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Multi-decadal evolution of Crary Ice Rise region, West Antarctica, amid modern ice-stream deceleration

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ABSTRACT. The ongoing deceleration of Whillans Ice Stream, West Antarctica, provides an opportunity to investigate the co-evolution of ice-shelf pinning points and ice-stream flux variability. Here, we construct and analyze a 20-year multi-mission satellite altimetry record of dynamic ice surface-elevation change (dh/dt) in the grounded region encompassing lower Whillans Ice Stream and Crary Ice Rise, a major pinning point of Ross Ice Shelf. We developed a new method for generating multi-mission time series that reduces spatial bias and implemented this method with altimetry data from the Ice, Cloud, and land Elevation Satellite (ICESat; 2003–09), CryoSat-2 (2010–present), and ICESat-2 (2018–present) altimetry missions. We then used the dh/dt time series to identify persistent patterns of surface-elevation change and evaluate regional mass balance. Our results suggest a persistent anomalous reduction in ice thickness and effective backstress in the peninsula connecting Whillans Ice Plain to Crary Ice Rise. The multi-decadal observational record of pinning-point mass redistribution and grounding zone retreat presented in this study highlights the on-going reorganization of the southern Ross Ice Shelf embay-

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ment buttressing regime in response to ice-stream deceleration.**INTRODUCTION**

Ice shelves, the ungrounded, seaward extensions of grounded ice sheets, restrain the flow of ice from upstream and across the grounding zone, where ice begins to float (e.g., Gudmundsson, 2013). Pinning points, areas where the ice-shelf base is in contact with subglacial bathymetric features, enhance the resistive back forces of the ice shelf, known as buttressing (Matsuoka and others, 2015; Still and others, 2019; Miles and Bingham, 2024). Buttressing originating from pinning points is suggested to substantially stabilize ice shelves and regulate the outflow of land ice from ice streams in both paleoglaciological and modern records (e.g., Halberstadt and others, 2016; Gudmundsson and others, 2017). Despite their well-documented stabilizing effects in quickly evolving regions (e.g., Tinto and Bell, 2011; Alley and others, 2021; Wild and others, 2022), the evolution of pinning-point stabilization is poorly understood through observations (Matsuoka and others, 2015; Miles and Bingham, 2024). Quantifying the rates of and mechanisms for grounding zone and thickness evolution at pinning point regions in the observational record can provide key constraints on past, present, and future changes in ice-shelf buttressing.

The Ross Sea sector of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet contains dynamic ice streams, fast-flowing rivers of grounded ice, that transport ice across the Gould, Siple, and Shirase coasts' grounding zones and into Ross Ice Shelf (Fig. 1a; Joughin and others, 2005; Catania and others, 2012). Ross Ice Shelf contains many pinning points near the grounding zone (Fig. 1a; Dupont and Alley, 2005; Fürst and others, 2016; Still and Hulbe, 2021), which enhance buttressing and reduce the ice-stream flux feeding the ice shelf. The ice-stream networks of the Ross Sea sector together maintain a positive mass balance (e.g., Rignot and others, 2019), but the mass balances of individual ice streams vary (e.g., Smith and others, 2020) as a result of internal variability-driven ice-stream processes (Hulbe and Fahnestock, 2007; Robel and others, 2014). Although Ross Sea sector ice-stream flow variability cycles occur on century timescales (Catania and others, 2012; Robel and others, 2014), changes to ice-stream margins, grounding zone geometries, and local thickness resulting from ice-stream cycles are observable on comparatively shorter decadal (or sub-decadal) timescales (Conway and others, 2002). As such, this region provides a unique opportunity to isolate the interplay of dynamic ice-stream stagnation-reactivation and pinning-point mass changes on observational timescales.

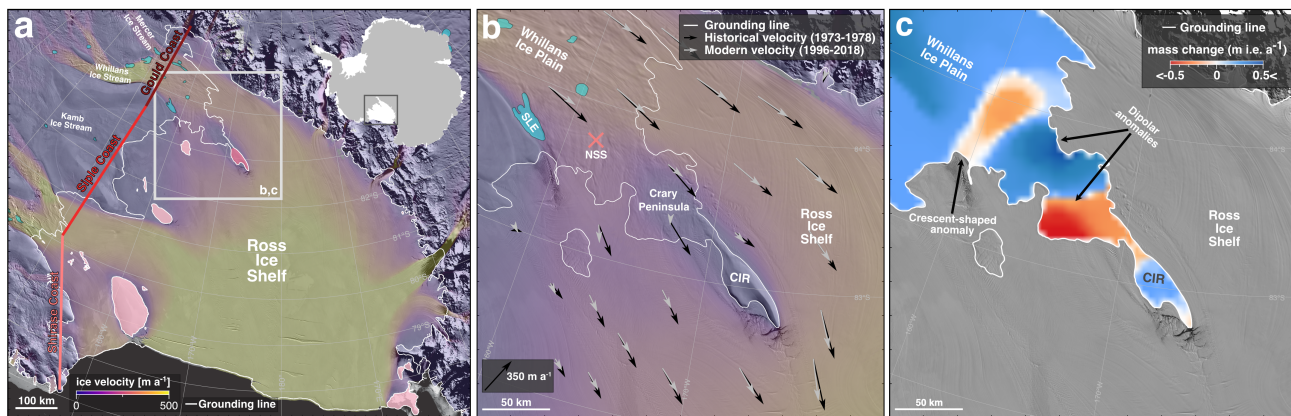


Fig. 1. (a) Map of Ross Ice Shelf and its pinning points (highlighted light pink; Crary Ice Rise highlighted dark pink) along the Gould, Siple, and Shirase coasts (labeled with red lines). Inset map shows the location in Antarctica; boxed region shows the location of panels b and c. (b) Crary Ice Rise region, where lower Whillans Ice Plain flows across the Crary peninsula into Crary Ice Rise (CIR) and Ross Ice Shelf at the Gould Coast grounding zone. Historical ice-surface velocities (black arrows) from historical field measurements (Thomas and others, 1984) and modern ice-surface velocities (gray arrows) based on MEASUREs phase-based InSAR velocity product (Mouginot and others, 2019); location of the Northern Sticky Spot (NSS; Winberry and others, 2014), which contributes to the modulation of ice flow into Ross Ice Shelf, marked by pink crossmark. (c) Mass change in the Crary Ice Rise region between 2003–09 and 2018–19 as seen in Smith and others (2020). Red indicates regions of mass loss and blue indicates regions of mass gain. Background of all panels has imagery from the MODIS Mosaic of Antarctica (Scambos and others, 2007) with grounding line (white) from Depoorter and others (2013); panels a and b have modern ice-surface velocities (colored background) from the MEASUREs phase-based InSAR velocity product (Mouginot and others, 2019) and subglacial lake geometries (cyan, Siegfried and Fricker, 2018), including Engelhardt Subglacial Lake (SLE in panel b), overlain.

56 Crary Ice Rise (CIR), a Ross Ice Shelf pinning point located adjacent to the Gould Coast grounding zone,
 57 lies downstream of ice discharged from Whillans Ice Stream (WIS) and Mercer Ice Stream (Fig. 1b; Still
 58 and others, 2019). CIR formed ~ 1100 years ago (Bindschadler and others, 1990; Catania and others, 2012)
 59 when Ross Ice Shelf thickened and locally re-grounded on marine sediments, driving enhanced resistance
 60 to ice flow and reduced spreading rates in this region (Matsuoka and others, 2015). Based on regionally
 61 averaged mass balance estimations and ice flow models, CIR accounts for approximately 50% of ice-stream
 62 buttressing in this region when ice-shelf contact with the pinning point (i.e., pinning-point geometry)
 63 is considered static (MacAyeal and others, 1987; MacAyeal, 1987; MacAyeal and others, 1989). This
 64 buttressing force is transmitted across the ice shelf and a grounded intermediate region (hereafter referred

65 to as “Crary peninsula”; Fig. 1b) that connects CIR to the larger West Antarctic Ice Sheet. Just upstream
66 of Crary peninsula, there is a low-sloped, lightly grounded region of ice where the Mercer Ice Stream and
67 WIS trunks merge called Whillans Ice Plain (WIP; Fig. 1). The large plain of plastic subglacial till that
68 underlies WIP effectively transmits frictional backstresses, amplifying the effect of upstream buttressing
69 provided by CIR (Bougamont and others, 2011; Fried and others, 2014; Still and others, 2019). Given
70 how close to flotation this region is (Bindschadler and others, 2003), the buttressing regime of this area is
71 particularly sensitive to small changes in ice thickness (Fried and others, 2014). Observations of ongoing
72 WIS deceleration and subsequent regional thickness changes affecting ice mass distribution (Joughin and
73 others, 2005; Beem and others, 2014; Winberry and others, 2014; Siegfried and others, 2016) imply the
74 impact of CIR buttressing will likely change in response.

75 Previous studies of surface-elevation change on the CIR complex (i.e., where the pinning point consists
76 of the main ice rise and a collection of smaller adjacent pinning-point features) (e.g., MacAyeal and others,
77 1987, 1989) and lower WIP (e.g., Bindschadler and others, 1993) revealed positive mass balances due to
78 regional thickening. Although these studies hypothesized ice rises respond to changes in ice-stream flux,
79 they had not yet observed changes to the pinning points in response to the current slowdown of WIS. More
80 recent studies of ice-stream interaction with CIR observed decreased velocity and flow redirection around
81 CIR since the 1960s due to WIS flux variability (e.g., Bindschadler and Vornberger, 1998). Observations
82 since 1963 show WIP slowing (Stephenson and Bindschadler, 1988), with the rate of slowing increasing
83 more recently (Beem and others, 2014; Winberry and others, 2014; Siegfried and others, 2016).

84 The modern satellite record captures mass changes at CIR: between 2003–09 and 2018–19, WIS and
85 WIP show thickening over a broad region (Fig. 1c; Smith and others, 2020) that is likely associated
86 with ongoing stagnation (Fig. 1b). Just downstream of WIP, there are distinct, heterogeneous patterns
87 of thickness changes: (i) a crescent-shaped thinning anomaly on lower WIP and (ii) a dipolar anomaly
88 upstream of CIR consisting of adjacent thickening and thinning patterns (Fig. 1c). Although this record
89 covers nearly 20 years of change, the approach of linearly interpolating ice surface-elevation change rate
90 (dh/dt) estimates taken only at inter-mission crossover points (as described in Smith and others, 2020)
91 limits our knowledge of the variability of this unique pattern of change surrounding a major Ross Ice Shelf
92 pinning point.

93 Here, we investigate the 20-year adjustment of the grounded region encompassing lower WIP and CIR
94 (hereafter referred to collectively as “the CIR region”, as shown in Fig. 1b) with increased spatial and

95 temporal resolution to quantify the time-variability of mass redistribution due to ice-stream/pinning-point
96 interaction. We used all available satellite altimetry data with sufficient spatial resolution (i.e., footprints
97 $<1 \text{ km}^2$) to resolve the spatially heterogeneous evolution of the CIR region. After generating a time
98 series of anomalous dh/dt , we estimated the anomalous mass balance of CIR and the surrounding region
99 during WIS stagnation. We suggest that WIS deceleration initiated local flow rotation, regional ice mass
100 redistribution, and a reduction in grounded pinning-point region area, which could substantially impact
101 CIR buttressing of the ice streams that feed the southern Ross Ice Shelf embayment.

102 DATA AND METHODS

103 Study region

104 We targeted the grounded CIR region (an area of approximately 300 km x 300 km) that contains the
105 decelerating lower WIP, Crary peninsula, the CIR complex, and the Gould Coast grounding zone (Fig. 1).
106 The subglacial environment of WIP consists of interconnected networks of subglacial lakes (e.g., Fricker
107 and others, 2007; Siegfried and Fricker, 2021) and sticky spots (e.g., Pratt and others, 2014; Winberry and
108 others, 2014) that help regulate the pacing of ice flow before reaching CIR and Ross Ice Shelf. Ice flow of
109 lower WIP diverges as it flows into CIR: ice on the southwestern flank (grid northeast) of CIR maintains
110 its flow direction until it flows past the ice rise, whereas ice on the northeast flank (grid southwest) diverts
111 to the geographic north to flow past the Crary peninsula and around the ice rise. Where the ice reaches the
112 topographic high at the bed of CIR, the frictional back-stress on the ice forms the dome-shaped expression
113 of the pinning point at the ice surface (“CIR” in Fig. 1b).

114 Velocity data

115 We used two velocity datasets capturing historical and modern ice flow direction and regional patterns
116 of flow deceleration across the CIR region since the 1970s. Between 1973 and 1978, the Ross Ice Shelf
117 Geophysical and Glaciological Survey (RIGGS) estimated surface velocity using conventional surveying
118 techniques corrected via Doppler satellite tracking observations at a set of field stations across Ross Ice
119 Shelf and the Gould, Siple, and Shirase coast grounding zones (black vectors in Fig. 1b; Thomas and
120 others, 1984). Modern spaceborne estimates of surface velocity taken between 1996 and 2018 have been
121 compiled in the MEaSURES phase-based InSAR velocity product (gray vectors in Fig. 1b; Mougnot
122 and others, 2019), which used interferometric phase and speckle tracking from various satellite synthetic

123 aperture radars to produce high-resolution ice velocity maps across Antarctica. We used a bicubic grid
124 interpolation scheme implemented in PyGMT (Tian and others, 2023) to resample the modern velocity
125 product at the locations of the RIGGS survey over the CIR region. This produced a modern velocity map
126 directly comparable to the 1970s measurements (Fig. 1b).

127 **Multi-decadal altimetry analysis from ICESat, CryoSat-2, and ICESat-2**

128 Satellite altimeters measure surface elevation over time on Earth's surface, enabling estimates of dh/dt
129 over polar ice sheets. Considered individually, no single mission provides the altimetry record length
130 and spatial detail necessary to develop our understanding of regional, multi-decadal responses to century-
131 scale ice-stream processes. Therefore, we constructed a self-consistent, multi-mission dh/dt product from
132 NASA's Ice, Cloud, and land Elevation Satellite (ICESat), the European Space Agency's CryoSat-2, and
133 NASA's ICESat-2 missions spanning 20 years (2003–22) of observations. The instrument designs of both
134 the CryoSat-2 (Wingham and others, 2006) and ICESat-2 (Markus and others, 2017) missions provide
135 substantially greater spatial sampling than the ICESat mission (Schutz and others, 2005), so we focused
136 our dh/dt record construction around ICESat orbital ground tracks for consistent spatial sampling for
137 inter-mission comparison. We corrected elevation measurements for surface mass balance (SMB) and firn
138 air content (FAC) using NASA's Goddard Space Flight Center's firn densification model (GSFC-FDM;
139 Medley and others, 2022), which is driven by NASA's Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research
140 and Applications, Version 2 (MERRA-2; Gelaro and others, 2017), yielding the dynamic component of
141 ice-thickness change in m of ice equivalent over grounded ice. In this section, we describe each of these
142 altimetry datasets and our time-series generation process.

143 *ICESat data (2003–09)*

144 NASA's ICESat laser altimetry mission collected repeat-track surface-elevation measurements in the CIR
145 region from 2003 to 2009 using the single-beam Geoscience Laser Altimetry System (GLAS) instrument.
146 ICESat measured surface elevations along a set of reference tracks two to three times per year with a
147 50–70 m footprint every 170 m along-track (Schutz and others, 2005; Smith and others, 2009) and a
148 vertical accuracy of ± 0.1 m (Siegfried and others, 2011; Borsa and others, 2019). The spacing between
149 reference tracks was approximately 2.5 km at the latitudes of the CIR region due to the satellite's polar
150 orbit with a 94° inclination. We used the GLAS/ICESat L2 Global Antarctic and Greenland Ice Sheet

151 Altimetry Data (GLA12), Version 34 data product (Zwally and others, 2014), corrected for saturation bias,
152 Gaussian-centroid offset, and TOPEX to WGS-84 reference ellipsoid.

153 *CryoSat-2 data (2010–present)*

154 The European Space Agency’s CryoSat-2 mission, launched in 2010, uses its Synthetic Aperture Inter-
155 ferometric Radar Altimeter (SIRAL) instrument in three different modes over polar regions (Wingham
156 and others, 2006). Over the CIR region, SIRAL is in Synthetic Aperture Radar Interferometric (SARIn)
157 mode, which can resolve surface elevation both at the Point-of-Closest-Approach (POCA) beneath the
158 satellite (McMillan and others, 2013) and across-track swaths through a phase-unwrapping technique (e.g.,
159 Hawley and others, 2009; Gray and others, 2013; Gourmelen and others, 2018). We used the CryoTEMPO-
160 EOLIS Baseline 1 phase-unwrapped SARIn data product (Gourmelen and others, 2018) collected between
161 September 2010 and December 2022, which has along-track spatial resolution of approximately 400 m
162 and an incident-angle-dependent across-track spatial resolution in the range of 100s of m with a vertical
163 resolution of 1s of m (Gray and others, 2013, 2017; McMillan and others, 2013).

164 *ICESat-2 data (2018–present)*

165 NASA’s ICESat-2 laser altimetry mission (the follow-on mission to the ICESat mission) has collected
166 surface-elevation measurements using the multi-beam Advanced Topographic Laser Altimeter System (AT-
167 LAS) instrument since its launch in September 2018. The ICESat-2 repeat-track orbit provides surface
168 elevations every 91 days along a set of reference tracks with a 13 m footprint and 0.7 m along-track spac-
169 ing between laser pulses (Magruder and others, 2020). The single ATLAS laser diffracts into six beams
170 organized into three pairs with ~ 3.3 km separation across-track and ~ 90 m separation within each pair,
171 increasing the spatial sampling (Markus and others, 2017). We used the ATL06 ATLAS/ICESat-2 L3A
172 Land Ice Height, Version 006 data product (Smith and others, 2023), which provides a surface-elevation
173 estimate every 20 m along-track with 40 m resolution, for our dh/dt calculations. We separately used
174 cycle 14 (22 December 2021 through 23 March 2022) dh model surface of the 1 km resolution ATL15
175 ATLAS/ICESat-2 L3B Gridded Antarctic and Arctic Land Ice Height Change, Version 2 data product
176 (Smith and others, 2022) to derive higher spatial resolution outlines of dh/dt pattern geometries.

177 *MERRA-2 and GSFC-FDM*

178 NASA's MERRA-2 is a global atmospheric reanalysis model (Gelaro and others, 2017) contemporaneous
179 with the satellite era (1980 to present) that provides atmospheric variables on a 0.625° longitude x 0.5°
180 latitude resolution grid at hourly intervals. MERRA-2 was used to drive a firn-densification model (Medley
181 and others, 2022) to generate realistic SMB and FAC components of surface-elevation change throughout
182 Antarctica (e.g., Smith and others, 2020). We used MERRA-2 and GSFC-FDM through the SMBcorr
183 Python package (Sutterley and others, 2018) to estimate the contributions of SMB and FAC surface
184 processes to height at every ICESat, CryoSat-2, and ICESat-2 elevation measurement within the study
185 region. We then subtracted the surface process components from each surface-elevation measurement and
186 interpreted the following dh/dt estimates as representative of the component related to dynamic ice-sheet
187 processes.

188 *Estimation of surface-elevation change time series*

189 The ICESat mission provided the coarsest sampling of surface-elevation measurements, so the finest com-
190 parable resolution for our combined 20-year record must be limited to the ICESat sampling density. Due
191 to variations in pointing control, ICESat repeat-tracks deviated up to 100s of m from the reference ground
192 track (Siegfried and others, 2011), and therefore we could not directly estimate dh/dt on a footprint-by-
193 footprint basis. Instead, we generated an ad hoc, local reference track for each repeated ICESat track in
194 the grounded CIR region. We divided this local reference track into 1 km x 1 km patches separated by
195 250 m along-track for aggregating data from which to calculate dh/dt . Within each patch, we accumulated
196 all SMB- and FAC-corrected elevation data and filtered the data to ensure aggregated elevations spanned
197 at least five years to reduce temporal bias in the resulting dh/dt estimates. We also excluded outlying
198 elevations greater than three standard deviations from the mean elevation of each patch.

199 We then simultaneously solved for the best-fit plane to the data and secular dh/dt within a patch during
200 the ICESat period following Smith and others (2009) using:

$$h(x, y, t) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1(x - \bar{x}) + \alpha_2(y - \bar{y}) + \alpha_3(t - \bar{t}) \quad (1)$$

201 where $h(x, y, t)$ represents ICESat observations of surface elevation (in m) at a position (x, y) and given time
202 t , and α represents the model variables needed to describe the planar model (α_{0-2}) and dh/dt (α_3). The

203 difference between the spatio-temporal position of an observation and $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{t})$, the mean spatiotemporal
204 positions within a patch, was multiplied by model variables to form a best-fit planar model and dh/dt
205 estimate. Equation 1 generates a system of equations where the number of equations equals the number of
206 altimetric observations within a patch. We solved for the model parameters (α_{0-3}) using the linear algebra
207 subpackage of SciPy, a scientific computing software package in Python (Virtanen and others, 2020), for
208 each patch along the ICESat ad hoc reference tracks. We then assigned the resulting estimated dh/dt value
209 (in m a^{-1}) to the center of the patch.

210 We repeated this process over the ad hoc ICESat reference tracks for data from the CryoSat-2 (2010–
211 22) and ICESat-2 (2018–22) missions to generate time series of dh/dt over the CIR region at inter-mission
212 comparable locations (Fig. S1). We limited CryoSat-2 dh/dt estimations to five-year periods posted
213 annually (e.g., 2010–14, 2011–15) to approximately match the temporal resolution of our ICESat and
214 ICESat-2 analyses. We additionally calculated the root mean square error within each patch to test the fit
215 of the modeled dh/dt estimates compared to altimetry observations (Fig. S2).

216 *Anomalous surface-elevation change time series*

217 After generating the dh/dt time series (Fig. 2, S1), we removed the regional mean value of dh/dt at each
218 time interval (Fig. S3) to evaluate the magnitudes and trends of spatial anomalies in the dh/dt field (Fig.
219 3, S4). Non-zero regional means captured long-wavelength background signals (e.g., regional dynamic
220 thickening from increasing basal friction; Joughin and others, 2002; Stearns and others, 2005; Beem and
221 others, 2014) shared by all data in the region as well as any time-variable altimetric or reanalysis/surface
222 mass balance biases that are regionally coherent (e.g., Bromwich and others, 2011; Nilsson and others,
223 2016). By looking at the time series of dh/dt changes relative to the regional average (Fig. 3, S4), we
224 isolate local changes to thickness gradients, which impacts the force-balance of the system. We refer to
225 dh/dt data without means removed as “ dh/dt ” and dh/dt data with regional means removed as “anomalous
226 dh/dt ”. We used the anomalous dh/dt time series for our analyses of height-change anomaly persistence
227 and anomalous mass balance trends in this study.

228 **Surface-elevation anomaly delineations**

229 One of our goals was to evaluate the time evolution of anomalous dh/dt patterns in the CIR region.
230 Guided by regional anomalies identified by Smith and others (2020), we located anomalous thickening

231 and thinning signals in the CIR region using a 5 km, low-pass filtered form of the ICESat-2 ATL15 data
232 product (cycle 14; Smith and others, 2022). We used the cycle 14 dh/dt contours to delineate (fixed)
233 boundaries for coherent anomaly geometries. The resulting spatial boundaries were used to mask sub-
234 regions of our anomalous dh/dt estimates and generate a 20-year time series of mean anomalous dh/dt
235 within each boundary (reported, in the main text, as mean \pm standard error) and its variability across the
236 sub-regions (as mean \pm standard deviation, provided in the supplementary material).

237 Mass Balance Estimates

238 We constructed time series of anomalous geodetic mass balance (e.g., Zwally and others, 2015; Smith and
239 others, 2020; Goel and others, 2022) using the anomalous dh/dt estimates to approximate the evolution of
240 relative ice distribution within the CIR region throughout the observational period. We estimated mass
241 balance with:

$$M = \frac{\overline{dh}}{dt} c \rho_i A \quad (2)$$

242 where M is the anomalous geodetic mass balance (in Gt a⁻¹), $\frac{\overline{dh}}{dt}$ is the average of anomalous dh/dt
243 estimates within a specified area (in m a⁻¹), c is a conversion factor (10^{-12} Gt kg⁻¹), ρ_i is the density
244 of ice (917 kg m⁻³), and A is the area of a defined subregion (using an Antarctic Polar Stereographic
245 projection; in m²). SMB and FAC corrections removed the signal of surface processes from our estimated
246 dh/dt , and by starting from the assumption that the ice is consistently grounded, all height changes can be
247 converted to mass changes. The resulting signal reflects anomalous mass redistribution in the region, likely
248 the result of internal flow variability (as the large and slow-changing Ross Ice Shelf largely buffers the CIR
249 region from external forcing; Rignot and others, 2013). We revisit these assumptions in our discussion.

250 RESULTS

251 A comparison of historical and modern velocities (Fig. 1b) yields a record of regional flow deceleration
252 and rotation since the 1970s observations. The ongoing slowdown of WIS is reflected in reduced modern
253 velocities in the CIR region. Additionally, the modern flow direction (gray arrows in Fig. 1b) shows that
254 CIR generates a more pronounced diversion in ice-shelf flow than in the historical velocity observations
255 (black arrows in Fig. 1b), indicating the development of regional flow rotation in the CIR region since the

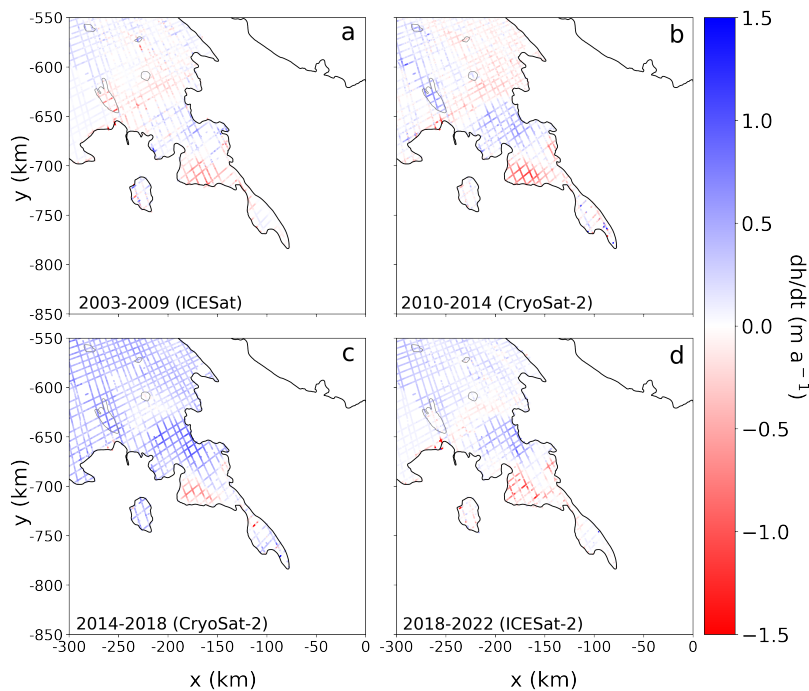


Fig. 2. Snapshots from our 20-year time series of ice surface-elevation change rate (dh/dt) over grounded ice in the Crary Ice Rise region from satellite altimetry. All altimetry missions sampled to match locations of ICESat ad hoc reference tracks. Estimates of annual dh/dt ($m a^{-1}$) were generated from data partitioned in five-year periods. The panels represent along-track dh/dt estimates derived from (a) ICESat (2003–09), (b) CryoSat-2 (2010–14), (c) CryoSat-2 (2014–18), and (d) ICESat-2 (2018–22) observations. Grounding line (Depoorter and others, 2013) shown in black. Subglacial lake geometries (Siegfried and Fricker, 2018) outlined in gray. Estimates of dh/dt over floating ice and the Transantarctic Mountains are excluded. The complete 20-year time series is shown in Fig. S1.

256 1970s observations.

257 WIP exhibited notably increased regional thickening between the 2013–17 and 2016–20 intervals (Fig.
 258 2c, S1, S3), which caused the CIR region to reach its peak average dh/dt magnitude (mean of 0.340 ± 0.002
 259 $m a^{-1}$) in the 2014–18 interval. Large, positive regional mean dh/dt values concentrated in the middle of the
 260 time series (Fig. S1, S3) may indicate a time-variable ice dynamic process (e.g., regionally increasing basal
 261 friction) or systemic bias in the time series (e.g., Nilsson and others, 2016), both of which are independent
 262 of what dynamics cause the anomalies. We therefore use the anomalous dh/dt time series focused on
 263 anomalous thickness processes in the pinning-point region (i.e., data from Fig. 3) for the remainder of
 264 the analyses in this study. Regional-scale signals of increased thickening between the 2013–17 and 2016–
 265 20 intervals did not change the persistence of the anomalous dh/dt patterns across WIP and the Crary
 266 peninsula (i.e., Fig. 3c compared to Fig. 3a, 3b, 3d).

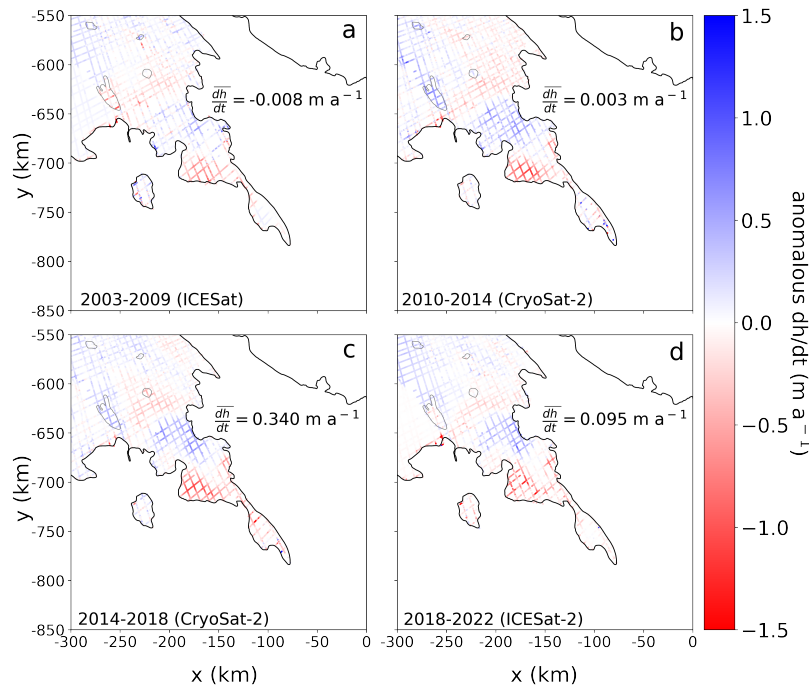


Fig. 3. 20-year time series of anomalous ice surface-elevation change rate (dh/dt) estimates after removing the mean dh/dt value of the corresponding five-year interval. All missions sampled to match locations of ICESat ground tracks. Panels represent along-track anomalous dh/dt estimates derived from (a) ICESat (2003–09), (b) CryoSat-2 (2010–14), (c) CryoSat-2 (2014–18), and (d) ICESat-2 (2018–22) missions. Grounding line (Depoorter and others, 2013) shown in black. Subglacial lake geometries (Siegfried and Fricker, 2018) outlined in gray. Estimates of anomalous dh/dt over floating ice and the Transantarctic Mountains are excluded. The complete 20-year time series of anomalous dh/dt estimates is located in Fig. S4.

267 Evolution of surface-elevation anomalies

268 The 20-year combined altimetry record of dh/dt revealed heterogeneous surface-elevation change across the
 269 CIR region that persisted throughout the observational record (Fig. 2, 3, S1, S4). Our time series shows
 270 dh/dt anomalies in locations consistent with Smith and others (2020) (Fig. 1c), but with a higher spatial
 271 and temporal resolution capturing anomaly evolution. We target our analysis around four anomalies: (i)
 272 the crescent-shaped anomaly (Fig. 4a, 4b); (ii) the thickening portion of the dipolar anomaly (Fig. 4a,
 273 4c); and the thinning portion of the dipolar anomaly, which we split into the (iii) inland portion of the
 274 thinning signal (Fig. 4a, 4d) and (iv) seaward portion of the thinning signal (Fig. 4a, 4e). In this section,
 275 we present the dh/dt anomaly evolution of the four anomalies throughout the time series (Fig. 4, S5).

276 The dh/dt thresholds we used to delineate continuous boundaries around the anomalies in the ICESat-2

277 ATL15 data product (Fig. 4a) and their fixed areas were: -0.050 m a^{-1} for the crescent-shaped anomaly
278 covering an area of 917 km^2 ; 0.080 m a^{-1} for the thickening dipolar anomaly covering an area of 1743 km^2 ;
279 -0.35 m a^{-1} for the inland thinning dipolar anomaly covering an area of 577 km^2 ; and the space between
280 the inland signal boundary and the previously mapped grounding zone (Depoorter and others, 2013) for the
281 seaward thinning dipolar anomaly covering an area of 552 km^2 . Within each fixed boundary, we estimated
282 the mean anomalous dh/dt for each period of the time series (Fig. 4) and describe the resulting height
283 changes below.

284 The anomalous dh/dt signal of the crescent-shaped anomaly remained steady with a mean of $-0.173 \pm$
285 0.003 m a^{-1} throughout the time series (Fig. 4b). The peak magnitude of the crescent-shaped anomaly,
286 $-0.208 \pm 0.003 \text{ m a}^{-1}$, occurred during the 2015–19 interval.

287 The thickening portion of the dipolar signal sustained its anomalous signal over the 20-year time series
288 with a mean of $0.301 \pm 0.004 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4a, 4c). The anomalous thickening signal here reached its
289 maximum magnitude of $0.420 \pm 0.005 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in the 2012–16 interval.

290 The adjacent thinning portion of the dipolar anomaly, on the other hand, appeared to be the most
291 time-variable of the anomalies in the CIR region. Both the inland (Fig. 4d) and seaward (Fig. 4e) portions
292 of the thinning anomaly maintained anomalous thinning signals (with mean anomalous dh/dt values of
293 $-0.595 \pm 0.010 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ and $-0.434 \pm 0.010 \text{ m a}^{-1}$, respectively) throughout the time series. However, as the
294 inland thinning signal began increasing in magnitude (i.e., more negative) after the 2012–16 interval (with
295 mean anomalous dh/dt values from $-0.575 \pm 0.011 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in 2012–16 to its maximum of $-0.703 \pm 0.014 \text{ m}$
296 a^{-1} in the ICESat-2 2018–22 interval), the seaward signal decreased in magnitude (from $-0.589 \pm 0.012 \text{ m}$
297 a^{-1} in 2012–16 to $-0.206 \pm 0.007 \text{ m a}^{-1}$ in the CryoSat-2 2018–22 interval).

298 Mass balance estimation

299 We used the anomaly delineations to partition the CIR region into four subregions for anomalous mass
300 balance calculations based on anomalous dh/dt : WIP, Crary (an area encompassing the crescent-shaped
301 anomaly to the CIR complex, excluding WIP), the thickening portion of the dipolar anomaly, and the
302 thinning portion of the dipolar anomaly (Fig. 5, S6). Throughout the time series, the WIP subregion
303 (Fig. 5b) and both the Crary (Fig. 5c) and thickening dipolar (Fig. 5d) subregions exhibited opposite
304 trending signals (i.e., when WIP experiences increased anomalous mass gain, Crary and the thickening
305 dipolar subregion experience increased anomalous mass loss). Between the 2012–16 and 2015–19 intervals,

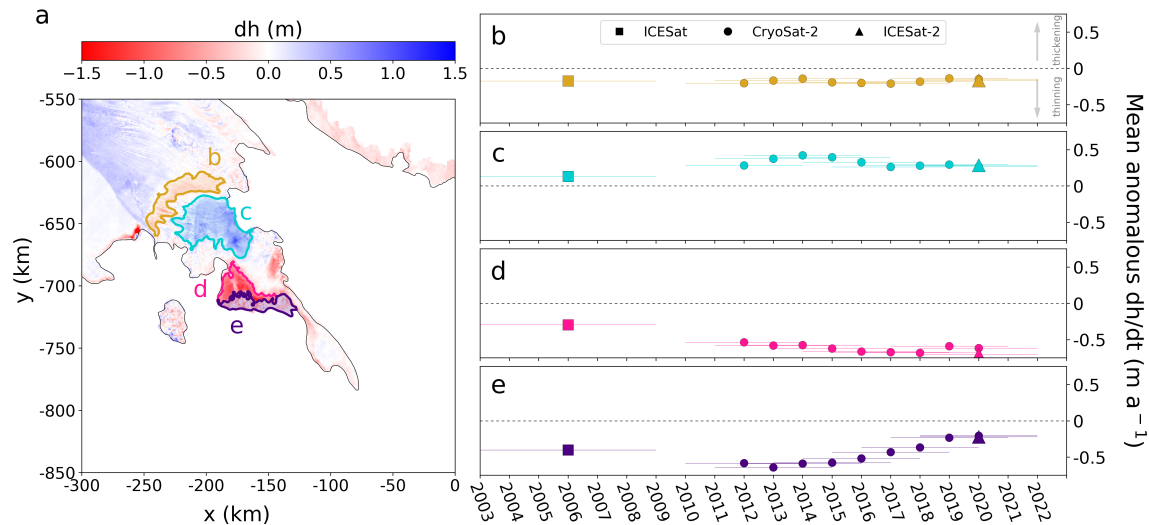


Fig. 4. 20-year record of mean anomalous ice surface-elevation change rate (dh/dt) estimates within the major dh/dt anomalies of the Crary Ice Rise region. (a) Map of the Crary Ice Rise region with delineated dh/dt anomaly subregions: the crescent-shaped anomaly in yellow, the thickening dipolar anomaly in turquoise, the landward thinning dipolar anomaly in pink, and the seaward thinning dipolar anomaly in purple. Background colors show ICESat-2 ATL15-derived surface-elevation change (calculated between 22 December 2021 through 23 March 2022 (cycle 14) and the ATL14 reference DEM), which we used to delineate height anomaly regions. Grounding line (Depoorter and others, 2013) is shown in black. 20-year time series of five-year anomalous dh/dt estimates (in m a^{-1}) for (b) the crescent-shaped anomaly, (c) the thickening area of the dipolar anomaly, (d) the landward thinning area of the dipolar anomaly, and (e) the seaward thinning area of the dipolar anomaly respectively. X-axis positions of symbols on panels (b) to (e) represent the middle of the five-year data intervals and the y-axis positions represent the mean anomalous dh/dt value within the delineated region. Horizontal bars indicate the time period over which we calculated the anomalous dh/dt estimate. Formal error of each mean anomalous dh/dt estimate is smaller than the marker.

306 the WIP subregion increased its anomalous mass gain rate from $0.159 \pm 0.011 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$ to 0.563 ± 0.011
 307 Gt a^{-1} (Fig. 5b). The thinning of the Crary subregion, on the other hand, amplified from an anomalous
 308 mean of $-0.025 \pm 0.031 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$ in the 2012–16 to $-0.694 \pm 0.026 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$ in the 2015–19 interval (Fig. 5c).
 309 Likewise, the thickening dipolar subregion decreased from a mean anomalous thickening of 0.671 ± 0.007
 310 Gt a^{-1} in the 2012–16 interval to a mean of $0.416 \pm 0.006 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$ in the 2015–19 interval (Fig. 5d). The
 311 thinning dipolar subregion maintained a steady anomalous mass loss rate with a mean of $-0.537 \pm 0.009 \text{ Gt}$
 312 a^{-1} (Fig. 5e). Considered together over the entire time series, the anomalous mass balance of the dipolar
 313 anomalies had a mean of $-0.028 \pm 0.008 \text{ Gt a}^{-1}$.

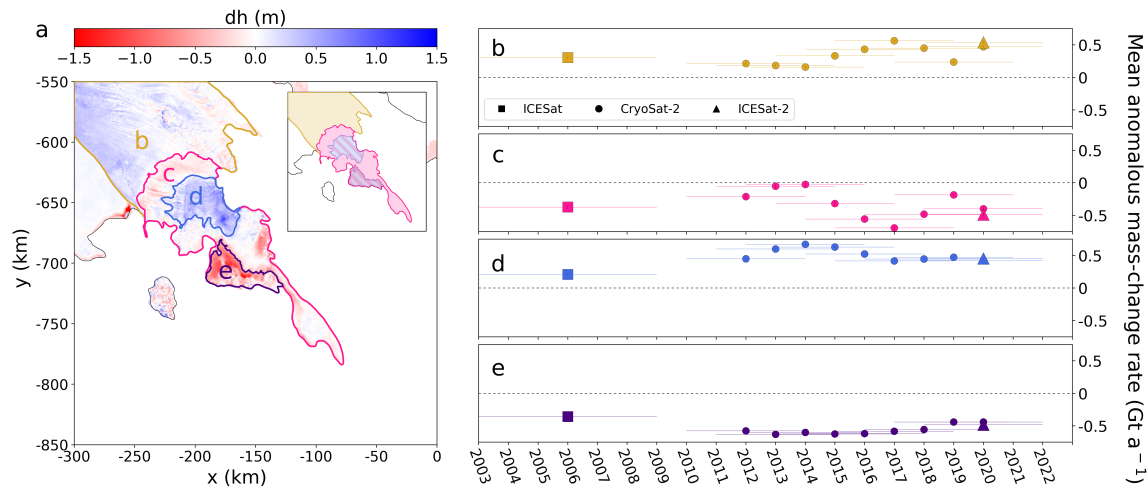


Fig. 5. 20-year record of mean anomalous geodetic mass balance derived from anomalous ice surface-elevation change rate (dh/dt) estimates within large subregions of the Crary Ice Rise region. (a) Outlines of subregions within the study area: WIP (yellow), Crary (pink), thickening area of the dipolar anomaly (blue), and thinning area of the dipolar anomaly (purple). Background colors show ICESat-2 ATL15-derived surface-elevation change (calculated between 22 December 2021 through 23 March 2022 (cycle 14) and the ATL14 reference DEM). Grounding line (Depoorter and others, 2013) shown in black. Inset map of the subregions provided for clarity with striped regions indicating region c includes data from subregions d and e. 20-year time series of mean anomalous geodetic mass balance (in Gt a^{-1}) for (b) WIP, (c) Crary, (d) thickening area of the dipolar anomaly, and (e) thinning area of the dipolar anomaly. X-axis positions of symbols on panels b to e represent the middle of the five-year data intervals used to estimate anomalous dh/dt and the y-axis positions represent mean anomalous mass balance within the delineated region. Horizontal bars indicate the time period over which we estimated anomalous mass balance. Formal error of each anomalous mass rate estimate is smaller than the marker.

314 DISCUSSION

315 The combined satellite altimetry observations from the ICESat, CryoSat-2, and ICESat-2 missions, all
 316 processed using a unified framework that ensures consistency between dh/dt estimates, provided a previ-
 317 ously unavailable opportunity to capture patterns of pinning-point region thickness variability across two
 318 decades. The 20-year persistence of the dh/dt anomalies in the CIR region (Fig. 3) provides evidence that
 319 the anomaly timescales are not solely products of short-term system variability (e.g., from atmospheric
 320 or tidal forcing). Below, we discuss the relationship between each of the locations of the persistent dh/dt
 321 anomalies and ongoing, long-term WIS deceleration and ice-flow redirection concentrated over the Crary
 322 peninsula (as seen by the rotation of modern velocity since observations in the 1970s; Fig. 1b, 6).

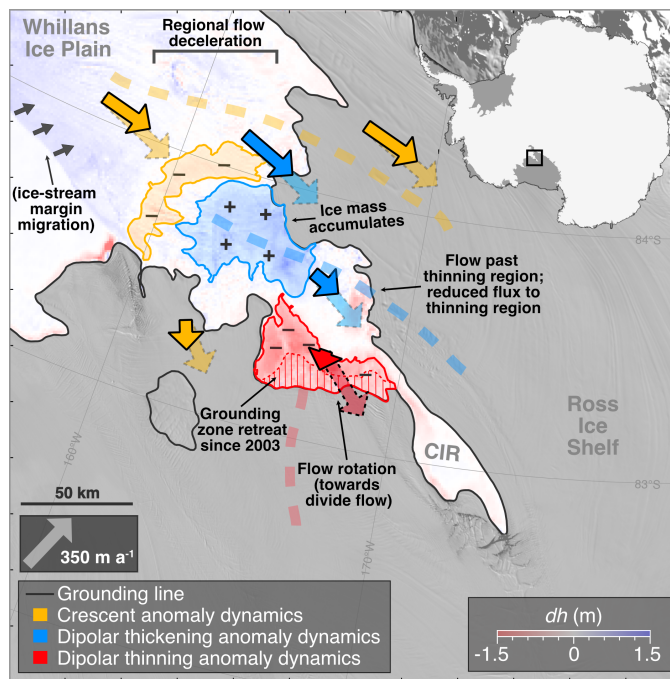


Fig. 6. Summary of observed ice dynamics contributing to the major ice surface-elevation change rate (dh/dt) anomalies of the Crary Ice Rise region. Crescent-shaped anomaly dynamics in yellow; dipolar thickening anomaly dynamics in blue; dipolar thinning anomaly dynamics in red. Modern velocity shown with opaque arrows, and historic velocity shown with transparent arrows. Dashed curves are schematic representations of flowlines. Black annotations describe observed ice dynamics and hypothesized future ice dynamics in parentheses. Background colors show ICESat-2 ATL15-derived surface-elevation change (calculated between 22 December 2021 through 23 March 2022 (cycle 14) and the ATL14 reference DEM; Smith and others, 2022); background imagery from the MODIS Mosaic of Antarctica (Scambos and others, 2007); grounding line (black line) from Depoorter and others (2013); inset map shows the location in Antarctica.

323 Crescent-shaped dh/dt anomaly

324 The crescent-shaped anomaly maintained its position between lower WIP and Crary peninsula throughout
 325 the 20-year record (Fig. 2, 3). The persistent location and magnitude of this anomaly are likely a product
 326 of ongoing flow divergence resulting from both WIP deceleration and downstream flow rotation away from
 327 the Crary peninsula (Fig. 1b, 6). As ice flow from upstream rotates south, the amount of ice flowing
 328 into the crescent-shaped area decreases while outflow appears to be maintained. In addition to potentially
 329 encouraging future shear margin migration due to deceleration-induced flow rotation on WIP (e.g., Hulbe
 330 and Fahnestock, 2004; Stearns and others, 2005; Catania and others, 2006), the resulting persistent thinning
 331 observed at the crescent-shaped anomaly (Fig. 4b) may indicate an ongoing tendency towards further

332 isolation of Crary peninsula and development of divide flow upstream of CIR (Fig. 6).

333 The position of the crescent-shaped anomaly also approximately corresponds to the location of the
334 Northern Sticky Spot, a localized region of high basal friction surrounded by a well-lubricated bed that, in
335 part, regulates the flow of WIP (Fig. 1b; Winberry and others, 2014). In addition, Engelhardt Subglacial
336 Lake is located on the northeast end of this anomaly (Fig. 1b), where the crescent-shaped anomaly
337 meets WIP's northern shear margin (a boundary where ice transitions from fast (i.e., streaming) to slow
338 flow). Engelhardt Subglacial Lake has been observed draining, then refilling (e.g., Fricker and others,
339 2007; Siegfried and Fricker, 2018) during this observational period, with a potential indication of drainage
340 in the most recent 2018–22 ICESat-2/CryoSat-2 period (Fig. 2d, 3d, S1j, S1k, S4j, S4k), suggesting a
341 redistribution of basal water affecting flow along WIP over the past two decades. Although the dynamic
342 interplay between a region of persistent thinning that increases ice-thickness gradients, a sticky spot, and
343 a large active subglacial lake has never been comprehensively assessed, this region has been identified as
344 a potential location of rapid and substantial shear margin migration that could narrow WIP by 25 km or
345 more (Bougamont and others, 2015; Elsworth and Suckale, 2016); such an event would substantially modify
346 the overall mass balance of West Antarctica, suggesting deeper examination of the complex dynamics in
347 this location is needed for refined projections of ice-sheet mass balance in the Ross sector of Antarctica.

348 **Dipolar dh/dt anomalies**

349 The positions of the dipolar anomalies on the Crary peninsula correspond to the region experiencing
350 the greatest modern flow redirection (up to a 35° rotation to the north; Fig. 1b, 6). The more rapid
351 deceleration and greater flow rotation on the north side of Crary peninsula encouraged ice accumulation
352 in the thickening portion of the dipolar anomaly (Fig. 4c, 6). The reconfigured flow regime that developed
353 since the 1970s starves the thinning portion of the dipolar anomaly of ice influx (Fig. 6). Combined
354 mass balance of the dipolar anomalies from 2003–22, however, remains near zero (assuming anomaly areas
355 remained grounded; Fig. 5d, 5e): this pattern may therefore represent a substantial mass redistribution
356 on Crary peninsula despite the overall regional thickening and mass gain upstream on WIP (e.g., Joughin
357 and others, 2005; Smith and others, 2020).

358 The two subregions we identified in the thinning portion of the dipolar anomaly evolved differently
359 over the 20-year record: whereas the landward subregion experienced increased magnitudes of thinning
360 over the time series (Fig. 4d), the seaward subregion exhibited rapidly decreased magnitudes of thinning

361 starting in 2015 (Fig. 4e). We suggest this observation is evidence of localized grounding zone retreat (Fig.
362 6). Unlike the other anomaly regions (Fig. 4b, 4c), the thinning signal exhibits much greater spatial and
363 temporal variability (Fig. 4d, 4e). The most diagnostic piece of evidence is that the zone of maximum
364 dh/dt migrates landward of the original grounding zone (Fig. 2, 3, 4d, 4e), implying the surface-height
365 change due to thinning in the seaward subregion is partially offset by flotation. As sites transition from
366 fully grounded to fully floating, surface observations of dh/dt for a given thinning rate decrease by up to
367 90% (e.g., Robin, 1958; Holdsworth, 1969).

368 Previous work using tidal repeat-track analysis of ICESat-2 data also suggested grounding zone retreat
369 of up to 15 km landward in this area between the ICESat and ICESat-2 eras (Li and others, 2022); our
370 method provides an updated areal extent and more precise timeline of grounding zone dynamics: an area
371 of 552 km² ungrounded between 2015 and 2022, likely due to thinning induced by the localized reduction
372 of inflowing ice (Fig. 6). If grounding zone retreat and thinning continue at the Crary peninsula, the
373 impact of buttressing contributions from the CIR complex downstream may further decrease because of
374 deceleration and regional thickening. For now, the backstress appears to be redistributed upstream from
375 CIR to WIP, although the continuity of total backstress to WIS from this new regional stress-balance
376 reconfiguration is unknown. Paleo-ice-sheet records from the Ross Sea continental shelf indicate that full
377 decoupling from a pinning point after 100s or 1000s of years can abruptly initiate grounding line retreat
378 of 100s of m a⁻¹ (Halberstadt and others, 2016; Bart and Kratochvil, 2022), presenting a potential analog
379 for the future of CIR and WIP if grounding zone retreat and divergence-driven thinning continue.

380 **The co-evolution of ice-stream dynamics and pinning points**

381 When the WIP subregion experienced an increase in anomalous mass gain between the 2012–16 and 2015–
382 19 intervals (Fig. 5b), the Crary subregion exhibited increased anomalous mass loss (Fig. 5c). This
383 relationship suggests that deceleration and thickening of WIP ultimately reduced the flux of ice from WIP
384 into the Crary subregion—a critical region that historically buttressed upstream ice (MacAyeal and others,
385 1987, 1989; Still and others, 2019). This on-going starvation of inflowing ice to the Crary subregion likely
386 initiated the unique dynamics of the Crary peninsula we identified in the dipolar anomaly (Fig. 6). The
387 dipolar anomaly represents an adjustment within the pinning-point region to the slow-down of WIS along
388 with on-going responses to prior flux variation on WIS and the neighboring stagnant Kamb Ice Stream. In
389 the CIR region, we have observed: (i) a redistribution of mass southward (Fig. 5, 6); (ii) grounding zone

390 retreat (Fig. 4e, 6), and (iii) ice-flow rotation (toward divide flow; Fig. 1b, 6).

391 On-going, coupled pinning-point region adjustments and flow rotation here, with evolving ice influx and
392 the opposing mass balance of WIP and the Crary subregion, suggest that the buttressing contributions of
393 the CIR region are also time-variable. The observations of persistent dh/dt and mass balance patterns in
394 the CIR region (Fig. 2, 3, S1, S4) provide new evidence that as WIS continues to decelerate, its interactions
395 with evolving pinning-point regions potentially introduce feedbacks between deceleration and buttressing
396 that complicate the mode of and evolution toward stagnation. The ice-stream/pinning-point interactions
397 we observed in the surface signals here likely predate our observations given the history of WIP dynamics
398 (e.g., Bindschadler and Vornberger, 1998; Beem and others, 2014). Additionally, the impact of far-field
399 buttressing contributions in a co-evolving ice-stream/pinning-point region, such as those transmitted from
400 Ross Island (e.g., Reese and others, 2018), may influence regional buttressing evolution. We would therefore
401 need to include observational records that reach much farther in the past (e.g., deformation history from
402 englacial radar) to fully investigate the feedbacks here.

403 The limited coverage of satellite-derived velocity estimates this far south also prevents more in-depth
404 interpretations of stress changes around the current CIR pinning point. However, the patterns of surface-
405 height changes can still be diagnostic of the governing processes driving regional change and provide a
406 window into the force-budget evolution (e.g., Hulbe and others, 2013). For example, the modeled response
407 in ice thickness generated by a simultaneously decreased ice flux from upstream WIS and increased basal
408 resistance across WIP is more spatially complex in the CIR region than the impact of either process
409 individually even when the boundary-condition modifications are applied uniformly (Hulbe and others,
410 2013); the spatial complexity of our observational time series, particularly compared to previously modeled
411 height perturbations, suggests the interplay of multiple regional processes and local responses as a result
412 of CIR providing an obstacle to changing flow. Further, the changes in ice-thickness gradients feedback
413 into the regional force-budget, modifying the inferred basal traction and therefore the underlying water
414 systems that affect ice-stream flow (e.g., Still and Hulbe, 2021). We demonstrate that the evolution of these
415 diagnostic transients, which arise from the co-evolution of the coupled ice-stream/pinning-point system,
416 is now observable in the satellite record. Continuing our multi-decadal observations of dh/dt , particularly
417 together with increased satellite velocity mapping capabilities (e.g., by the left-looking NASA-ISRO SAR
418 (NISAR) mission; Rosen and Kumar, 2021), will be necessary to fully resolve the ambiguities of past,
419 present, and future co-evolution of ice-stream flux and pinning-point region processes not yet captured by

420 models.

421 **SUMMARY**

422 We generated a 20-year (2003–22) time series of surface elevation and anomalous surface elevation over
423 the CIR region using combined altimetry observations from ICESat (2003–09), CryoSat-2 (2010–22), and
424 ICESat-2 (2018–22). Our time series revealed persistent, localized signals of anomalous thickening and
425 thinning throughout the multi-decadal observational period indicating active pinning-point adjustment.
426 Although these adjustments may be in-part a response to ongoing ice-stream reorganization, the ice-
427 stream/pinning-point interactions we observed in the surface signals here likely represent more complex
428 feedbacks between ice-stream stagnation and pinning-point buttressing that predate our observations.

429 Our 20-year record of surface-elevation anomalies detected in the CIR region provides insights into
430 ice-dynamic co-evolution between pinning points and ice-stream cycles and its impact on localized trends
431 in mass balance. This mass redistribution modifies the buttressing regime of the southern Ross Ice Shelf
432 embayment through grounding zone retreat, reduced regional mass, and the tendency towards pinning-
433 point isolation. Future work combining our multi-mission satellite altimetry records with comprehensive,
434 time-resolved maps of ice velocity and ice-penetrating radar will help quantify feedbacks between ice-stream
435 dynamics and pinning-point evolution.

436 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

437 The supplementary material for this article can be found at...[LINK].

438 **DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY**

439 All code used to generate figures and analyze data is available via GitHub (Verboncoeur and others, 2024b).
440 Surface-elevation change time series from this study are available for download from Zenodo (Verboncoeur
441 and others, 2024a).

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