



1 **Impact of glacial isostatic adjustment on zones of potential grounding line stability in the**
2 **Ross Sea Embayment (Antarctica) since the Last Glacial Maximum**

3 Samuel T. Kodama¹, Tamara Pico¹, Alexander A. Robel², John Erich Christian³, Natalya Gomez⁴,
4 Casey Vigilia⁵, Evelyn Powell⁶, Jessica Gagliardi¹, Slawek Tulaczyk¹, Terrence Blackburn¹

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6 ¹Earth and Planetary Science, University of California Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA, USA

7 ² School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA, USA

8 ³Department of Geography, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA

9 ⁴ Earth and Planetary Sciences, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada

10 ⁵Jackson School of Geosciences, University of Texas at Austin, Austin, TX, USA

11 ⁶ Lamont-Doherty Earth Observatory of Columbia University, Palisades, NY, USA

12 *Correspondence to:* Samuel T. Kodama (sakodama@ucsc.edu)

13 **Abstract**

14 Ice streams in the Ross Sea Embayment (West Antarctica) retreated up to 1,000 kilometers since
15 the Last Glacial Maximum, constituting one of the largest changes in deglacial Antarctic Ice
16 Sheet volume and extent. One way that bathymetry influenced this retreat was through the
17 presence of local bathymetric highs, or “pinning points”, which decreased ice flux through the
18 grounding line and slowed grounding line retreat. During this time, glacial isostatic adjustment
19 vertically shifted the underlying bathymetry, altering the grounding line flux. Continental scale
20 modeling efforts have demonstrated the impact of solid Earth-ice sheet interactions on the
21 deglacial retreat of marine ice sheets, however, these models are too coarse to resolve small scale
22 bathymetric features. We pair a high-resolution bathymetry model with a simple model of
23 grounding line stability in an ensemble approach to predict zones of potential grounding line
24 stability in the Ross Sea Embayment for given combinations of surface mass balance rate, degree
25 of ice shelf buttressing, basal friction coefficient, and bathymetry (corrected for glacial isostatic
26 adjustment using three different ice sheet histories). We find that isostatic depression within the
27 interior of the Ross Sea Embayment during the Last Glacial Maximum restricts zones of
28 potential grounding line stability to near the edge of the continental shelf. Zones of potential
29 grounding line stability do not appear near the present-day grounding line until sufficient uplift
30 has occurred (mid-Holocene; ~5 ka), resulting in a net upstream migration of zones of potential



31 grounding line stability across the deglaciation. Additionally, our results show that coarse
32 resolution bathymetry underpredicts possible stable grounding line positions, particularly near
33 the present-day grounding line, highlighting the importance of bathymetric resolution in
34 capturing the impact of glacial isostatic adjustment on ice stream stability.

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Since the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) at approximately 26-19 ka (Clark et al., 2009), ice
38 streams in the Ross Sea Embayment sector of West Antarctica retreated up to 1,000 kilometers to
39 their present-day grounding line positions. Bathymetry can influence retreat of a marine ice sheet
40 by guiding grounding-lines through deep submarine troughs (Halberstadt et al., 2016; Jones et al.,
41 2021) or by slowing retreat through local bathymetric highs known as “pinning points”. Pinning
42 points, either a product of antecedent bathymetry or sediment deposited in the form of grounding
43 zone wedges (Bart et al., 2018; Bart and Tulaczyk, 2020; Jamieson et al., 2012; Simkins et al.,
44 2018), can slow or pause ice sheet retreat by decreasing ice flux through the grounding line
45 (Jamieson et al., 2012; Robel et al., 2022; Schoof, 2007).

46 Over the last deglaciation, the bathymetry underlying the marine-based (grounded below sea
47 level) Ross Sea Embayment of the Antarctic Ice Sheet has been modulated by glacial isostatic
48 adjustment (GIA), the solid Earth’s response to ice sheet unloading through crustal deformation
49 and perturbations to the Earth’s gravitational field and rotation axis (Kendall et al., 2005). Changes
50 to bathymetry caused by these solid Earth-ice sheet interactions have been found to reduce the
51 modeled retreat rate for marine sectors of the Antarctic Ice Sheet, including over the last
52 deglaciation (de Boer et al., 2014; van Calcar et al., 2023; Gomez et al., 2013, 2015, 2018; Konrad
53 et al., 2015; Pollard et al., 2017). Although these coupled models provide valuable insight into ice
54 sheet-solid Earth interactions, they are computationally expensive with limited capacity to explore
55 a large parameter space while still resolving bathymetry geometry and the grounding line at high
56 resolution.

57 To better understand the impact of GIA on Antarctic deglaciation, it is necessary to explore
58 how GIA modulates both large- and small-scale bathymetric features. Here we use an ensemble of
59 simple grounding line stability calculations to take advantage of high-resolution bathymetry
60 models and isolate the impact of bathymetric change due to GIA on ice stream grounding line
61 stability during the deglaciation of the Ross Sea Embayment. We model grounding-line stability



62 along 147 LGM ice stream flowlines in the Ross Sea Embayment, over present-day and 20 ka
63 GIA-corrected bathymetry. Rather than reconstructing an exact history of Ross Sea Embayment
64 grounding-line evolution, we predict zones of potential grounding line stability (henceforth termed
65 “zones of potential stability”), at 20 ka and present-day. Improved information about ice margins
66 in the past, in conjunction with our predictions for zones of potential stability, could guide future
67 identification of locations where past Ross Sea Embayment ice stream grounding lines were likely
68 to persist. We explore the contribution of GIA to grounding line stability at present-day and 20 ka
69 grounding line locations, quantifying the impact of GIA on zones of potential stability across the
70 deglaciation.

71

72 **2. Methods**

73 **2.1 Modeling Ross Sea Embayment Paleobathymetry**

74 To reconstruct Ross Sea Embayment 20 ka paleobathymetry we modify present-day
75 BedMachine bathymetry (500 m horizontal resolution; Morlighem et al., 2020) for the
76 spatiotemporal patterns of GIA caused by the deformational, gravitational, and rotational effects
77 associated with changes in ice load. Sedimentation would have also altered the paleobathymetry
78 of the Ross Sea Embayment since the LGM, however the magnitude of sedimentation across the
79 Ross Sea Embayment is still poorly constrained and so we focus on the role of GIA. Our
80 simulations are based on the sea-level theory and pseudo-spectral algorithm described by Kendall
81 et al. (2005), with a spherical harmonic truncation at degree and order 512 (spatial resolution of
82 ~40 km). This treatment includes the impact of load-induced Earth rotation changes on sea level
83 (Milne and Mitrovica, 1996), evolving shorelines, and the migration of grounded, marine-based
84 ice (Johnston, 1993; Kendall et al., 2005; Lambeck et al., 2003; Milne et al., 1999). Our GIA
85 simulations require two inputs: (1) an Earth structure model with a depth-varying viscosity of the
86 mantle along with an elastic lithospheric thickness; and (2) the space-time geometry of ice sheet
87 thickness. The resulting GIA output varies smoothly across spatial scales much broader than the
88 spatial scales of Ross Sea Embayment bathymetric changes.

89 The LGM extent and deglacial history of Antarctica is uncertain due to a paucity of datasets
90 constraining past ice thickness and sea-level change (Clark and Tarasov, 2014; Deschamps et al.,
91 2012; Golledge et al., 2014; Gomez et al., 2018, 2020; Lambeck et al., 2014; Lin et al., 2021;
92 Pittard et al., 2022; Simms et al., 2019; Whitehouse et al., 2012). To represent these uncertainties,



93 we use three different ice-sheet histories that span a range of LGM ice-sheet thickness
94 reconstructions. The first ice history [Golledge et al. \(2014; henceforth Gol14\)](#) contains a deglacial
95 Antarctic Ice Sheet volume change of ~ 10.5 m global mean sea level equivalent (GMSLE) and
96 was created from the median of an ensemble of Parallel Ice Sheet Model runs (Bueler and Brown,
97 2009) forced by an Earth system model and uniform sea-level changes. The second ice history
98 [Whitehouse et al. \(2012; henceforth W12\)](#) contains a deglacial Antarctic Ice Sheet volume change
99 of ~ 8 meters GMSLE and was created by running the GLIMMER ice sheet model (Rutt et al.,
100 2009) for discrete time intervals (20, 15, 10, and 5 ka), and is constrained by glaciologic, geologic,
101 and GIA records. The third ice history [Gomez et al. \(2018; henceforth Gom18\)](#) has a deglacial
102 Antarctic Ice Sheet volume change of ~ 6 m GMSLE. The Gom18 model is a coupled,
103 gravitationally consistent GIA-dynamic ice sheet model that incorporates 3-D earth structure and
104 was forced by climate via benthic $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ records.

105 These ice-sheet histories encompass a range of potential Antarctic Ice Sheet volume
106 changes (6–10.5 m GMSLE; Supplementary Figure S1) and therefore, a range of potential GIA
107 magnitudes across the Ross Sea Embayment. To simulate GIA for W12 and Gol14 we use a 1-D,
108 radially symmetric Earth model with lithospheric thickness of 96 km, upper mantle viscosity of
109 10^{21} Pa s and lower mantle viscosity of 10^{22} Pa s, similar to the best fit 1-D Earth model used in
110 [Whitehouse et al. \(2012\)](#). For Gom18 we use the 3-D Earth model GIA output from Gomez et al.
111 (2018). We explore the sensitivity to our choice in Earth model by simulating GIA for W12 and
112 Gol14 using the VM5a Earth model (Peltier et al., 2015) and a lower viscosity Earth model more
113 representative of West Antarctica, characterized by a 50 km lithosphere and low viscosity zone of
114 10^{19} Pa-s from 50 km down to 200 km depth. For the Gom18 ice history we explore sensitivity to
115 Earth model by comparing to the 1-D reference Earth model (Gomez et al., 2018).

116

117 **2.2 Simulating Grounding line Stability**

118 To determine the locations of potential zones of grounding line stability in the Ross Sea
119 Embayment, we first trace 147 LGM ice stream flowlines based on reconstructions of Anderson
120 et al. (2014) and present-day ice-sheet flow (Rignot et al., 2011). We consider the 20 ka
121 paleobathymetry and present-day bathymetry to compare LGM and interglacial endmembers.
122 Although Ross Sea Embayment ice stream flowlines underwent reorganization throughout the last
123 deglaciation (Greenwood et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017), we use LGM flowlines when simulating



124 grounding line stability for both present-day (isostatically rebounded) and 20 ka (isostatically
125 depressed) bathymetry to make clear comparisons between these time periods. By using LGM
126 flowlines for both present-day and 20 ka (GIA-corrected) bathymetry we can also test for potential
127 zones of grounding line stability throughout the entire Ross Sea. Although using LGM flowlines
128 for present-day can result in predicting zones of potential stability at locations that contradict the
129 geologic record (e.g. predicting zones of potential stability on present-day bathymetry offshore of
130 the present-day grounding line), it expands our understanding of solid Earth-ice sheet interactions
131 in a way that would not be possible with traditional ice-sheet modeling methods.

132 We simulate potential locations of grounding line stability for each ice stream flowline by
133 first extracting its bathymetric profile for present-day and 20 ka GIA-corrected bed bathymetries
134 with three ice histories. We then use a simple differential equation for the mass balance of a marine-
135 terminating ice stream (Equation 1 in Robel et al., 2018, following on Schoof 2012) to test for
136 stability along each ice stream flowline at 1 km-spaced nodes. We consider different combinations
137 of accumulation, basal friction, and ice-shelf buttressing parameters (Table 1); resulting in an
138 ensemble of 1,000 stability calculations at each node along an ice stream flowline. The model is
139 given by

$$140 \quad h_g \frac{dL}{dt} = PL - \Omega h_g^\beta \quad (1)$$

141
142 in which

$$143 \quad \beta = \frac{m + n + 3}{m + 1} \quad (2)$$

$$144 \quad \Omega = \frac{A(\rho_i g)^{n+1} \left(1 - \frac{\rho_i}{\rho_w}\right)^n}{(4^n C)^{\frac{1}{m+1}}} \Theta^{\frac{n}{m+1}} \quad (3)$$

$$145 \quad h_g = -b \frac{\rho_w}{\rho_i} \quad (4)$$

146 Where P is the upstream averaged surface mass balance ($0.01-0.3 \frac{m}{yr}$), L is the distance of the
147 node downstream from the ice divide, t is time, h_g is ice thickness at the grounding line, and Ω is
148 a scalar that accounts for factors that affect grounding line flux such as basal friction
149 ($1.62-6.62 Pa \cdot s^{-1}$), ice-shelf buttressing ($0.5-1.0$; smaller values representing more
150 buttressing). A is the Nye-Glenn law coefficient ($2 \times 10^{-24} Pa \cdot s^{-1}$), n is the accompanying Nye-



151 Glen law exponent (3), m is the Weertman friction law exponent ($\frac{1}{3}$), ρ_i is the density of ice (917
152 $\frac{kg}{m^3}$), ρ_w is the density of sea water ($1028 \frac{kg}{m^3}$), and g is gravitational acceleration ($9.81 \frac{m}{s^2}$).

153 We allow for ice-shelf buttressing given evidence for the formation of ice shelf
154 embayments in both East and West Ross Sea (e.g. Bart et al., 2018; Prothro et al., 2020), and our
155 average upstream surface mass balance values are consistent with local ice core and ice penetrating
156 radar records (Buizert et al., 2015; Cavitte et al., 2018). The form of the grounding line flux (Ωh_g^β)
157 is taken from prior asymptotic approximation studies of ice flux at grounding lines (e.g., Schoof,
158 2007; Haseloff and Sergienko, 2018) and is appropriate to use here since we only analyze the
159 steady-state of Equation 1. The form used here assumes a given Weertman-style basal friction law,
160 no lateral shear stress, and buttressing from an ice shelf of fixed size. While other forms of the
161 grounding line flux (Haseloff and Sergienko, 2018) may be used, the results here are unlikely to
162 be strongly dependent on the particular form used as long as there is a strong dependence on
163 bathymetry (as occurs in existing grounding line flux approximations, e.g. Schoof 2007).

164 A node is a potential “stable steady-state” if two conditions are met: (1) the ice flux into
165 the node is equal to ice flux out ($\frac{dL}{dt} = 0$ in Equation 1), and (2) the first derivative of the right-
166 hand side of Equation 1 with respect to L is negative. The latter condition means perturbations to
167 the grounding line position return the grounding line to its original position. This is expressed as:

$$168 \quad P h_g^{-1} + \left[P L h_g^{-2} + (\beta - 1) \Omega h_g^{\beta-1} \right] \frac{\rho_w}{\rho_i} \frac{dh}{dL} < 0 \quad (5)$$

169 These conditions constitute a linear stability analysis of the grounding line position (Schoof
170 2012; Robel et al. 2018).

171



Parameter	Description	Value
L	Distance downstream from ice divide (m)	-
P	upstream average surface mass balance ($\frac{m}{yr}$)	0.01-0.3
h_g	ice thickness at the grounding line (m)	-
h	Topographic elevation at the grounding line (m)	-
A	Nye-Glen law coefficient ($Pa^{-n} \cdot s^{-1}$)	2×10^{-24}
m	Weertman friction law exponent	$\frac{1}{3}$
n	Nye-Glen law exponent	3
C	Basal friction coefficient ($Pa \cdot m^{\frac{-1}{n}} \cdot s^{\frac{1}{n}}$)	$1.62 - 6.62 \times 10^6$
Θ	Ice shelf Buttressing parameter	0.5-1
ρ_i	Ice density ($\frac{kg}{m^3}$)	917
ρ_w	Sea water density ($\frac{kg}{m^3}$)	1028
g	Gravitational acceleration ($\frac{m}{s^2}$)	9.81

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Table 1 | Parameters and values used for simulating grounding line stability.

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For each ice stream flowline bathymetry, our analysis of the ensemble predicts the locations of potential stable grounding line positions for different combinations of surface mass balance (P), ice shelf buttressing (θ), and basal friction coefficient (C; Table 1). Given the wide range of uncertainty in climate and glaciological parameters for Antarctica during the LGM, our analysis of a simple computationally efficient modeling approach allows us to sample a wide range of parameter space that is unfeasible with more complex marine-terminating glacier models. The zones of potential stability represent regions along the transect of bathymetry (either at present-day or at 20 ka) where—for a combination of P, θ and C—an ice stream grounding line could persist for an extended period of time, not necessarily where the grounding line is predicted to be at any given time geologically.



184 As prior studies have argued (Robel et al., 2022; Sergienko and Haseloff, 2023), the
185 dynamic nature of climate, ice sheets, and the solid Earth make it unlikely that grounding lines
186 will achieve a mathematically stable steady-states in the real world. However, linear stability
187 analysis provides a useful guide to locations at which grounding lines are likely to persist or slow
188 down retreat for prolonged time periods. Our approach allows us to identify zones along a given
189 bathymetric transect where grounding lines may have persisted, without information about where
190 the ice margin existed geologically at any time, since information about the age and location of
191 past grounding lines is uncertain. Once we predict zones of potential stability along a bathymetric
192 transect, we explore the impact of grid resolution by resampling the bathymetric transect at
193 progressively coarser grid resolutions and repeating the stability analysis. We resample by
194 smoothing the transect to the desired coarse resolution and then resampling the smoothed
195 bathymetry.

196 To validate the results from our simple model of grounding line stability, we also modeled
197 transient grounding line evolution with a 1-D flowline model of marine ice-sheet evolution, using
198 the shallow-shelf approximation (Robel, 2021; Schoof, 2007). This model provides an alternative
199 method to identifying the role of GIA for transient cases that do not attain a strict steady-state, and
200 which do not require most of the assumptions intrinsic to Equation 5 (e.g. grounding line dynamics
201 are a smooth system). We calculate grounding line retreat rates and grounding line discharge over
202 present-day and 20 ka GIA-corrected paleo bathymetry and compare spatial patterns of transient
203 grounding line retreat and discharge between present-day and 20 ka GIA corrected bathymetries
204 (Supplementary Material). We find decreases in grounding line discharge and slowed grounding
205 line retreat rates at the same locations where we predict zones of potential stability with the simpler
206 model (Supplementary Material; Figure S2), which is not entirely surprising since the model
207 captured by Equations 1-3 is designed to approximate more complex ice sheet models at steady
208 states.

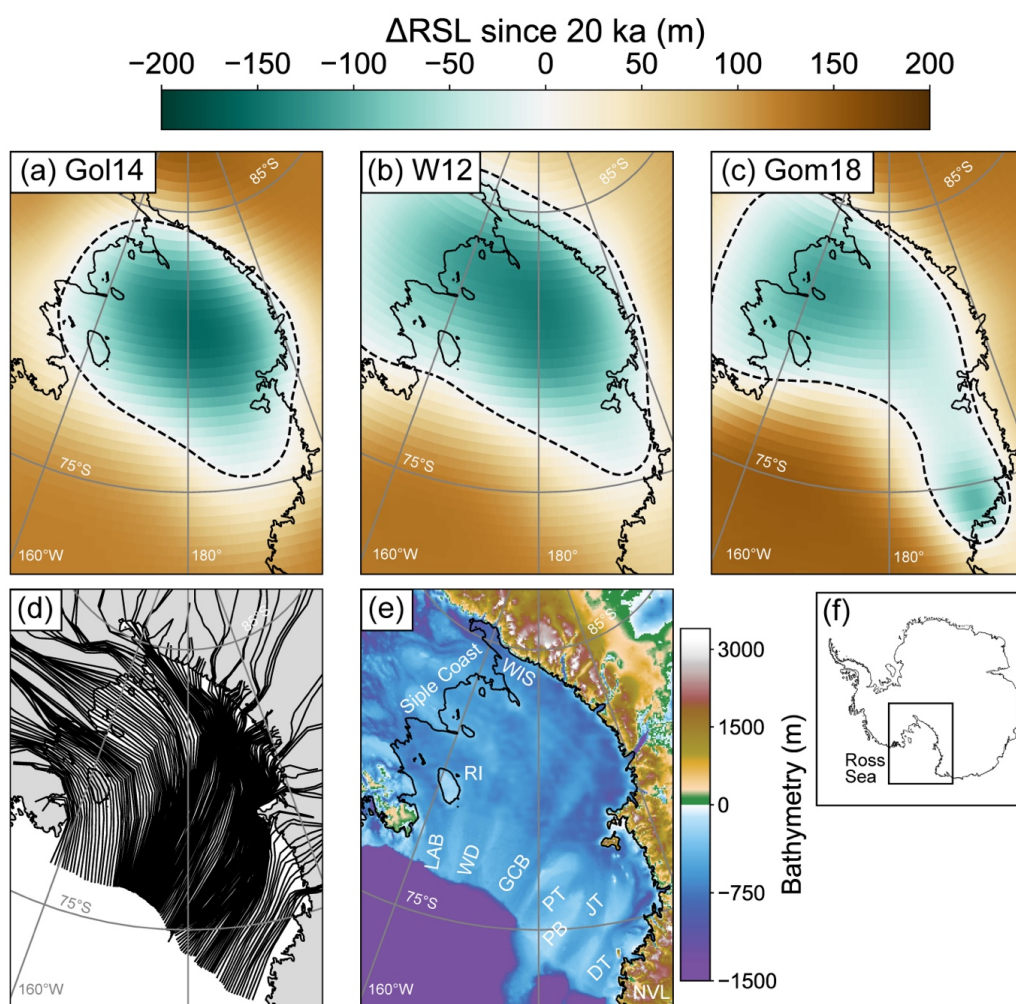
209 **3. Results and discussion**

210 **3.1 Patterns of GIA across the Ross Sea Embayment**

211 From 20 ka to present-day, all three ice histories result in relative sea-level (RSL) fall due
212 to GIA uplift of the Ross Sea Embayment interior (Figure 1a–c). The ice histories with larger
213 excess LGM ice volume cause larger RSL change, with a maximum RSL change of -140 m and -
214 170 m (Figure 1a; Figure 1b), for W12 (GMSLE = 8 m) and Gol14 (GMSLE = 10.5 m; Figure



215 S3), respectively. The interior of the Ross Sea Embayment, offshore of the Siple Coast (SC, Figure
216 1e) experiences the maximum uplift in both of these ice histories. In contrast, Gom18 produces a
217 smaller magnitude of uplift in the Ross Sea Embayment (115 m; Figure 1c), with two centers of
218 maximum uplift: one offshore of the Siple Coast (Figure 1c) and the other near Northern Victoria
219 Land (NVL; Figure 1c). The different pattern of GIA-induced uplift results from the lower
220 viscosity in the Ross Sea Embayment used in Gom18 compared to the higher-viscosity 1-D Earth
221 structure used in simulations of W12 and Gol14, in addition to differences in the ice loading history
222 (Figure 1a–c; Figure S4; [Gomez et al., 2018](#)).
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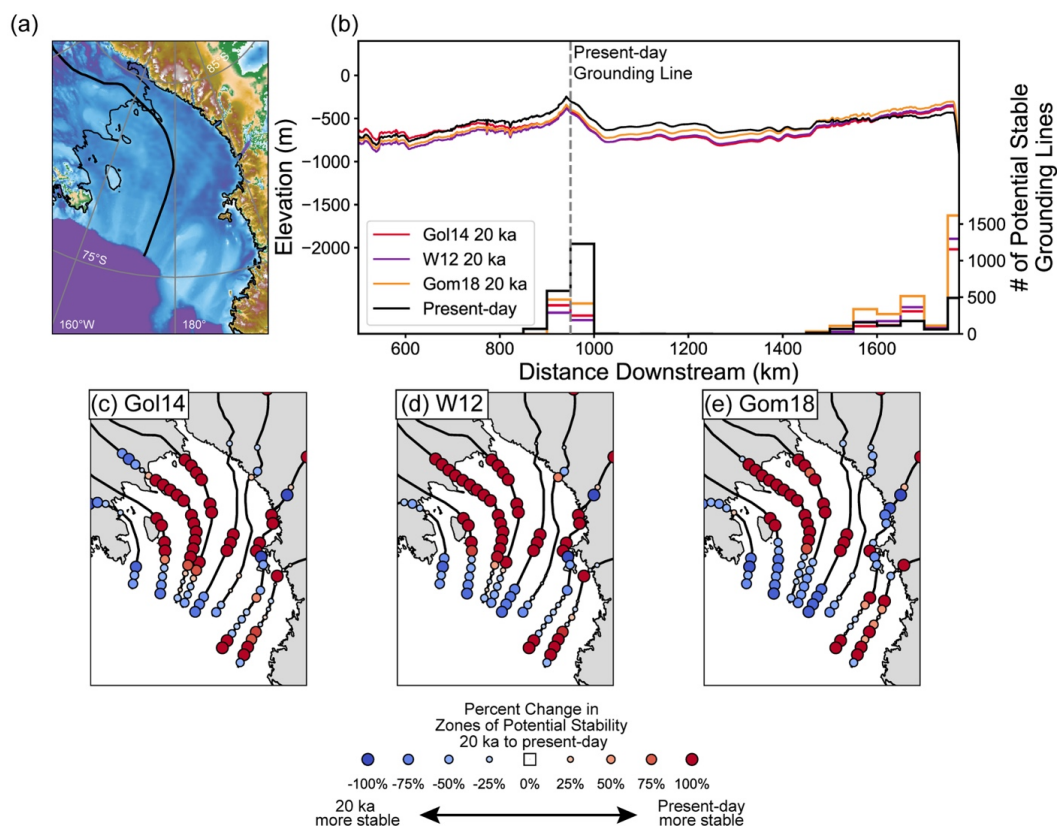
225 **Figure 1 | Change in relative sea level from 20 ka to present-day for a) Gol14 b) W12 and c)**
226 **Gom18. Solid black line is the present-day grounding line and dashed black line marks the**
227 **zero contour line of Δ RSLS since 20 ka. d) Last Glacial Maximum ice stream flowlines based**
228 **on Anderson et al (2014) and Rignot et al., (2011). e) BedMachine bed bathymetry and**
229 **bathymetry of the Ross Sea Embayment (Morlighem et al., 2020). LAB – Little America**
230 **Basin, WD – Wales Deep, GCB – Glomar Challenger Basin, PT – Pennell Trough, PB –**
231 **Pennell Bank JT – JOIDES Trough, DT – Drygalski Trough, RI – Roosevelt Island, NVL –**
232 **Northern Victoria Land, WIS – Whillans Ice Stream. f) Inset of Antarctica. Black box shows**
233 **extent of panels a-e.**

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235 **3.2 The impact of GIA on Grounding Line Stability from 20 ka to present-day**

236 Next, we quantify the impact of GIA on zones of potential stability. For each ice stream,
237 our ensemble analysis predicts the locations of potential stable grounding line positions for a given
238 bathymetry (20 ka and present-day) and set of parameter values. For example, Figure 2b shows
239 the reconstructed bathymetric transect corrected for GIA (Gom18–orange, W12–purple, Gol14–
240 red; Figure 2b) compared to the present-day bathymetry (black; Figure 2b) for the paleo-Whillans
241 ice stream (Fig. 2a). Locations with more zones of potential stability are stable across a wider
242 range of input parameter combinations, and therefore have a relatively higher likelihood of being
243 stable regardless of parameter uncertainty. The present-day bathymetry has the majority of zones
244 of potential stability located near the present-day grounding line (~750 km downstream; black;
245 Figure 2b), whereas each 20-ka bathymetry has the majority of zones of potential stability near the
246 continental shelf break (~1600 km downstream; orange, purple, and red; Figure 2b).

247 The shift of zones of potential stability across the deglaciation can be quantified by
248 calculating the percent change in the number of potential stable grounding lines within a given
249 reach of an ice stream transect from LGM to present-day. In Figure 2c-e we calculate the percent
250 change of zones of potential stability along eight flowlines divided into 50 km reaches, spanning
251 the Ross Sea Embayment from LGM to present-day, and find that zones of potential stability
252 decrease near the continental shelf break, and increases further upstream, similar to predictions for
253 the paleo-Whillans ice stream.



254

255 **Figure 2 | Changes in the density of potential zones of grounding line stability along a single**
 256 **flowline. a) Flowline path of the paleo-Whillans ice stream. b) Present-day bathymetry**
 257 **(black), and 20 ka GIA-corrected paleobathymetry for W12 (purple), Gol14 (red), and**
 258 **Gom18 (orange) along the paleo-Whillans ice stream flowline with corresponding histograms**
 259 **of simulated stable grounding line positions. Histograms and corresponding bathymetry**
 260 **share color. c-e) Percent change in the number of modeled potential stable grounding line**
 261 **from 20 ka (LGM) bathymetry to present-day bathymetry for Gol14 (c), W12 (d), and**
 262 **Gom18 (e) ice histories.**

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We then expand our potential stable grounding line analysis to all 147 ice stream flowlines. We bin potential stable grounding line zones into a 20 km x 20 km grid to create fields of zones of potential stability for present-day and 20 ka paleo-bathymetry and calculate the percent change of zones of potential stability from 20 ka to present-day (Figure 3). We generally find that, from 20 ka to present-day, there are less zones of potential stability near the edge of the continental shelf (these locations were more stable during the LGM; blue; Figure 3), and more zones of potential stability upstream, signifying these locations are more stable during present-day (red and cyan;



271 Figure 3). The pattern of offshore decrease in zones of potential stability is interspersed with
272 isolated regions of increased or minimal change in zones of potential stability, corresponding to
273 ridges separating the Little America Basin, Wales Deep, and Glomar Challenger Basin (LAB, WD,
274 GCB; Figure 4c; Figure 1e). The Gom18 model predicts slightly different patterns compared to
275 the Gol14 and W12 models, with the decrease in zones of potential stability extending further
276 upstream and a larger area of zones of potential stability increase near the JOIDES and Drygalski
277 troughs (JT, DT; Figure 1e) caused by the second center of maximum uplift.

278 There are two GIA mechanisms that cause the locations of zones of potential stability to
279 shift upstream over the last deglaciation: 1) sea-level fall caused by rebound of the solid Earth
280 under the locus of ice mass loss and 2) sea-level rise caused by far-field ice sheet melt (and
281 secondarily by the collapse of the Antarctica peripheral bulge). Isostatic rebound within the interior
282 of the Ross Sea Embayment shoals bathymetry, decreasing flux through the grounding line, thus
283 increasing the potential for a “steady-state” grounding line. Sea-level rise caused by far field ice
284 sheet melt and Antarctic peripheral bulge collapse causes increased grounding line flux, which
285 decreases the likelihood of a “steady state” grounding line position near the edge of the continental
286 shelf (Figure 3).

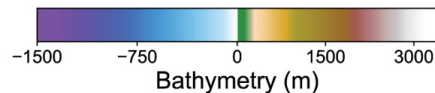
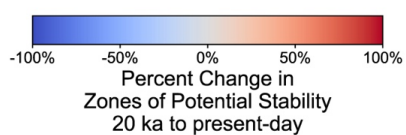
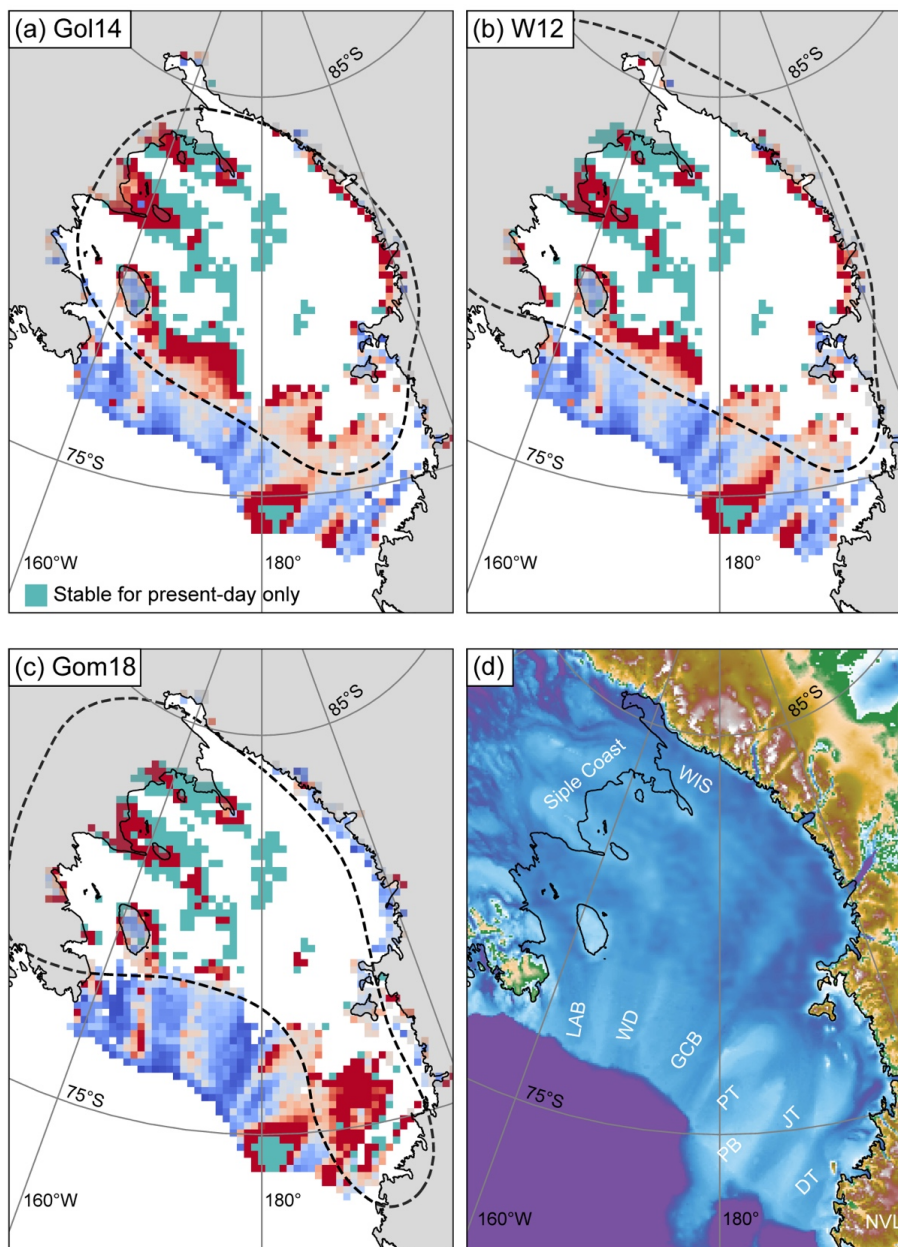
287 Together, these GIA mechanisms cause a net upstream migration of zones of potential stability;
288 however, this predicted upstream migration differs from GIA forcing a transient grounding line
289 retreat throughout the deglaciation, and instead provides a window into how GIA stabilizes the
290 grounding line at each time frame. During the LGM the grounding line was located near the edge
291 of the continental shelf, and at present-day the grounding line is located within the Ross Sea
292 Embayment interior. Our analysis shows that, when forced by GIA alone, the edge of the
293 continental shelf was more stable during the LGM (20 ka), and geologic records show that during
294 the LGM, the Ross Sea Embayment grounding line was located near the edge of the continental
295 shelf (Halberstadt et al., 2016; Prothro et al., 2020). Our analysis also shows that the interior of the
296 Ross Sea Embayment is more stable at present-day near locations of the present-day grounding
297 line. The co-occurrence of where GIA promotes stability within the Ross Sea Embayment with the
298 inferred location of the grounding line for both present-day and LGM, demonstrates that GIA
299 provides stability for the grounding line at both glacial maximum and interglacial climate states.

300 Near complete loss of zones of potential stability from 20 ka to present-day within the deep
301 submarine troughs of the Ross Sea Embayment suggest that far-field Northern Hemisphere ice-



302 sheet growth (and resulting global sea-level fall) is an important factor for stabilizing the LGM
303 grounding line at the continental shelf, therefore permitting larger LGM ice volume in the Ross
304 Sea Embayment (Supplementary Figure S3). Our finding, that zones of potential stability increase
305 at the Ross Sea Embayment LGM grounding line due to GIA, parallels the finding that far-field
306 ice-sheet retreat has an important feedback on Antarctic Ice Sheet deglaciation (Gomez et al.,
307 2020).

308 At present-day, GIA has caused the interior of the Ross Sea Embayment to rebound,
309 resulting in the emergence of zones of potential grounding line stability co-located with the
310 present-day grounding line. These zones of potential stability located near the present-day
311 grounding line are less prevalent at 20 ka due to isostatic depression, and predominately do not
312 emerge until the mid-Holocene (~5 ka; Supplementary Figure S4) for all ice histories, suggesting
313 that large magnitudes of isostatic rebound over a prolonged period (i.e., deglacial timescale)
314 provides stability at the present-day grounding line location.



LGM more stable ← Present-day more stable

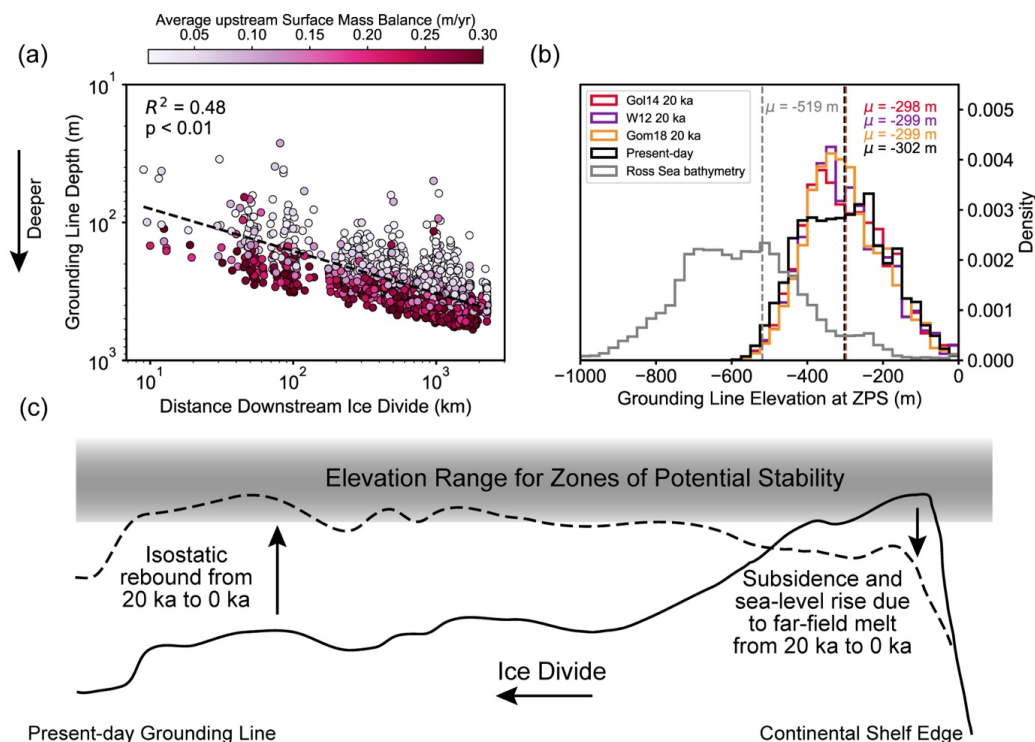


316 **Figure 3 | GIA-induced percent change in stable grounding line positions across 20 km x 20**
317 **km grid cells for entire Ross Sea Embayment based on glacial isostatic adjustment**
318 **simulations for a) Gol14, b) W12, and c) Gom18. Grid cells that have stable grounding line**
319 **positions in the present-day and no stable grounding line positions at 20 ka are marked in**
320 **teal. Thin black line is present-day day grounding line and dashed line is transition from sea-**
321 **level fall (within) to sea-level rise (outside). d) Bathymetry of Ross Sea Embayment**
322 **(Morlighem et al., 2020).**
323

324 **3.3 Characteristic Stable Grounding Line depth for the Ross Sea Embayment**

325 GIA moves zones of potential stability by modulating the bathymetry of the Ross Sea
326 Embayment. However, bathymetry is only one of the parameters that determines where grounding
327 line stability occurs. Grounding line stability is a function of surface mass balance (P), ice shelf
328 buttressing (Θ), basal friction (C), distance downstream from the ice divide (L), and ice thickness
329 at the grounding line (h_g). Therefore, for a given combination of input parameters (Table 1), there
330 is an ice thickness h_g (and corresponding grounding line depth) that produces a stable grounding
331 line position (Figure 4a and Figure S5). Our grounding line stability analysis shows that stable
332 grounding line depth is a function of the other input parameters (Figure 4a; Supplementary Figure
333 S5). For instance, distance downstream from the ice divide and average upstream surface mass
334 balance rate are both negatively correlated with grounding line depth (Figure 4a). Therefore, the
335 depths at which we predict stable grounding lines are a function of both the deglacial climate
336 system, and the geometry of the Antarctic Ice Sheet. As a result, the mean stable grounding line
337 depths for LGM paleo-bathymetry and present-day bathymetry are similar (Figure 4a). These mean
338 depths are significantly different from the bathymetry we input into the simple model of grounding
339 line stability (Figure 4, grey; T-test; $p_{\text{present-day}}$, p_{W12} , p_{Gol14} , $p_{\text{Gom18}} < 0.001$), showing that the depth
340 range at which our simple model finds stability depends on our input parameters and the ice
341 geometry of the Ross Sea Embayment. Therefore, we infer that zones of potential stability migrate
342 spatially due to GIA by causing bathymetry to be uplifted or subsided into and out of this
343 characteristic depth range (Figure 4c).

344



345

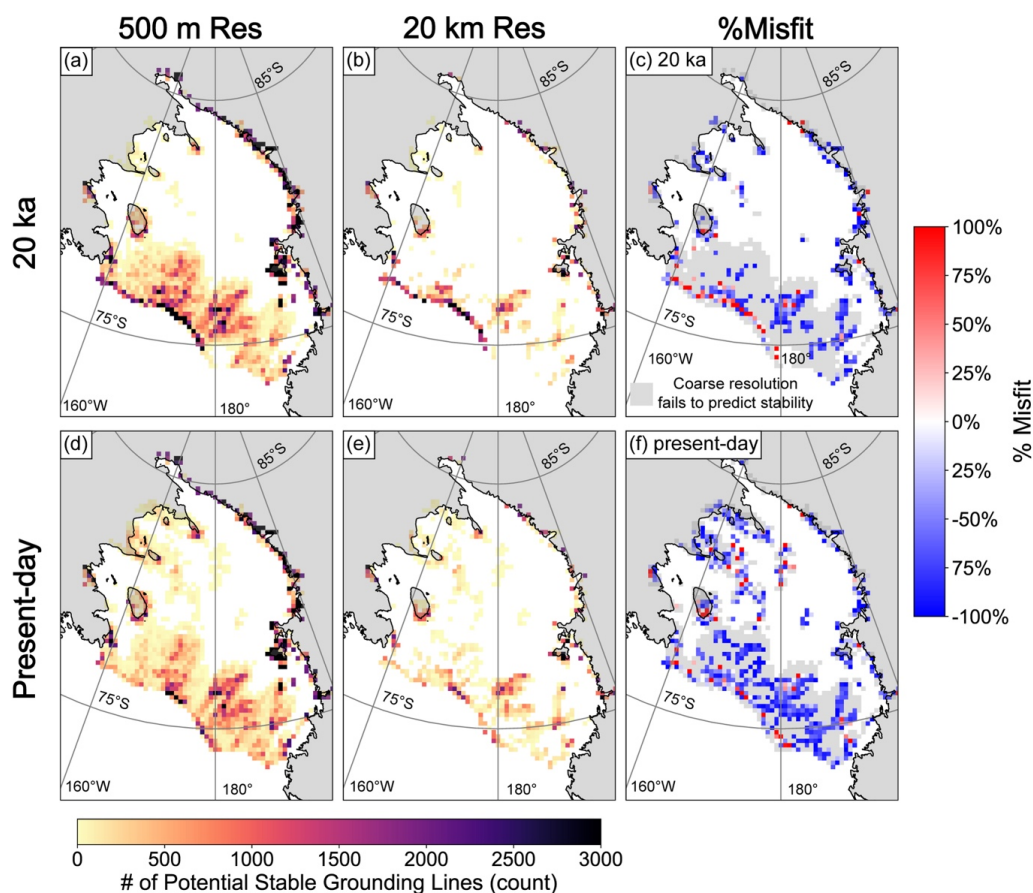
346 **Figure 4 | a) Average upstream surface mass balance at distance downstream of the ice divide**
 347 **and grounding line elevation for stable grounding line positions on present-day bathymetry.**
 348 **b) Histograms of elevations for the present-day Ross Sea Embayment bathymetry (grey),**
 349 **stable grounding line positions simulated over present-day bathymetry (black), and 20 ka**
 350 **paleobathymetry corrected for glacial isostatic adjustment based on the ice histories of Gol14**
 351 **(red), Gom18 (orange), and W12 (purple). c) Schematic illustrating how glacial isostatic**
 352 **adjustment moves bathymetry into and out of potential stable grounding line elevations.**
 353

354 **3.4 Influence of grid resolution on predicted zones of potential stability**

355 Coupled ice sheet-GIA models often use grid resolutions of 20-40 km (van Calcar et al.,
 356 2023; Gomez et al., 2018, 2020; Lowry et al., 2024) to reduce computational costs, however these
 357 grid resolutions do not resolve smaller-scale bathymetric features. To explore the effects of grid
 358 resolution, we use high resolution (500 m; Morlighem et al., 2020) bathymetry and resample to
 359 coarser resolution (20 km), comparing how predicted zones of potential stability vary across the
 360 Ross Sea (Fig. 5). Some of the datasets constraining bathymetry in the Ross Sea Embayment are
 361 gravity-based, and therefore have a true resolution coarser than the 500 m output resolution of
 362 BedMachine. Nonetheless, we decide to treat BedMachine as a 500 m resolution in the Ross Sea
 363 Embayment to explore the potential impacts of grid resolution. We predict fewer zones of potential



364 stability across the Ross Sea Embayment at LGM and present-day when using the coarse grid
 365 resolution (20 km; Fig. 5b/c). Predictions with coarse resolution bathymetry largely fail to produce
 366 zones of potential stability near the edge of the continental shelf (Fig. 5c). Furthermore, the coarse
 367 resolution prediction fails to predict zones of potential stability near the present-day grounding
 368 line on the present-day bathymetry (Fig. 5f).

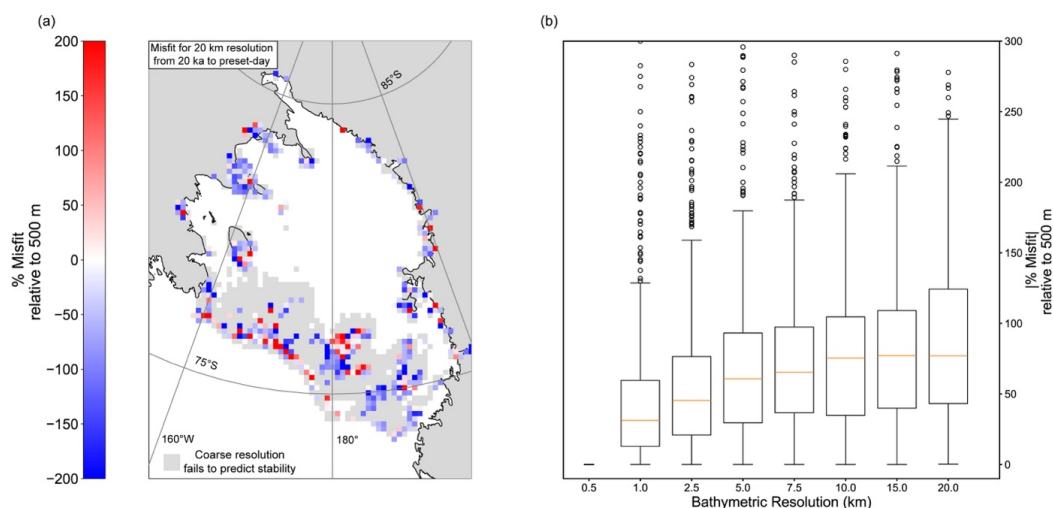


369

370 **Figure 5 | Density of stable grounding line positions for Gom18 Last Glacial Maximum (20**
 371 **ka) (top row), Present-day (bottom row) for high resolution (50m; a/d) and low resolution**
 372 **(20 km; b/e) Percent misfit for 20 ka (c) and present-day (f), defined as difference of stable**
 373 **grounding line positions calculated using high resolution and coarse resolution bathymetry**
 374 **divided by stable grounding line positions calculated using high resolution bathymetry**
 375 $\left(\frac{ZPS_{500m} - ZPS_{20km}}{ZPS_{500m}}\right)$.
 376



377 Since coarse grid resolution leads to an underprediction of zones of potential stability for
378 LGM and present-day bathymetry, coarse grid resolution will also underpredict how GIA migrates
379 zones of potential stability across the deglaciation. We quantify how coarse grid resolution
380 underpredicts the impact of GIA by calculating the change in zones of potential stability from
381 LGM to present-day (Fig. 3), but with coarser grid bathymetric resolution (20 km). Figure 6a
382 shows the percent misfit for change in zones of potential stability of 20 km resolution compared
383 to 500 m resolution. We find that the coarse resolution bathymetry underpredicts the impacts of
384 GIA near the present-day grounding line (blue; Fig 6a) and fails to capture the impact of GIA
385 within most of the deep submarine troughs (grey; Fig 6a), suggesting that high resolution
386 bathymetry may be necessary to fully recognize the role of GIA in potential retreat and readvance
387 scenarios in the Ross Sea Embayment (Balco et al., 2023; Kingslake et al., 2018; Lowry et al.,
388 2024; Neuhaus et al., 2021; Venturelli et al., 2020). We also vary the coarseness of the grid
389 resolution and find a logarithmic relationship between bed resolution and percent misfit (compared
390 to 500 m bed resolution), highlighting the fact that understanding GIA and bathymetry interactions
391 requires a fine grid resolution. The importance of bed resolution is, in part, due to the broad scale
392 slope of the Ross Sea Embayment bathymetry, which is retrograde, and therefore a fine grid
393 resolution is needed to resolve small-scale bathymetric pinning points, which provide shallower
394 bathymetry that is more likely to be stable due to its shallow depth in addition to providing local
395 prograde slopes that are required to meet the second stability condition (Equation 5). Based on our
396 misfit analysis, resolving these pinning points requires a resolution on the kilometer to sub-
397 kilometer length scale (Fig. 6b).



398

399 **Figure 6 | a) Quantification of how 20 km resolution bathymetric resolution underpredicts**
400 **grounding line stability from 20 ka to present-day. Percent misfit defined as difference of**
401 **stable grounding line positions calculated using high resolution and coarse resolution**
402 **bathymetry divided by stable grounding line positions calculated using high resolution**
403 **bathymetry $\left(\frac{ZPS_{500m} - ZPS_{20km}}{ZPS_{500m}}\right)$. b) Magnitude of percent misfit between zones of potential**
404 **stability calculated with 500 m resolution bathymetry and coarser bathymetry resolutions.**

406 3.5 Comparisons with the Geologic Record of Grounding Line Retreat

407 The Ross Sea Embayment geologic record suggests a complex pattern of asynchronous retreat
408 over the last deglaciation. In the western Ross Sea Embayment, retreat began in the Pennell Trough
409 (PT; Fig. 1e) at ~15 ka and in the JOIDES Trough (JT; Fig. 1e) at ~13 ka (Prothro et al., 2020).
410 Meanwhile, in the eastern Ross Sea Embayment, small-scale retreat in Wales Deep (WD Fig. 1e)
411 also began at ~15 ka and increased during the early Holocene (Bart et al., 2018). Across the west
412 and east Ross Sea Embayment, the ice sheet remained grounded to the trough banks, as the ice
413 sheet retreated through submarine troughs, forming embayments (Halberstadt et al., 2016). The
414 grounding line then retreated throughout the Holocene (Bart et al., 2018; Halberstadt et al., 2016;
415 Prothro et al., 2020). Prior to ~8.6 ka, ice streams offshore Northern Victoria Land underwent
416 reorganization (Greenwood et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017). It is possible that local GIA uplift played
417 a role in this reorganization (Figure 1c) as ~60 m of uplift occurred in this region from the LGM
418 to the early Holocene (Figure S6).



419 A common pattern across ice sheet histories is a decrease in zones of potential stability within
420 the deep submarine troughs near the edge of the continent shelf (Figure 3), which occurs due to
421 sea-level rise driven by far-field ice-sheet melt. The ridges separating the submarine troughs are
422 shallow enough to stabilize the grounding line, despite relative sea-level rise during the
423 deglaciation (Figure 4c), which prevents a decrease in zones of potential stability along these
424 ridges. In the geologic record geomorphic features suggests that the grounding line back-steps up
425 these banks throughout the deglaciation (Halberstadt et al., 2016). Part of this back-stepping may
426 be caused by far-field sea-level rise, forcing the grounding line to backstep up the bank to shallower
427 depths, in addition to other drivers of retreat, such as ocean forcing.

428 **4. Conclusion**

429 Over the deglaciation, the Ross Sea Embayment experienced sea-level fall within its interior due
430 to glacial isostatic rebound, and sea-level rise near the edge of the continental shelf due to far field
431 sea-level rise, and secondarily due to peripheral bulge collapse. We use a simple model of
432 grounding line stability to show that glacial isostatic adjustment promotes grounding line stability
433 near the edge of the continental shelf at the Last Glacial Maximum and near the present-day
434 grounding line at the present-day, resulting in a net upstream migration of zones of potential
435 stability across the deglaciation. We also show that coarse bathymetric resolution causes an
436 underprediction of grounding line stability near the present-day grounding line and within the deep
437 submarine troughs of the Ross Sea, and thereby underpredicts the impact of glacial isostatic
438 adjustment on grounding line stability at these locations. This finding highlights the importance of
439 bathymetric resolution when modeling deglacial and potential grounding line re-advance scenarios
440 in the Holocene. Given the potential importance of small-scale bathymetric features in grounding
441 line stability within the Ross Sea Embayment, future work coupling a high-resolution regional ice
442 sheet model with a glacial isostatic adjustment model may provide insight into the role of glacial
443 isostatic adjustment and bathymetry in the Holocene retreat and readvance of the West Antarctic
444 Ice Sheet in the Ross Sea Embayment. In this study we have shown that, in addition to influencing
445 transient grounding line retreat, glacial isostatic adjustment can promote stability across longer ice
446 age timescales by shifting zones of potential stability between the Last Glacial Maximum and
447 present-day ice sheet grounding zones. Our results highlight the role of topography, as modulated
448 by solid Earth processes, in shaping the history of ice sheet advance and retreat on glacial-
449 interglacial timescales.



450

451 **5. Author contribution**

452 Conceptualization – STK, TP, JG, ST, EP

453 Investigation – STK, TP, AAR, JEC, NG, CV

454 Formal Analysis – STK, JEC

455 Methodology – STK, TP, AAR, JEC, NG

456 Project Administration – TP, TB

457 Writing (original draft) – STK

458 Writing (review & editing) – STK, TP, AAR, NG, JEC, CV, EP, JG, ST, TB

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461 **7. Competing interests**

462 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

463

464

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