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2 **Mechanisms and impacts of extreme high-salinity shelf water formation in the Ross Sea**

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23



24 **Abstract**

25 High-salinity shelf water (HSSW) acts as a precursor to the Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) and plays a
26 critical role in regulating the global ocean circulation system. This study employs a high-resolution coupled
27 ocean-sea ice-ice shelf model to analyze the interannual variation in HSSW formation in the Ross Sea,
28 which is one of the major production sites of HSSW. We are particularly focused on anomalously high
29 HSSW production during the winter of 2007. The results indicate that in this winter, there were frequent
30 passages of synoptic-scale cyclones that are centered near the front of the Ross Ice Shelf. The western
31 flanks of these cyclones significantly enhanced offshore winds over the western Ross Ice Shelf polynya, a
32 major origin site of HSSW in the Ross Sea, leading to a sharp increase in ice production within this polynya.
33 The HSSW formation resulting from brine rejection during ice freezing reached the highest volume of
34 16,000 km³ in 2007. However, salinity and density of the Ross Sea during this period exhibited unexpected
35 low values. Such inconsistency was due to a rapid increase in ice shelf melting over the Amundsen Sea and
36 Ross Seas during 2006–2007, with annual cumulative melt rates reaching the peak in recent decades.
37 Meanwhile, the resulting large amount of meltwater was transported westward into the Ross Sea by notably
38 strong slope and coastal currents in 2007, leading to large fluxes of freshwater flux into the Ross Sea. The
39 interaction between enhanced HSSW formation driven by ice production and the large influx of meltwater
40 highlights the complex dynamics that shape hydrographic variability in the Ross Sea.

41



42 **1 Introduction**

43 High-salinity shelf water (HSSW), a precursor to the Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), is predominantly
44 formed in Antarctic coastal polynyas, which are regions of persistent open water bordered by sea ice along
45 the coastline. These polynyas are largely driven by katabatic and synoptic offshore winds (Bromwich et al.,
46 1998; Massom et al., 1998; Morales Maqueda et al., 2004; Weber et al. 2016; Wenta and Cassano, 2020),
47 which enhance air-sea heat exchange, expand polynya size, and increase sea ice production (SIP) as wind
48 speed rises. During the freezing seasons, the continuous sea ice formation and associated brine rejection in
49 coastal polynyas lead to the formation of HSSW. When HSSW mixes with relatively warmer water masses,
50 such as the Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) and ice shelf meltwater (ISW), the resulting water mass can
51 cross the continental slope and sink to the deep ocean, ultimately forming AABW (Comiso and Gordon,
52 1998; Ohshima et al., 2013; Whitworth et al., 2013). As the lower limb of the global overturning circulation,
53 AABW plays a crucial role in regulating the oceanic heat storage capacity and the pathways of carbon
54 sequestration in the Southern Ocean and the world ocean (Arrigo et al., 2008; Gruber et al., 2019; Murakami
55 et al., 2020; Li et al., 2023).

56

57 The Ross Sea (Fig. 1a) is a primary region for the formation of AABW (Gordon et al., 2009), with a
58 production rate accounting for approximately 20–40% of the total (Meredith, 2013; Solodoch et al., 2022).
59 AABW in the Ross Sea primarily originates from two typical coastal polynyas: the Terra Nova Bay Polynya
60 (TNBP) in the western Ross Sea and the Ross Ice Shelf Polynya (RISP) (Fig. 1b); the latter has the highest
61 ice production among all Antarctic coastal polynyas (Tamura et al., 2016) and is the focused region of this
62 study. The western side of RISP serves as the primary site for HSSW formation, while the eastern side,
63 significantly influenced by the fresh ISW, is less favorable for the formation of high-salinity HSSW (Smith
64 et al., 2012; Yan et al., 2023). Previous studies revealed the formation and characteristics of HSSW and
65 AABW in the Ross Sea on synoptic to interannual time scales as well as long-term trends, demonstrating
66 the roles of atmospheric circulations, sea ice production and freshwater input. At the synoptic scale, strong
67 wind events driven by cyclones or katabatic winds play a critical role in shaping the polynya dynamics and
68 extent. Numerous studies have identified strong correlations between wind speed and sea ice
69 concentration/production in the polynyas (Bromwich et al., 1998; Dale et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2019;
70 Ding et al., 2020; Wenta and Cassano, 2020); the variability of sea ice production further influences ocean
71 convection, the HSSW formation (Thompson et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021) and its subsequent transport
72 (Wang et al., 2023). On the seasonal scale, based on mooring datasets and numerical simulations,
73 significant HSSW production starts in July and lasts until October (Mathiot et al., 2012; Rusciano et al.,



74 2013; Yan et al., 2023). For the long-term trend, observations show a dramatic decline in the HSSW salinity
75 over recent decades, attributed to increased transport of ISW from the Amundsen Sea to the Ross Sea
76 (Jacobs et al., 2022), though such trend has been found to be reversed in recent years (Castagno et al., 2019;
77 Silvano et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2021). Up until now, there have been no studies focusing on extreme HSSW
78 production events, which can make significant contributions to the HSSW volume and subsequently the
79 AABW production. In this study, by examining the distinct variations in HSSW formation from 2003 to
80 2019, we aim to elucidate the underlying physical processes driving anomalously high HSSW production
81 in the austral winter of 2007. A high-resolution coupled ocean-sea ice-ice shelf model covering the Ross
82 Sea and the Amundsen Sea, which effectively simulates the observed temporal variability of HSSW, is
83 employed to perform such investigations. Bottom salinity and density fields in the Ross Sea are also
84 analyzed, the variations of which suggest the combined effects of HSSW production and freshwater input.
85 The manuscript is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the numerical model, observational data, model
86 validation, and analysis methods. Section 3 presents results on the atmospheric drivers of SIP and their
87 influence on HSSW formation, as well as the impacts of meltwater transport from the Amundsen Sea.
88 Section 4 discusses the relationships between large-scale atmospheric modes and HSSW variability.
89 Section 5 provides the conclusions.

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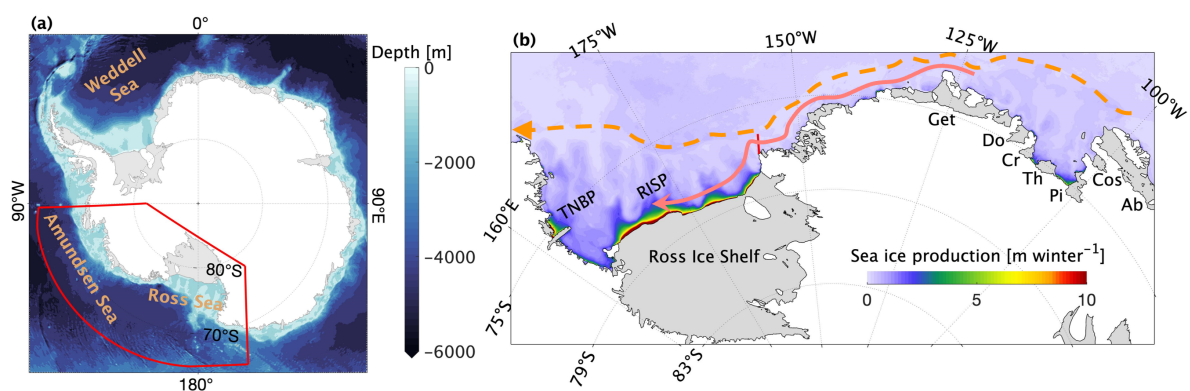
91 **2 Date and Methods**

92 2.1 Model data description

93 This study utilizes a high-resolution Ross-Amundsen Sea ocean-sea ice-ice shelf model (RAISE, Zhang et
94 al., 2024b) developed based on the Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS v3.6), a primitive-equation,
95 free-surface, terrain-following coordinate model (Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2009). ROMS is coupled
96 with a dynamic sea ice model (Budgell, 2005) employing elastic-viscous-plastic (EVP) rheology (Hunke
97 and Dukowicz, 1997; Hunke, 2001) which includes two-layer ice thermodynamics with snow as an
98 insulating layer following Mellor and Kantha (1989) and Häkkinen and Mellor (1992). This configuration
99 effectively simulates sea ice characteristics in polar regions around the Antarctic including the Ross Sea
100 (Stern et al., 2013; Dinniman et al., 2011, 2015). The ice shelves are modeled as static, without mass
101 variation or iceberg calving, and a three-equation parameterization scheme is employed to represent the
102 thermodynamic and mechanical effects of the ice shelf-water interactions (Holland and Jenkins, 1999;
103 Dinniman et al., 2011).



104 The model domain spans approximately 85.6°S to 64.2°S and 143.0°E to 89.9°W (Fig. 1a), including the
105 Ross Sea and Amundsen Sea, along with the floating ice shelves. The horizontal resolution varies from 2–
106 4 km along the continental shelf to 3–6 km in the open ocean, permitting mesoscale eddies on the
107 continental shelf and slope but is not fully eddy-resolving (Hallberg, 2013; Stewart and Thompson, 2015;
108 St-Laurent et al., 2013). In the vertical dimension, the model comprises 32 terrain-following levels, which
109 provide higher resolution data in the near-surface and bottom layers. The bathymetry and ice shelf
110 topography are derived from MEASUREs BedMachine Antarctica, Version 2 (Morlighem et al., 2020).
111 ROMS calculates the momentum, heat, and freshwater (imposed as a salt flux) fluxes in the open ocean
112 using the COARE version 3.0 bulk flux formulae (Fairall et al., 2003). The vertical momentum and mixing
113 are calculated using the K-profile parameterization scheme (Large et al., 1994). The initial temperature and
114 salinity conditions derive from a 10-km circum-Antarctic ocean–sea ice–ice shelf model (Dinniman et al.,
115 2015). Boundary conditions for temperature, salinity, sea surface height, and depth-averaged velocities are
116 sourced from the Met Office Global Seasonal Forecasting System version 5 (GloSea5) (Maclachlan et al.,
117 2015), while sea ice concentration data is incorporated from multiple satellite products including the
118 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer-Earth Observing System (AMSR-E), Special Sensor
119 Microwave Imager/Sounder (SMMI/S) and Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer 2 (AMSR-2)
120 based on their availability during different time periods. Tidal forcing, based on TPXO-9, includes 15 major
121 tidal constituents (Egbert and Erofeeva, 2002) and is applied at the open boundaries through sea surface
122 height and barotropic currents. Atmospheric forcing fields utilized in this model are obtained from the
123 ERA5 reanalysis product, including 3-hourly surface wind and air temperature, along with daily sea level
124 pressure, precipitation, humidity and cloud cover (Hersbach et al., 2020) produced by the European Centre
125 for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). The model simulation spans from 2003 to 2019 after a
126 5-yr spin-up simulation, and the model results are output as 5-day-average fields.



127



128 **Figure 1.** Geographic maps of **(a)** the Southern Ocean south of 60°S and **(b)** the Ross Sea and Amundsen
129 Sea. Areas in white show continental surfaces, and areas in light grey indicate ice shelves. The color scale
130 indicates accumulated sea ice production over the austral winter, averaged from 2003–2019 based on the
131 model simulations. In panel (a), the model domain is shown by the solid red box. In panel (b), the dashed
132 yellow line indicates the Antarctic slope current, the solid pink line indicates the coastal current, and the
133 red line between the Ross Sea and the Amundsen Sea indicates the selected transect used to calculate the
134 freshwater transport. RISP represents the Ross Ice Shelf Polynya and TNBP indicates the Terra Nova Bay
135 Polynya. The labeled local ice shelves are: Abbot Ice Shelf (Ab), Cosgrove Ice Shelf (Cos), Pine Island Ice
136 Shelf (Pi), Thwaites Ice Shelf (Th), Crosson Ice Shelf (Cr), Dotson Ice Shelf (Do), and Getz Ice Shelf (Get).
137

138 2.2 Model validation

139 A comprehensive validation of the RAISE model is presented by Zhang et al. (2024b), demonstrating its
140 capacity to effectively capture the temporal and spatial variability of sea ice production in polynyas and the
141 hydrographic properties of HSSW in the Ross Sea. With regard to sea ice area (SIA), a comparison with
142 the AMSR-E/AMSR2 datasets indicates that the simulated temporal variability of SIA is highly correlated
143 with that of observed dataset ($R = 0.91$, $P < 0.001$), though SIA is typically underestimated in the model.
144 The model effectively captures the interannual variations of accumulative SIP in the Ross Sea polynyas,
145 with correlations between the modeled and satellite-retrieved SIP reaching 0.62 for the Terra Nova Bay
146 polynya (Zhang et al., 2024b) and 0.64 for the western RISP (i.e. the major HSSW formation site over the
147 entire RISP, Fig. 2) at the 95% confidence level. The satellite-retrieved SIP dataset is available from the
148 Institute of Low Temperature Science at Hokkaido University
149 (http://www.lowtem.hokudai.ac.jp/wwwod/polar-seaflux/southern_ocean_new/AMSR-POLAR/).

150

151 The performance of the RAISE model in simulating the hydrographic properties and water masses in the
152 Ross Sea was evaluated using temperature-salinity (T-S) diagrams and vertical transect patterns from the
153 World Ocean Database (WOD) and the Marine Mammals Exploring the Oceans Pole to Pole (MEOP) seal-
154 tag CTD observations (Zhang et al. 2024b). The model accurately reproduces the key water masses present
155 in the region, including the HSSW, CDW, and ISW. Furthermore, the model exhibits a high degree of
156 accuracy in reproducing the temporal variability of HSSW density and salinity over the Ross Sea. A
157 comparison of the model output with mooring data from the Italian MORSea and U.S. CALM projects
158 revealed significant correlations between the variations of modeled and observed HSSW density in the
159 Terra Nova Bay polynya and on the western Ross Sea slope. More details of the model validation are



160 referred to Zhang et al. (2024b). Meanwhile, the simulated ice shelf melt rates for the Amundsen Sea and
161 Ross Sea show good agreement with observation-based estimates (Xie et al., 2024).

162

163 2.3 Methods

164 The HSSW is defined as the water mass with neutral density (γ^n) $> 28.27 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$, practical salinity (S) $>$
165 34.62 and potential temperature (θ) $< -1.85^\circ\text{C}$ (Orsi and Wiederwohl, 2009; Castagno et al., 2019). The
166 area for calculating the HSSW volume extends to the base of the Ross Ice Shelf, as Assmann et al. (2003)
167 and Budillon et al. (2003) demonstrated the existence of a southerly flow on the western side of the Ross
168 Sea, transporting HSSW to the base of the ice shelf. This flow can advect more than 10% of HSSW to the
169 southern part of RIS and intensify continuously over winter (Jendersie et al., 2018).

170

171 Cyclone tracking was conducted using the University of Melbourne Automatic Cyclone Tracking Scheme
172 (Murray and Simmonds, 1991), which is based on the ERA5 reanalysis product from 2003 to 2019. The
173 optimal parameters for this scheme, including the horizontal air pressure field smoothing parameter, the
174 radius for calculating Laplacian pressure, and the maximum topographic height employed for cyclone
175 detection, were derived from the values established by Uotila et al. (2009). The identified cyclones were
176 characterized by a number of properties, including their locations, lifetimes, mean radii, and additional
177 characteristics. Cyclones were selected based on specific criteria: a lifetime exceeding 12 hours and a
178 distance greater than 1,000 km between the first and last detected locations. Such criteria can exclude
179 certain detected but unrealistic cyclones (Uotila et al., 2011). The region south of 42°S was divided into
180 720 sectors, each encompassing 4° in latitude and 6° in longitude. The number of cyclone tracks per sector
181 was calculated for the period from 2003 to 2019, following the definitions proposed by Uotila et al. (2013).

182

183 The transport of meltwater discharged from ice shelves is quantified by calculating the specific freshwater
184 transport across a designated meridional transect at the boundary between the Ross and Amundsen Seas
185 (Figure 1b). Following Li et al. (2021), the advective freshwater transport across the boundaries is
186 calculated as follows:

$$187 \quad Q_{fw} = \iint \mathbf{u} F^{fw} dz dl, \quad (1)$$

188 where \mathbf{u} represents the horizontal velocity vector (u, v), and F^{fw} is freshwater content. F^{fw} is derived from
189 Brown and Irish (1993) as follows:



190
$$Ffw = \frac{S_{ref} - S}{S_{ref}}, \quad (2)$$

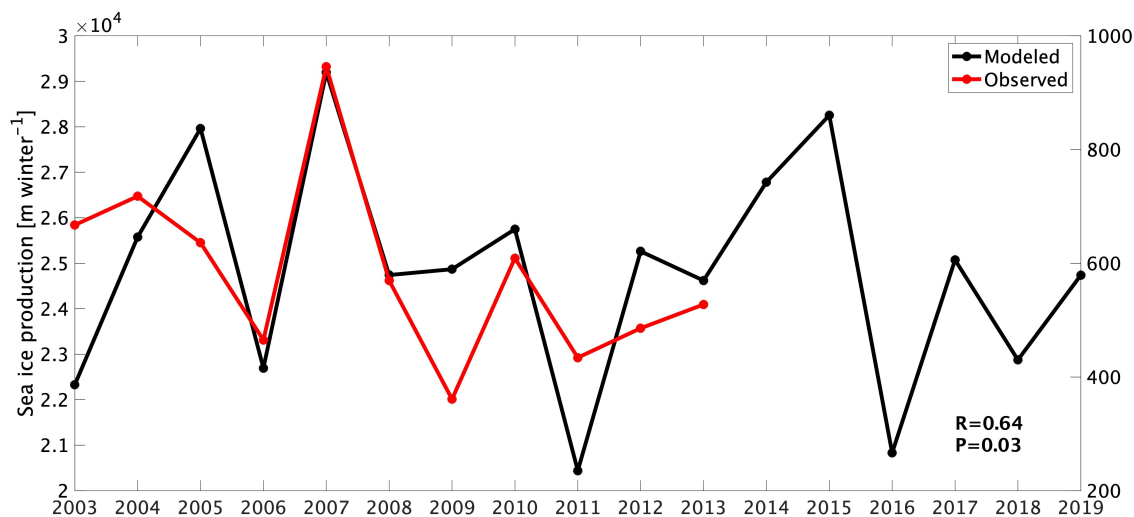
191 with S as the salinity and S_{ref} set to 34.9 PSU as a reference, which is the maximum salinity observed in
 192 the Ross Sea. This approach quantifies the freshwater input by combining spatially integrated velocity and
 193 salinity contrasts, offering insights into the transport dynamics of meltwater across defined oceanic
 194 boundaries.

195

196 3 Results

197 3.1 Sea ice production and the related atmospheric drivers

198 Sea ice production in the coastal polynya is the determinate factor for HSSW formation. From 2003 to 2019,
 199 modeled cumulative ice production over the RISP during austral winter exhibited a pronounced peak in
 200 2007 (Fig. 2). Satellite-derived ice production data from 2003 to 2013 also show the maximum value in
 201 2007.



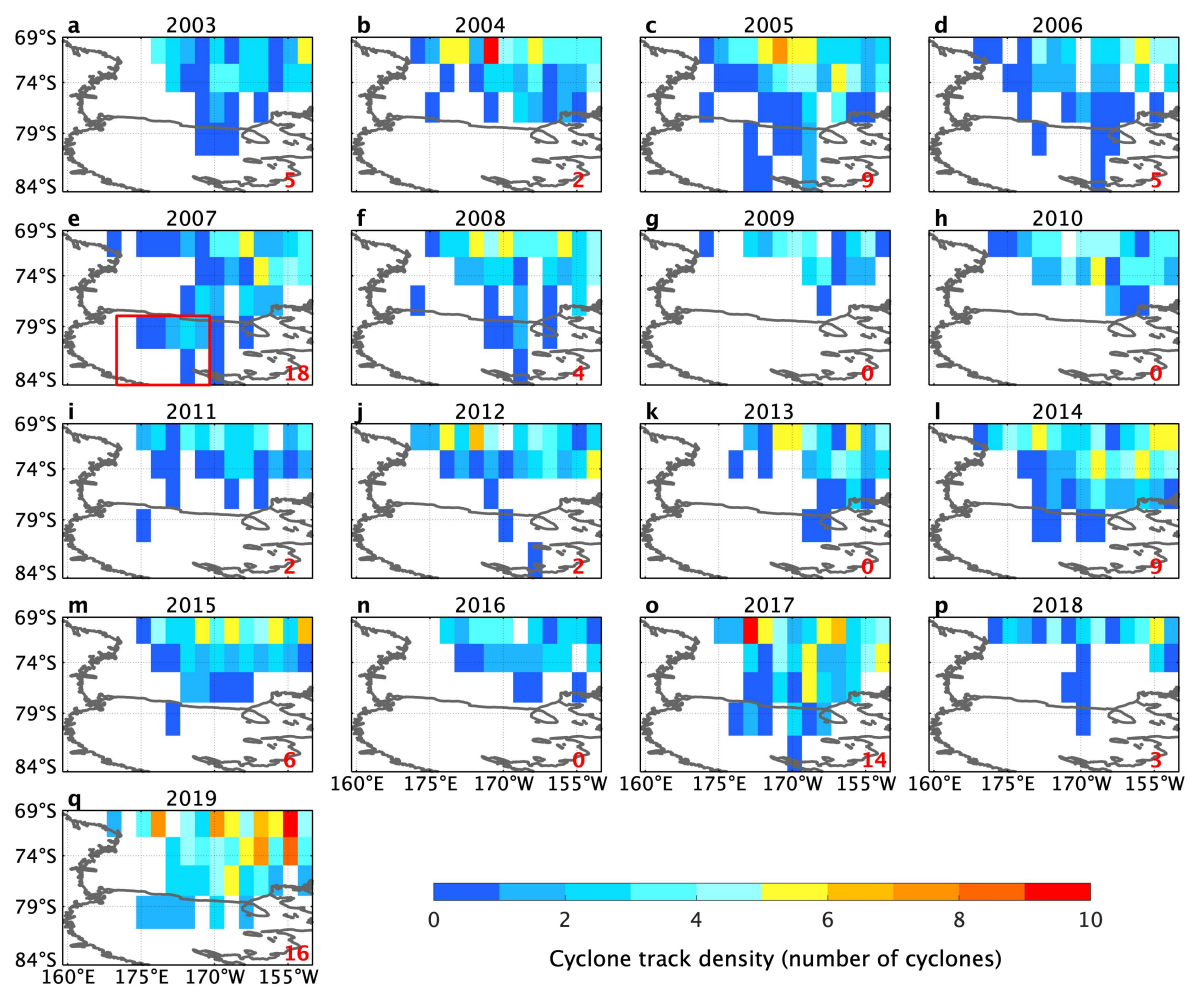
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203 **Figure 2.** Time series of observed (red line; 2003–2013) and modeled (black line; 2003–2019) polynya-
 204 averaged sea ice production (SIP) during austral winter (June–August) for the western Ross Ice Shelf
 205 Polynya (left y-axis: modeled SIP, right y-axis: observed SIP). The correlation coefficient between the
 206 observed and modeled SIP is 0.64 ($P = 0.03$).

207



208 To better understand the drivers behind the exceptionally high ice production in 2007, statistical analysis
 209 of cyclones over the Ross Sea and surrounding regions was performed using the cyclone tracking scheme.
 210 The spatial distribution of winter cyclone track density (Fig. 3) reveals that most cyclone centers are
 211 concentrated north and east of the Ross Sea, with relatively few or no cyclones observed over the Ross Ice
 212 Shelf, particularly between 79° and 84°S. However, in several years such as 2005, 2007, 2017 and 2019,
 213 relatively high frequency of cyclones was recorded over the Ross Ice Shelf (Figs. 3c, e, o, q). Among these
 214 years, 2007 stands out as the year with the highest cumulative cyclone track density, reaching
 215 approximately 18 months (Fig. 3e).



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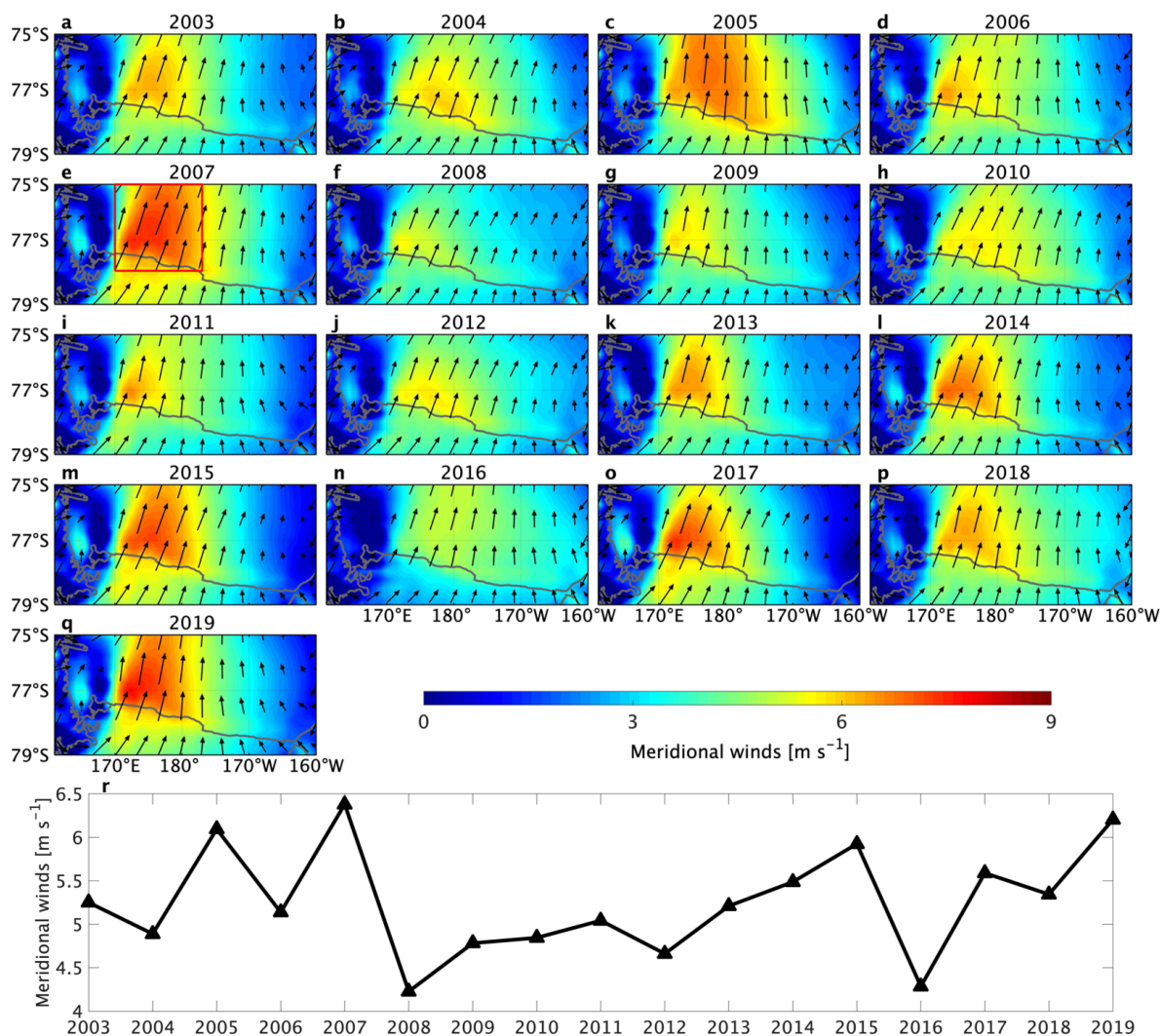
217 **Figure 3. (a–q)** Austral winter track densities (the number of tracks per section) of cyclones in the Ross
 218 Sea from 2003–2019. The red box on the Ross Ice Shelf in (e) represents the spatial extent over which the



219 accumulated track density is calculated, and the numbers in the lower right corner indicate the density value
220 calculated based on this box.

221

222 The frequent passage of cyclones centered near and over the Ross Ice Shelf significantly impacts the local
223 wind field. The western branches of these cyclones enhance offshore winds over the western RISP, resulting
224 in intensified meridional wind speeds (Fig. 4). In 2007, the aggregation of cyclones in this region (Fig. 3e)
225 led to pronounced increases in offshore winds (Fig. 4e). The spatial distribution of meridional wind speed
226 for multiple years further highlights that, in 2007, offshore winds over the western RISP were the strongest,
227 reaching approximately 9 m s^{-1} (Fig. 4e). Additionally, the area with offshore wind speeds exceeding 5 m
228 s^{-1} extended farther eastward compared to other years, reaching approximately 175°W (Fig. 4e). Fig. 4r
229 highlights that the spatially averaged meridional wind speed on the western side of the Ross Sea (red box
230 shown in Fig. 4e) in 2007 was approximately 6.5 m s^{-1} , the highest among the analyzed years. Additionally,
231 other years with elevated cyclone track densities, such as 2005, 2017, and 2019 (Figs. 3c, o, q) also
232 exhibited relatively strong offshore winds (Figs. 4c, o, q), with average wind nearing 6 m s^{-1} (Fig. 4r). This
233 intensification of offshore winds in winter of 2007 drives the record-high SIP in the RISP during this year
234 (Fig. 2). Similarly, the relatively strong offshore wind speeds in 2005, 2017 and 2019 also contributed to
235 notable increases in SIP in these years (Fig. 2).



236

237 **Figure 4.** (a–q) Spatial distributions of winter-averaged 10-m meridional wind speed (colored shading)
 238 and 10 m wind vectors (black arrows) in the Ross Sea over 2003–2019. (r) Time series of spatially averaged
 239 meridional wind speed over the western Ross Sea (red box in panel e).

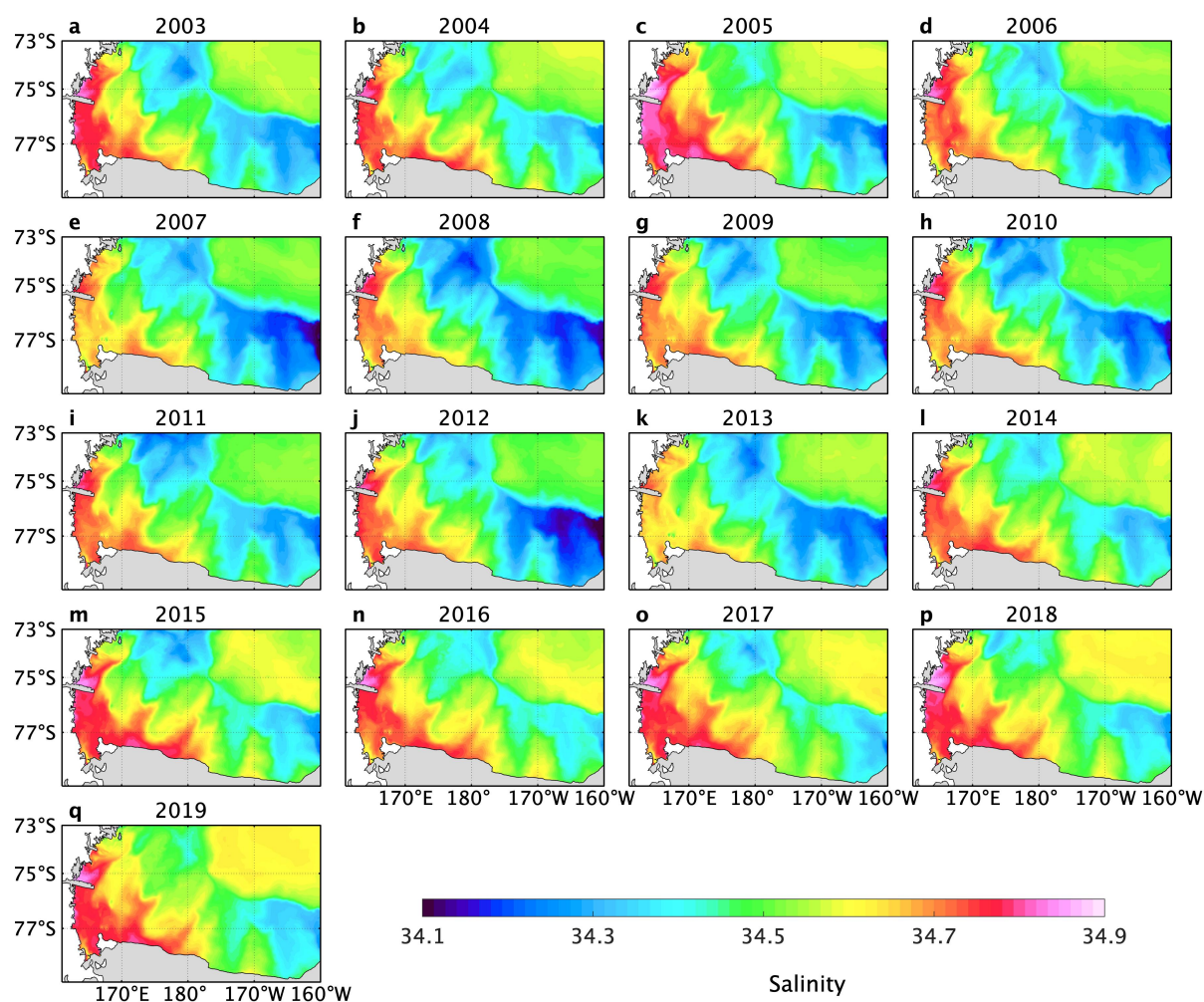
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241 3.2 Hydrographic properties and HSSW formation

242 The brine rejection process associated with sea ice formation in polynya regions directly affects the salinity
 243 of the surrounding area. To understand the influence of SIP on the hydrographic characteristics of the Ross
 244 Sea, the spatial distribution of winter-averaged salinity from 2003 to 2019 was analyzed firstly (Fig. 5).
 245 Typically, regions of high SIP, such as the RISP, are expected to exhibit higher salinity levels due to



246 enhanced brine rejection. However, contrary to the expectations, salinity values in the western Ross Sea in
 247 2007 were not high, ranging between 34.5–34.7 (Fig. 5e). These salinity levels were lower than those
 248 recorded in other years with moderate SIP, such as 2005, 2017 and 2019, where salinity reached 34.8–34.9
 249 (Fig. 5c, o, q). Similarly, hydrographic properties representing water masses, such as potential density and
 250 neutral density, also showed lower values in 2007 (not shown). These findings indicate that the
 251 hydrographic characteristics in 2007 do not align with the anticipated impacts of the highest SIP occurring
 252 in this year, suggesting the presence of other factors influencing the salinity and density in the Ross Sea.
 253 These processes will be discussed in Section 3.3.



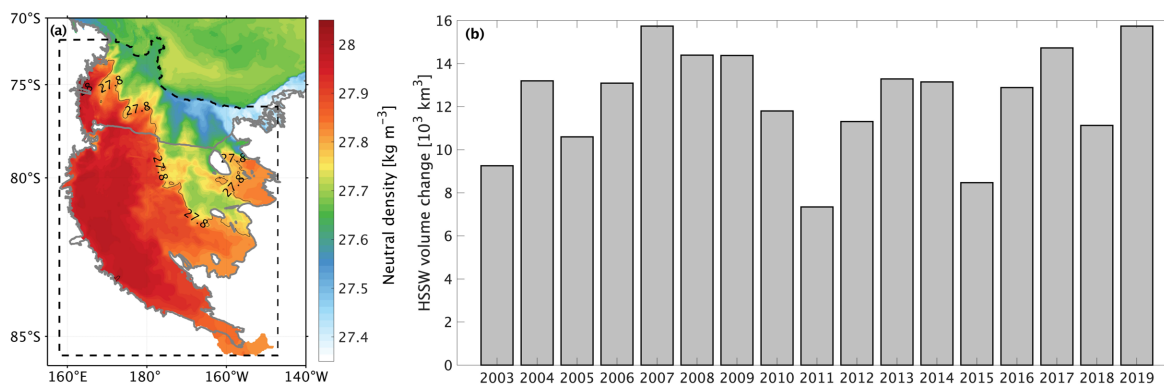
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255 **Figure 5.** (a–q) Spatial distributions of depth-averaged winter salinity in the Ross Sea over 2003–2019.

256



257 Salinity is not a precise indicator for quantifying the volume of HSSW formed, therefore the following
 258 analysis is instead focused on changes in HSSW volume itself, which can better represent the net production
 259 of HSSW. The HSSW volume change in the Ross Sea from 2003 to 2019 is shown in Fig. 6. As mentioned
 260 in Section 2.3, the calculation included the region beneath the ice shelf, as indicated by the dashed box in
 261 Fig. 6a, where a southward flow on the western side of the Ross Sea can facilitate the transport of newly
 262 formed HSSW (Assmann et al., 2003; Budillon et al., 2003; Jendersie et al., 2018). The results revealed
 263 that the largest increase in the HSSW volume occurred in the winter of 2007, reaching approximately
 264 16,000 km³ (Fig. 6b). This substantial increase is consistent with the exceptionally high SIP observed in
 265 2007 over RISP (Fig. 2), indicating that significant HSSW formation was triggered by the enhanced brine
 266 rejection resulting from ice production in this year. Additionally, the SIP over the TNBP and the
 267 corresponding HSSW production in its surrounding region during 2007 were examined. The results
 268 revealed that the SIP and HSSW volume increase in 2007 were moderate in this area over 2003 to 2019
 269 (not shown), suggesting that the greatest HSSW volume increase in 2007 in the Ross Sea was primarily
 270 driven by the significantly enhanced ice production over RISP. The second-highest increase in HSSW
 271 volume was recorded in 2019, which can also be attributed to the relatively strong meridional winds (Fig.
 272 4q) that drove enhanced ice production and HSSW formation. In conclusion, while 2007 experienced the
 273 highest SIP and HSSW production, the expected increase in salinity and density was not observed,
 274 suggesting complex interactions between SIP and hydrographic properties in the Ross Sea. In the following
 275 section, the processes affecting the relationship between the production of sea ice and HSSW and salinity
 276 in the Ross Sea in 2007 will be analyzed.



277

278 **Figure 6. (a)** Spatial distribution of neutral density (colored shading) in the Ross Sea and Ross Ice Shelf.

279 The solid grey line indicates the neutral density contour of 27.8 kg m⁻³. The dashed black line indicates the

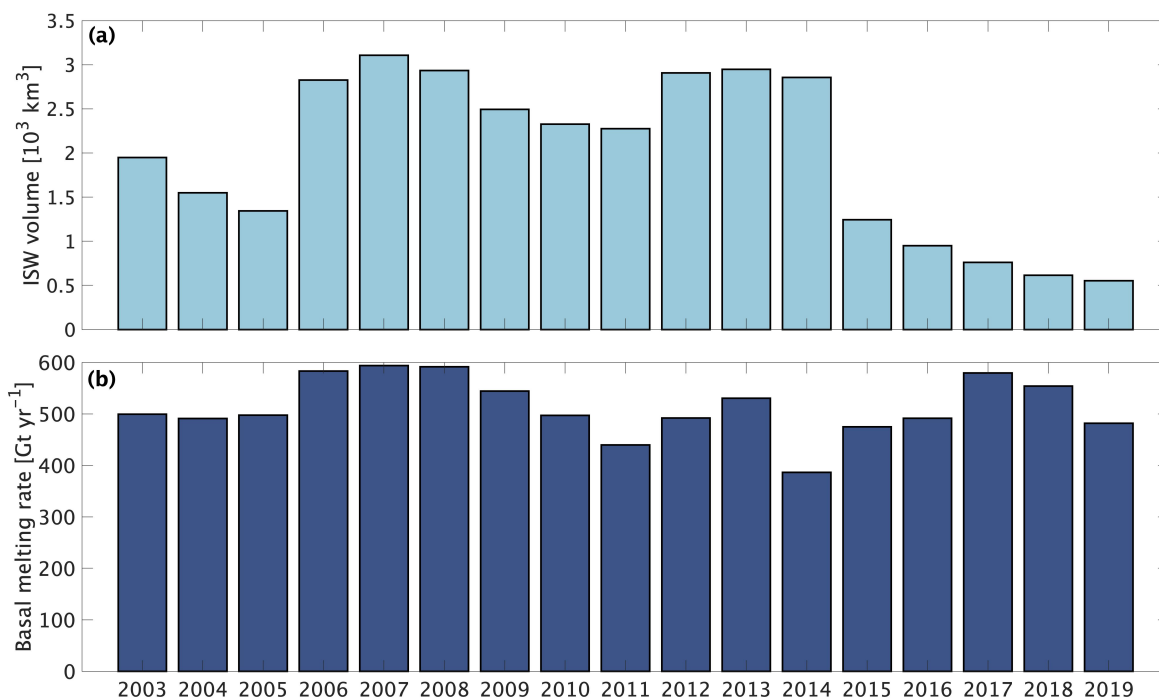


280 extent of HSSW calculated for HSSW volume; **(b)** Time series of HSSW volume change between October
281 and July over 2003 to 2019.

282

283 3.3 Ice shelf melt water fluxes

284 In addition to HSSW, the hydrographic characteristics of the Ross Sea are influenced by other water masses
285 with different properties, such as CDW from the open ocean and ISW. CDW is characterized by relatively
286 high salinity and temperature (Yabuki et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2017; Morrison et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2023),
287 which suggests that the most direct factor affecting the anomalously low salinity signal in 2007 is ISW.
288 Therefore, the winter-averaged ISW volume in the Ross Sea was calculated, identifying a peak in 2007,
289 with a volume of approximately $3.2 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ (Fig. 7a). This fact indicates that the anomalously low salinity
290 signal in 2007 (Fig. 5e) was associated with an increase in ISW during that year. The ISW in the Ross Sea
291 primarily originates from two sources: meltwater from the Amundsen Sea ice shelves and the Ross Ice
292 Shelf itself, with the former mainly transported to the Ross Sea by the Antarctic slope and coastal currents
293 (Dinniman et al., 2016; Kusahara and Hasumi, 2013, 2014; Nakayama et al., 2014, 2020; Xie et al., 2024).
294 The annual cumulative melt rates of both the Ross and Amundsen Sea ice shelves were quantified (Fig. 7b),
295 and it was found that ice shelf melting intensified beginning in 2006 and remained elevated throughout
296 2007. This considerable increase in meltwater resulted in large release of fresh ice shelf meltwater, with
297 the cumulative melt rate in 2007 reaching its highest value observed in recent decades (Fig. 7b).
298 Furthermore, a comparison of the melt rates of the Ross Ice Shelf and the Amundsen Sea ice shelves
299 indicates that the magnitude of melting of the latter is significantly greater than that of the former, which is
300 consistent with the findings of previous studies (Rignot et al., 2013). These results indicate that the
301 anomalously low salinity observed in the western Ross Sea in 2007 is associated with an increased influx
302 of ISW, driven by enhanced melting of ice shelves in the Amundsen Sea.



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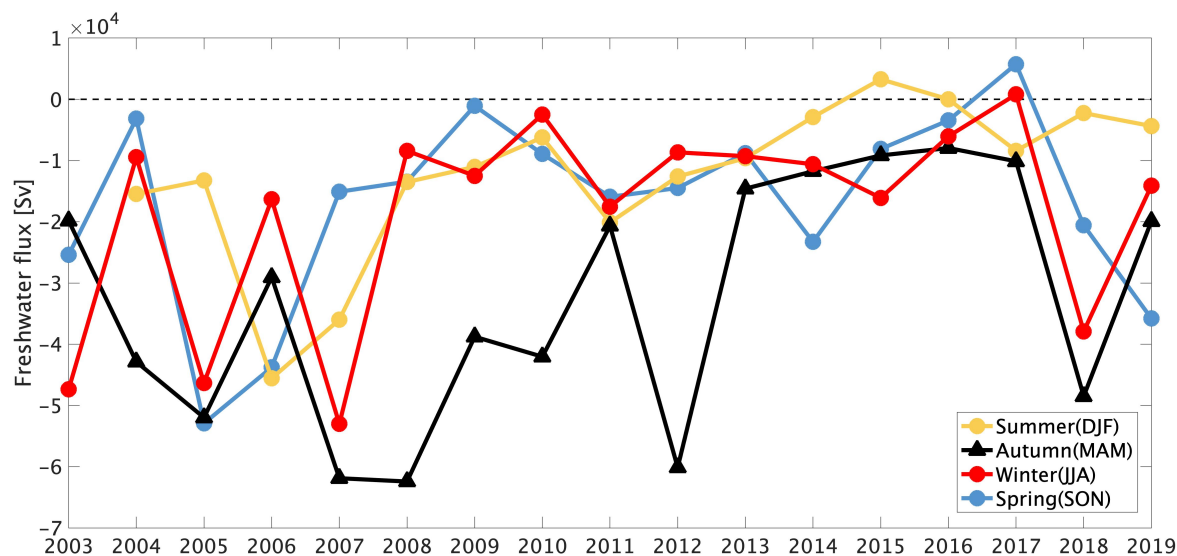
304 **Figure 7.** Time series of (a) winter-averaged Ice Shelf Meltwater (ISW) volume in the Ross Sea and (b)
 305 annual cumulative basal melting rate for the Amundsen Sea ice shelves and Ross Ice Shelf over 2003 to
 306 2019.

307

308 To further demonstrate the impact of Amundsen Sea ice shelf meltwater on the hydrographic properties of
 309 the Ross Sea, a meridional transect along the boundary between the Ross Sea and the Amundsen Sea was
 310 selected (red line in Fig. 1b). The seasonal mean freshwater fluxes across this transect for all four seasons
 311 (austral summer, autumn, winter, and spring) from 2003 to 2019 were calculated (Fig. 8). The time series
 312 of seasonal mean freshwater flux during winter (red line in Fig. 8) demonstrates that the absolute value of
 313 freshwater flux peaked in 2007, reaching approximately $-5.8 \times 10^4 \text{ Sv}$. This indicates a substantial westward
 314 transport of ISW from the Amundsen Sea into the Ross Sea, consistent with the peak ice shelf melt rate
 315 observed in 2007 (Fig. 7b). In addition, it is found that the ISW volume during winter was also highest in
 316 2007, confirming the fact that significant amount of ISW accumulated during this year (Fig. 7a). A similarly
 317 strong westward ISW flux was observed during autumn 2007 (black line in Fig. 8). The summer (December
 318 to February) freshwater flux shows the second most negative value in 2007, which was $-3.8 \times 10^4 \text{ Sv}$,
 319 indicating a notable westward transport of meltwater into the Ross Sea in late 2006 and early 2007. Spring
 320 (September–November) freshwater flux further shows that a significant westward transport was already



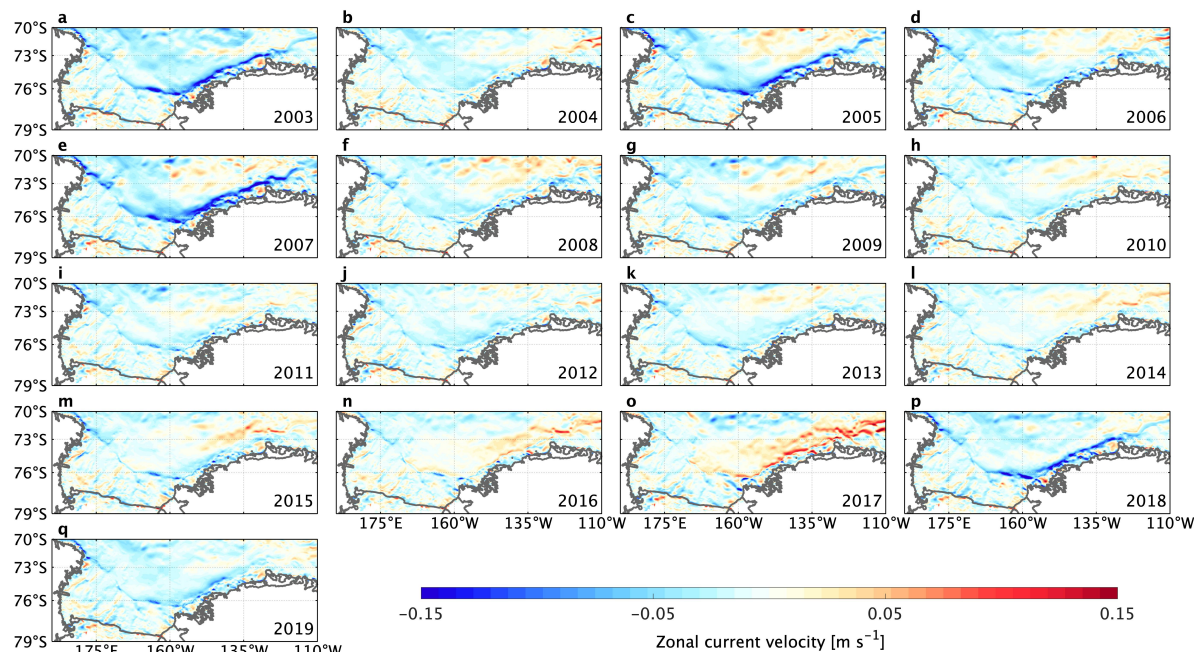
321 present during spring 2006, while in winter 2006 the transport was weak. These results suggest that the
 322 strong westward ISW flux began in late 2006 and continued to intensify into the autumn and winter of 2007.
 323 The anomalously low salinity values observed in the western Ross Sea in winter 2007 (Fig. 5e) suggest that
 324 the time required for ISW to be transported from the western Amundsen Sea to the western Ross Sea and
 325 significantly impact the local hydrographic properties is approximately 9–12 months. This transport of ISW
 326 played a key role in influencing the hydrographic conditions of the western Ross Sea, particularly
 327 contributing to the unusually low salinity observed in winter 2007 (Fig. 5e). This emphasizes the
 328 importance of understanding how the timing and persistence of ISW fluxes affect the downstream
 329 hydrographic properties in the Ross Sea.



330

331 **Figure 8.** Time series of seasonal mean freshwater flux across the defined transect (indicated by the red
 332 line in Fig. 1b) from 2003 to 2019 for austral summer (DJF, yellow line), autumn (MAM, black line), winter
 333 (JJA, red line) and spring (SON, blue line). Negative values represent westward transport of freshwater
 334 from the Amundsen Sea into the Ross Sea.

335



336

337 **Figure 9. (a–q)** Spatial distributions of winter-averaged zonal current velocities in the Ross Sea and
 338 Amundsen Sea from 2003 to 2019, averaged over the upper 300 m, where the majority of meltwater is
 339 located.

340

341 As described by Equation (1) in Section 2, freshwater flux is influenced not only by the amount of ice shelf
 342 meltwater but also by the magnitude of current velocity. To further investigate the cause of the extreme
 343 freshwater flux observed in winter 2007 (Fig. 8), we analyzed the spatial distribution of the winter-averaged
 344 zonal current velocity in the upper 300 meters in the Ross Sea and Amundsen Sea (Fig. 9). The results show
 345 that both the Antarctic slope current and the coastal current reached their strongest intensities in 2007 (Fig.
 346 9e). This analysis suggests that the strong freshwater flux from the Amundsen Sea to the Ross Sea in 2007
 347 was a combined result of the highest ice shelf melt rate and the strongest zonal flow velocity (Fig. 9e),
 348 resulting in anomalously low salinity in the Ross Sea in this year. Further examination of Fig. 9 indicates
 349 that relatively strong current velocities also occurred in 2003 and 2005 (Figs. 9a and 9c), and Fig. 8 shows
 350 correspondingly high freshwater fluxes in austral winter for these years. However, Fig. 7b reveals that the
 351 ice shelf melt rates during 2003 and 2005 were not particularly elevated. This suggests that in these years,
 352 the strong zonal current velocities likely played a dominant role in driving the westward freshwater flux,
 353 emphasizing the significant influence of current dynamics on freshwater transport.



354 **4 Discussion**

355 The variability and trends in the formation of HSSW and the hydrographic characteristics in the Ross Sea
356 are influenced by large-scale climate modes or systems, including the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) and
357 the Amundsen Sea Low (ASL) (Silvano et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024a). They can modulate local wind
358 fields over the Ross Sea and Amundsen Sea, thereby affecting sea ice production in polynyas and the
359 transport of freshwater from the Amundsen Sea to the Ross Sea. These processes ultimately affect the
360 formation of HSSW, the hydrographic characteristics of the Ross Sea, and, subsequently, the stability of
361 the meridional overturning circulation.

362

363 Projections from multiple CMIP5 models under the RCP8.5 scenario indicate that SAM is likely to continue
364 shifting toward its positive phase by the end of this century (Zheng et al., 2013), which can strengthen the
365 westerly jet and shift its core poleward, leading to a weakening of polar easterlies (Sen Gupta and England,
366 2006; Zhang et al., 2018). This weakening suppresses the westward transport of freshwater and sea ice from
367 the Amundsen Sea driven by the Antarctic coastal current (Kim et al., 2016; Dotto et al., 2018; Silvano et
368 al., 2020). Simultaneously, the weakening of polar easterlies can enhance offshore winds in the TNBP
369 region and reduce surface air temperature over the RISP, which increases sea ice production and promotes
370 greater HSSW/AABW production (Zhang et al., 2024a). The processes mentioned above can interact
371 synergistically to enhance the HSSW formation in the future. In addition, previous research indicates that
372 the positive phase of SAM is associated with a significant increase of cyclones near the Antarctic coast
373 (Uotila et al., 2013; Grieger et al., 2018). Enhanced cyclonic activities will strengthen offshore winds over
374 the western RISP, enlarging the polynya and promoting SIP (Wenta and Cassano, 2020; Wang et al., 2023).
375 This further facilitates the HSSW formation and increases salinity in the Ross Sea. Therefore, by affecting
376 both sea ice production in the Ross Sea polynyas and the freshwater transport from the Amundsen Sea, the
377 future change of SAM is expected to drive a long-term increase in HSSW production and salinity in the
378 Ross Sea.

379

380 Future projections based on CMIP5 and CMIP6 models indicate that under high-emission scenarios, the
381 ASL will be deepened and shift poleward (Hosking et al., 2016; Gao et al., 2021). A deepened ASL may
382 enhance offshore winds over the RISP and TNBP, increasing ice production in these polynyas and
383 promoting subsequent HSSW production. Meanwhile, the poleward shift of the ASL is anticipated to
384 weaken the easterly wind and the barotropic westward slope and coastal currents, reducing meltwater
385 transport from the Amundsen Sea into the Ross Sea and further facilitating HSSW formation. Thus, both



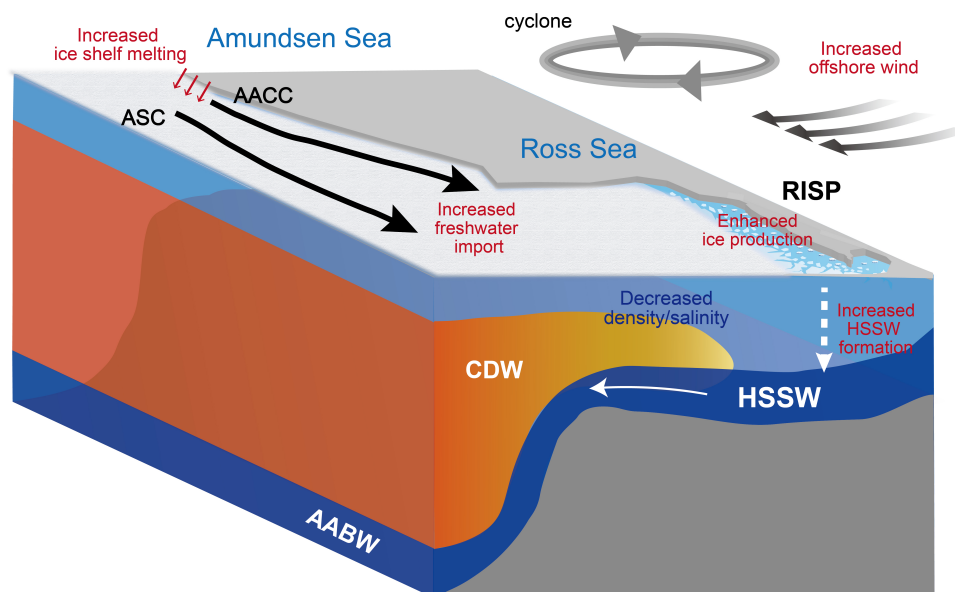
386 the future trends of SAM and ASL may also support increased HSSW formation and salinity in the Ross
387 Sea. In the future, the Ross Sea may experience more frequent episodes of high ice production, intense
388 HSSW formation and increased salinity.

389

390 **5 Conclusions**

391 This study examines the mechanisms and impacts of HSSW formation in the Ross Sea, focusing on the
392 extreme event in 2007. Increased cyclonic activities over the Ross Ice Shelf in 2007 enhanced offshore
393 winds west of the Ross Ice Shelf polynya, leading to record-high sea ice production and HSSW formation.
394 However, salinity and density in the Ross Sea exhibited anomalously low values in this year. The
395 inconsistency between HSSW formation and salinity field was primarily driven by a significant influx of
396 ice shelf meltwater from the Amundsen Sea, contributed by both large ice shelf melting rate and strong
397 westward slope and coastal currents (Fig. 10). Analysis of seasonal freshwater fluxes revealed that the
398 strong westward transport of meltwater began in spring 2006, persisted through the summer between 2006
399 and 2007, and intensified into the autumn and winter of 2007. The time required for ice shelf meltwater to
400 travel from the western Amundsen Sea to the western Ross Sea and significantly alter local hydrographic
401 properties is approximately 9–12 months when the Antarctic slope and coastal currents are relatively
402 stronger. The peak freshwater flux during winter 2007, driven by increased ice shelf melting rates and
403 strong zonal current velocities, could play the most critical role in the unusually low salinity in the Ross
404 Sea in winter 2007. These findings highlight the role of synoptic atmospheric events on the accumulative
405 HSSW formation in winter, which can potentially make significant contributions to AABW production in
406 the open ocean. The impacts on AABW are not analyzed in this work but warrant further investigation in
407 the future. The results also highlight the complex interplay between sea ice production, meltwater fluxes
408 and ocean currents in shaping regional hydrographic characteristics in the Ross Sea, as well as the
409 importance of understanding the timing and persistence of freshwater fluxes and their downstream impacts
410 on hydrographic properties in the Ross Sea.

411



412

413 **Figure 10.** Schematic illustrating the atmospheric drivers of high salinity shelf water (HSSW) production
414 in the Ross Sea and the combined effects of HSSW production and freshwater transport from the Amundsen
415 Sea on the Ross Sea hydrographic fields. RISP represents the Ross Ice Shelf Polynya. CDW denotes the
416 circumpolar deep water and AABW indicates the Antarctic Bottom Water. AACC represents the Antarctic
417 coastal current and ASC refers to the Antarctic slope current.

418

419 Data availability.

420 The model data that support the findings of this study are available at
421 <https://doi.org/10.5072/zenodo.138444>. More details about other observed and reanalysis data are
422 presented in Sect. 2.

423

424 Author contributions.

425 ZZ and XW designed the original ideas presented in this manuscript. XW conducted the model results
426 analysis. XW and ZZ wrote the original manuscript draft. CX, XZ, CW, HH and YC participated in the
427 result interpretation, manuscript preparation and improvement. CX and HH conducted the 5-day-average
428 model simulations. CX, HH CW and YC contributed to the model development. All authors contributed to
429 the article and approved the submitted version.



430 Competing interests. The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

431

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438

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