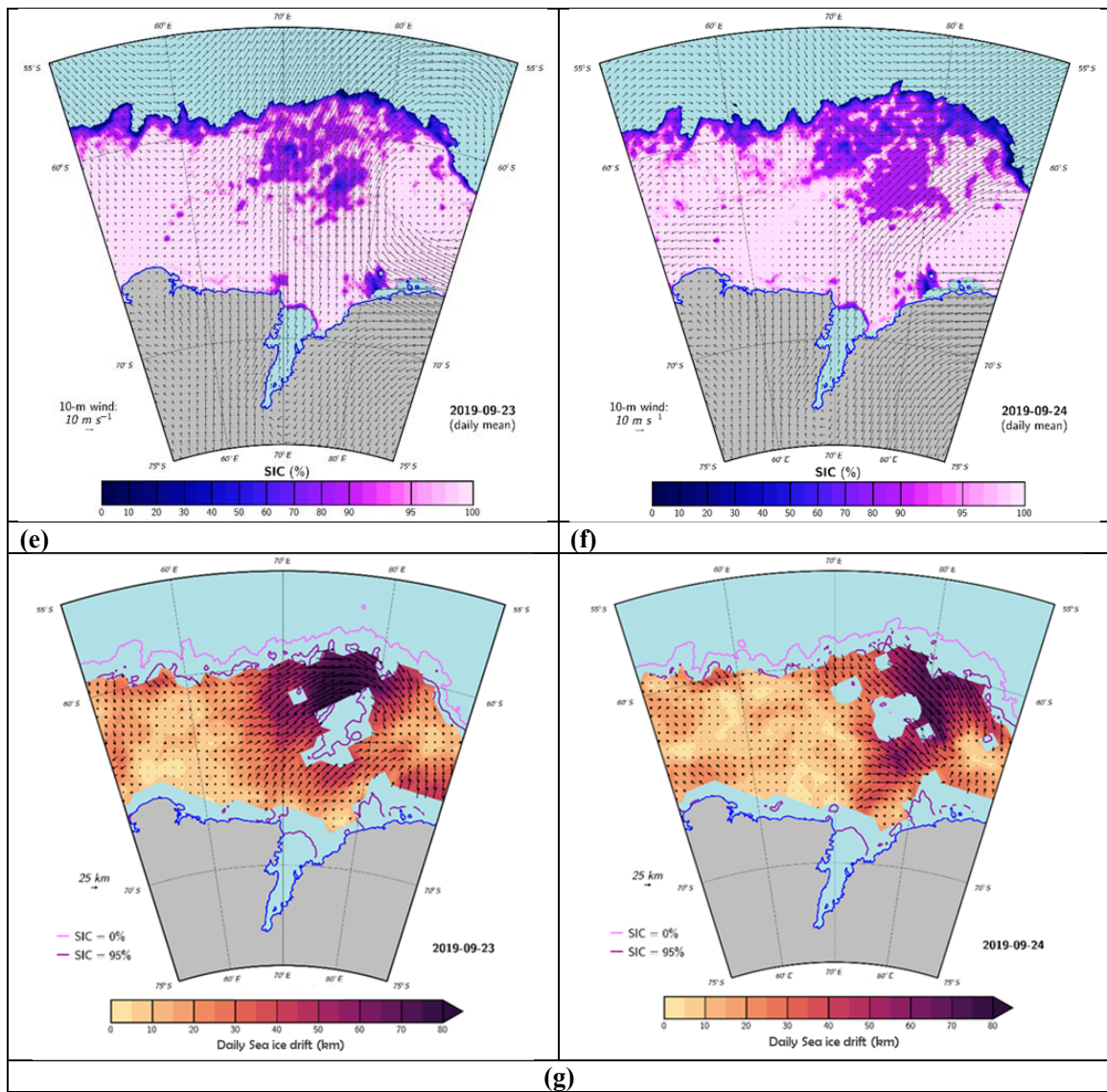
339 Sea ice concentration in Cooperation Sea and at the Amery Ice Shelf front area was reduced to  
340 below 60%, reaching 40% in some places (Fig. 7a and 7b). By the end of the intense cyclonic  
341 activity period, areas of open water formed especially at the locations of the strongest surface  
342 winds i.e., to the left of the twin cyclones centers (Fig. 7c and 7d). Significant reduction in sea ice  
343 concentration was also observed along the sea ice edge associated with wind-driven currents and  
344 waves (Fig. 7) which may have decreased the sea-ice attenuation effect of waves-in-ice  
345 propagating from lower-latitude ocean toward the ice shelf.

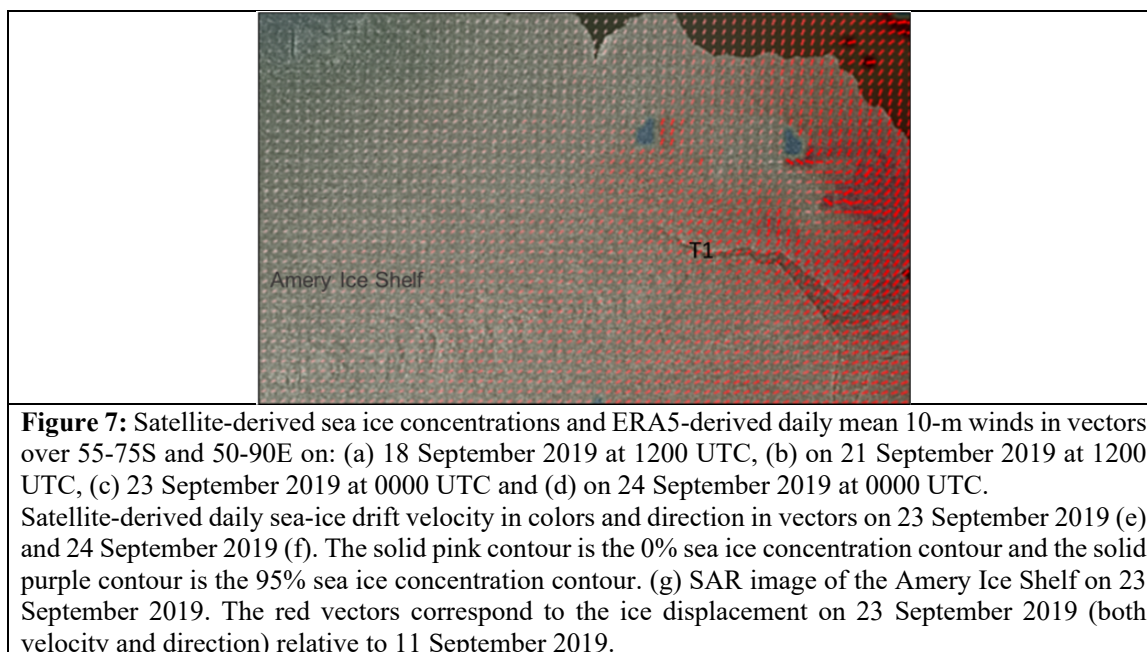
346 The decrease in sea ice concentration was due to both sea ice melt caused by the anomalous warm  
347 and moist air masses advected over the Amery Ice Shelf during the first episode of twin cyclones  
348 (i.e., Fig. 3 and 4) and to sea ice drift out of the region by strong winds during the second episode  
349 of twin polar cyclones (i.e., Fig. 5 and 6). The strong waves generated locally in the area of reduced  
350 sea ice concentration in front of the ice shelf during the first set of cyclone events (Fig. 4g), were  
351 important in preconditioning the breakoff by inducing flexure at the front.

352 Significant sea ice drift was observed at the mouth of the Amery Ice Shelf associated with the  
353 exceptional westerlies generated by the twin cyclones on 23-24 September 2019 (Fig. 7e and 7d).  
354 The sea ice drift velocity during this period reached 50 km on average per day and the sea ice  
355 drifted away from the Amery Ice Shelf towards the east and northeast (Fig. 7f).

356







357

358 The action of strong winds on sea ice removal from the area at the mouth of the Amery Ice Shelf  
359 was visible in MODIS imagery (Fig. 8). During the period of the twin polar cyclones on 23- 24  
360 September 2019, the sea ice was pushed about 65 km away from the ice shelf front in just a 2-day  
361 period of time (Fig. 8). The ice-free region in front of the ice shelf presented an asymmetric shape  
362 where the sea ice in front of the western side of the ice shelf was pushed further away compared  
363 to the sea ice in front of the eastern side (Fig. 8). This may have made the western side more  
364 vulnerable to the winds and associated waves induced by the consecutive explosive cyclones.

365 In fact, sea ice loss in the vicinity of weakened or flooded shelves is considered as the ultimate  
366 cause of rapid ice shelf calving (e.g., Massom et al., 2018). The removal of the protective buffer  
367 represented by sea ice for ice shelves (e.g., Massom et al., 2018) may have enabled increased  
368 flexure of the outer ice shelf western margin by wind-induced waves.

369 The extreme nature and long duration of the cyclones during the second event induced sustained  
370 wind strain on the pre-existing rift at the front of the Amery Ice Shelf, where winds were blowing  
371 perpendicular to it. This caused rapid opening of the crack and subsequent movement of the iceberg  
372 away from the ice shelf (Fig. 8). The SAR satellite image on 23 September 2019 together with the  
373 ice-displacement velocity (rate and direction in vectors) relative to 11 September 2019 are shown  
374 in Fig. 7g. The displacement vectors indicate that the iceberg-to-be was rotating in the period 11-  
375 23 September 2019 prior to the calving. Wind forcing induced a leftward (relative to the rift T1)  
376 splitting-movement of the future iceberg prior to break-off on 25 September 2019.

377 Explosive cyclones crossing the sea ice zone around Antarctica can generate waves of up to 8  
378 meters in height that are capable of propagating more than 100 km into the sea ice cover (Vichi et



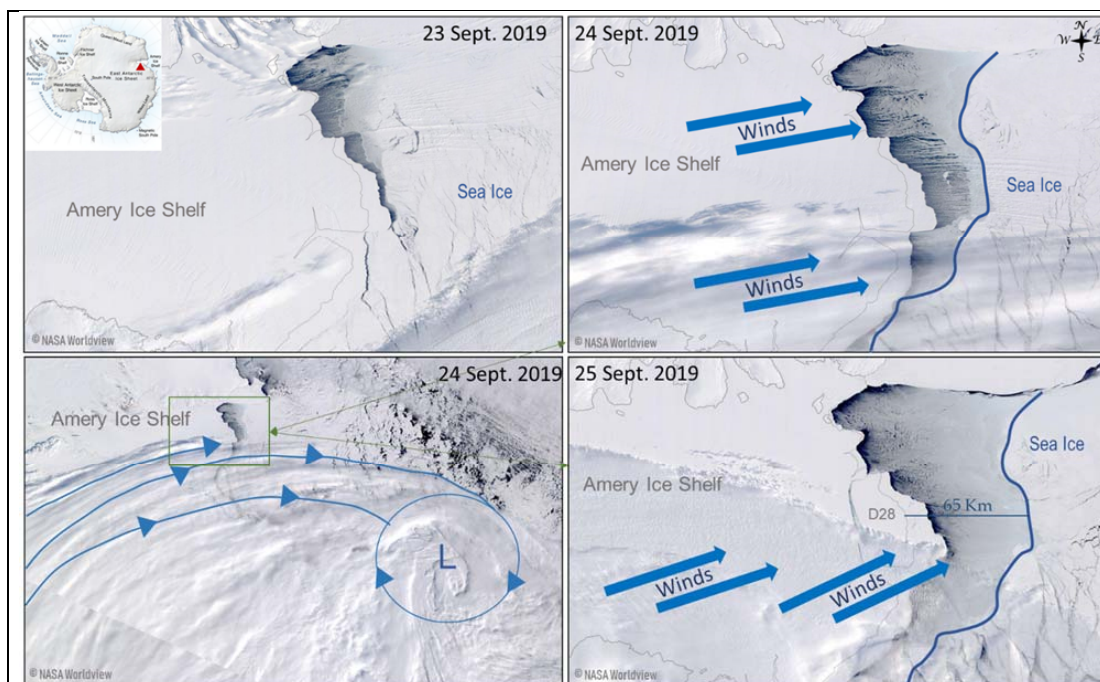
379 al., 2019). The consecutive deep cyclones under scrutiny impacted immediately the Amery Ice  
380 Shelf front since they were found very close to the coast. During the first period of explosive twin  
381 cyclones, the cyclones were sitting to the west of the Amery Ice Shelf which directed anomalous  
382 warm and moist easterlies towards it. This situation caused a decrease in sea ice concentration  
383 (Fig. 7) and intense waves immediately at the shelf front (Fig. 4f) resulting in a cumulative shelf-  
384 front fatigue and amplification of the fractures along the pre-existing rifts. This combination of  
385 factors weakened the ice shelf front and made it more vulnerable to the additional extreme  
386 atmospheric forcing (producing strong offshore winds) and sea ice removal brought by the second  
387 event of explosive twin cyclones, ultimately leading to its calving.

388 Previous studies (Holdsworth and Glynn, 1978; Squire et al., 1994) have shown that calving ice  
389 shelves can be triggered by wind-induced waves which impose flexural strains on the ice shelves,  
390 with the potential to induce crevasse and rift propagation and calving (Robinson and Haskell, 1992;  
391 Bromirski et al., 2010). This effect can be even maximized by the loss of the protective sea ice  
392 pack at the front of the ice shelves (Massom et al., 2018). Here we have shown that the series of  
393 intense cyclones provided ideal conditions for both sea ice reduction and wind-waves and  
394 ultimately triggered the calving on 25 September 2019.

395 Furthermore, ocean swell (defined as relatively long-period surface-gravity waves that are  
396 generated by distant weather systems and are no longer growing or being sustained locally by the  
397 wind, as opposed to locally generated wind waves), may have also contributed to (i) fragilizing  
398 the western side of the Amery Ice Shelf on 22 September 2019 (i.e., after the decay of the first two  
399 twin cyclones) and to (ii) the calving on 25-26 September (i.e., after the decay of the second pair  
400 of deep cyclones). Moreover, swells are strongly attenuated by the presence of extensive sea ice  
401 which reduced substantially their destructive effect. Thus, loss of sea ice can maximize swell effect  
402 on ice shelves. This mechanism has been found at work during the calving events of other Antarctic  
403 ice shelves. A study on the calving event in March 1990 at the Erebus Glacier Tongue in the Ross  
404 Sea implicated the removal of sea ice combined with ocean swell (Robinson and Haskell, 1990).  
405 Focusing on the disintegration of the Larsen ice shelves, Massom et al., (2018) found that regional  
406 loss of sea ice before and during the disintegration events allows storm-induced long-period (10–  
407 20 s) ocean swells to reach exposed ice shelf fronts that have been preconditioned for calving by  
408 extensive fracturing and meltwater flooding. These swells excite flexural oscillations in the outer  
409 ice shelf margin which amplify fracture and trigger a calving.

410





**Figure 8:** MODIS satellite visible imagery of the Amery Ice Shelf showing the ice shelf before the calving on 23 September 2019, during the calving on 24-25 September 2019. Image credit: NASA Worldview.

411

### 412 3. Discussion and conclusions

413 In this study, the role of atmospheric extremes in ice shelf instability is addressed by investigating  
414 the atmospheric conditions during the recent calving event from the Amery Ice Shelf on 25  
415 September 2019. During the month of September 2019, the circulation around Antarctica was  
416 characterized by anomalously-pronounced 3 ridges and 3 troughs with the Indian sector of the  
417 Southern Ocean being under the influence of troughing and surrounded by two blocking ridges;  
418 one over the southern Atlantic to the west and one over Davis Sea and southern Australia to the  
419 east.

420 During the second half of September 2019, a series of explosive polar cyclones, evolving into  
421 stationary twin polar cyclones, impacted the region of the Amery Ice Shelf. The first explosive  
422 cyclone occurred on 18 September 2019 and evolved into two stationary twin polar cyclones on  
423 19-22 September 2019 sitting to the west of the ice shelf. The second explosive cyclone formed  
424 on 23 September 2019 and evolved into two stationary twin polar cyclones on 24-25 September  
425 2019, sitting, this time, to the east of the Amery Ice Shelf. Both explosive-cyclone episodes were  
426 accompanied by intense atmospheric rivers bringing anomalous warm and moist air masses  
427 poleward. The stationary aspect of the deep cyclones had a large impact on the ice conditions as it  
428 subjected the ice to sustained stress and strain. The main difference between the two episodes is  
429 the location at which the twin cyclones were stationary, relative to the Amery Ice Shelf, which



430 determined the characteristics of the air masses and the wind direction that affected the ice shelf.  
431 This position of the cyclones relative to the Amery Ice Shelf was, in turn, determined in each  
432 episode, by the location of the blocking ridges in the general circulation.

433 During the first episode, anomalous warm, moist and easterly winds impacted the ice shelf and  
434 surrounding sea ice, whereas during the second episode, the ice shelf and surrounding sea ice were  
435 under the influence of anomalous westerlies. The first episode resulted in a weakened and more  
436 exposed ice shelf due to (i) sea ice melting, and (ii) fracture amplification along the rift via wind-  
437 induced waves parallel to it. During the second episode, anomalously strong offshore winds  
438 resulted in an ice-free area in front of the western side of the ice shelf. Sustained strong winds  
439 perpendicular to the pre-existing rift induced (i) significant sea ice drift away from the shelf-front,  
440 (ii) sustained strain on the shelf-front, and (iii) fracture amplification along the rift leading to the  
441 calving. The detached iceberg after calving followed a northeasterly motion being dragged by the  
442 prevailing winds and associated ocean currents. This drifting direction was similar to the one  
443 followed by the sea ice one day before and gave an indication of the impact of the wind direction  
444 on this process. Given the east-exposed orientation of the crack at the ice shelf-front, the direction  
445 of the sustained strong westerly winds was deterministic for the calving.

446 In summary, atmospheric forcings by the explosive twin polar cyclones and associated  
447 atmospheric rivers, triggered the September 2019 breakoff at the Amery Ice Shelf via the interplay  
448 between several mechanisms:

449 - Thermodynamical processes linked to the poleward transport of anomalous warm and moist air  
450 masses which resulted in a reduction in sea ice concentration at the front of the ice shelf, thus  
451 increasing the exposure of the ice shelf-front to winds and waves.

452 - Mechanical forcing by the anomalously strong winds on: 1- Waves/swells which resulted in a  
453 cumulative shelf-front fatigue and amplification of the fractures along the pre-existing rift. 2- Sea  
454 ice drift which removed the protective buffer and increased the effect of wind-induced waves on  
455 the ice shelf margin. 3- The rift which led to the enlargement of the fracture and separated the  
456 iceberg from the shelf along the rift. 4- Subsurface warm waters which may have generated an  
457 influx of warm circumpolar deep water onto the ice shelf margin and under the ice shelf cavity  
458 that could have preconditioned the breakoff through basal melt (Morrison et al., 2020). The last  
459 point has not been explored in this study since it focuses on the role of atmospheric forcing on the  
460 calving.

461 The analysis of this unique event could help better understand the underlying factors leading to  
462 calving and ice shelf weakening; important precursors to ice shelf instability and disintegration  
463 and hence contribution to sea level rise. Our analysis highlights the need for ice sheet models, used  
464 to project sea level rise, to account for atmospheric forcing at high resolution, in addition to sea  
465 ice and ocean waves, if they were to simulate accurately the changes occurring in the ice sheet and  
466 glaciers and their contribution to sea level rise. Up till now, the role of warming ocean has been  
467 the focus of most of the scientific research on this topic, however, recent studies based on  
468 numerical experiments demonstrate that wind stress changes over the Southern Ocean drive  
469 enhanced poleward heat transport by stronger subpolar gyres and reduce coastal sea ice and cold-





470 water formations, both of which result in an increased ocean heat flux into Antarctic ice shelf  
471 cavities (Kusahara, 2020). Furthermore, the increase of sea ice-free days can lead to enhanced  
472 regional subwater contribution to the basal melting.

473 In fact, important changes in the atmospheric circulation are being observed in the Southern  
474 Hemisphere. For instance, between 1979 and 2010 the subtropical jet streams moved poleward by  
475  $6.5 \pm 0.2$  degrees in the Southern Hemisphere (Hudson, 2012) and the westerlies strengthened and  
476 shifted poleward (Fogt and Marshal, 2020). The observed poleward movement over the past few  
477 decades represents a significant change in the position of the sub-tropical jet stream, which should  
478 lead to significant latitudinal shifts in the global weather patterns, the hydrological cycle and their  
479 impact on Antarctic ice shelves.

480 The variability of the polar jet front in the Southern Hemisphere and whether similar behavior as  
481 the polar jet in the Northern Hemisphere is underway around Antarctica needs to be investigated  
482 in future work. Several studies have shown evidence for a wavier jet stream in response to rapid  
483 Arctic warming and reported a weakening of the polar jet as a result of a reduced temperature  
484 gradient between high and mid-latitudes due to the increased temperatures in the Arctic (e.g.,  
485 Francis and Vavrus, 2015; Coumou et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2017). Such change in the polar jet,  
486 which acts as an isolation boundary between high and mid latitudes, would lead to more  
487 interactions, and spark feedback mechanisms between the Antarctic system and mid-latitudes as it  
488 happened to be the case in the Arctic (Francis et al., 2018; 2019a).

489 The poleward shift of the cyclones together with the decrease in sea ice extent in recent years  
490 makes it more urgent to assess the impact of cyclones on Antarctic-wide maritime-terminating ice  
491 shelves as higher numbers of large cyclones could be expected to reach further south and therefore  
492 affects ice shelves dynamics. If extreme polar cyclones are to form or reach more frequently ice  
493 shelves due to climate change, their destructive effect may have important consequences and needs  
494 to be accounted for in models used for sea level and Antarctic Ice Sheet mass balance projections.

#### 495 **4. Data and methods**

496 The atmospheric analysis is based on data from the ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2020).  
497 During the period 16-25 September 2019, hourly maps of mean sea level pressure (MSLP), winds,  
498 2m temperature and total column water vapor (TCWV) are analyzed. Furthermore, in order to  
499 investigate the anomalous character of the atmospheric conditions, we calculated, for the same  
500 period and quantities listed above, hourly standardized anomalies and percentile ranks relative to  
501 all hourly ERA5 September values during the full record (1979-2019) over the area 45-95°E, 50-  
502 75°S. In addition, a histogram analysis has been performed over a smaller domain limited to the  
503 ice-shelf front area and adjacent mouth of Prydz Bay (i.e., 70-65°S and 70-75°E). The histograms  
504 represent the distribution of hourly values spatially averaged over this domain, for all months  
505 during 1979-2019.

506 Daily sea ice extent and concentration data are derived from the AMSR-E / AMSR2 unified record  
507 (Meier et al., 2018) at 12.5 km spatial resolution ([https://nsidc.org/data/AU\\_SI12/versions/1](https://nsidc.org/data/AU_SI12/versions/1)). To  
508 check the motion in the sea ice field in the Amery Basin, we used the low-resolution sea ice drift  
509 product of the EUMETSAT Ocean and Sea Ice Satellite Application Facility (OSI SAF, [www.osi-](http://www.osi-)



510 saf.org). This is a 48-hour average gridded ice drift dataset processed on a daily basis and made  
511 available on a 62.5 km Polar Stereographic Grid (e.g., Kwok et al. 2017). Ice motion vectors are  
512 estimated by an advanced cross-correlation method on pairs of satellite images (Lavergne et al.,  
513 2010). It uses the multi-sensor spatial covering product that combines SSMIS (91 GHz H and V  
514 polarization) on board DMSP platform F17, ASCAT (C-band backscatter) on board EUMETSAT  
515 platform Metop-A, and AMSR-2 on board JAXA platform GCOM-W. Due to atmospheric noise  
516 and surface melting these data are only available for the Southern Hemisphere winter (1st April to  
517 31st October).

518 Visible imagery of the Amery Ice Shelf and surrounding area are taken from MODIS/VIIRS land  
519 products (ORNL DAAC, 2018) using the NASA Worldview application  
520 (<https://worldview.earthdata.nasa.gov>).

521 Sentinel-1 data has been used to determine potential surface melt (e.g. Datta et. al, 2019) and to  
522 track ice velocity over the Amery ice shelf prior to the D28 iceberg calving by using feature  
523 tracking in ESA's SNAP Sentinel-1 toolbox. Sentinel-3A and 3B data were used via the ESA  
524 Ocean Virtual Laboratory application to determine the wave height at the front of the Amery Ice  
525 Shelf.

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533 **Code and Data availability:** All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present  
534 in the paper. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to DF.

535 **Author contributions** D.F. conceived the study and wrote the initial manuscript. K.M. analyzed  
536 the satellite and reanalysis data. S.L analyzed satellite data. M.T. and P.H. provided input on result  
537 analysis. All authors interpreted results and provided input to the final manuscript.

538 **Competing Interests** The authors declare that they have no competing interests.



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