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Mass loss of the Greenland ice sheet until the year 3000 under a sustained late-21st-century climate

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Mass loss of the Greenland ice sheet until the year 3000 under a sustained late-21st-century climate

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ABSTRACT. We conduct extended versions of the ISMIP6 future climate experiments for the Greenland ice sheet until the year 3000 with the model SICOPOLIS. Beyond 2100, the climate forcing is kept fixed at late-21st-century conditions. For the unabated warming pathway RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5, the ice sheet suffers a severe mass loss, which amounts to ~ 1.8 m SLE (sea-level equivalent) for the twelve-experiment mean, and ~ 3.5 m SLE ($\sim 50\%$ of the entire mass) for the most sensitive experiment. For the reduced emissions pathway RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6, the mass loss is limited to a two-experiment mean of ~ 0.28 m SLE. Climate-change mitigation during the next decades will therefore be an efficient means for limiting the contribution of the Greenland ice sheet to sea-level rise in the long term.

1 INTRODUCTION

It is established scientific consensus that the Earth's climate system is warming, and that human influence has been the dominant cause of the observed warming since the mid-20th century (e.g., IPCC, 2021). A major consequence of global warming is sea-level rise, currently (for the period 2006–2018) occurring at a global mean rate of 3.69 ± 0.48 millimetres per year. The main sources are melting/discharge of ice sheets, ice caps and glaciers ($\sim 45\%$), thermal expansion of ocean water ($\sim 38\%$), and changes in land water storage ($\sim 17\%$) (Fox-Kemper and others, 2021). In the long term, the two ice sheets of Antarctica (AIS) and Greenland (GrIS) are the largest potential contributors to global sea-level rise because of their

26 enormous volumes, together amounting to ~ 65 m SLE (sea-level equivalent) (Morlighem and others, 2017,
27 2020). The ice sheets have therefore been the focus of intensive observational as well as modelling efforts.

28 The Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) is a major international climate mod-
29 elling initiative (Eyring and others, 2016). As a part of this project, the Ice Sheet Model Intercomparison
30 Project for CMIP6 (ISMIP6) brought together a consortium of ice-sheet modellers to explore the sea-level-
31 rise contribution from the GrIS and AIS (Nowicki and others, 2016, 2020). ISMIP6 focussed on the CMIP6
32 period from 2015 until the end of 2100. The main findings for the GrIS, when forced by output from CMIP5
33 global climate models (GCMs), were contributions of 90 ± 50 and 32 ± 17 mm SLE for the unabated warm-
34 ing pathway RCP8.5 [RCP: Representative Concentration Pathway] and the reduced emissions pathway
35 RCP2.6, respectively (Goelzer and others, 2020). The CMIP6 GCMs tend to feature a warmer atmosphere,
36 which results in higher mass loss due to increased surface melt (Payne and others, 2021). For the AIS and
37 CMIP5 climate forcings, ISMIP6 found a mass loss in the range of -7.8 to 30.0 cm SLE under RCP8.5
38 (Seroussi and others, 2020). The limited number of results for RCP2.6 fall within this range, and so do
39 the results obtained with CMIP6 climate forcings (Payne and others, 2021). This rather unclear picture
40 for the AIS is a consequence of the counteracting effects of mass loss due to ocean warming and mass gain
41 from increased snowfall.

42 The full suite of ISMIP6 experiments with both CMIP5 and CMIP6 forcings was carried out with
43 the ice-sheet model SICOPOLIS (“SIMulation COde for POLythermal Ice Sheets”, www.sicopolis.net), as
44 documented in detail by Greve and others (2020a,b). Chambers and others (2021) extend the ISMIP6 sim-
45 ulations for the AIS with SICOPOLIS until the year 3000, assuming a sustained late-21st-century climate
46 beyond 2100. Compared to the uncertain response projected over the ISMIP6 period, a radically different
47 picture emerges, demonstrating that the consequences of the high-emissions scenario RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5
48 [SSP: Shared Socioeconomic Pathway] are much greater in the long term even if no further climate trend
49 is applied beyond 2100.

50 The response of the GrIS to longer-term climate change has also been investigated. In addition to
51 an ensemble of projections for the 21st century with their higher-order ice-sheet model, the study by
52 Fürst and others (2015) also conducted projections until 2300 for the two low-emission scenarios RCP2.6
53 and RCP4.5, forced by selected CMIP5 GCMs. Vizcaino and others (2015) carried out simulations until
54 2300 with a coupled ECHAM5.2/MPI-OM/SICOPOLIS model for the pathways RCP2.6, RCP4.5, and a
55 modified RCP8.5 with a $4 \times \text{CO}_2$ limit. Calov and others (2018) drove an extended version of SICOPOLIS

56 (“IGLOO”) with RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 surface temperature and surface mass balance anomalies created by
57 the regional climate model MAR with boundary conditions from simulations with three CMIP5 GCMs.
58 Similar to our approach, prolongation of the climatic forcing beyond 2100 was done by assuming no further
59 warming trend. Aschwanden and others (2019) used projections based on four CMIP5 GCMs until 2300 for
60 RCP2.6, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5, extrapolated until 3000, to force the ice-sheet model PISM. Their climatic
61 forcing was processed by the regional climate model HIRHAM5, delivering the surface-temperature anomaly
62 as the main driver, from which precipitation changes were parameterized, and runoff was computed by a
63 positive-degree-day method. Van Breedam and others (2020) projected the response of the GrIS and AIS
64 10,000 years into the future with the Earth system model of intermediate complexity LOVECLIMv1.3
65 (including the ice sheet model AGISM), forced by the extended concentration pathways ECP2.6, 4.5, 6.0
66 and 8.5 until 2300 and zero emissions thereafter. In this study, we transfer the approach by Chambers and
67 others (2021) to the GrIS. The objective is to assess its long-term response to late-21st-century climatic
68 conditions for the full ensemble of ISMIP6 climate forcings, which consists of fourteen scenarios from ten
69 different CMIP5 and CMIP6 GCMs.

70 2 METHODS

71 The main tool used for this study is the ice-sheet model SICOPOLIS. We apply it to the GrIS with
72 hybrid shallow-ice-shelfy-stream dynamics (Bernales and others, 2017), a Weertman-Budd-type sliding
73 law tuned separately for 20 different regions (Greve and others, 2020b), and ice thermodynamics treated
74 by the one-layer melting-CTS enthalpy scheme (CTS: cold-temperate transition surface; Blatter and Greve,
75 2015; Greve and Blatter, 2016). The horizontal resolution is 5 km. In the vertical, we use terrain-following
76 coordinates (sigma transformation) with 81 layers in the ice domain and 41 layers in the thermal lithosphere
77 layer below. The detailed set-up, as well as the initialization procedure by a paleoclimatic spin-up and
78 comparisons between the simulated and observed ice thickness and surface velocity for our initialization
79 year 1990, is described by Greve and others (2020b) and shall not be repeated here.

80 Following the ISMIP6 protocol, climate forcing from 2015 until the end of 2100 has an atmospheric and
81 an oceanic component. The atmospheric forcing consists of a 1960–1989 reference climatology, plus space-
82 time-dependent anomalies for the surface mass balance (SMB) and the surface temperature (ST). These
83 were derived from a systematic sampling of CMIP5 GCMs that reflects their spread in future projections
84 (Barthel and others, 2020), while CMIP6 GCMs were added on the basis of availability only (Payne and

85 others, 2021). All GCM forcings were downscaled to the GrIS surface with the regional climate model MAR
86 v3.9.6 (Fettweis and others, 2017; Delhasse and others, 2020). Although MAR uses a static GrIS, it also
87 provides vertical gradients of SMB and ST, thus allowing to include SMB–height and ST–height feedbacks
88 in the ice-sheet simulations (Franco and others, 2012; Nowicki and others, 2020). The oceanic forcing is
89 based on a retreat parameterization for tidewater glaciers, forced by MAR run-off and ocean temperature
90 changes specified for seven ice–ocean sectors around Greenland (Slater and others, 2019, 2020).

91 For the period from 2101 until the end of 3000, we extend the simulations in a similar way than
92 Chambers and others (2021) do for the AIS. For every year of this extended period, the atmospheric
93 forcing (SMB, ST, vertical gradients) for the 10-year interval 2091–2100 is randomly sampled such that
94 no further trend is applied, but some inter-annual fluctuations remain (similar to Calov and others, 2018).
95 The oceanic forcing (prescribed retreat maps) does not show any notable year-to-year fluctuations, so we
96 simply keep it fixed at 2100 conditions.

97 An overview of our extended ISMIP6 experiments is given in Table 1. Twelve experiments are for
98 the 21st-century unabated warming pathway RCP8.5 (CMIP5) / SSP5-8.5 (CMIP6), and two are for the
99 reduced emissions pathway RCP2.6 (CMIP5) / SSP1-2.6 (CMIP6) that is largely in line with the commit-
100 ments of the Paris Agreement (maintaining the global mean temperature well below a 2°C increase above
101 pre-industrial levels). In two experiments, the impact of different sensitivities of the retreat parameteri-
102 zation due to oceanic forcing (“high” and “low” vs. the normal, “medium” sensitivity, thereby exploring
103 the uncertainty of the parameterization; Slater and others, 2019, 2020) is tested. In addition, a control
104 simulation (“ctrl_proj”) employs constant climate conditions based on a 1960–1989 climatology and no
105 explicit oceanic forcing.

106 **3 RESULTS**

107 The simulated mass change of the GrIS, expressed as a sea-level contribution, and ice area are shown in
108 Figure 1. The historical run (“hist”) bridges the gap between our initialization year 1990 and the start
109 date of the projections in January 2015 by employing MIROC5/RCP8.5 SMB and ST forcing (Greve and
110 others, 2020b). Like the regular projections, the projection control run (“ctrl_proj”) starts from January
111 2015 and runs until the end of 3000. In ctrl_proj, the ice sheet remains nearly stable, showing a slight
112 mass gain of 6.4 mm SLE and area loss of $4.7 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$ during the 986 years model time, which is of the
113 order of permilles of the present-day values.

114 For all future projections, the ice sheet keeps losing both mass and extent over the entire period. The
115 largest rate of change occurs typically around the year 2100, beyond which it slows down to some extent;
116 however, without reaching or coming close to a new steady state. This demonstrates that the committed
117 mass loss due to 21st-century climate change extends way beyond the 21st century and impacts the ice
118 sheet on a much longer time scale. Corroborating the findings for the 21st century (Goelzer and others,
119 2020; Greve and others, 2020b), the GrIS responds much more strongly to the ensemble of RCP8.5/SSP5-
120 8.5 simulations than to the two RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6 simulations. By the year 3000, the mass loss amounts to
121 1.78 ± 0.80 m SLE (mean \pm 1-sigma range) for RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5, while it is limited to 0.28 ± 0.12 m SLE
122 for RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6.

123 In relative terms, the area loss (Fig. 1b) is similar to that of the mass loss. However, it is striking that
124 the variability in area varies significantly between the different simulations. This results from the different
125 variability of the SMB forcing and affects mainly the thin, near-margin parts of the ice sheet, which do not
126 contribute much to the total ice mass. Therefore, the variability is not paralleled in Fig. 1a.

127 The influence of the ice retreat due to oceanic forcing is explored by Exps. 5, 9, 10 (MIROC5/RCP8.5
128 with “medium”, “high” and “low” sensitivity, respectively). The results are shown by the green lines
129 and green-shaded regions in Figure 1. By 3000, the simulated mass loss is $1.63^{+0.039}_{-0.031}$ m SLE. Thus, the
130 uncertainty due to these three calibrations is very small in the long range. Relative to the uncertainty due
131 to the different climate forcings, it is more pronounced for the 21st century (Greve and others, 2020b).
132 This is because the continued retreat of the ice sheet decreases its contact with the ocean, so that the
133 oceanic forcing plays a smaller role in the longer term.

134 As reported by Greve and others (2020b) and Payne and others (2021), for both the 21st-century
135 RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5 and RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6 pathways, the CMIP6 climate models produce a larger response
136 of the ice sheet than the CMIP5 ones. While the significance of this statement is limited in the case of
137 RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6 (only one experiment each), it is more robust for RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5, where the ensemble
138 contains eight and four experiments forced by CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, respectively. By 3000, the mean
139 mass loss for the four CMIP6 SSP5-8.5 experiments is 2.72 m SLE, and the maximum value from Exp. B4
140 (CESM2/SSP5-8.5) is as large as 3.54 m SLE, almost 50% of the entire present-day ice mass.

141 We now discuss in more detail the results of Exp. 5 (MIROC5/RCP8.5), which was already focused on
142 in the original ISMIP6-Greenland study (Goelzer and others, 2020). Mainly due to its large SMB forcing,
143 it produces, along with Exp. A1 (IPSL-CM5A-MR/RCP8.5), the strongest mass loss among the CMIP5

144 forcings, while the mass loss is about average for our combined CMIP5/CMIP6 ensemble. Figure 2 shows
145 the components of the global mass balance (integrated over the ice sheet, all counted as positive for mass
146 gain): surface mass balance (SMB), basal mass balance (BMB), calving and ice volume change (dV/dt). On
147 a mean-annual basis, the residual, $\text{Res} = |\text{SMB} + \text{BMB} + \text{Calving} - dV/dt|$, is always less than $10^6 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$.
148 This is five to six orders of magnitude smaller than the typical range of values in the figure, so that the
149 model conserves mass very well (see also Calov and others, 2018).

150 As already stated above, the ice sheet keeps losing volume (\propto mass) over the entire period, with
151 maximal rates of change occurring shortly before the year 2100. The SMB is initially positive, but changes
152 its sign in the second half of the 21st century and stays negative beyond that. Calving into the surrounding
153 ocean peaks during 2080–2085, when it contributes approximately the same amount to ice volume loss than
154 negative SMB. After that, calving decreases continuously due to ice-sheet retreat from the coast (loss of
155 ocean contact) and becomes almost negligible towards the end of the 3rd millennium. The decrease is
156 likely accelerated by a limitation of the oceanic forcing approach: the fixed retreat mask beyond 2100
157 does not follow the retreating ice margin further, making it ineffective as the ice sheet recedes beyond its
158 reach. The negative SMB shows a slightly decreasing trend after 2100 because, as the ice sheet shrinks,
159 less area is available for further melting. Both effects together cause the magnitude of dV/dt (loss rate
160 of ice volume) to decrease gradually, which results in the slight flattening of the curves in Figure 1 (the
161 same mechanisms are effective for the other experiments). BMB is small over the entire model time. The
162 inter-annual variability of the volume change is due to that of the SMB, which reflects the variability of
163 the atmospheric forcing.

164 Figure 3 shows snapshots of the ice thickness and surface velocity for Exp. 5 for the initial year 2015
165 and the final year 3000. Comparing the thickness distributions demonstrates nicely that the ice sheet
166 retreats from the coast almost all around its perimeter, and contact to the ocean is very limited by the
167 end of the simulation, which entails the low calving rates mentioned above. By contrast, the ice sheet
168 does not suffer much change in its interior parts north of $\sim 68^\circ\text{N}$. The large-scale pattern of the ice flow
169 and the organization of the ice sheet into major drainage basins remain largely intact. However, on the
170 regional scale, more pronounced changes occur. The fast-flowing outlet glaciers in south-western Greenland
171 disappear entirely due to the extreme retreat in this area. The north-western outlet glaciers, including
172 Petermann Glacier, also slow down substantially. The central-western Jakobshavn Ice Stream loses its
173 clear delimitation to the surrounding glaciers, but remains an area of fast-flowing ice. The major features

174 in East Greenland, e.g., the North-East Greenland Ice Stream, Kangerdlugssuaq and Helheim glaciers, are
175 less affected and remain well identifiable.

176 4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

177 The future climate simulations carried out in this study for the GrIS over the 3rd millennium confirm and
178 continue the trends that were reported by ISMIP6-Greenland for the 21st century (Goelzer and others,
179 2020; Greve and others, 2020b; Payne and others, 2021). The response of the ice sheet is mainly governed
180 by a negative SMB due to increased surface melting near the ice margin. Marine-terminating glacier
181 retreat, triggered by increasing oceanic thermal forcing, constitutes a further negative contribution to the
182 total mass balance, but becomes less important in the longer term. Under the unabated warming pathway
183 RCP8.5/SSP5-8.5, this leads to a severe mass loss during the 3rd millennium, while the loss is much smaller
184 under the reduced emissions pathway RCP2.6/SSP1-2.6. Results obtained with forcings from the newer
185 CMIP6 climate models consistently produce larger mass losses than those obtained with the older CMIP5
186 models, for SSP5-8.5 in the range of a $\sim 25\text{--}50\%$ loss of the present-day ice mass (and area) by 3000. For
187 comparison, Aschwanden and others (2019) reported a mass loss of $\sim 75\text{--}100\%$ by 3000 for their ensemble
188 of RCP8.5 simulations, for which a warming trend is assumed to continue until 2500. Efficient climate
189 change mitigation during the next decades is therefore crucial for limiting the contribution of the GrIS to
190 long-term sea-level rise.

191 As for interpreting the stronger response of the GrIS to CMIP6-derived forcings compared to CMIP5-
192 derived ones, the different strategies of sampling the respective GCM ensembles for ISMIP6-Greenland must
193 be considered. As we mentioned in Sect. 2, the six CMIP5 GCMs were chosen systematically, whereas the
194 four CMIP6 GCMs were the only ones available for downscaling at the time. Subsequent analysis of the
195 entire CMIP6 model ensemble revealed that the results cluster around two groups of climate sensitivities
196 (global mean temperature response to doubled atmospheric CO_2), and the four models that were available
197 for ISMIP6-Greenland all fall in the high-sensitivity group (Meehl and others, 2020; Payne and others,
198 2021). Future work should therefore aim at conducting additional simulations with a more representative
199 sampling of the CMIP6 GCMs.

200 Our study is limited to investigating the impact of a sustained late-21st-century climate (without
201 imposing a further trend beyond 2100) on the GrIS. However, in reality, climate change will continue beyond
202 2100 (e.g., Bakker and others, 2016; Lyon and others, 2020), with potentially even more devastating effects

203 on the GrIS than reported here, plus a significant decay of the AIS in the long term (Van Breedam and
204 others, 2020). Further, the unidirectional coupling approach (climate model → ice-sheet model) employed
205 by ISMIP6, and thus here, lacks a detailed accounting of feedbacks of the changing ice sheet on the climate.
206 As we explained in Sect. 2, the climate forcing for Greenland includes vertical gradients of the surface mass
207 balance and surface temperature. Therefore, the changing ice-sheet geometry acts back on these climatic
208 forcing fields. However, the linearized approach was derived for small perturbations of the present-day
209 state only, and it cannot be validated for large changes of the ice sheet. This shortcoming becomes more
210 severe in our simulations over almost a millennium compared to the 86-year scope of ISMIP6, and it is not
211 possible to judge a priori whether it rather leads to an over- or underestimation of the simulated mass loss.

212 Therefore, future work in the direction of long-term simulations of ice-sheet response to climate change
213 should aim at employing GCM projections beyond 2100 and improving the representation of feedback
214 processes. The ultimate solution would be to carry out such simulations in a fully coupled way, with the
215 ice-sheet model integrated in the GCM. This approach has been pursued (e.g., Vizcaino and others, 2015;
216 Sellevold and others, 2019; Gregory and others, 2020; Muntjewerf and others, 2020a,b); however, fully
217 coupled simulations are demanding and computationally expensive, which makes it difficult to run large
218 ensembles, involving many different climate and ice-sheet models, over long time scales and at adequate
219 resolution. Intermediary, more manageable solutions may consist of involving snapshots of climate-model
220 results combined with more refined parameterizations for the climatic forcing, similar to the approach by
221 Abe-Ouchi and others (2013) for the paleo-glaciation of the Northern Hemisphere.

222 **CODE AND DATA AVAILABILITY**

223 SICOPOLIS is free and open-source software, available through a persistent Git repository hosted by the
224 Alfred Wegener Institute for Polar and Marine Research (AWI) in Bremerhaven, Germany (Greve and
225 SICOPOLIS Developer Team, 2021). Detailed instructions for obtaining and compiling the code are at
226 <http://www.sicopolis.net> (last access: 2 November 2021). The output data produced for this study are
227 available at Zenodo, <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.xxxxxxx>.

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#	exp_id	Scenario	GCM	Ocean forcing	
5	exp05	RCP8.5	MIROC5	Medium	Core experiments (Tier 1)
6	exp06	RCP8.5	NorESM1-M	Medium	
7	exp07	RCP2.6	MIROC5	Medium	
8	exp08	RCP8.5	HadGEM2-ES	Medium	
9	exp09	RCP8.5	MIROC5	High	
10	exp10	RCP8.5	MIROC5	Low	
A1	expa01	RCP8.5	IPSL-CM5A-MR	Medium	Extended
A2	expa02	RCP8.5	CSIRO-Mk3.6.0	Medium	ensemble
A3	expa03	RCP8.5	ACCESS1.3	Medium	(Tier 2)
B1	expb01	SSP5-8.5	CNRM-CM6-1	Medium	CMIP6 extension (Tier 2)
B2	expb02	SSP1-2.6	CNRM-CM6-1	Medium	
B3	expb03	SSP5-8.5	UKESM1-0-LL	Medium	
B4	expb04	SSP5-8.5	CESM2	Medium	
B5	expb05	SSP5-8.5	CNRM-ESM2-1	Medium	

Table 1. Extended ISMIP6-Greenland Tier-1 and 2 future climate experiments discussed in this study. See Nowicki and others (2020) for references for the GCMs.

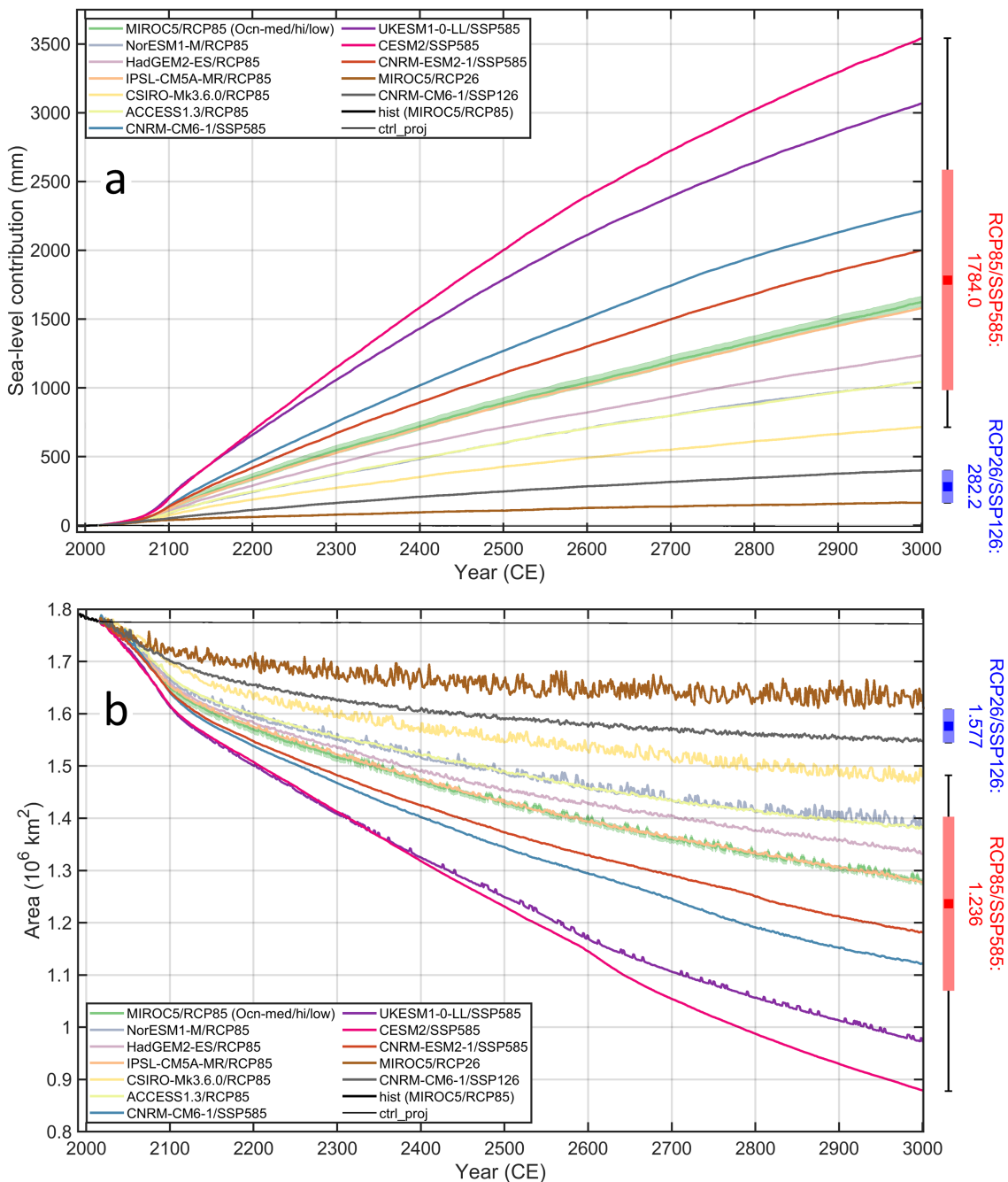


Fig. 1. Extended ISMIP6-Greenland historical run (hist), projection control run (ctrl_proj) and Tier-1 and 2 future climate experiments: (a) Simulated ice mass change (counted positively for loss and expressed as sea-level contribution), (b) ice area. The red and blue boxes to the right show the mean ± 1 -sigma ranges for RCP8.5/SSP5.8.5 and RCP2.6/SSP1.2.6, respectively; the whiskers show the corresponding full ranges.

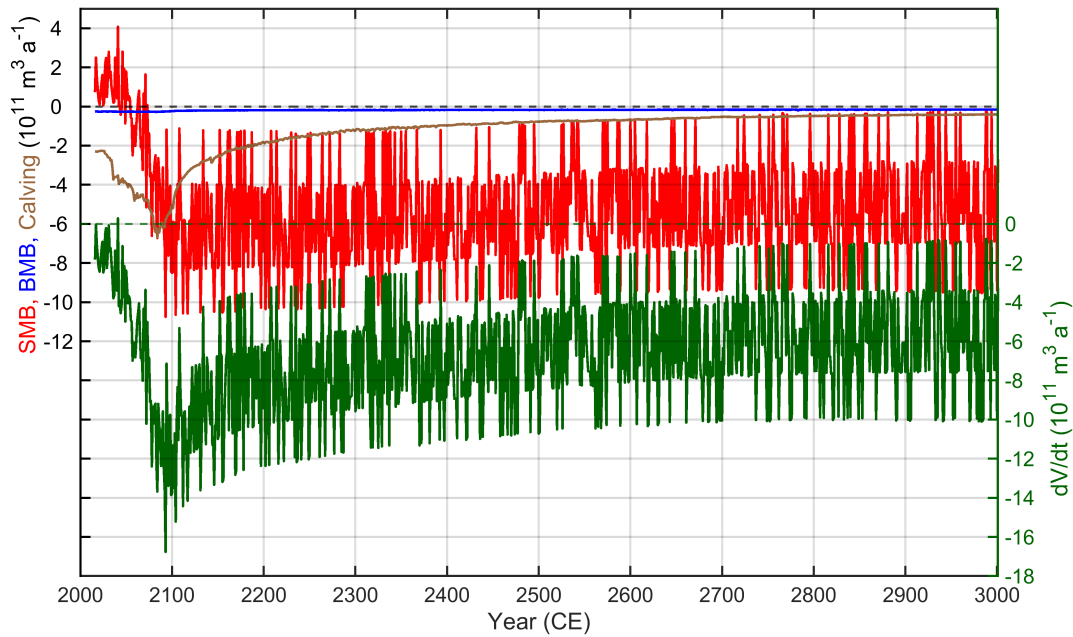


Fig. 2. Main components of the global mass balance for Exp. 5 (MIROC5/RCP8.5): Surface mass balance (SMB, red), basal mass balance (BMB, blue), calving (brown) and ice volume change (dV/dt , green). Note the shifted, right axis for the latter. The black and green dashed lines indicate the zero levels for the left and right axis, respectively.

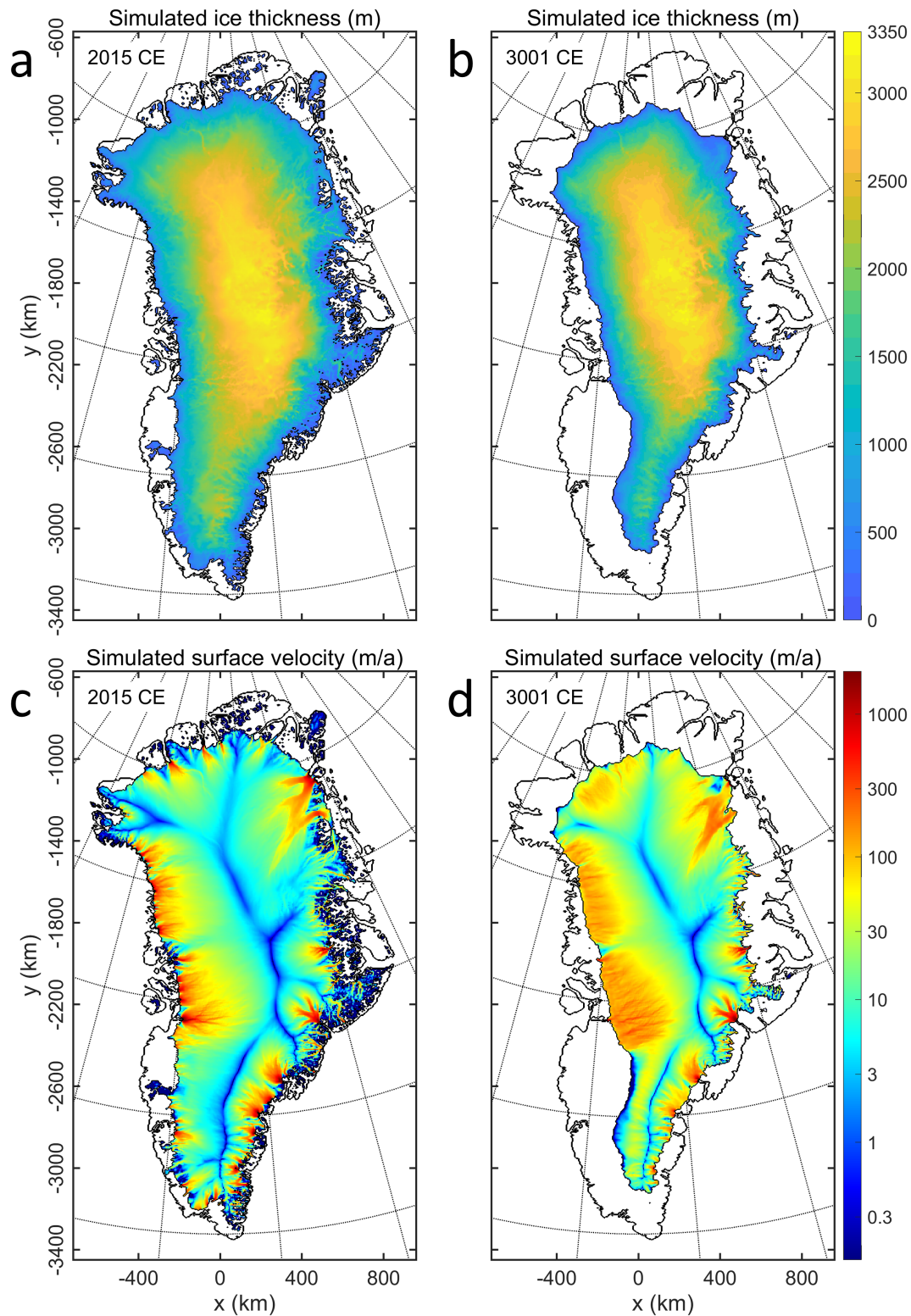


Fig. 3. Ice thickness (panels a, b) and surface velocity (panels c, d) for the initial time (2015; panels a, c) and final time (3001; panels b, d) of Exp. 5 (MIROC5/RCP8.5).