

1 **Ice core nitrogen isotopes archive dramatic changes in West Antarctic**
2 **Ice Sheet thinning**

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33 **Summary**

34 We show how measurements of nitrogen isotopes in Antarctic ice core records can be used to show dramatic thinning of an
35 ice sheet during ice mass changes in the Holocene. Combining such measurements with proxies for ice sheet elevation could
36 be a powerful tool for constraining the history of ice dynamics at sites which are sensitive to rapid changes, and could contribute
37 to constraining ice sheet models.

38 **Abstract**

39 The behaviour of ice sheets during ice mass loss is currently not well constrained and is a major limiting factor in accurate
40 predictions of ice sheet behaviour in our warming climate. Proxies from ice cores can record the history of ice mass loss at
41 exceptional temporal resolution and unrivalled chronological accuracy. A recent record of Total Air Content (TAC) and ice
42 core chemistry from Skytrain Ice Rise resolved a 450 m drop in ice sheet elevation at the site in the Weddell Sea Sector of the
43 Antarctic Ice Sheet 8,000 years ago, an event which occurred over just 200 years. The event is thought to represent an
44 ungrounding and removal of the buttressing effect on the ice sheet in the region. However, proxy records for ice elevation,
45 TAC, can show unexpected signals which indicates an imperfect understanding of how such gas records are captured in ice
46 cores during rapid changes in ice sheet conditions, inhibiting expansion of such studies to other sites. Here we use ice core
47 nitrogen isotope measurements to elucidate the dynamic evolution of the firn column, where such gas records are gradually
48 trapped, during the 8 ka rapid ice mass loss. The horizontal divergence imparted on the ice rise during the event dramatically
49 thinned the firn column to the extent that dynamic thinning of the firn is the dominating factor in how nitrogen isotopes are
50 captured. As a result, the recorded signal of nitrogen isotopes directly opposes the signal predicted by current firn models
51 which do not include such ice dynamics, suggesting that it is a critical factor to include in firn modelling studies of sites
52 susceptible to rapid ice mass changes. Our findings allow us to tightly constrain where reliable elevation signals, not disrupted
53 by changing ice dynamics, are available in ice core records. Moreover, our study demonstrates that the combination of TAC
54 and nitrogen isotopes can be a powerful tool in constraining ice sheet dynamics at a site, thus helping to inform the physics of
55 ice sheet models.

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1 Introduction

Uncertainty in ice sheet processes is identified as one of the major limiting factors in accurately predicting future sea level rise under current emissions pathways (Pörtner et al., 2022). Under all current scenarios, the West Antarctic Ice Sheet (WAIS) is shown to be one of the most decisive climate tipping elements due to its high sensitivity to temperature increases and subsequent effects on sea level (Rosser et al., 2024). It is thus critical that we improve our understanding of both the timing of, and mechanisms behind, ice mass loss in this region. An effective way to do this is to obtain high resolution records of past ice sheet behaviour, which can be used to inform the models that predict future ice mass changes.

Ice cores provide exceptional records of past ice sheet behaviour, capturing direct samples of the ice properties and the atmosphere at the time the ice formed. A recent study from an ice core drilled at Skytrain Ice Rise (SIR) (Grieman et al., 2024) (Fig. 1) combined multiple ice-core climate proxies to elucidate ice sheet changes in the Weddell Sea region throughout the Holocene deglaciation. The study observed a rapid decline in ice mass at the ice core site approximately 8,000 years ago (8 ka), with a 450 m reduction in ice sheet elevation over just 200 years, imposed on a background of more gradual ice mass decline. The event was followed by substantial ice shelf retreat in front of the ice rise. The proposed mechanism behind such a rapid ice mass loss was that ungrounding of the ice sheet at the ice/ocean margin, with ocean water encroaching underneath the ice sheet. The sudden loss of the buttressing effect of the grounded ice that would otherwise have constrained outward flow of the ice sheet drove a rapid thinning upstream of the grounding line and Skytrain Ice Rise experienced a drop in elevation. This is ~~one of the best resolved, direct paleoclimate records of such a rapid, centennial scale ice-loss event the first time such a rapid, centennial scale ice-loss event has been so well resolved in a direct climate record~~, and it raises important questions as to the potential for such future events to occur in other regions where ice currently grounded on retrograde slopes – most notably the Amundsen Sea region and Thwaites Glacier ~~in the WAIS, and examples such as the Wilkes Sub Glacial Basin in East Antarctica~~.- We would thus look to repeat such studies in other ice core records throughout the region and indeed more widely through the ice sheet to help improve the spatial and temporal resolution of our picture of such rapid ice mass loss. However, a key record used to reconstruct the past elevation of the ice sheet in the study, the Total Air Content (TAC) of ice core samples, showed a complex oscillating signal throughout the period of rapid ice mass loss (Fig. 1) which cannot be directly attributed to elevation change (Grieman et al., 2024) ~~and extends over a longer period than the 200 yr ice elevation loss~~, but is a real signal recorded in the ice well above the threshold of our high-accuracy TAC method (Nehrbas-Ahles et al., 2022). An improved understanding of the parameters affecting the TAC signal, and more widely the capture of gases in ice core samples during rapid ice sheet changes, is required before the study can be expanded.

One underexplored process is the effect of ice sheet thinning on gas record preservation. In the case of TAC, physical properties of the firn column (the upper snow layers where compaction from snow to ice is in process and has not fully isolated the air bubbles from the overlying surface air) such as temperature and pore volume (the space available between snow grains in the

95 firm column) affect the total amount of gas captured (Martinerie et al., 1992). Changes in the firnification processes thus have
96 the potential to greatly impact TAC and other gas record capture. Thinning, or horizontal divergence, is often ignored in firn
97 studies and infrequently discussed as a possible driver of variability in gas-phase proxies, with the notable exception of thinning
98 changing the firn temperature gradient at South Pole (Morgan et al., 2022). This stems from the fact that most ice cores are
99 drilled into some of the thickest areas of the ice sheet (> 3,000 meters depth) and thus thinning in the firn (the uppermost 50
100 to 100 meters) is relatively minor. In contrast, SIR is only 650 meters thick with a firn column of at least 50 meters.
101 Additionally, as SIR is frozen to the bed, the ice flow in the lowermost hundred meters or so is very slow and thus most of the
102 thinning occurs in a relatively short column of the uppermost ice. Furthermore, we typically drill ice cores on thick, stable
103 domes or divides that do not record any major flow disturbances or changes in ice thickness. Even a record like WAIS Divide,
104 an ice core drilled in central West Antarctica, has probably only experienced modest changes in elevation during the last
105 deglaciation, on the order of few hundred meters, which is relatively minor compared to total ice thickness (~10% of a total of
106 ~3,450 meters). In contrast, SIR is currently 650 meters thick but may have been up to 1,300 meters thick prior to the rapid
107 ice loss at 8 ka. The ice thinned by up to 650 meters (most likely value being 450 meters) (Grieman et al., 2024), meaning that
108 potentially the whole column thinned by up to 50% within just a few hundred years.

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110 Secondly, accumulation-induced thinning driven simply by the vertical motion of ice is relatively minor at most sites. For
111 example, a typical core in East Antarctica might have an accumulation rate of 0.05 m a⁻¹ over a thickness of 3,000 meters,
112 which gives a whole column horizontal divergence, which we are using with a definition of vertical strain rate in the absence
113 of densification, of ~2e⁻⁵ a⁻¹, where horizontal divergence is approximately equal to accumulation divided by ice thickness (see
114 Equation 3). Meanwhile, SIR, with modest-a higher accumulation at 0.14 m a⁻¹ and ice thickness of only 650 meters,
115 experiences nearly an order of magnitude faster rates of thinning (~2e⁻⁴ a⁻¹).

116 In this study we use nitrogen isotopes to determine the changing properties of the firn column during rapid loss of ice sheet
117 elevation at SIR. The ratio between nitrogen isotopes ¹⁵N and ¹⁴N relative to its standard, the atmosphere, (expressed herein as
118 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$), is constant in the atmosphere over the timescales we consider here, and so any change in the ratio is due to fractionation
119 processes in the firn column (Severinghaus et al., 2003). These may be preferential gravitational settling of the heavy isotope,
120 telling us the thickness of the firn column, or preference of the heavier isotope toward cold temperatures, which tells us about
121 the temperature fluctuations within the firn column. Events of rapid change in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ have been seen in the Holocene records
122 from other coastal domes across the WAIS, hinting at significant changes in the firn column at these sites under multiple
123 possible drivers (see later discussion). We combine these measurements with firn modelling techniques to show how $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ can
124 tell us about dramatic changes in ice sheet thickness. We also identify potential missing processes in our current understanding
125 of the firnification process at the ice core site. We conclude by proposing the mechanisms behind the disrupted TAC gas
126 archive in Skytrain ice core and add to the picture of the processes occurring in the ice sheet at SIR during rapid ice mass loss.

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127 **2 Methods**

128 **2.1 Skytrain Ice Core Sampling**

129 The 651 m Skytrain ice core was drilled at [Skytrain-Ice-RiseSIR](#) during the field season 2018-2019 (Mulvaney et al., 2021).
130 Samples for nitrogen isotope analysis were selected based on the previously developed ST22 age scale (Hoffmann et al., 2022;
131 Mulvaney et al., 2023b). To align with previously published TAC data, sample ages are presented on the ST22-WD2014
132 version of the gas age scale, where age alignment has been optimised to the WD2014 age scale. Sampling in this study covers
133 the period of disrupted TAC signal around the 8 ka elevation change as well as a period of relative TAC stability on either
134 side. A total of 60 samples were taken between 352.0 – 403.35 m, representing an age range of 5.84 – 8.54 ka, and giving an
135 average age resolution of 46 yrs. Samples of 5 cm length were taken from a pre-cut ice strip of 3.2 x 3.2 cm, from which the
136 previously measured TAC samples had also been taken. Samples for nitrogen isotopes were taken proximally (or as close to,
137 dependent on features such as cracks) to where TAC samples had been taken to allow for close replication. Samples were
138 prepared in the -25°C cold laboratories at the British Antarctic Survey, Cambridge, UK, and transported to the analytical
139 laboratory in Paris, France, in insulated boxes and using specialist cold chain shipping which retains sample temperature at -
140 25°C.

141
142 While our measured data is presented on the gas age scale, some of our investigation compares to previous data presented on
143 the ice age scale, for example existing records of water isotopes. The age scales for each record are given in each relevant
144 figure caption. Specific phasing between records is subject to error; gas-age to ice-age offset, or delta age, is ~ 400 years before
145 the 8 ka event and ~ 300 years following, while dating errors on the ice age scale within this region of the Holocene is at least
146 a century, as a conservative estimate (Mulvaney et al., 2023a). Alongside varying uncertainties and age resolution of different
147 datasets, the specific signal of the ‘8 ka event’ between records may appear as slight offsets in the initiation of change between
148 factors in our model runs, but in reality such changes, for example between increasing temperature and decreasing altitude of
149 the site, would be occurring simultaneously.

150 **2.2 Nitrogen Isotope Analysis**

151 Nitrogen isotopes, alongside argon isotopes and the ratio of O₂/N₂, were measured at LSCE, Paris. After removing 2-3 mm of
152 the exterior part of the ice samples, air was extracted from the ice samples using a semi-automatic melt—refreeze line. Three
153 duplicate samples can be processed each day together with two samples of outside air used for daily calibration. In short, the
154 samples are placed into glass vessels which are evacuated before the ice is melted, enabling air to escape from the bubbles.
155 The melt water is then refrozen, and the extracted air is cryogenically trapped in tubes filled with silica gel and immersed in
156 liquid nitrogen. After 3 hours at 30°C, allowing air desorption from the silica gel, the air is introduced into the bellows of an
157 isotopic ratio mass spectrometer (Thermo® Delta Q). The isotopic and elemental measurements are performed by dual inlet,
158 i.e. by successive introduction of a small amount of the sample and the measurements standard (dry air without CO₂). Two

159 sequences of 16 dual inlet measurements are performed, usually leading to a 1-sigma uncertainty of 0.007 ‰ and 0.6 ‰
 160 respectively for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta\text{O}_2/\text{N}_2$, based on the standard deviation of the replicate samples for each depth level. For the Skytrain
 161 samples, the values for the 1-sigma uncertainty were larger (0.14 ‰ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and 1.8 ‰ for O_2/N_2) suggesting variability at
 162 short spatial scale in this record. It is not clear why the uncertainties are higher, however one reason may be that we are
 163 comparing to measurements from clathrate ice for example EPICA Dome C, whereas the Skytrain samples are bubble ice.
 164 Alternatively, it may be because we had small sample sizes so the replicate samples were sometimes the minimum amount of
 165 ice for analysis, and we were not able to trim the samples substantially to account for any gas loss by diffusion in the outer
 166 layers.

167
 168 Although less precise than with other techniques using purification of the gas (Morgan et al., 2022; Servettaz et al., 2022;
 169 Severinghaus et al., 2003), $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ can also be measured with this configuration of the Delta Q mass spectrometer. There was a
 170 1-sigma uncertainty of 0.06 ‰ for $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ on this series of measurements. We note here that the analytical method used was
 171 optimised for analysis of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ and O_2/N_2 were also measured but not fully optimised. These later became of interest
 172 to investigate due to the somewhat unexpected results of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ analysis (reduced values over the 8 kyr event). This may
 173 also have resulted in slightly higher variability in the data for $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ and O_2/N_2 .

174
 175 Final values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ preserved in the ice core are products of both thermal and gravitation fractionation within the
 176 firn column. Following Severinghaus et al. (2003) the difference in mass dependent gravitation fractionation between the two,
 177 which is four times greater for $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$, can be used to isolate the thermal component of the signal, N excess. For N excess, the
 178 uncertainty is 0.03 per mil.

179
 180 Equation 1

$$181 \quad N_{\text{excess}} = \delta^{15}\text{N} - (\delta^{40}\text{Ar}/4)$$

182
 183 A negative N excess value implies that the top of the firn column was colder than the base, and a positive N excess implies the
 184 top of the firn column was warmer than the base. Using the thermal sensitivities of N (ΩN , 0.0145 ‰°C⁻¹) and Ar (ΩAr , 0.036
 185 ‰°C⁻¹) we can deduce the temperature difference in the firn, ΔT .

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 187 Equation 2

$$188 \quad \Delta T = \frac{N_{\text{excess}}}{\Omega_{\text{N}} - (\Omega_{\text{Ar}}/4)}$$

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189 **2.3 Sample Gas Fractionation**

190 Loss of gases from ice core samples can cause distortion of the captured gas records. Gas fractionation processes can occur
191 during bubble formation or due to post-coring factors (Bender et al., 1995). Smaller gas molecules can more easily diffuse out
192 of the ice compared to larger molecules, thus gas fractionation can be indicated using the ratio of O₂, the smaller molecule, to
193 N₂, the larger molecule in the ice core samples. The record of O₂/N₂ for Skytrain shows some variability, which may be
194 indicative of a small amount of gas loss and a possible explanation for the variability shown in our $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ and N excess records,
195 however there is no visible change above the background variability of the O₂/N₂ record in the period of reduced $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
196 specifically, indicating that this is a ‘real’ feature in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ gas record (Supplement Figure 1). ~~no change above the~~
197 background variability of the data in the period measured (Supplement Figure 2).

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198 **2.4 Community Firn Model**

199 We employed the Community Firn Model (CFM) (Stevens et al., 2020) as a heuristic guide to understand the processes driving
200 the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variability we observe, as well as a quantitative method to explore possible histories of temperature, accumulation
201 and ice sheet thinning that reconcile our $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data. The CFM is an open-source firn model designed to simulate the evolution
202 of physical firn properties such as temperature, density, porosity, and associated firn air parameters including profiles of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
203 and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ (thus N excess is modelled). Here we present results that were run exclusively in the standard physics setup which
204 enables a transient evolution of the Herron and Langway (1980) empirical model (“HLDynamic”) with ice conductivity based
205 on Calonne et al. (2019). The CFM model parameters used are summarised in Table 1.

206 Table 1: Summary model parameters used in running the CFM.

CFM Model Parameters	
Depth Domain (m)	200
Gas Depth Resolution (m)	0.1
Time Resolution (years)	1
Constant Surface Density (kg m ⁻³)	350
Convective Zone (m)	1
Advection Scheme	none
Geothermal Heat Flux	none

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208 Additionally, we use the recently developed horizontal divergence scheme in the CFM (Horlings et al., 2021) whereby a parcel
 209 (in a Lagrangian framework) is first compressed due to densification and then further thinned due to a prescribed horizontal
 210 divergence rate. Throughout this manuscript where we use the term horizontal divergence, we are referring to vertical strain
 211 in the absence of densification. In our case, we impose a total horizontal divergence rate (a^{-1}). To calculate the total horizontal
 212 divergence, we sum the divergence imparted from accumulation a (m a^{-1}) and rate of change in ice sheet thickness $\dot{H}$ (m a^{-1}):

213 Equation 3

$$214 \quad \epsilon_h = \frac{a}{H} + \frac{\dot{H}}{H}$$

215
 216 By dividing the vertical velocity induced by both accumulation and change in ice sheet thickness by the ice sheet thickness
 217 itself (H) we are assuming that ice is incompressible, and more importantly that the vertical strain is uniform in the ice column.
 218 The uniform strain is an oversimplification, but a conservative one. If the ice sheet is frozen to the bed, as is the case with SIR,
 219 the vertical velocity slows dramatically near the base of the ice sheet, which is different to cores that experience basal melting,
 220 for example WAIS Divide and EPICA Dome C. Typically, this is at least one hundred meters off the bed and thus the effective
 221 value of H one might consider to calculate horizontal divergence is some fraction of the true thickness. A more accurate
 222 method using a Lliboutry vertical profile (Lliboutry, 1979) is employed in our 1-D borehole model, but to first order our
 223 approximation is sufficient for our heuristic purposes. A more detailed presentation of these different approaches to strain in
 224 modelling our ice core site, and how the comparative strains evolve through the 8 ka event, is given in Supplement Figure 3.

225
 226 Another crucial assumption of our model is that the material properties of the firm do not change with the imposed thinning.
 227 For example, there is no further change in density nor any feedback into the densification rate itself such as strain-induced
 228 softening (Oraschewski and Grinsted, 2022) – a set of assumptions that may require further study. The net effect of enhanced
 229 horizontal divergence is a shoaling of the close-off depth, as has been shown to be important in fast-flowing ice regimes, not
 230 unlike SIR during a rapid thinning event.

231
 232 To drive the CFM in all the heuristic experiments (Fig. 2), we use the stable water isotopes records to first derive a plausible
 233 surface temperature history of the site using an isotope-to-temperature conversion of $0.8 \pm 0.2\text{‰}$ per mil per deg C (as in
 234 Grieman et al. 2024) with a modern temperature (last 250 years) of -25°C . To roughly estimate an accumulation history we
 235 then use a temperature-dependent accumulation rate conversion of $0.0075 \pm 0.0025\text{‰}$ m ice equivalent per deg C (about 3--
 236 7.3‰ per deg C) with a modern accumulation of 0.15 m ice equivalent. This choice of sensitivity places the accumulation rate
 237 increase at 8 ka between the prior and posterior histories from the Skytrain chronology (Supplementary Figure
 238 65). Additionally, this sensitivity is within bounds but at the lower end of model- and data-based constraints on the Antarctic-
 239 wide accumulation-to-temperature relationship (Nicola et al., 2023).

Commented [TB1]: link to revision Figure 4

Commented [TB2]: probably want to change to something more sensible like cm per per deg C

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As a first pass constraining a possible thinning history, we extracted the ice thickness history at SIR from a single experiment with the Parallel Ice Sheet Model (PISM) model and calculated the thinning-induced divergence rate. The particular transient experiment comes from the deglacial scenario presented in Kingslake et al. (2018) which indicated a widespread retreat of the grounding line starting around 12,500 years before present that extended further inland than the present-day grounding line before readvancing in the early Holocene. The absolute timing, rate of change and magnitude of this response in the model have been shown to be dependent on model boundary conditions and parameterization - in particular model resolution and bed topography (Albrecht et al., 2020b, a). For consistency with previous work (Grieman et al., 2024) we use this particular model and align the elevation drop with the initial rise in water isotopes at 8 ka by shifting the modelled time forward by 4,500 years. We stress that this model run is only a guide to the possible divergence rates and that the detailed history of WAIS retreat remains highly under-constrained from models alone.

2.5 Smoothing Splines

Smoothed splines of datasets are generated using the methods presented in King et al. (2024). Briefly, the method applies a random sampling with replacement bootstrap over 10,000 iterations with the smoothing function generating a spline and uncertainty bands based on the smoothing parameter. The parameter is tuned to the time-resolution and length of the input data~~The parameter is tuned to the time-resolution and length of the input data such that the spline produced is at half height of a generic cosine function, which is a good balance point between preserving signals in the record while not being overly influenced by record variability.~~ Spline parameters used for each dataset can be found in Supplement Table 1.

3 Results and Discussion

$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ from the Skytrain ice core

We present the measurements of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ from the Skytrain ice core alongside the existing TAC record and calculated N excess from our measurements in Figure 2. The main feature in both our records of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ is a significant dip from initial values, before 8 ka towards more negative values beginning at approximately 8 ka, followed by a recovery to initial values. The entire excursion occurs over a duration of approximately 1,500 years. This duration matches the period of disruption previously observed in the Skytrain TAC record. The measured values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ result in a corresponding dip in N excess values, to more negative values, over the same period, however the N excess data has high variability. The data is discussed in more detail below, however to enable a more interpretive discussion on what these results tell us alongside their presentation, we first model the possible scenarios driving our changing isotope records.

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268 **3.1 Modelling drivers of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ change**

269 As a first step, we use the CFM to break down the possible drivers of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ change at SIR into constituent parts in a series of
270 factorial experiments. These experiments should not be considered perfect reconstructions of individual factors as the forcings
271 (temperature, accumulation and thinning) are not known *a priori*, but rather illustrations to guide us. First, holding all other
272 variables stable, we change surface temperature (Fig. 2, Scenario 1), increasing it by about 4°C which roughly reflects the
273 lapse-rate impact of the reconstructed decrease in elevation at 8 ka. The result is an initial increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as a strong
274 temperature gradient is briefly established in the firn and the thermal fractionation dominates, followed by a shift toward
275 slightly lower values as the firn densification adjusts to the warmer temperature and the close-off depth shoals. In the second
276 experiment, Scenario 2, we change only accumulation, increasing it as would be expected from an ice core site experiencing
277 warmer, more moist, more coastal conditions. Here the close-off depth increases along-side the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. In the third experiment,
278 Scenario 3, we combine both temperature and accumulation and see how competing effects of temperature and accumulation
279 on close-off depth largely cancel each out and the thermal effect (the peak in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$) dominates the signal. At the same time, the
280 bubble close-off depth becomes slightly shallower, from ~58 m to ~52 m. The result is a predicted peak at ~8.0 ka, with
281 increases in both $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and N excess (Supplement Fig. 2) of ~0.04 ‰ and ~0.02 ‰ respectively, which decay away by ~7.8
282 ka.

283 This suggests that under our assumptions of what the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ increase represents we would expect to see a peak in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ across
284 the 8 ka event. We note that these peaks are relatively small in comparison to the uncertainty of our data. However, as we will
285 see, even with this taken into account, these predictions are significantly different to our measured data, all else being equal,
286 we would expect to see a peak in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ across the 8 ka event. However, as we will see, this is not the case.

287 To explore a new scenario, in the fourth experiment (Scenario 4) we model just changes in horizontal divergence as modelled
288 in the PISM simulation (see methods) combined with a small, constant divergence induced by the relatively high accumulation
289 in a short ice column. The increased divergence causes the close-off depth to shoal and the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ decreases strongly as the
290 gravitational effect dominates the signal. We thus have a competing effect from thinning that could potentially drive the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
291 signal.

292 **3.2 Comparing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ model predictions and measured data**

293 We now compare our predictions to the measured data (Fig. 3). Comparing $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, where each of our temperature and
294 accumulation scenarios predict a peak in values, we observe a similar small initial peak, from a spline-based value of $0.20 \pm$
295 0.01 ‰ at 8.4 ka to 0.22 ± 0.006 ‰ at 8.1 ka. However, this is followed by a large decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ to a minimum of $0.13 \pm$
296 0.008 at ~7.4 ka. The minimum is reached approximately 500 years after the initiation of ice mass changes as suggested by
297 the water isotope record at SIR, with a slow recovery in values lasting until ~ 6.6 ka with values of 0.22 ± 0.007 ‰, and with

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an apparent slow reduction and ‘re-stabilisation’ of values to 0.19 ± 0.007 ‰ by ~ 6 ka. This indicates that after an initial as-predicted reaction to increasing temperature and accumulation at the site as elevation lowered, the horizontal divergence factor takes over with a striking dominating effect on the firm signal of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. The dynamic ice changes at SIR appear to last up to a duration of 1,500 years following the start of the initial rapid 200-year event of ice elevation loss as observed in Grieman et al. (2024).

Predicted values of N excess (Supplement Figure 4) are also contradicted by the measured data. Again, a small increase in N excess is predicted in all scenarios at the initiation of ice mass change 8 ka, returning to stable values shortly thereafter. Despite a large scattering, our results suggest that values first increased to a spline-based value of -0.02 ± 0.004 ‰ at ~ 8 ka from -0.03 ± 0.004 ‰ at ~ 8.4 ka, and then reduced to as low as -0.04 ± 0.004 ‰ at ~ 7.5 ka. Measured N excess data shows that values remain negative throughout, with a reduction towards more negative values occurring throughout the same period as the reduced $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

Comparing both $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and N excess to the TAC signal (Fig. 3), the disruption to the signals, with lowering of values and recovery, spans the full duration of the oscillating TAC signal, with a minimum duration of $\sim 1,500$ years.

3.3 Optimising model-data agreement

So far we have considered the importance of individual factors in explaining our nitrogen isotope records. We now attempt to ‘tune’ the model output to the best fit for our measured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and explore some plausible scenarios that may best explain our measured record (Fig. 4). The most realistic starting point from our factorial experiments is a combination of Scenarios 3 and 4, including the changes in temperature, accumulation rate and horizontal divergence. While this combination comes close to explaining our $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record, it predicts absolute values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ which are slightly higher than the measured data both preceding and during the drop in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and a drop and recovery in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values which is slightly shorter in duration than suggested by the measured data (Fig. 4, ‘Combined Scenario’).

One possibility to align absolute values of the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is to consider a stronger, two-phase increase in accumulation following the water isotope increase. Grieman et al. (2024) argued that delays in the Na increase relative to the water isotope increase reflects that thinning preceded ice shelf breakup. The proposed breakup phase centres around 7.5 ka, which aligns with an increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ not captured in our idealized scenario. Following ice shelf breakup Skytrain Ice Rise would be approximately 270 km closer to local sources of moisture, which could have increased accumulation. In the optimized scenario we include a second increase in accumulation after 7.5 ka which drives a stronger, sharper increase in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as the thinning returns to steady-state. This larger increase in accumulation before and after the jump with an effective ~~accumulation-to-sensitivity-to-temperature~~ of approximately 6% also improves the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ match before and after the jump – which are nearly equal in the data.

328 Additionally, our idealized scenario assumes uniform strain throughout the ice column whereas, in reality, thinning rates will
329 be higher in the upper sections. To better fit the shape of the drop in the measured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, we require the firn column to be
330 thinned for a longer duration than that suggested by the current model and with a marginally higher divergence rate.
331 Although this is a subjective process, we increase the duration over which the horizontal divergence is acting on the firn in
332 the model and increase the divergence rate to within a reasonable fit of the measured data to give a suggestion of the
333 magnitude of change required. This is not intended to be quantitative but does suggest that the ice thinning at SIR in the
334 PISM model may be underestimated in both duration and magnitude. Further quantification would require extracting the
335 thinning rates from a 3D thermo-mechanical ice sheet model, but in principle this demonstrates that ice core nitrogen
336 isotopes can inform the physics of the ice sheet models.

337 3.4 N excess as a temperature signal at Skytrain

338 Is our N excess record a signal of firn column temperature? If we take the N excess as a true indication of firn column
339 temperature, then our data rather surprisingly suggests that the top of the firn column cooled relative to the base of the firn
340 column, ΔT , by up to -4°C (Supplement Fig. 24). Given the ~~observed~~ likely rise in site temperature and accumulation rate
341 following surface lowering of the ice sheet, as suggested by the water isotope record, this is unexpected. The pre-existing
342 gradient of warming down the borehole at SIR (shown on Supplementary Fig. 52) comes from the geothermal gradient of the
343 ice at the site (Mulvaney et al., 2021). An increasingly negative N excess signal would require a relative cooling of the surface
344 air at the site or a relative warming of the base of the firn column. In the case of the former, we already know that the surface
345 elevation lowered and surface temperatures subsequently increased. A possible mechanism for warming the base of the firn
346 column exists where thinning of the ice sheet occurs at a site where a geothermal gradient warms the base of the ice sheet
347 upwards, or where the geothermal heat flux itself increases. The latter we rule out over the timescales and magnitude of
348 temperature change required here. Considering the former, at the Skytrain ice core site, the measured borehole temperature
349 profile shows an increase in temperature down through the depth of the ice sheet due to the geothermal gradient, from a modern
350 surface temperature of -26°C to a basal temperature of -15°C , a -11°C change over the 654 m ice thickness. Though a potential
351 mechanism to warm the base of the firn column, this would be combined with warming surface temperatures, reducing the
352 temperature gradient in the firn column. While the required temperature gradients for our N excess data seem unlikely in these
353 scenarios, we briefly test these assumptions employing a 1D borehole thermal model (see Supplement). Given the known
354 physical properties at the site, the model confirms that an inversion of temperature gradient to more negative values at the top
355 of the firn column did not occur (Supplement Fig. 52).

356 We did not use the most optimised methodology for measurement of $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ on these samples as the main target was $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. This
357 introduces a limit on how far we can interpret the $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ and as such the N excess signals, alongside the higher 1-sigma
358 uncertainty of the samples suggesting short term variability in the Skytrain record. A possible mechanism to explain an
359 unexpectedly low N excess was presented by Morgan et al. ((Morgan et al., 2022)), a 'seasonal rectifier'. Here, winter
360 temperatures are thought to be preferentially stored in the ice core record. A strong temperature inversion in the firn due to

361 very cold surface temperatures may cause an unstable air-density profile in the firn which convects colder temperatures lower
362 into the firn column, something which is not ‘averaged out’ to the annual mean, as expected, with summer temperatures
363 convecting more shallowly. However, we emphasise again that our N excess record cannot be interpreted as a temperature
364 signal with certainty.

365 **3.5 Comparison to other ice core records**

366 A similar example in terms of magnitude and duration of the nitrogen isotope records observed in Skytrain is presented in the
367 literature, in the Siple Dome ice core (Severinghaus et al., 2003). Siple Dome sits at the interface between the Ross Ice Shelf
368 and WAIS and is similar to Skytrain Ice Rise in location, between ice shelf and ice sheet, in background climatic conditions
369 in the Holocene, and previous geomorphological evidence of large-scale and rapid loss of ice mass in the Ross Sea region
370 during the Holocene (Pittard et al., 2022; Spector et al., 2017).

371 At approximately 15 ka, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Fig. 6) drops rapidly to near zero at Siple Dome. The effect of any thinning in the firn column
372 at Siple Dome must be even greater than at Skytrain, as the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record suggests that gravitational fractionation, and therefore
373 diffusive column height, reduced to near zero. Alternatively, there is potential for a process which enhances the effect of the
374 thinning firn column on the isotope records, for example cracking of the ice exposing gases deeper in the firn column to modern
375 air.

376 Features of abrupt change in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record have been observed in several coastal cores from the WAIS during the Holocene.
377 Here we compare these features and their hypothesised causes to that which is seen in our Skytrain record.

379 Geographically closest to Skytrain, the Berkner ice core was retrieved from Berkner Island, an isolated ice rise sitting at the
380 front of the Ronne Ice Shelf. The nitrogen isotope record shows a considerably disrupted record of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, with multiple features
381 of lowering and recovering values over the period ~ 20 ka - ~ 7 ka (Capron et al., 2013) (Figure 5). The authors could not
382 reconcile the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record with expectations from modelled values based on temperature and accumulation driven firnification
383 alone, concluding that independent processes were affecting firn structure. The features of low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ are of similar magnitude
384 to that seen in Skytrain but are variable in their shape and duration. Sitting closer to the front of the ice shelf, the site may be
385 more susceptible to dynamic changes as ice retreated, compared to those sites at the back of the shelf, resulting in the repeated
386 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ excursions through the Holocene record. Further investigation is needed to confirm this.

387 The RICE core was drilled on Roosevelt Island, sitting similarly to Berkner at the front of the ice shelf in the opposing Ross
388 Sea sector of WAIS. Here the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record is more stable throughout the Holocene but has a distinct drop in the record at ~ 15
389 kyr (Lee et al., 2020). In contrast to our Skytrain record, the RICE $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ does not rapidly recover to higher values, remaining
390 at largely stable, lower values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in a step-wise change. The authors interpret the event as a drop in accumulation rate,
391 caused by changes in atmospheric patterns and potentially extent of the Ross ice shelf. They prefer this to a change in ice
392 thickness, given that their high-resolution record of TAC does not support this. However, there is also geological evidence of

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ice sheet thinning and retreat in the Ross Sea region in the mid-Holocene (Anderson et al., 2014; Bart and Kratochvil, 2022) suggesting that multiple factors could occur simultaneously.

Siple Dome sits at the interface between the ice shelf and ice sheet, akin to Skytrain Ice Rise, but in the opposing sector of the Ross Sea. Two significant events in the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ record occur, at ~21 kyr and ~15 kyr. At 21 kyr, a step-wise decrease in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values has been interpreted as a temperature increase at the site, also seen in the water isotope record, and an accumulation decrease which reduced the firn column height (Severinghaus et al., 2003), driven by thinning of the ice sheet. As with the RICE example, this step-wise change is different in shape to the drop and recovery seen in our Skytrain record, and agrees more with the step-wise changes in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ predicted by our model where only temperature and/or accumulation change (Figure 3).

The event at ~15 ka in Siple Dome corresponds closely in timing to the RICE event, but is different in shape, a very rapid drop to values even lower than at Skytrain, and equally rapid recovery. Such low values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ imply a diffusive column height of almost zero. Although a similar shape to Skytrain, it seems unlikely that dynamic ice sheet thinning alone could reduce the firn column height to almost nothing and then recover again over such a short amount of time. The authors hypothesised that ablation could act on the firn over either a sustained period, removing the majority of the firn column (thought this is unlikely to be able to remove the required amount over the short timescales the record suggests) or over a short time, removing low permeability upper layers and allowing convective mixing of the whole firn column. For Skytrain, we have assessed the possibility of extreme aridity (Figure 4) explaining our $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal. While it is possible to closely match the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ profile under this extreme scenario to our record, the delta age required to do this does not agree with our ice core constraints on the suggested conditions at the time, likely making this an unrealistic scenario. A caveat here is that the ice core constraints on delta age are in themselves modelled, so this experiment becomes somewhat circular and difficult to explore with more certainty.

We may also consider the idea of crevassing driving an extremely low $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signal in the ice core record. The horizontal divergence rates we infer from both the PISM model and our data range between 2 to $4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$. This is at the very lower limit of observations that constrain the critical strain rate for crevassing in ice less than -25°C (Vaughan, 1993), also see (Colgan et al., 2016) for calculation of strain rate) that are observed in somewhat unique environments such as the Dry Valleys (e.g. Meserve Glacier). In fact, most observation from possible analogous location the Ross and Ronne ice shelf and the Siple Coast indicate a critical strain rate between 10^{-2} and 10^{-1} a^{-1} and thus at least one order of magnitude greater than we infer. The diffusive column height at Skytrain was 40 – 45 m based on the measured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, and it thus seems unlikely that we have the strain required to crevasse to such depths.

Clearly, the signal of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ at each ice core site may be driven by different or number of contributing factors, which are currently understudied. Analysis of multiple factors of the record appears important for pulling apart the story of physical ice sheet changes, alongside high-resolution records of the climatological changes in the region at the time. Future expansion to other coastal ice cores with a full suite of analysis is important to unravel this further.

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3.6 Does ice sheet thinning explain the Skytrain TAC signal?

We now revisit how this new understanding of physical firn column changes can help with our interpretation of the TAC record observed in the Skytrain ice core. Our isotope records show that the TAC record is disrupted throughout the same time interval that the firn column is being affected by dynamic changes in firn column thickness. This extends beyond the actual period of change in elevation of the ice sheet at the ice core site. A reliable elevation record from TAC is thus only available where physical firn column processes are also stable. Based on this study, we define this period of disruption for the Skytrain ice core record as between ~ 8.2 ka, before the initial small upward inflection which corresponds to the beginning of the elevation change, and ~ 6.5 ka, where the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ data values re-stabilise and align with model predictions not including horizontal divergence, suggesting stabilisation of firnification processes at the site. This supports the decision of Grieman et al (Grieman et al., 2024) to compare only the stable values from 9.5-8.5 ka (before the disruption) and those from 6.6 to 5.0 ka (after the disruption) to assess the net change in elevation.

The specifics behind the oscillating signal of TAC during dynamic thinning of the firn column are not explained by our isotope data. At the time of bubble close-off, the atmospheric pressure, from which we calculate elevation, is reconstructed from TAC, temperature, and pore volume(Martinerie et al., 1992). The temperature history at the site which affects the amount of air per-volume that is captured, as in the ideal gas law, is calculated using the water isotope record from Skytrain and thus is relatively well constrained (see methods)~~With temperature change at the site well constrained, w.~~ We must consider the other major influence on TAC, pore volume, to explain TAC variability. The nitrogen isotope record presents a consistent drop and then recovery of values over the period of ~ 1.5 kyr, without the oscillations of the TAC record, indicating that the impact on the TAC signal of the thinning of the firn column is not a simple, linear response to a single factor that could be driven by the dynamic thinning, for example an artificial decrease in pore volume driven by mechanical deformation of the snow grain structure.

Pore volume has been shown to be controlled by a complex interplay between the gas and physical ice properties of a firn column at each ice core site based on varying rates of temperature change, accumulation rate and densification profiles. However the fine scale controls on TAC are currently under-studied. Epifanio et al. (2023) observed a strong correlation between accumulation rate and TAC at the low accumulation South Pole ice core site. They propose that snow grain metamorphism is behind this link, with low accumulation rate allowing grains to grow proportionally larger as they remain on or close-to the snow surface for longer, as well as growing towards more spherical shapes that promote higher gas diffusivity and lower TAC. This agrees with Gregory et al. (2014), who found that low accumulation sites in Antarctica close-off at lower open porosity with higher gas diffusivity, compared to higher accumulation sites with finer grain sizes. They suggest that layering in the firn column may also control TAC changes, with layers capturing relic microstructures controlled by accumulation at the time that layer was at the snow surface, which could be a mechanism to control TAC variations over short

458 timescales. Contrastingly, in a central Greenland core, Eicher et al. (2016) found that higher accumulation may lower TAC.
459 With TAC being controlled at the point of bubble close-off, higher accumulation would increase the load on the snow surface
460 and increase densification rates, inhibiting formation of spherical grains and reducing pore volume. This effect could alter the
461 TAC signal for several hundreds of years following the accumulation increase. However, the study focussed on TAC changes
462 during Dansgaard-Oeschger (D-O) events, where background climatic conditions changed significantly and rapidly, thus the
463 changing firn properties could result from a complex interplay of multiple accumulation and temperature effects. Indeed,
464 None of these sites match the physical ice properties and meteorological conditions of the Skytrain ice core. However, these
465 examples do show how strongly TAC may be affected by differing controls on pore volume within a firn column, with such
466 changes being plausible over a rapid ice mass reduction with dynamic firn column changes.

467
468 The oscillating TAC at Skytrain is likely to be a complex interplay of some or all of the above processes as the ice elevation
469 loss and dynamic thinning cause disequilibrium of the firnification process. Future work is planned for grain-scale physical
470 properties analysis of Skytrain ice core samples throughout the Holocene TAC record which may help to elucidate the
471 microstructure changes occurring during the oscillation. We suggest that paired measurements of high-accuracy TAC and inert
472 gas isotopes could be a powerful tool for constraining the history of ice dynamics at ice core sites – particularly at those sites
473 that are sensitive to rapid changes in ice sheet configurations. Neither proxy stands on their own as a perfect archive of ice
474 sheet thickness, with one proxy being obscured or over printed by other processes that are, at least partially, constrained by the
475 other.

476 4. Conclusions

477 Nitrogen isotope measurements in Skytrain ice core identify a period of dramatic firn column thinning during a rapid ice
478 elevation loss at about 8 ka, a process which apparently disrupts the capture of the TAC signal due to the disequilibrium of the
479 firnification process. As ice mass decreased in the Weddell sector of the WAIS through the Holocene deglaciation,
480 ungrounding of the ice at the ice margin and removal of the buttressing effect resulted in horizontal divergence in the ice at
481 Skytrain Ice Rise, thinning the firn column. Such thinning significantly reduces the gravitational fractionation of nitrogen
482 isotopes in the firn column, dominating the physical factors that influence the isotope signal (temperature, accumulation rate)
483 and resulting in a drop in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values (Fig. 6). As far as we are aware from existing literature, this is the first time such a
484 mechanism has been proposed using nitrogen isotope analysis in ice cores. A-similar features is-are present in-the existing
485 Siple Dome-ice core nitrogen isotope records at-15-ka-throughout the coastal WAIS, but an array of potential mechanisms
486 driving firn column change exists to explain each different profile, but these hinting at the possibility that the-same
487 mechanism-rapid, dynamic ice sheet changes is-are at play in other coastal ice rises/domes at different times during the last
488 deglaciation.

We previously had two proxies for ice sheet elevation, water isotopes and TAC, neither of which are perfect but have worked together in a “belts and braces” approach. Now we have a third in the form of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, which reflects the rate of thinning, and thus can use a “belts, braces and buttons” approach when identifying past periods of rapid ice sheet destabilisation. Where destabilisation of the firnification process exists, the large magnitude oscillating TAC record measured in Skytrain ice core is not a true elevation signal. However, the nitrogen isotope record can be used to precisely identify the disrupted portion of the TAC record, helping to resolve the true elevation signal. Nitrogen isotopes are thus important to measure in future studies where TAC is being applied, particularly in regions such as coastal ice-rises where more rapid changes in ice mass are possible. TAC is still a powerful tool for relative elevation change estimates over rapid ice mass changes where disrupted records can be precisely identified and avoided, and indeed the combination with nitrogen isotopes opens the potential to constrain dynamic ice changes, subsequently informing model physics. Future work is planned for ice grain microstructure analysis to further investigate causes of the oscillations in the TAC signal, which is likely driven by an interplay of controls affecting pore volume in the firn column during bubble close-off.

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590 **Data Availability**

591 Data published in this manuscript will be uploaded to the PANGEA data repository on acceptance of the manuscript.

592 **Author Contributions**

593 A.C.F.K: Project concept, sample preparation, data interpretation, wrote manuscript, revised manuscript. T.K.B: data
594 interpretation, wrote manuscript, revised manuscript, funded sample analysis. A.L: Sample analysis, data interpretation,
595 revised manuscript. C.M: Data interpretation, revised manuscript. E.W. Collected and supplied samples, revised manuscript.

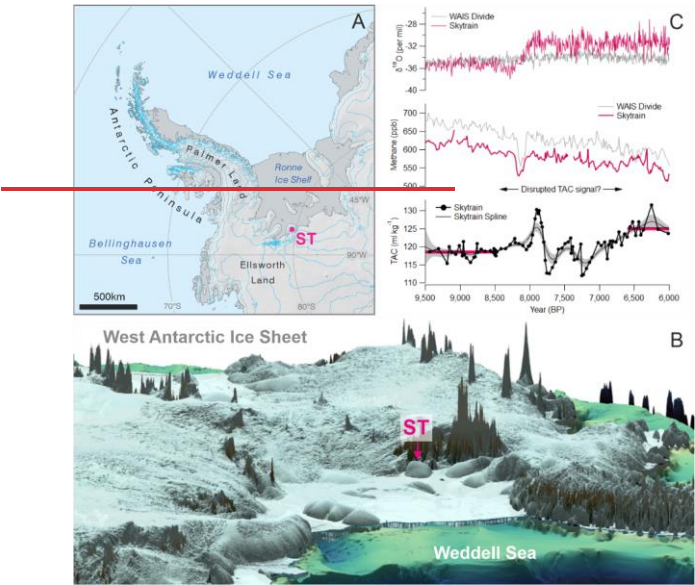
596 **Competing Interests**

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

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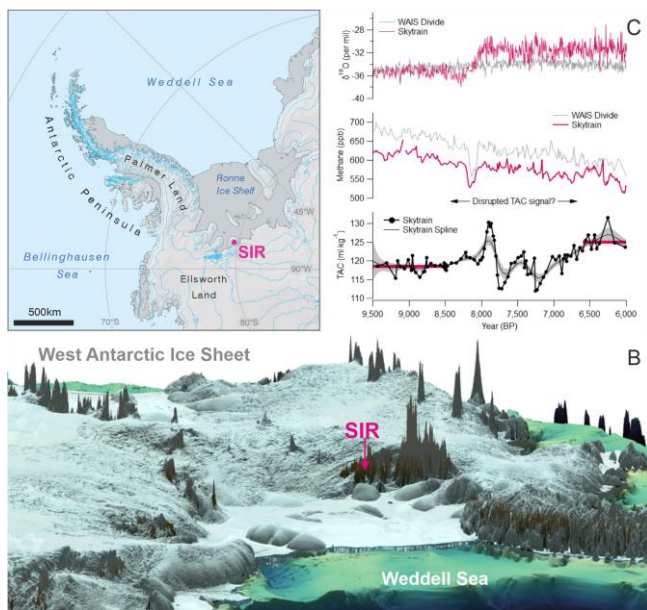
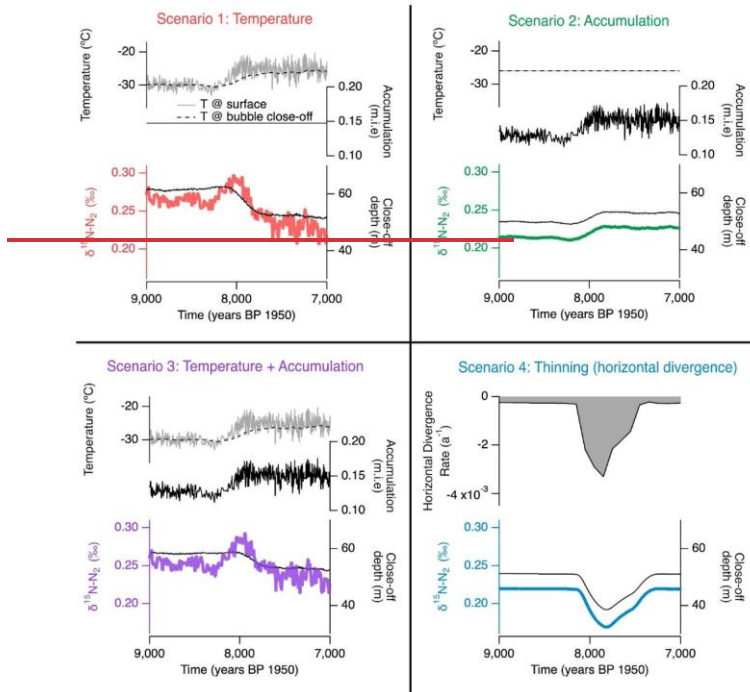


Figure 1: Present day Location map of Skytrain Ice Rise (panel A, ‘SIR’) and shown in a 3D topographic context (panel B, Greene et al., 2017; Morlighem et al., 2020) with SIR sitting at the interface between the floating Ronne Ice Shelf and the outward flowing continental ice sheet of West Antarctica. Panel C highlights the elevation loss event, over ~200 years at ~8 ka, observed in the Skytrain ice core records, with a significant jump in water isotopes (presented on the ST22 ice age scale) caused by ice elevation loss and subsequent temperature increase at the site (Grieman et al., 2024). Comparatively, records from the central WAIS, indicated by the WAIS Divide ice core record (Fudge et al., 2013), remain relatively stable. The TAC record from Skytrain (presented on the ST22 gas age scale), which is expected to indicate elevation at SIR during the ice mass change, shows a complex oscillating signal after 8 ka which is too great to be an elevation signal, and does not re-stabilise until significantly later, ~6.5 ka. Also shown are the CH₄ record from Skytrain (on the ST22 gas age scale) and WAIS Divide (Rhodes et al., 2015; Buizert et al., 2015). Note that the vertical scaling is exaggerated in panel B, but for reference, at time of ice core drilling, SIR was ~784 m elevation above sea level and ~688 km from the ice shelf edge.



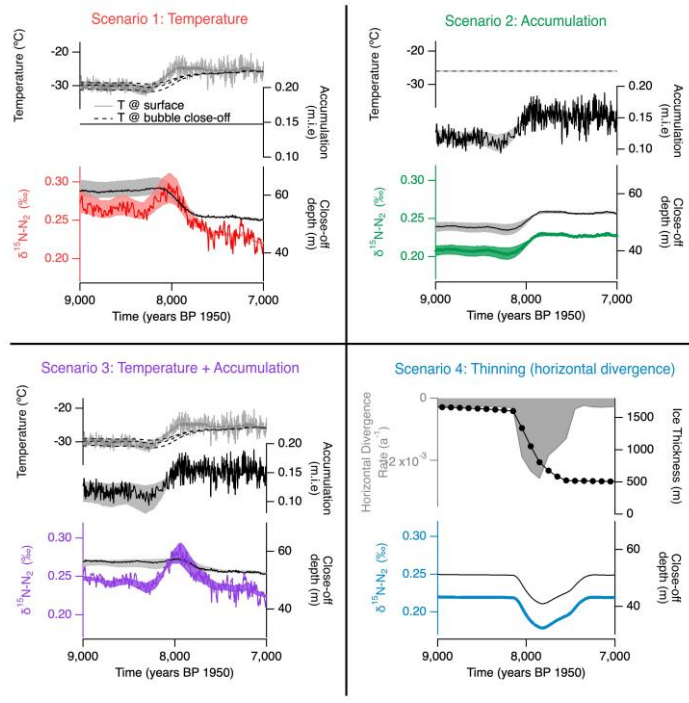
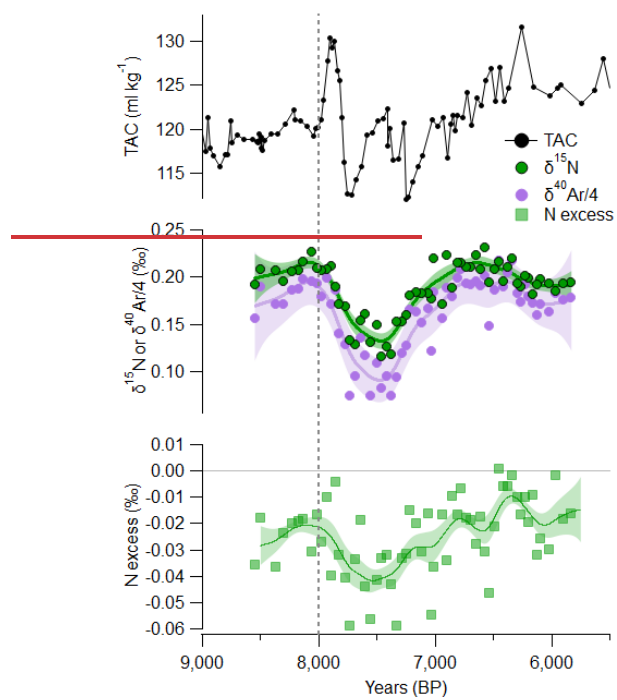


Figure 23: Factorial Experiments using the CFM to disentangle the potential drivers of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ variability at SIR. Panels show changes in temperature-only (red), accumulation-only (green) and a combination of temperature and accumulation (purple) with the two forcings of surface temperature (light grey) and accumulation (solid black). Also shown in these panels are the predicted temperature at bubble close-off (dashed black), the close-off depth (solid black) and the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (coloured coded to the given experiment). Panel 4 shows the prediction using just the horizontal divergence calculated from PISM plus constant accumulation rate (filled in grey).



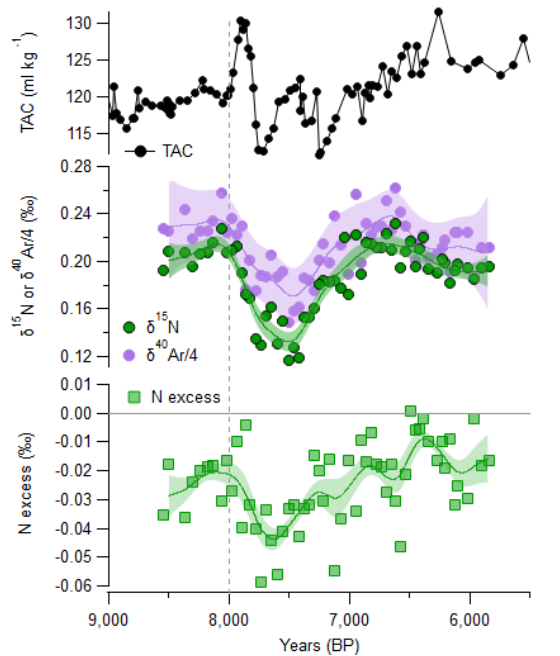


Figure 23: Values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{40}\text{Ar}$ from the Skytrain ice core (middle panel) throughout the rapid elevation change at the site ~ 8 ka (dashed line), plotted against the previously published TAC data (top panel) (Grieman et al., 2024). Smoothing splines are also presented (see methods), with uncertainty bands becoming large at the ends of the dataset due to a lack of constraining data points beyond here. All records are presented on the ST22 gas age scale.

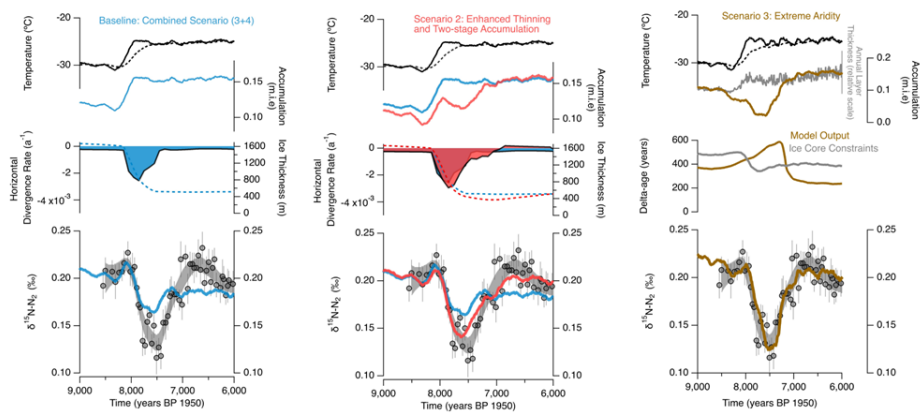
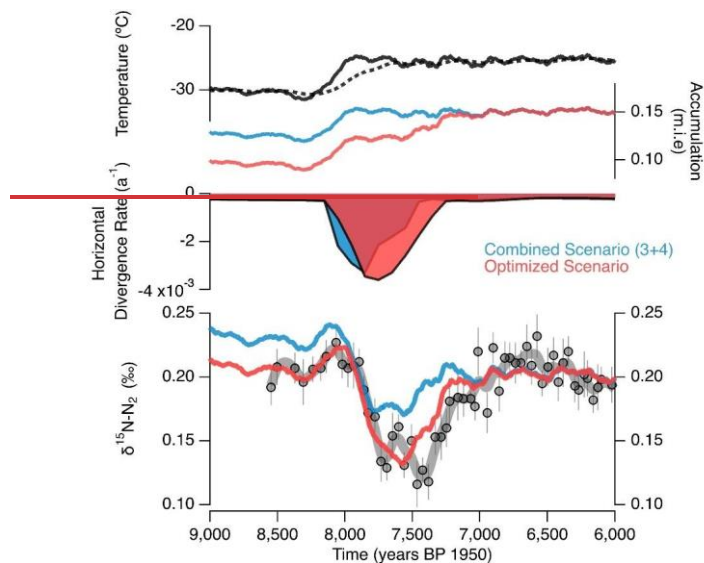
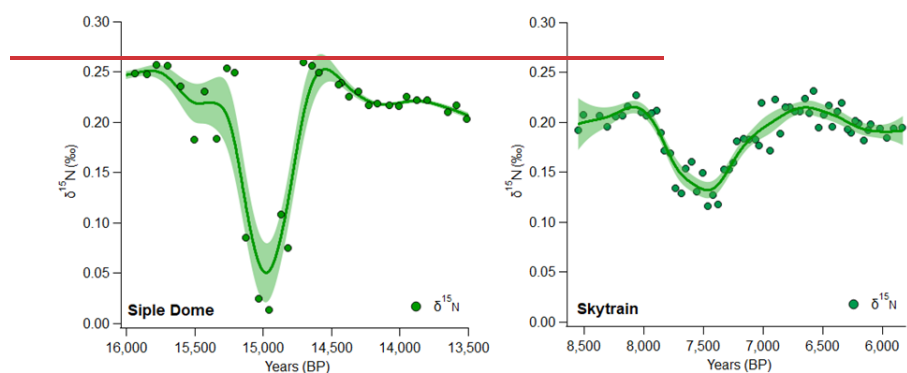


Figure 4: Optimising the model parameters to best fit data, where temperature, accumulation (top plot in each panel) and horizontal divergence rates (middle plot) are adjusted so that the model output of the absolute values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and

646 duration of the reduction in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ more closely match the measured data (~~‘Optimised scenario’, lower panel~~plot in all
647 panels). The left panel shows our ‘baseline’ scenario, that of the temperature, accumulation, and horizontal divergence
648 previous suggested by our measured datasets, from which to build. The middle panel introduces a two stage change in
649 accumulation and enhances the horizontal divergence rate and duration, and the right panel presents a scenario of
650 extreme aridity to demonstrate a period of net ablation.

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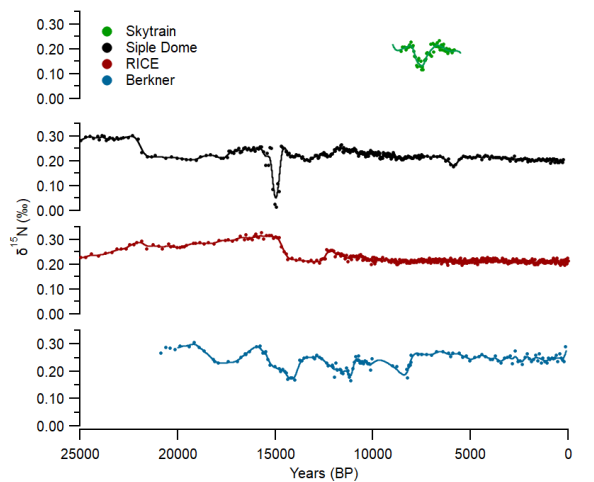


Figure 5: Comparison of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ from the Siple Dome (left) (Severinghaus et al., 2003, 2009) and Skytrain (right) ice cores, highlighting the substantial drop in $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ in both records lasting over timescales of ~ 1000 years.

Figure 5: $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ profiles from previously measured coastal WAIS ice cores, Skytrain (this study), Siple Dome (as published in Morgan et al. 2022), RICE (as published in Lee et al. 2020) and Berkner (as published in Capron et al. 2013).

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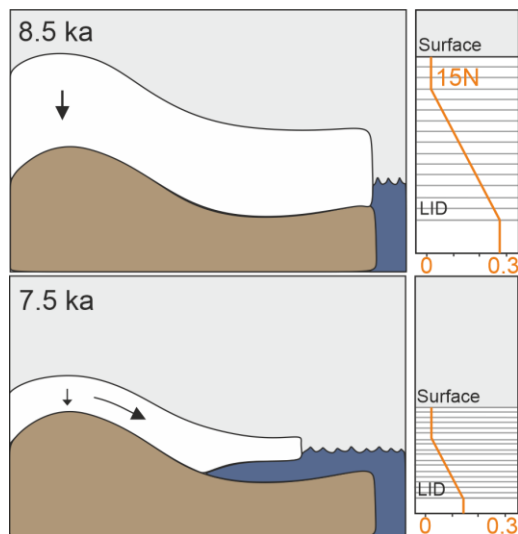


Figure 6: Schematic of the physical ice changes at Skytrain Ice Rise throughout the 8 ka elevation change alongside the effects on the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values shown as profiles through the respective firn column for each scenario of ice thickness. Where ice dynamics are stable at 8.5 ka, $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ increases down the firn column from the ice surface to bubble lock-in depth (LID) due to gravitational fractionation. Where ice thickness is reduced and layers dynamically thinned due to horizontal divergence at 7.5 ka, there is less gravitation fractionation through the thinned firn-column, resulting in lower values of captured $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ at bubble LID. Values of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ shown here are indicative only.