High mid-Holocene accumulation rates over West Antarctica inferred from a pervasive ice-penetrating radar reflector

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Key points

- We estimate mean accumulation rates for the past ~5000 4700 years across the Pine Island, Thwaites, and Institute and Möller ice-stream catchments in West Antarctica using a ubiquitous, ice-core dated internal radar-sounded and ice core-dated Internal Reflecting Horizon reflection
- Accumulation rates were 18% higher during the mid-Holocene compared to modern rates over the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross Sea divide
- Spin-up of regional and continental ice-sheet models
 Spin-up of ice sheet models must_should account_includefor time-varying changes in Holocene accumulation rates from the WAIS Divide Ice Core between the Last Glacial Maximum and the present-to generate more realistic grounding-line evolution and past sea level rise contribution across this region

34 Abstract

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36 Modelling-Understanding the past and future evolution of the Antarctic Ice Sheet-the West Antarctic 37 Ice Sheet (WAIS) to atmospheric and ocean forcing_is challenged by the availability and quality of 38 observed palaeo-boundary conditions. Numerical ice-sheet models often rely on these palaeo-boundary 39 conditions to guide and evaluate their models' predictions of sea-level rise, with varying levels of 40 confidence due to the sparsity of existing data across the ice sheet. A kkey potential-data source for 41 large-scale reconstructing reconstruction of past ice-sheet processes on large spatial scales are Internal 42 Reflecting Horizons (IRHs) detected by Radio-Echo Sounding (RES) techniques. When isochronal and 43 dated at ice cores, IRHs can be used to determine palaeo-accumulation rates and patterns therein. Using 44 a spatially extensive IRH over Pine Island Glacier, Thwaites Glacier, and Institute and Möller Ice 45 Streams (covering a total of 610 000 km² or 30% of the WAIS), and a local layer approximation model, 46 we infer mid-Holocene accumulation rates over the slow-flowing parts of these catchments for the past 47 \sim 475000 years. By comparing our results with modern climate reanalysis models (1979–2019) and 48 observational syntheses (1651-2010), we estimate that accumulation rates over the Amundsen-49 Weddell-Ross divide were on average 18% higher during the mid-Holocene than modern rates-during 50 the mid Holocene. However, no significant spatial changes in the accumulation pattern were observed. 51 These higher mid-Holocene accumulation-rate estimates match previous palaeo-accumulation 52 estimates from ice-core records and targeted RES surveys over the ice divide, and they also coincide 53 with periods of grounding-line re-advance during the Holocene over the Weddell and Ross Sea sectors. 54 We find that our spatially-extensive, mid-Holocene-to-present accumulation estimates are consistent 55 with a sustained late-Holocene period of higher accumulation rates occurring over millennia at the 56 WAIS Divide Ice Core, thus highlighting the spatial representativeness of this ice core to the wider West Antarctic region. Our results highlight the need for ice sheet models to account for time varying 57 58 accumulation rates across the WAIS during the Holocene to provide better estimates of its contribution 59 to past sea level rise. We conclude that future regional and continental ice-sheet modelling studies 60 should base their climatic forcings on time-varying accumulation rates from the WAIS Divide Ice Core 61 through the Holocene to generate more realistic predictions of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet's past 62 contribution to sea-level rise.

Key words: West Antarctica, Internal Reflecting Horizons, Accumulation, Holocene, Ice-Penetrating
 Radars, Ice-Core, Pine Island Glacier, Thwaites Glacier.

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68 1. Introduction

69 Improving our knowledge of past climatic changes over the West Antarctic Ice SheetAntarctic Ice 70 Sheet (WAIS) is required if we are to understand its present evolution and model its future under 71 increasingly rapid climatic changes (IPCC, 2021). Most studies of past ice-sheet behaviour over 72 Antarcticathe WAIS have focused on modelling changes in ice volume and grounding-line (GL) 73 retreat following the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, ~20 ka Before Present, BP) (Denton and Hughes, 74 2002; Golledge et al., 2012; 2013; Hillenbrand et al., 2013; 2014; Le Brocq et al., 2011; Kingslake et 75 al., 2018); however, less attention has been paid to ice-sheet evolution during the Holocene (~11.7 ka 76 BP to present). Recent evidence suggests that the parts of the grounding line of West Antarctica GL 77 may have retreated several hundred kilometres inland from its current position at ~10 ka and 78 subsequently re-advanced to reach its modern position sometime during the Holocene, due to isostatic 79 rebound and climate-induced changes, particularly over the Weddell Sea and western Ross Sea 80 sectors (Siegert et al., 2013; Bradley et al., 2015; Kingslake et al., 2018; Wearing and Kingslake, 81 2019; Venturelli et al., 2020; Neuhaus et al., 2021; Johnson et al., 2022). However,

82 <u>**T**</u> the inland-atmospheric and ice-dynamical conditions farther inland, which may could also have 83 induced have partly caused this Holocene-grounding-line GL-migration, remain relatively under-84 studiedpoorly constrained. An early investigation by Whillans (1976) using radar data near Byrd Ice Core indicated stability during the Late Pleistocene and Holocene epochs and late Pleistocene. 85 Records of temperature and precipitation from the WAIS Divide Ice Core (hereafter abbreviated as 86 WD14; Fig. 1) in the central WAIS-West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) suggest higher accumulation 87 88 rates during the Holocene than the at present (Fudge et al., 2016), a trend that is also observed across 89 small parts of the Western divideAmundsen-Weddell-Ross divide (hereafter referred to as WD; Fig. 90 1) near the WAIS Divide Ice Core (hereafter referred to as WD14; Fig. 1WD14) -where isolated 91 Radio-Echo Sounding (RES) surveys have shown 15-30% higher accumulation rates during the mid-92 Holocene compared to modern values (Siegert and Payne, 2004; Neumann et al., 2008; Koutnik et al., 93 2016).

94 At present modelling Many numerical ice-sheet modelsstudies that aim to predict Antarctica's 95 future-long-term (past and future) changes contribution to sea-level riseover the WAIS use past ice-96 sheet reconstructions from after the LGM to guide and evaluate their models (Chavaillaz et al., 2013; 97 DeConto and Pollard, 2016; Bracegirdle et al., 2019). However, even well-used ice-sheet 98 reconstructions assume that the ice sheet retreated continuously throughout the Holocene (e.g. RAISED Consortium, 2014), a finding that has been challenged recently for the WAIS (e.g. 99 100 Kingslake et al., 2018). HoweverFurther, significant discrepancies between model simulations and the 101 palaeo-proxy record currently impede our ability to predict confidently how the ice sheet will respond 102 to future changes in the climate (e.g. Johnson et al., 2021). While improvements in model physics 103 parameterisations and parameterisations are needed to close this gap (Bracegirdle et al., 2019; Sutter 104 et al., 2021), a considerable improvement in the availability and quality of palaeo-proxy records, 105 particularly during the Holocene, is also needed to provide better constraints for ice-sheet models and 106 ultimately gain better resolve a more accurate picture of the past ice-sheet changes (Kingslake et al., 107 2018; Jones et al., 2022). Palaeo-proxy data over the WAIS-have traditionally come from point-based measurements, such as ice cores (e.g. Petit et al., 1999; Parrenin et al., 2007; WAIS Divide Project 108 109 Members, 2013; ; Cuffey et al., 2016; McConnell et al., 2017; Buizert et al., 2021), sediment cores 110 (e.g. Hillenbrand et al., 2013; Arnd et al., 2017; Hillenbrand et al., 2017; Kingslake et al, 2018; 111 Venturelli et al., 2020; Neuhaus et al., 2021; Sproson et al., 2022), or from surface-exposure dating 112 (e.g. Stone et al., 2003; Suganuma et al., 2014; Johnson et al., 2014; Hein et al., 2016; Nichols et al., 113 2019; Johnson et al., 2020; Braddock et al., 2022).

¹¹⁴ A <u>complimentary and</u> spatially extensive alternative data source <u>for inferring past climate</u> 115 <u>across an ice sheet is provided by Internal Reflecting Horizons (IRHs) detected by RES. They</u>

116 primarily result from englacial acidity contrasts sounded by RES_and are often detected horizontally 117 for hundreds of kilometres on RES data ean be traced horizontally across large parts of the ice sheet 118 on RES profiles (Harrison, 1973; Bingham and Siegert, 2007)., thus making them a useful resource to 119 infer past climates on regional to continental scales (Bingham and Siegert, 2007; Harrison, 1973). 120 When employed in combination with ice-core stratigraphiesy, IRHs can be used to extrapolate extend 121 age-depth relationships across large spatial scales away from an ice core by following peaks in 122 electromagnetic power in the radar data (e.g. Beem et al., 2021; Bodart et al., 2021a; Cavitte et al., 123 2016; Jacobel and Welch, 2005; MacGregor et al., 2015; Whillans, 1976; Winter et al., 2019).

In comparison-contrast to East Antarctica and Greenland, extrapolating-IRH extension of past 124 125 ice sheet records from WAIS ice cores to entire glacier catchments has so far been challenging due to the limited availability of fewer deep ice cores there and, until recently, the lack of suitable-well-dated 126 IRH datasets. However, efforts have intensified in recent years to improve our understanding of the 127 128 ice stratigraphy over this sector. In particular, four recent studies using airborne RES data over the 129 WAIS (Karlsson et al., 2014; Muldoon et al., 2018; Ashmore et al., 2020a; Bodart et al., 2021a) all 130 identified a particularly-distinct and bright IRH precisely-dated using the Byrd and WD14 ice-core 131 chronologies at to 4.72 ± 0.28 ka BP (Muldoon et al., 2018; Bodart et al., 2021a). A C comparison 132 with of volcanic sulphate deposition within the WD14 and Siple Dome ice cores revealed a large peak 133 in sulphate concentration matching the age and depth of this ubiquitous layer-IRH (Kurbatov et al., 134 2006; Bodart et al., 2021a; Cole-Dai et al., 2021; Sigl et al., 2022), which is we hereafter termed the 135 "4.72 ka IRH". This IRH has now been observed by multiple RES systems from different surveys and 136 data providers. Itand extends throughout much of the slower-flowing ice of the Amundsen and 137 Weddell Sea embayments (< 400 m a⁻¹), including across the divides demarcating regions draining into the Amundsen, Weddell and Ross Seas. 138

139 Despite their potential wide-ranging applications, the incorporation of IRHs into ice-sheet 140 models has so far been limited compared to other types of palaeo-proxy data, primarily because the 141 inference of accumulation-rate or ice-flow history from IRHs is an ill-posed inverse problem 142 (Waddington et al., 2007). Previous applications using IRHs to inform regional and continental 143 models include: (a) constraining decadal-scale Surface Mass Balance (SMB) estimates from atmospheric models using annually-resolved IRHs found in the shallow firn (Medley et al., 2013; 144 145 2014; Van Wessem et al. 2018; Dattler et al., 2019; Kaush et al., 2020; Cavitte et al., 2022); (b) 146 inferring past accumulation rates going back further in time (i.e. 100s to 1000s years) with the aim of 147 comparing past accumulation estimates with modern times (e.g. Leysinger Vieli et al., 2004; Siegert 148 and Payne, 2004; Neumann et al., 2008; MacGregor et al., 2009; 2016; Leysinger Vieli et al., 2011; 149 Cavitte et al., 2018); or (c) integrating both their characteristics (e.g. elevation in the ice) and the 150 information inferred from them (e.g. accumulation or basal--melt rates) to evaluate the output from 151 regional and continental ice-sheet models (Leysinger Vieli et al., 2011; 2018; Holschuh et al., 2017; 152 Sutter et al., 2021). Promisingly, Sutter et al. (2021) recently showed that spatially extensive Antarctic 153 IRHs can provide unique benchmarks for constraining ice-sheet model parameterisations (i.e. climate 154 forcing and simulated ice flow), which are then used to simulate palaeo ice-sheet evolution. Together, 155 these studies indicate multiple avenues for ice-sheet models to assimilate IRHs further improve 156 estimates of past, current and future ice-sheet changes. 157

158 Here, our aim is towe estimate mid-Holocene accumulation rates across the WAIS from first-159 order calculations using a one-dimensional (1-D) model, local-layer approximation (LLA) model 160 (Waddington et al., 2007), informed constrained by the spatially extensive 4.72 ka IRH. We first 161 describe the data, the model used and their limitations and uncertainties We first describe the data and the 1-D model, and discuss the methods used to assess the feasibility of the LLA from gradients in 162 163 horizontal ice flow, ice thickness and accumulation rate and how these translate into accumulation 164 rate uncertainties (Sect. 2). We then present our accumulation-rate estimates and discuss-comparethe 165 effects of spatial and topographic controls on our results in relation to observed and modelled modern 166 accumulation rates using both modelled gridded data from the Regional Atmospheric Climate Model

167 2 (hereafter RACMO2; Van Wessem et al., 2018) and observational point-based data from snow, firm
 and ice eores (Neumann et al., 2008; Burgener et al., 2013; Favier et al., 2013; Mayewski and Dixon,
 2013; Medley et al., 2014), to generate-reveal a longer-term perspective on changes between the mid Holocene and the present (Sect. 3). Finally, we place our results in the context of previous studies that
 consider WAIS-the evolution of the WAIS-during the Holocene (Sect. 4).

2. Datasets and methods

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2.1 Along-track IRH data

We used data from extensive (~91 000 flight-track km) RES surveys acquired across West
Antarctica between 2004 and 2018. The main contributing surveys are the University of Texas

Institute for Geophysics (UTIG) 2004-2005 AGASEA survey flown over Thwaites Glacier (THW)

and Marie Byrd Land which deployed the 60-MHz High Capability Airborne Radar Sounder

179 (HiCARS) radar system (Holt et al., 2006; Peters et al., 2007), and the British Antarctic Survey (BAS)

180 2004-05 BBAS survey over Pine Island Glacier (PIG) and 2010-2011 IMAFI survey over Institute

and Möller Ice Streams (IMIS) which deployed the 150-MHz Polarimetric Airborne Survey

182 INstument (PASIN) radar system (Vaughan et al., 2006; Corr et al., 2007; Ross et al., 2012;

183 Fr<u>é</u>emand, Bodart et al., 2022) (Fig. 1; Table 1). Additional profiles from NASA's Operation Ice

Bridge (OIB; MacGregor et al., 2021) 2016 and 2018 surveys, flown with the 190-MHz Multichannel

185 Coherent Radar Depth Sounder 2 (MCoRDS-2) radar system (CReSIS, 2018), were also used to

186 extract IRH information near the WD14 Ice Core and upper IMIS catchments (Bodart et al., 2021a;

Figure 1 and Table 1). We refer the reader to the above references for comprehensive details on eachsystem's capabilities.





191 Figure 1. Map of the datasets and key locations in this study. The three datasets that contain the 4.72 ka IRH are colour-coded as IMIS (green), PIG (blue), and THW (pink). IRH <u>datas falling outside where</u> D >> 1192 193 are excluded (see Section 2.2.1; Figure S1) are excluded. Points on the map represent the snow, firn and ice 194 cores used in this study to compare modern accumulation rates of accumulation with our those inferred from the 195 4.72 ka IRH-to-present estimates (see Sect ion 2.4 for source references). The background colour map shows 196 modern surface speeds from Rignot et al. (2017). Locations mentioned in this paper are abbreviated on the map, 197 as follows: BYRD (Byrd Ice Core), IMIS (Institute and Möller Ice Streams), PIG (Pine Island Glacier), THW 198 (Thwaites Glacier), WAIS (West Antarctic Ice Sheet), WD-CD (Central Amundsen-Weddell-Ross 199 DivideWestern Divide), WD14 (WAIS Divide Ice Core). Major ice divides are from Mouginot et al. (2017). 200 The background image is the 2014 MODIS mosaic of Antarctica (Haran et al., 2018). For all analysis and 201 figures in this study, the Projection for all figures in this paper is WGS84SCAR Antarctic Polar Stereographic 202 projection is used (PSX/PSY; EPSG: 3031).

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These RES surveys were used to track and date six IRHs spanning much of the Late Pleistocene and Holocene and Late Pleistocene_(25.7 – 2.3 ka BP) that collectively covering much of the WAIS, aeross_including IMIS (Ashmore et al., 2020a), PIG (Karlsson et al., 2014; Bodart et al., 2021a) and THW (Muldoon et al., 2018), collectively spanning much of the WAIS. Here we only consider the 4.72 ka IRH mapped in all three four studies and shown in Figure 1, as it is by far both the most spatially extensive and the only commonly traced IRH across all studies. We first merged all data points from the 4.72 ka IRH across the three catchments, resulting in a cumulative distance of

~40 000 line-km of IRH profiles (44% of the RES surveys' total coverage; Table 1). Although the
along-track RES data were acquired with a trace spacing of between 10 and 35 m, depending on the
dataset used, we re-sampled these points to 500 m in the along-track direction. We then added a
spatially invariant firn correction of 10 m onto the Muldoon et al. (2018) dataset to match the same
firn correction applied by the other studies to correct the IRH depth., and f Finally, we calculated the
median value of all ice thicknesses and IRH depths falling within the nearesteach 500 m interval.

216Table 1. Characteristics of each IRH dataset used in this study that contain the 4.72 ka IRH. 'Reflector2171' in Muldoon et al. (2018) is abbreviated here as 'R1'.

Survey name	Survey provider	RES system	Dataset reference	Cumulative IRH distance (<u>10³</u> km)
IMAFI	BAS	PASIN 150-MHz	H2 in Ashmore et al. (2020a)	1 .5x10 4
BBAS / OIB	BAS / NASA	PASIN 150-MHz / MCoRDS-2 190-MHz	R2 in Bodart et al. (2021a)	0.6×10^4
AGASEA	UTIG	HiCARS 60-MHz	R1 in Muldoon et al. (2018)	1 . 9 -x10 4

218 2.2 Inferring accumulation rates

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219 To infer accumulation rates from the 4.72 ka IRH, we used the Nye model, a 1-D ice-flow 220 model widely used for estimating accumulation rates and age-depth relationships over relatively slowflowing parts of an ice sheet (Nye, 1957; Fahnestock et al., 2001a). This model invokes the local-layer 221 222 approximation (LLA), i.e. it assumes that the time-averaged accumulation rate that the IRH has 223 experienced since its upstream inception at the surface can be adequately represented by its depth 224 where it is observed presently. Other 1-D models exist, including the Dansgaard-Johnsen (Dansgaard 225 and Johnsen, 1969) and the shallow-strain rate model (MacGregor et al., 2016), but neither were less 226 suitable for estimating accumulation rates here this study-due to uncertaintyies in the basal shear layer 227 thickness across our survey area and because we are limited to only one IRH to constrain the ice-flow 228 model respectively. The Nye model assumes that ice thickness is constant and therefore that the ice 229 sheet has been in a steady state since the deposition of the IRH, an realistic acceptable assumption for 230 the period under investigation here. The Nye model states:

$$\dot{b}_a = \ln\left(\frac{z_a}{H}\frac{H}{a}\right),\tag{1}$$

where \dot{b}_a is the mean surface-accumulation rate during the Holocene epoch between an IRH of age *a* and the present, z_a represents the depth of the IRH dated at the ice core, and *H* is the ice thickness. The model assumes that the vertical strain rate, \dot{e}_a , is also constant and vertically uniform, so that it exactly balances the overburden of local ice accumulation:

$$\dot{\varepsilon}^a_{zz} = \frac{\dot{b}_a}{H}.$$
(2)

238 We iterated Eq. (1) over the re-sampled 500-m spaced dataset using the depth of the 4.72 ka 239 IRH for z_a and used the median radar-derived ice-thickness measurement re-sampled over the 500-m 240 grid to obtain *H*, when this information was available. In areas where the radar did not sound the bed, 241 we used the BedMachine Antarctic v2 gridded product to obtain a value for *H* (Morlighem, 2020). 242 Note that the accumulation rate values presented in this study are all reported in m a⁻¹ of ice 243 equivalent. 244 Uncertainties in accumulation rates are calculated by iterating Eq. (1) using the lowest and 245 highest possible age of the 4.72 IRH based on the maximum and minimum age uncertainty (\pm 0.28 ka) 246 calculated from RES and ice-core depth uncertainties (see details in Muldoon et al. (2018) and Bodart et al. (2021a)). This results in lower and upper bounds in accumulation rates over our model domain 247 248 (Fig. S2a b), which are then combined to provide a relative uncertainty in accumulation rates for the 249 4.72 ka IRH (Fig. S2c). The maximum relative uncertainty in accumulation rates for the 4.72 ka IRH 250 is 3.3%, with a median value of <0.5% across our grid. Note that these values do not include 251 uncertainties due to the model approximation itself. As discussed in the next two sections, we believe 252 model uncertainties to be small for the domain considered.

2.2.1 Assessing the suitability of the 1-D model

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254 To quantify the suitability of the LLA onto from which the our accumulation rates 1-D-model 255 is are based, we calculated the effects of horizontal gradients in modern ice thickness and 256 accumulation rates along particle paths in their ability to affect IRH depths across our grid, as per 257 Waddington et al. (2007). In places wWhere these gradients are too-large, estimates of accumulation 258 rates from IRHs likely require a more complete treatment of ice flow-and strain rates and its effect 259 uponto account for disturbances in IRH depths, which only-multi-dimensional models and more 260 physically complete models can better are able to resolve (e.g. Waddington et al., 2007; Leysinger 261 Vieli et al., 2011; Karlsson et al., 2014; Nielsen et al., 2015; Koutnik et al., 2016; MacGregor et al., 262 2016). However, such models are significantly more computationally expensive over such a larger 263 area and depend on well-constrained boundary conditions from along-flow radar profiles which are 264 not often available at an ice-sheet level (MacGregor et al., 2009).

265 We quantified stimat To quantify the effect of horizontal gradients on an IRH of age a by first 266 estimating, we computed the total horizontal particle path length Lpath each "particle" of the 4.72 ka 267 <u>IRH has travelled since a, and then the characteristic lengths of variability in ice thickness (L_H) and</u> apparent accumulation rate (L_b) representing the gradients in ice thickness and accumulation rates 268 269 respectively for age a. (Supplementary Information). These three components were then combined to 270 generate a non-dimensional parameter D (Fig. S1d), which we used as a confidence metric for our 271 inferred accumulation rates. Both Waddington et al. (2007) and MacGregor et al. (2009) suggested a 272 value of $D \ll 1$ over Antarctica, whereas MacGregor et al.; (2016) used a maximum value of D = 1273 value of unity to estimate where the LLA is acceptable over Greenland. but Bbecause the value of D 274 cannot yet-be translated simplyquantitatively_into an uncertainty value for in an LLA-inferred 275 accumulation rate, it is not yet clear what exact value is appropriate. Smaller values of D indicate that 276 local horizontal gradients in ice thickness and accumulation rates have a smaller effect on IRH depth 277 of age *a*, and thus we can assume that that-the LLA is may be valid (Waddington et al., 2007; 278 MacGregor et al., 2009; 2016). HoweverWhere, if $D \ge 1$, the depth of the an IRH is less likely to be 279 unlikely not necessarily the result of to be the sole result of accumulation rates at the surface or 280 vertical strain rates further down, and thus that a more sophisticated model is thus likely required 281 (Sect. 2.2.2) (Waddington et al., 2007). However, MacGregor et al. (2009) found that even along a 282 flowband across Lake Vostok where the mean value of D is 0.50 for a 41-ka IRH, the difference in 283 accumulation rate inferred from the LLA and from a more sophisticated flowband model could be 284 relatively small (4-16%). This similarly suggests that accumulation rate can be inferred acceptably 285 using the LLA where D is higher.

286In our caseFor our study area, most of the survey areas has D values are mostly-that are well287below the unity (median: 0.19; 25^{th} quartile: 0.09; 75^{th} quartile: 0.34), which suggests relatively little288effect from ice-dynamical processes upon IRH depths across most of our grid. We used the upper289quartile of the D distribution across our model domain (i.e. $D \le 0.34$) to show areas where we can290have confidence that accumulation rate remains the dominant factor influencing the vertical position291of our IRHs in the ice column (i.e. where the $D \ll 1$ criterion is likely met; seeFig.-Fig.-4, S1d). While

accumulation rates inferred from IRHs situated in the upper quartile (see-Fig. S1d) may still be valid,
 we suggest additional caution in interpreting our results there due to the potential impact of larger
 flow gradients on IRH depths.-a limited number of IRH profiles near the onset of PIG's tributaries and
 over THW's central trunk, which we excluded from our analysis.

2.2.2 Model limitations and uncertainty

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One of the <u>main</u> limitations of the Nye model is that it assumes that gradients in sliding
velocity are mostly concentrated in a thin layer at the ice-bed interface and that the ice column
deforms by pure shear only (Nye, 1957; Fahnestock et al., 2001a). For this reason, the Nye model is
generally only appropriate for IRHs found in the upper part of the ice column, as is the case here.
Additionally, the use of the model is restricted to areas where ice flow is <u>relatively</u> slow and
horizontal strain rates are <u>also relatively</u> low.

Here we focus on a shallower IRH situated in the upper part of the ice column (median: 40%;
 25th quartile: 30%; 75th quartile: 50%; Fig. 2b-c), for which we can reasonably assume that the ice
 sheet has remained close to steady state and where IRHs are likely shallow enough not to have
 experienced appreciable flow disturbances that would affect the Nye model assumptions.
 Additionally, due to the inherent nature of tracking IRHs through RES data, our coverage is limited to
 areas where ice-flow speeds are relatively low and IRHs are undisturbed.

Whilst this is the case for most of our IRH coverage. In some portions of our study area, we
 note that some the IRH is found deeper in the ice column and/or in faster—flowing areassections of the
 ice sheet (e.g. in the downstream sectors of our grid, Fig. 1-2b-c); areas where the assumptions that
 the 1-D model is based on may be challenged.

Multi-dimensional models would likely improve the accumulation estimates for IRHs found
 in the lower half of the ice column or in more disrupted or faster flowing areas (e.g. Waddington et
 al., 2007; Neumann et al., 2008; MacGregor et al., 2009; Leysinger Vieli et al., 2011; Karlsson et al.,
 2014; Nielsen et al., 2015; Koutnik et al., 2016; Sutter et al, 2021); however, they are much more
 computationally expensive and depend on well-constrained boundary conditions from along flow
 radar profiles which are not often available over such large regions (MacGregor et al., 2009).

However<u>Here</u>, we focus on a shallower IRH situated within the upper 40%<u>part</u> of the ice column
 (median: 40%; 25th quartile: 30%; 75th quartile: 50%; Fig. 2b c), where we can be reasonably
 confident that the ice sheet has remained close to steady state and where IRHs are likely shallow
 enough not to have sustained appreciable disturbances that would affect the Nye model assumptions
 (Sect. 2.2.3).

Additionally, due to the inherent nature of tracking IRHs through RES data, our coverage is limited to areas where ice-flow speeds are <u>relatively</u> low and IRHs <u>can be considered</u> are relatively undisturbed. An assessment of strain rates over our model domain suggests limited disturbance over the WD and most of our grid, apart from near the onset of faster flow at the boundaries of our grid with the trunks of PIG and THW where higher strain rates are observed (Fig. S23). This pattern, combined with the assessment of the suitability of the LLA (Sect. 2.2.1) and exclusion of IRHs outside of the D > 1 boundary, supports our application of a 1-D modelling approach here.

Estimating uncertainty in accumulation rates from the Nye model is non-trivial. Previous
 studies have used the misfit between the accumulation rate calculated using multiple proximal IRHs
 in the ice column (e.g. Fahnestock et al., 2001a; 2001b; Leysinger Vieli et al., 2004; MacGregor et al.,
 2016). Unfortunately, this method is not suitable here due to the dearth of spatially extensive IRHs
 younger than 4.72 ka over our model domain.

Instead, uncertainty in the Nye-inferred accumulation rates were calculated using: (a) the
 lowest and highest possible accumulation rates from Eq. (1) using the age uncertainty (± 0.28 ka) of
 the 4.72 ka IRH and (b) the lowest and highest possible accumulation rates inferred from an additional
 1-D model (Eq. S5) which accounts for the effect of strain rates on accumulation rates (i.e. the
 shallow-strain rate model from MacGregor et al. (2016); Supplementary Information; Fig. S2-4).

341 This calculation provides lower and upper bounds for the IRH-inferred accumulation rates 342 (Fig. S4a-b), which were then averaged to generate a relative uncertainty (Fig. S4c). From this 343 assessment, we estimate a median relative uncertainty in the Nye-inferred accumulation rates for the 344 4.72 ka IRH of 14% across our grid. This uncertainty is higher in the downstream edges of our grids, 345 particularly over the PIG, THW and IMIS catchments, and generally low over the Amundsen-346 Weddell-Ross divide (Fig. S4), reflecting the effect of spatially variable strain rates on the inferred 347 accumulation rates. When combined with the assessment of the suitability of the LLA and exclusion 348 of IRHs where the D > 1 (Sect. 2.2.1-2.2.2), we conclude that it supports our application of a 1-D 349 modelling approach here.

2.3 Gridding and filtering

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351 Once IRH depths and accumulation rates for the 4.72 ka IRH were obtained at regular 500-m points along RES flight paths, we filtered the results using a moving-average Gaussian filter of length 352 353 30 samples (equivalent to ~15 km) to reduce along-track noise in the IRH depth, and then gridded the 354 filtered result using a Delaunay-triangulation-based natural neighbour interpolation method onto a 1km polar stereographic grid. We further smoothed the gridded data using an 18-km square cell mean 355 356 filter to limit the localised interpolation artefacts arising from the interpolation, which can be 357 problematic in areas with of poor data survey coverage. Figure S54 shows the maximum distance 358 away from the nearest 500-m along-track point used to produce Figures 2-3, and thus where errors in 359 the interpolated grids are expected to be larger. The median value of this maximum distance is 5 km 360 and its maximum value is 75 km, which is comparable to previous studies that infer Surface Mass 361 Balance (SMB)-SMB from IRHs in the shallow firn (e.g. Medley et al., 2014). We evaluated other 362 possible interpolation methods (e.g., kriging and using different semi-variogram models), but they 363 resulted in similar or poorer quality, and were thus discounted.

2.4 Comparison with modern observations

To compare our inferred accumulation estimates for the past 4.72 ka with modern <u>values</u> (defined here as 1651-2019), we derived information on modern accumulation rates from two sources, one modelled (gridded) and one from a series of observational (point-based) datasets.

368 We used modelled gridded accumulation rates from the Regional Atmospheric Climate Model 369 2.3p2 (hereafter RACMO2) RACMO 2.3p2 1979-2019 Surface Mass Balance (SMB) product forced 370 at its margin with the ERA-Interim product (native resolution: 27 km) as an estimate for modern 371 accumulation rates (Van Wessem et al., 2018). Although SMB is not technically equivalent to the 372 accumulation rate, runoff and sublimation are negligible in our survey area (Medley et al., 2013) so 373 we consider assume SMB is equal to accumulation rate in this region. We converted modelled values 374 from kg m⁻² a⁻¹ to m a⁻¹ of ice equivalent using an ice density value of 917 kg m⁻³, calculated the 40-375 year mean, and then bi-linearly interpolated the gridded RACMO2 product to the same 1-km grid 376 resolution as our 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation grid (Sect. 2.3) to ensure consistency when 377 comparing both datasets.

Observational point-based measurements were obtained from a series of snow, firn and ice
cores from the ITASE (Mayewski and Dixon, 2013), MED14 (Medley et al., 2014), SAMBA (Favier
et al., 2013), and SEAT-10 (Burgener et al., 2013) datasets, as well as from a network of centenniallyaveraged modern accumulation rates derived from shallow IRHs traced on ground-based RES data
over the central divide WD and dated using a shallow ITASE Ice Core (Neumann et al., 2008) (Fig.

1). This results-resulted in 79 point-based accumulation measurements from cores covering the period
1651-2010 CE (Common Era) and spread across our model domain (see Figure 1). Further detail on
these datasets can be found in the above references.

To compare the Holocene gridded product with the point-based measurements, we first calculated the average value of the accumulation rate at the point measurement for the entire period. We converted these values to ice-equivalent accumulation rates (as above) and then extracted the two paired values, i.e., the value for the point-measurement for modern accumulation rates and the value for the nearest grid cell in the gridded 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation estimates to this measurement.

392 **3. Results**

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393 The final grids for depth and accumulation rates for the 4.72 ka IRH are shown in Figures 2 and -394 3. In total, these grids are made of ~89 000, 500-m spaced points, which cover an area of ~610 000 395 km², or ~30% of the total surface area of the WAIS. The grids span most of the PIG and THW glacier 396 catchments, as well as the Ronne (upper Rutford, Institute, and Möller) and upper western Ross 397 (Bindschadler, Kamb, MacAyeal, and Whillans) catchments (IPY Antarctic boundaries G-H, J-Jpp, 398 and Ep-F; Mouginot et al. (2017); Fig. 1-2). Overall, the 4.72 ka IRH is shallower within the IMIS 399 and upper PIG and THW catchments, as well as on the Ross side of the WD central divide where ice 400 thickness is particularly deep (Fig. 2b). Conversely, the 4.72 ka IRH is deeper in the ice near a 400-m 401 high bedrock plateau that separates the northern and southern basins of PIG (Vaughan et al., 2006) 402 and at two locations in the upstream parts of the main trunk of THW where ice flows over highs in subglacial topography (Fig. 2b). 403



Figure 2. Gridded depths for the 4.72 ka IRH across the model domain covering the PIG, THW, and
Institute and Möller ice-stream catchments. (a) Gridded depth of the 4.72 ka IRH. (b) Normalised depth of the
4.72 ka IRH relative to ice thickness. (c) Histogram showing the distribution of values in (b) with the median (*µ*) and the interquartile range (i.e. 25th (Q1) and 75th (Q3) quartiles) shown as solid and dashed blue lines
respectively. The background image is the 2014 MODIS mosaic of Antarctica (Haran et al., 2018).

3.1. Catchment-scale accumulation estimates

411 Figure 3 shows a comparison of the ice-equivalent accumulation rates we inferred for the 4.72 412 ka IRH (Fig. 3a) and modern SMB estimates from RACMO2 (Fig. 3b). We observe that the IRH accumulation rate pattern for the last 4.72 ka is similar to the modern pattern of accumulation rates for 413 414 the Amundsen Sea sector of the WAIS, which is dominated by higher coastal accumulation rates that 415 progressively decrease inland towards the ice divides to reach their lowest rates over the Ross side of 416 the divide (Fig. 3a-b). Differences in accumulation rates between the 4.72 ka-to-present estimates and 417 modern values are mainly observed directly upstream of the main trunks of PIG and THW, where 418 modern rates are much higher (up to 0.2 m a⁻¹ ice equivalent) than for the 4.72 ka-to-present estimates 419 (Fig. 3c). In comparison, higher accumulation rates for the last 4.72 ka compared relative to modern

420 rates are observed for the entire stretch of the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divideWD (Fig. 3c; Table 2). 421 Noticeably over Over the IMIS catchment, little change is observed between the two periods. Over the 422 entire model domain, we observe a median relative increase percentage change value of 136% in higher accumulation rates since 4.72 ka compared with modern rates (Fig. 4; Table 2); however, when 423 424 considering only the values that fall within 100 km of either side of the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross 425 divideWD (i.e. in the accumulation zone of the Amundsen, Weddell, and Ross Sea sectors and where 426 mean surface speeds equal average ~7 m a⁻¹), we obtain a median percentage change value of 18%







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430 Figure 3. Gridded estimates of ice-equivalent accumulation rates for the last 4.72 ka and modern times. (a) Gridded accumulation rates inferred from the 4.72 ka IRH. (b) Modern (1979-2019) modelled SMB rates 432 from RACMO2. (c) Difference between 4.72 ka-to-present and modern accumulation rates (red = 4.72 ka-to-433 present accumulation higher than modern times, blue = 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation lower than modern times). The dots represent the difference between the value for the nearest grid cell in (a) and time-averaged 435 accumulation rates at each of the 79 core locations (see Section 2.4; Fig. S6). The background image is the 2014 436 MODIS mosaic of Antarctica (Haran et al., 2018).

437 Comparison between our 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation-rate estimates and 79 core-derived 438 point-based accumulation measurements for modern times (1651-2010 CE) are shown in Figures_3 439 and 3-4 and S6. This evaluation shows that the 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation-rate estimates for the 440 nearest grid cell to each point measurement are, on average, $\frac{1822}{(p < 0.0015, n=79)}$ higher for 441 cores situated over across the entire grid ($p \le .0015$, n=79) and $\frac{1923\%}{(p \le 0.0001, n=59)}$ higher for 442 <u>cores found</u> within 100 km of the divide than compared with modern accumulation rates ($p \le .0001$, 443 n=59; (Figs. 4 and S6). In comparison, a similar analysis between grid cells from the 4.72 ka-to-444 present accumulation-rate estimates and RACMO2 at these 79 core locations shows mid-Holocene 445 accumulation rate estimates are, on average, 32% (P < .00002, n=79) higher for cores situated 446 acrossover the entire grid and 36% higher for cores found within 100 km of the divide ($p \le .00001$, 447 n=59; Fig. S6). This result confirms that the relative difference change infor gridded accumulation

rates between the 4.72 ka-to-present and modern modelled accumulation rates is consistent withmodern rates from point-based measurements.

Table 2. Summary statistics for the modern (modelled and observational) and 4.72 ka-to-present iceequivalent accumulation rates at the catchment-scale and over the <u>Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divideWD</u>. Values for the <u>Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide (abbreviated CD here)WD</u> are for all points that fall within 100 km of either side of the divide (see dashed line in Figure 4). $\tilde{\mu}$ refers to the median and IQR represents the Interquartile Range calculated by computing the difference between the 75th and 25th percentiles. <u>Note that the values</u> provided in the text represent the median relative change from the cell-by-cell change between each grid (Fig. 4), rather than the relative change of the median values provided here.

	Catchment-wide		WD- <u>CD</u> only	
Accumulation rate (m a ⁻¹)	μ	IQR	μ	IQR
Modern (model)	0.23	0.23	0.22	0.10
Modern (cores)	0.24	0.12	0.24	0.09
4.72 ka-to-present	0.27	0.18	0.27	0.11

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For WD14 specifically, the nearest grid node to the ice core site shows a 22% higher

accumulation rate from 4.72 ka to present compared with modern accumulation rates (Fig. 4). There,
our IRH inferred accumulation rate is 0.28 ± 0.01 m a⁻¹, with the nearest IRH point situated 1.2 km
away from WD14 showing an accumulation rate of 0.27 ± 0.01 m a⁻¹. This is only slightly higher than
the direct ice core reconstruction of accumulation rates at WD14, which show up to 19% (0.25 m a⁻¹)
higher accumulation than modern rates (0.21 m a⁻¹) since 4700 years BP (Fudge et al., 2017).





466Figure 4. Relative difference change in accumulation rates between the 4.72 ka-to-present estimates467and modern rates. The points on the map represent the relative difference change in ice-equivalent accumulation468rate between the nearest grid cell in the 4.72 ka-to-present grid and the 79 modern observations from cores al469accumulation measurements from snow, firn, and ice cores (Figs. 1 and S65; see Sect. 2.4). The dashed black470outline line represents the 100-km boundary on either side of the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide WD used to471provide the summary statistics in Section 3.1 and Table 2. The dashed blue line shows the contours of the upper472limit of the interquartile range for the D parameter ($D \le 0.34$) (Sect. 2.2.1-2.2.2). The background image is the4732014 MODIS mosaic of Antarctica (Haran et al., 2018).

474 **3.2 Elevation-dependent accumulation estimates**

475 While Figures 3 and 4 help to assess potential differences in patterns and rates across spatial 476 scales, considering accumulation-rate differences in terms of elevation can inform how topography 477 influences accumulation and whether this has changed over time. As a resultwWe binned the ice-478 equivalent accumulation values for each by 50-m elevation bands across the our model domain-three 479 main catchments covering our grid (Amundsen, Weddell and Ross) for both the 4.72 ka-to-present 480 estimates and modern model rates (RACMO2), and calculated the mean accumulation rate and, the 481 total accumulation rate , and the cumulative sum of total accumulation rate for each bin over the entire 482 elevation gradient of the two grids (Fig. 5). As above, wWe again find observe that the accumulation483 rate estimates for the period since 4.72 ka are lower at lower elevations (~700 - 1400 m) over the Amundsen sector compared with RACMO2, and but begin to exceed overtake RACMO2 near the 484 485 1400-m elevation band where the 4.72 ka-to-present accumulation rate is higher than modern times 486 across the divide up until -24600 m in elevation (Fig. 5a-b). We also note that whilst an elevation-487 dependent gradient in accumulation rates, dominated by high accumulation at the coast decreasing 488 inland, exists over this sector for the mid-Holocene, it is much less marked than for present rates. This 489 is not surprising, as this sector is where we observe the largest relative uncertainties in inferred 490 accumulation rates across our grid (Fig. S4), indicating that the 1-D model is less able to produce 491 realistic accumulation rates in the downstream end of our grid where ice flow is faster and strain rates 492 are likely higher. In comparison to the Amundsen sector, accumulation rates since 4.72 ka are 493 generally higher at all elevations for the Weddell and Ross sectors compared with the present, 494 although this difference is less than over the Amundsen sector (Fig. 5 c-f). The lack of a large 495 difference between the two datasets at elevations of .250 -700 m is primarily dominated by accumulation rates over IMIS, which, in contrast to the PIG and THW regions, is less exposed to the 496 497 large accumulation gradients characteristic of the Amundsen Sea Embayment, i.e. higher coastal 498 accumulation decreasing inland.



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Figure 5. Comparison of ice-equivalent accumulation rates between the 4.72 ka-to-present estimates and modern rates (RACMO2) binned for each by 50-m elevation bands across our study the three main catchments considered here (Amundsen, Weddell, and Ross). (a, c, e) Mean accumulation rate averaged per 50-m elevation band across the survey specific catchment area in m a^{-1Fb}. (b, d, f) Total accumulation rate per 50-m elevation band across the specific catchment area in Gigatonnes Gigatons per annum (Gt a⁻¹). (c) Cumulative sum of total accumulation rate per 50-m elevation band in Gt a⁻¹.

4. Discussion

4.1. Comparison with other Holocene accumulation estimates

510 Previous studies of past accumulation rates over the WAIS have shown that accumulation varied 511 temporally during the Holocene. Using a single airborne RES profile over the Amundsen Sea sector, 512 Siegert and Payne (2004) showed that accumulation rates were approximately the same at 3.1 ka 513 compared with modern rates, but ~0.3 m a⁻¹ greater (~15 %) than current rates between 3.1-6.4 ka, 514 before which accumulation was ~50% of modern rates between 6.4 and 16.0 ka. Similarly, Neumann 515 et al. (2008) found that accumulation rates at the WD central divide were ~30% higher between 3-5 ka than modern values based on a dense network of IRHs traced on ground-based RES data, while 516 517 Karlsson et al. (2014) found that accumulation patterns had likely changed twice during the early to 518 mid-Holocene over PIG from the lack of a model fit between the depths and ages of two prominent 519 IRHs. Using the updated WD14 record, Fudge et al. (2016) showed that accumulation rates was were 520 higher there in the mid to late-Holocene (19% between 4.72 ka BP and the present), a trend that was 521 also observed by Koutnik et al. (2016), who found a 20% increase in accumulation rates between 2-4 522 ka compared with modern rates from a ground-based RES profile across the ice divide.

523 These studies together point to a period of increasing accumulation observed at the WD14 Ice 524 Core from ~7 ka onwards (Fudge et al., 2016; their Figure 2), with its peak matching the age of the 525 4.72 ka IRH used here. Thus, our accumulation-rate estimates likely form part of a wider pattern of a 526 sustained increase in accumulation across the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide WD over several 527 millennia. In showing that mean accumulation rates since 4.72 ka were 18% greater than modern rates 528 modelled from RACMO2 across the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide WD, our results provide a-much wider regional picture support for the hypothesis(across - 30 % of the WAIS) that accumulation rates 529 during the mid-Holocene exceeded modern rates over across large parts of central West Antarctica. 530

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531 We gain confidence in the ability of the Nye model to estimate past accumulation rates from the 532 4.72 ka IRH, given that its outputs match relatively well with the direct reconstruction of mean 533 accumulation rates at the WD14 Ice Core, with values at the ice core of 0.27 ± 0.01 m a⁺ (this study) 534 compared with 0.25 m a⁻¹ for Fudge et al. (2016). This also suggests that the WD14 Ice Core suitably 535 represents atmospheric conditions across the wider WD. A possible explanation for the higher 536 accumulation ratesthis pattern during the mid-Holocene compared with modern values is that they 537 represent a continued climatic transition from the LGM (Steig et al., 2001). Alternatively, it has been 538 suggested that seasonal or interannual variability, such as a weaker circumpolar vortex (v¥an Den 539 Broeke and ¥van Lipzig, 2004; Neumann et al., 2008), or teleconnections to tropical Pacific Ocean 540 warming (Sproson et al., 2022), may also lead to such difference. We did not find evidence for 541 significant changes in accumulation patterns between the mid-Holocene and modern times, suggesting 542 that the current spatial pattern of high accumulation at the on the Amundsen side of the divide coast 543 transitioning to, decreasing low accumulation inland towards at the divideon the Ross side of the 544 divide was stable throughout the mid-Holocene-over PIG and THW, as previously suggested by others 545 (Siegert and Payne, 2004; Neumann et al., 2008; Koutnik et al., 2016).

546 We also find that aAccumulation estimates for the 4.72 ka-to-present are smaller than modern 547 rates in the lowest elevation bands (i.e.-<1400 m), particularly over, particularly over 548 Sector (Figs. 4-, 5 a-d). This pattern was also reported found by Medley et al. (2014), who compared modern observational and modelled data within over this sector e ASE-and hypothesised that this 549 550 discrepancy at low elevations resulted primarily from a lack of sufficient accumulation measurements 551 in the lower sections of their survey area. In our case, these low-elevation values are close to the 552 boundary where we consider the LLA acceptable for the 4.72 ka IRH, albeit where D values are higher than for the rest of the catchment (Figure S1d), so it is more likely that accumulation rates 553 554 calculated there are affected by ice-flow gradients and their influence upon IRH depths leading to 555 lower accumulation rates there. Despite this caveat, Figures 5b and 5d shows that values at low 556 elevations (250 – 1200 m) contribute relatively little to the total accumulation (by mass) over our 557 survey area.

558 We suggest that future ice-sheet modelling studies investigate the difference in accumulation rates 559 inferred from our 1-D model using multi-dimensional flowband models to assess effects of divergent 560 and convergent flow on IRH depth and ultimately accumulation rates, as previously considered 561 elsewhere in Antarctica (MacGregor et al., 2009). This could be conducted along a flowline 562 transitioning from the slow-flowing regions directly downstream of the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross 563 divide WD to the coastal margins of our grid, particularly over THW where we observe the largest 564 uncertainties in accumulation rates. In addition, we suggest that future modelling studies use the 565 accumulation-rate variability from the WD14 Ice Core as a climate forcing in their ice-sheet models. 566 Koutnik et al. (2016) previously showed that the WD14 record is unique in that it provides a reliable 567 record of accumulation-rate variability during the Holocene, which other East Antarctic ice-core 568 records often used to reconstruct the evolution of the WAIS do not possess. We found that these 569 higher accumulation rates are spatially extensive across nearly one third of the WAIS, further 570 suggesting that the WD14 Ice Core is indeed representative of the wider WAIS and can be used in 571 regional or continental ice-sheet models as a reliable climate forcing for the region. Future regional 572 and continental ice-sheet models should make use of this record to adjust their climatic boundary 573 conditions to provide improved estimates of ice-elevation change and grounding-line evolution over 574 Antarctica.

4.2 Impact for ice-sheet elevation change during the Holocene

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576 Our results reinforce the evidence that accumulation rates have varied temporally across West
 577 Antarctica during the Holocene, a finding that must be considered by future modelling studies that
 578 simulate past sea-level rise from Antarctica since the LGM. Model results from Steig et al. (2001)

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579 suggest that the maximum elevation of the WAIS was most likely reached during the early to mid-580 Holocene (around ~7 ka) following higher accumulation rates at the late glacial-interglacial 581 transition, after which elevations the WAIS slowly declined to present conditions as the sea-level-rise-582 induced kinematic wave reached the ice-sheet interior and outpaced the increase in accumulation 583 rates. However, a moderate mid Holocene increase in accumulation rateshigher accumulation rates in 584 the mid-Holocene relative to the present, which our results suggest occurred-widely-spatially across 585 the WAIS, would, if sustained, likely delay the timing of theis thinning decline in elevation by 586 several thousand years (Steig et al., 2011).

587 Using a flowband model, Koutnik et al. (2016) suggested that the an increase of up to 40% in 588 accumulation rates for the period 9-2 ka would likely have lead to an increase in ice thickness of 589 tens of metresers during the mid-Holocene. Although this finding was warranted by physical 590 assumptions around the response time of the ice-sheet interior to adjust to an increase in accumulation 591 in the model, it points to the potential for the divide to have thickened by several metres over a 592 relatively short period of time from increased accumulation rates alone. However This noted, because 593 Because the WAIS is also sensitive to ice-dynamical changes at the ice-sheet margins (e.g. grounding-594 lineGL retreat and/or calving), an increase in accumulation rates in the upper part of the ice sheet may 595 not necessarily result in enough thickening to counteract potential dynamical losses from ice 596 dynamics faurther downstream (Jones et al., 2022). Conway and Rasmussen (2008) reported that the 597 WDAmundsen-Ross Divide is currently thinning and migrating towards the Ross Sea at a speed of 10 598 m a⁻¹, but they were unable to determine whether this was in response to long-term (last two 599 millennia) accumulation-rate changes there or short-term (last few centuries) ice-dynamical forcing 600 from the coastal margins of the Amundsen and Ross sectors. More recently, Balco et al. (2023) 601 showed that Thwaites and Pope glaciers experienced 35 m of thickening in the mid-to-late Holocene, 602 when accumulation rates were higher than present. While this thickening relative to present was 603 attributed to glacio-isostatic rebound, it is also possible that higher accumulation rates in the upstream 604 sections of the WAIS contributed to this thickening, if sustained over millennia.

605 The lack of an ice-dynamical component in the model used here precludes us from reaching 606 evaluating any ice-surface-elevation change associated with changingsuch a conclusion; however, 607 higher accumulation rates. However, of up to at least 18% higher accumulation rates during the mid-Holocene relative to the present across 30% of the WAIS cwould likely be consistent with an 608 609 elevation increase of several tens of metresers in ice thickness, according to Koutnik et al. (2016) (e.g. 610 Figure 10 of Koutnik et al., 2016). Even if tens of metres of ice-surface-elevation change occurred, it 611 This potential increase in surface elevation is still unlikely to significantly affect the steady-state 612 assumption of the 1-D model used here (constant ice thickness over time), because sucheonsidering 613 that these changes are small (a few per cent of the ice thickness) and that ice thickness exceeds 3500 614 m in places over our survey area.

We encourage future ice sheet models to test a range of scenarios that would account for variable
 accumulation rates between the LGM and the present over the WAIS by using the WD14
 reconstructed accumulation rates from Fudge et al. (2016) as a guide, which, as we show here,
 suitably represents the pattern of accumulation variability over both time and space in West
 Antarctica.

4.3 Impact for grounding-line evolution during the Holocene over the WAIS

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Finally, wWe may also consider the possibility for Holocene ice thickening at the divide from
increased accumulation rates to affect downstream grounding-lineGL evolution over the WAIS.
Recent evidence from ice-sheet modelling and field measurements suggests that grounding-lineGL
retreat during the Holocene was not monotonic, particularly at the Ross and Weddell Sea sides of the
WAIS (Bradley et al., 2015; Kingslake et al., 2018; Neuhaus et al., 2021). Rather, Kingslake et al.
(2018) showed that the grounding-lineGL position in the Ross and Weddell Sea sectors initially

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retreated from the LGM inland until $\sim 10.2 - 9.7 - 9.7 - 10.2$ ka, and then re-advanced to its modern 627 628 position sometime during the Holocene. Although they attributed this change in grounding-lineGL 629 position to the solid Earth viscoelastic response due to ice-sheet mass change and the subsequent re-630 grounding around pinning points, it has also been suggested that an increase in accumulation rates 631 upstream of the grounding lineGL could lead to a re-advance via ice thickening there and a 632 subsequent increase in ice flow (Steig et al., 2001; Koutnik et al., 2016; Jones et al., 2022). Across 633 parts of the Weddell Sea Embayment, several studies (Ross et al., 2011; Hein et al., 2016; Ashmore 634 al., 2020a) have produced evidence for stability of the LGM ice thickness there until the early to mid-635 Holocene (Ross et al., 2011; Hein et al., 2016; Ashmore et al., 2020a), contrary to most of the WAIS, 636 after which abrupt thinning of ~400 m contributed ~1.4 - 2 m of sea level rise (Hein et al., 2016). A 637 possible explanation for this delayed thinning in the Weddell Sea Embayment is that increased 638 snowfall in the upper WAIS might have counteracted ice-dynamical processes at the coast until the 639 mid_-to_-late Holocene (Hein et al., 2016; Spector et al., 2019). Similarly, over part of the Ross Sea 640 sector, Neuhaus et al. (2021) showed that the grounding lineGL over Whillans, Kamb, and 641 Bindschadler ice streams retreated to its minimum Holocene position in the mid to late-Holocene, and 642 then re-advanced between 2-1 1-2 ka, coinciding with periods of warmer and colder climates, 643 respectively. They concluded that the reported grounding-lineGL migration was likely dominated by 644 modest climate-induced changes upstream rather than ice dynamics further downstream, as suggested 645 for the Weddell Sea sector (Hein et al., 2016).

646 Our results, which provide strong and widespread evidence for higher accumulation along the 647 Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide during the mid-Holocene compared with the present, support these 648 hypotheses further, as higher accumulation rates at the divide would likely result in upstream 649 thickening (Sect. 4.2). In the absence of ice-dynamical processes counter-balancing this increase in 650 accumulation rates, the grounding-line should advance in these regions. However, we note that the 651 pattern of grounding-line retreat and readvance has not been observed over the Amundsen Sea sector 652 (Kingslake et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2020; 2021; Braddock et al., 2022) despite the accumulation-653 rate increase we also observed along the Amundsen-Weddell-Ross divide and the recent results from 654 Balco et al. (2023). This complication may indicate that the Amundsen sector is more strongly 655 influenced by coastal changes in ice dynamics, for which even moderate changes in accumulation rate 656 cannot compensate.

5. Conclusion

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Using a ubiquitous <u>i</u>Internal <u>r</u>Reflecting <u>h</u>Horizon found across most of the Pine Island, Thwaites, and Institute and Möller ice-stream catchments, we have estimated mid-Holocene accumulation rates in the <u>relatively</u> slow-flowing parts of West Antarctica, (representing 30% of total surface area of the WAIS) <u>using a 1-D ice-flow model</u>.

662 By comparing our Holocene accumulation-rate estimates with a modern climate reanalysis 663 models and observational syntheses, we estimated that accumulation rates across the Amundsen-664 Weddell-Ross Sea divide since 4.72 ka were, on average, 18% higher than modern accumulation 665 rates values. While the accumulation rates have therefore varied temporally, oOur results suggest that spatial patterns of accumulation between regions across the WAIS have remained similar 666 667 stable during this period, i.e., higher accumulation rates on the Amundsen side of the divide at the 668 coast and transitioning to lower accumulation rates at the iceon the Ross side of the divides. The 669 higher accumulation rates estimates reported here for the mid-Holocene compared to the present agree well with previousearlier, more spatially-focused studies of accumulation rates across the WAIS, all 670 671 of which which all indicate higher accumulation rates of between (+15 and __30%) over the plast ~5 672 ka-compared with the present. This change in magnitude occurred at a time of asynchronous 673 grounding-line migration over the WAIS, including re-advances of the grounding line in the Weddell 674 and Ross sectors and evidence for delayed deglaciation in the Weddell Sea side of the WAIS.

Formatted: List Paragraph, Numbered + Level: 1 + Numbering Style: 1, 2, 3, ... + Start at: 1 + Alignment: Left + Aligned at: 0.63 cm + Indent at: 1.27 cm 675 Finally, our results further support the use of the WAIS Divide ice-core record to assess past 676 atmospheric conditions across the wider Western Divide and even a substantial portion of the WAIS, 677 making it a powerful dataset for ice-sheet models. The higher mid-Holocene accumulation estimates compared to modern reported inferred here over large sectors of the WAIS occurred at a time of 678 679 sustained, millennial-scale increase in accumulation rates found at the WAIS Divide Ice Core. This 680 pattern indicates that the ice core is suitably representative of the climatic conditions of the wider 681 region over time. We suggest that future regional or continental ice-sheet modelling studies base their 682 palaeoclimate forcing on modern spatial SMB products that are modulated over time using the WAIS 683 Divide Ice Core record. This will enable those models to obtain a more realistic climatic forcing 684 representative of the past conditions of the wider WAIS, and ultimately, constrain ice-sheet volume 685 change and grounding-line evolution during the Holocene. The higher accumulation rates reported 686 here occurred at a time of asynchronous grounding line migration over the WAIS, including re-687 advances of the grounding-line in the Weddell and Ross sectors and evidence for delayed degla in the Weddell Sea side of the WAIS. We suggest that ice sheet model account for the evolution of 688 689 accumulation rates over time when predicting past and future sea level coming from West Antarctica 690 instead of using a fixed Last Glacial Maximum value.

691 Code availability

All the codes used to produce the results presented in this paper will be made available on the
GitHub page of Julien A. Bodart (<u>https://github.com/julbod</u>, last accessed: 15 October 2022) and on
Zenodo (Bodart <u>et al.</u>, 2023a) upon acceptance of this manuscript.

695 Data availability

696 The IRH information for each of the three surveys used in this paper are archived in open-697 access repositories (Ashmore et al., 2020b; Bodart et al., 2021b; UTIG R1 layer to be made available 698 via USAP-DC in due course) with references and links provided in the reference list. The BAS 699 airborne radar data which were used to extract the IRHs used in this paper are fully available at the 700 UK Polar Data Centre via the Polar Airborne Geophysics Data Portal (see Fremand, Bodart et al., 701 2022). The full-RACMO-2.3p2 product is available on request from j.m.vanwessem@uu.nl or 702 m.r.vandenbroeke@uu.nl. Links to access the observational point-based datasets used here are 703 available from the respective references mentioned in the text (Section 2.4). The gridded depth and 704 accumulation output from this study will be archived on Zenodo at the UK Polar Data Centre-upon 705 acceptance of this manuscript (Bodart et al., 2023b).

706 Author contribution

J.A.B. designed the study with supervision from R.G.B., D.A.Y., and D.D.B. J.A.B
performed the data processing, gridding, and 1-D modelling, with contributions from J.A.M. for the
modelling approach. J.A.B. interpreted the results with input from R.G.B., D.A.Y., D.D.B., and
J.A.M. J.A.B. wrote the paper, with edits from <u>R.G.B., D.A.Y., J.A.M., D.W.A., E.Q., A.S.H.,</u>
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712 Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

714 Acknowledgments

- 715 The authors would like to dedicate this work to our dear friend and colleague, Professor
- David Vaughan, who recently passed away. This study was motivated by the AntArchitecture SCAR
 Action Group. UTIG acknowledges- the high school students who did the original AGASEA layer
- 718 interpretation.

719 Financial support

J.A.B. was supported by the NERC Doctoral Training Partnership grant (NE/L002558/1),
hosted in the Edinburgh E³ DTP programmeprogram. J.A.B. also acknowledges the Scottish Alliance
for Geoscience, Environment and Society (SAGES) for funding a Postdoctoral and Early Career
Researcher Exchanges scheme to UTIG. Support for UTIG data analysis was received from NSF
grant nos CDI-0941678, PLR-1443690, and PLR-10437661, as well as the G. Unger Vetlesen
Foundation and the UTIG Gale White and Ewing/Worzel Fellowships. This is UTIG contribution

number: xxxx (TBD).

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