

1    **RECENT CHANGES IN THE MCMURDO ICE SHELF TRANSITION ZONE AND HUT POINT**  
2                                    **PENINSULA, WEST ANTARCTICA**

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10   **ABSTRACT**

11            McMurdo Ice Shelf (MIS) and Ross Island act as both lateral margins and pinning points  
12    for the Ross Ice Shelf, as well as logistic hubs for the United States and New Zealand Antarctic  
13    Programs. Recent thinning and retreat of MIS has motivated an evaluation of the future stability  
14    of this critical region and potential adaptation. If MIS were to collapse, it could initiate sizeable  
15    teleconnections across West Antarctica, as well as stifle Antarctic research that relies on  
16    MIS/Ross Island-based logistics. One logistics component already experiencing change is the  
17    transition zone (TZ) road, which connects MIS with the research stations on Hut Point Peninsula  
18    (HPP), Ross Island. Here we assess the vulnerability of the TZ road and a proposed rerouting  
19    location (TZ Hillside), by using a combination of *in situ*, remote sensing, and numerical  
20    modeling approaches. We evaluate overall elevation change by differencing late summer,  
21    WorldView-derived, DEMs (2011–2015), and evaluate the practicality of both a stable ice  
22    surface and bare earth road using a numerical ice volume flux model, informed by GPR and GPS  
23    measurements of ice thickness and velocity (2015–2016). Results show overall ice elevation  
24    change of up to 3 m, and  $204 \pm 24 \text{ m}^3 \text{ a}^{-1}$  of ice flux across the TZ Hillside. Combined, these

25 results indicate that the TZ Hillside is unsuitable for either type of road, and point to MIS  
26 terminus retreat and TZ Hillside melt as a continuing risk for TZ stability, which could prelude  
27 broader changes.

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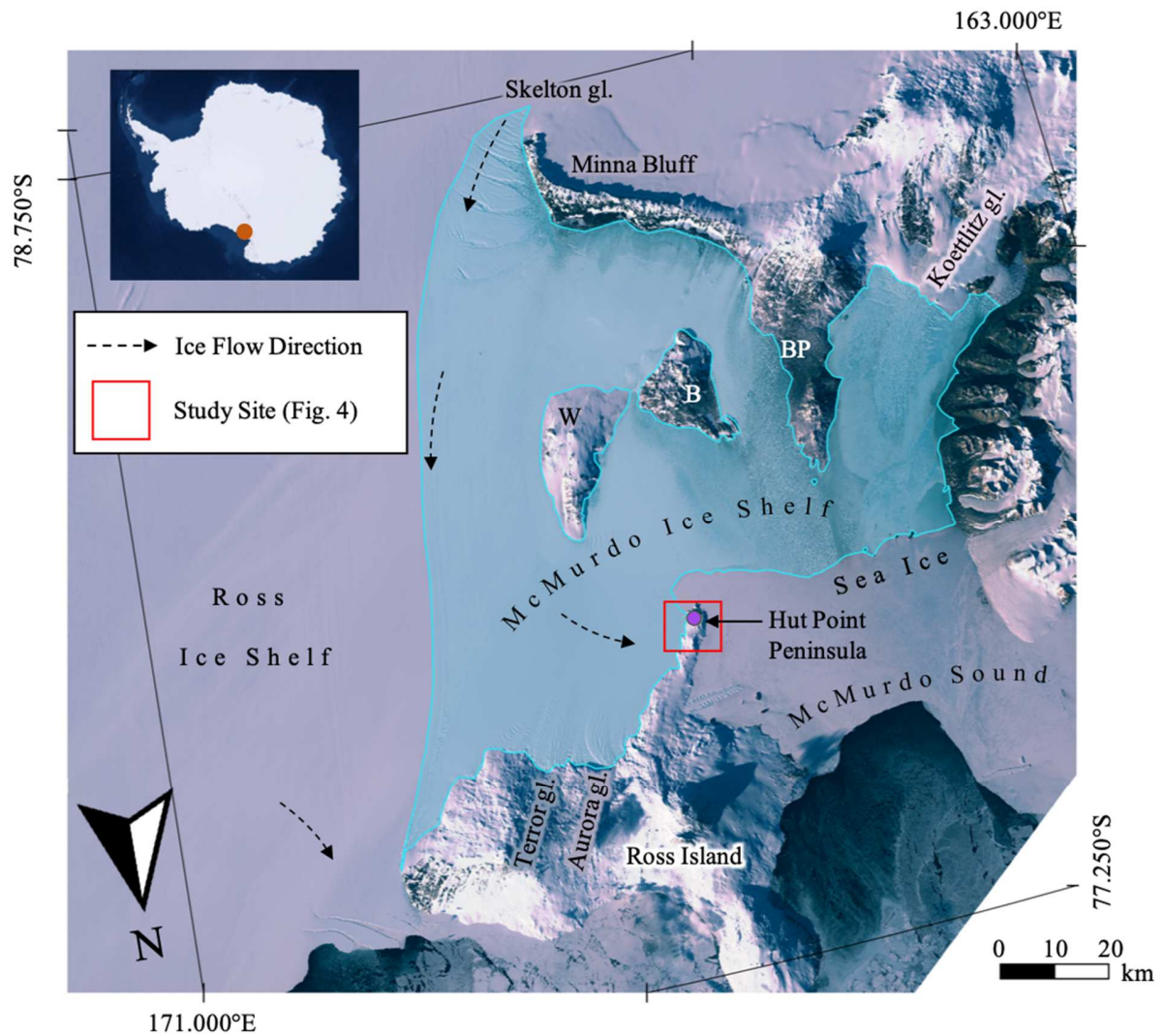
29 **KEYWORDS:** Ice Shelf, Remote Sensing, Antarctica, McMurdo, Elevation Change

30

## 31 **1. INTRODUCTION**

32 Ice shelves surround over 75% of the Antarctic coastline (e.g., Rignot et al., 2013) and  
33 provide critical stability to the Ice Sheet primarily through tributary glacier buttressing. Due to  
34 their flat, thick nature, ice shelves can also be a pivotal logistic resource, serving as a runway for  
35 large aircrafts (e.g., Haehnel et al., 2019), a road for overland traverses (e.g., Lever & Thur,  
36 2014), and a staging location for scientific operations (e.g., Millan et al., 2013). The McMurdo  
37 Ice Shelf (MIS) is one such location that is critical for both glacier stability and field logistics.  
38 The MIS buttresses Skelton, Terror, Aurora, and Koettlitz Glaciers (Fig. 1) and also acts as a  
39 lateral shear margin to the adjacent Ross Ice Shelf (RIS), which drains both East (EAIS) and  
40 West Antarctic Ice Sheets (WAIS). The thinning, retreat, or collapse of MIS could trigger a  
41 retreat of RIS, inducing thinning and potential acceleration of ice streams over 900 km away  
42 (e.g., MacAyeal and Bindschadler Ice Streams; Reese et al., 2018). Additionally, increased  
43 meltwater flux and ponding has the potential to facilitate destabilization of MIS near its terminus  
44 (e.g., Scambos et al., 2000), particularly if the ponding is not drained (Banwell et al., 2013;  
45 Banwell et al., 2019). MIS also serves as the primary logistics hub for the United States  
46 (McMurdo Station) and New Zealand (Scott Base) Antarctic Programs. Therefore, due to the

47 prominent role of MIS in both ice sheet stability and Antarctic infrastructure, understanding the  
48 stability of MIS is critically important.



49  
50 **Figure 1.** The McMurdo Ice Shelf (MIS) and Hut Point Peninsula (HPP) study region (inset,  
51 orange circle), where MIS (turquoise shading) is bound by the Ross Ice Shelf, and McMurdo  
52 Sound. Noted are the locations of the NOAA AWS (purple circle), White Island (W), Black  
53 Island (B) and Brown Peninsula (BP). Ice flow directions are denoted by dashed arrows  
54 (established in Campbell et al., 2017) with tributary glaciers (gl.) labeled. Background true  
55 color image is from Sentinel-2, collected on 11 October 2019.

56

57           The stability of an ice shelf is directly related to its mass balance and resistance to flow at  
58 its lateral margins. Ice shelf mass balance is controlled through surface accumulation or ablation  
59 (including calving), tributary glacier flux, and basal freeze-on or melt. Lateral ice shelf margins  
60 resist ice flow either by friction against bedrock or via slower moving lateral ice (e.g.,  
61 MacGregor et al., 2012). Therefore, thinning or collapse of an ice shelf at its margins decreases  
62 or removes a primary resistance to ice flow. Additionally, ice shelves also provide a buttressing  
63 force to tributary glacier flow, therefore any reduction in ice shelf mass, results in a decrease in  
64 buttressing force, and can enable tributary glacier speedup and dynamic thinning (e.g., Scambos  
65 et al., 2004; Hulbe et al., 2008). Lastly, while tributary glaciers act to increase ice shelf mass,  
66 the glaciers themselves are also responding to their own mass balance. Therefore, a decrease in  
67 tributary glacier mass balance will ultimately translate down-glacier to ice shelves via reduced  
68 ice volume influx. Currently, most ice shelves in Antarctica are losing more mass than they are  
69 gaining, primarily through a complex combination of calving icebergs, surface melting, and  
70 basal melting (e.g., Depoorter et al., 2013; Rignot et al., 2013; Bell et al., 2017; Kingslake et al.,  
71 2017; Smith et al., 2020).

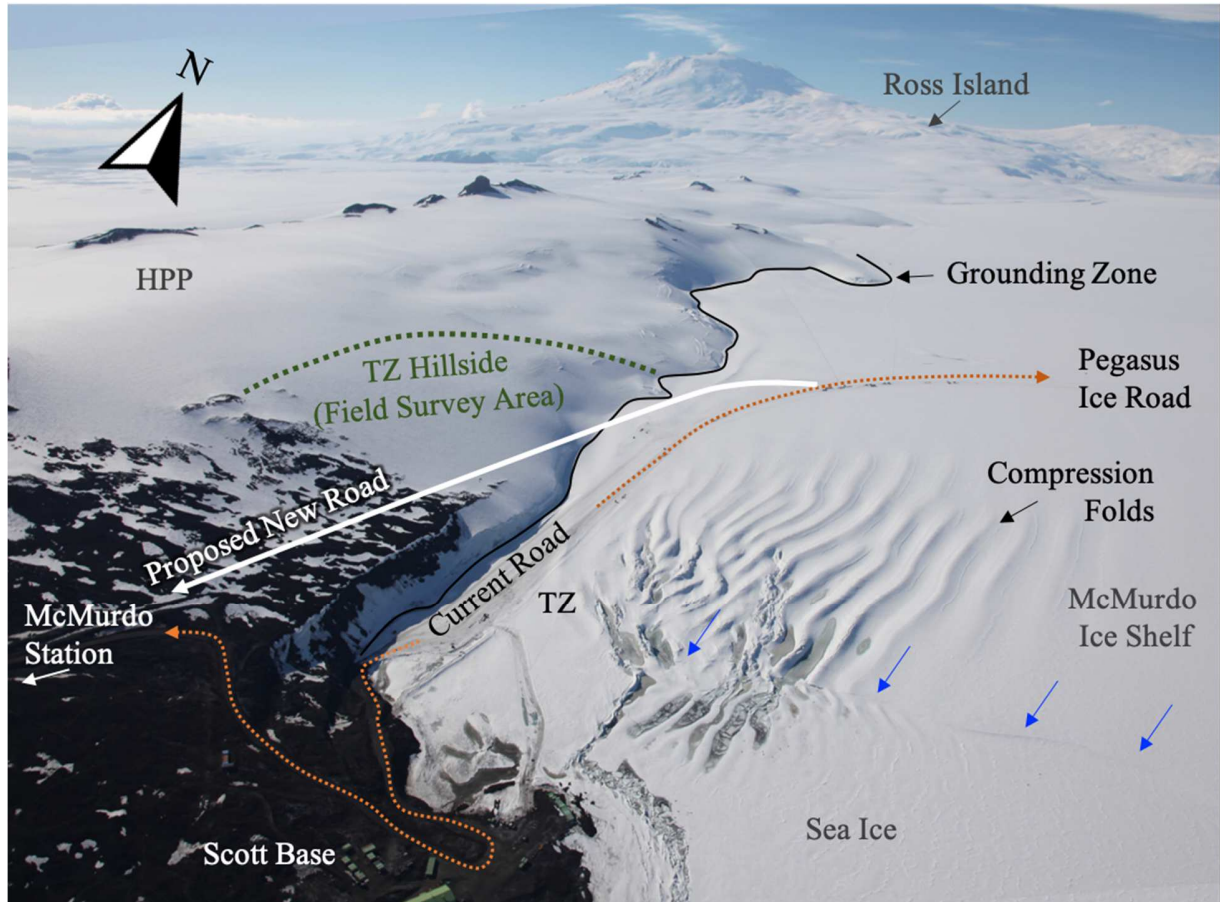
72           The thickness of an ice shelf also contributes to its stability. Antarctic ice shelves can  
73 range in thickness from 2000 m at the grounding line to 100 m at the ice shelf terminus;  
74 however, MIS is thinner than most, ranging between ~6–200 m thick (Glasser et al., 2006;  
75 Campbell et al., 2017). In the Ross Island region, RIS and MIS are particularly susceptible to  
76 basal melting due to the routing of warm Antarctic Surface Water (ASW) directly under this  
77 region (Rack et al., 2013; Stern et al., 2013; Tinto et al., 2019). While recent models (Tinto et al.,  
78 2019) and field geophysical observations (Stewart et al., 2019) are not completely aligned in

79 establishing the exact melt rate, both studies suggest higher basal melt rates closer to White and  
80 Black Islands as opposed to Hut Point Peninsula (HPP). This region of MIS, near White and  
81 Black Islands, also experiences unusually high surface melt ranging from 43–441 mm w.e.  
82 during a summer melt season, resulting in approximately 25% of the region around Black Island  
83 becoming flooded with streams and ponds during this time (Glasser et al., 2006). Adding to the  
84 spatial complexity, a winter accumulation gradient can also be inferred from geophysical  
85 observations across MIS suggesting higher rates of accumulation near HPP and lower rates of  
86 accumulation near White and Black Islands (Campbell et al., 2017). Despite higher rates of  
87 accumulation near HPP, surface mass balance of Ross Island, which contributes to the mass  
88 balance of MIS via ice influx, is relatively unknown. Concerningly, the combination of a  
89 thinning MIS from surface and basal melt or reduced ice flux, and the abundance of surface  
90 water present (Banwell et al., 2013; Banwell et al., 2019), may not require much tidal flexure to  
91 bypass a rapid disintegration threshold. As atmospheric and oceanic temperatures continue to  
92 warm, continued evaluation of contributions to MIS stability are essential for both scientific and  
93 logistic concerns.

94 Stemming from the importance of MIS in Antarctic logistics, several “single-point  
95 failures” in the MIS-HPP system have been identified that would jeopardize the feasibility of  
96 using MIS and HPP for United States and New Zealand Antarctic logistics (Augustine et al.,  
97 2012). One such failure would be reduced access between HPP, where Scott Base and McMurdo  
98 Station are located, and MIS, where all runway and aircraft operations are located. Currently, the  
99 primary road connecting MIS to HPP is by the Pegasus Ice Road, which crosses the Transition  
100 Zone (TZ) (Fig. 2). The TZ is a triaxial point of stress where MIS buttresses against HPP at the  
101 ice shelf–sea ice transition. This buttressing of ice leads to compression folds, severe fracturing,

102 and complex ice dynamics (Campbell et al., 2017; Fig. 2). Meltwater runoff from the nearby  
103 Hillside of HPP has caused severe ponding in the TZ. While the ponding is partially alleviated  
104 by drain holes into the relatively porous fractured ice shelf (Shoop et al., 2014), the englacial  
105 influence of meltwater at the TZ, and complex dynamics in this area, are concerning for long-  
106 term stability and longevity of Pegasus Ice Road. In this study we assess the feasibility of a new  
107 road location that would circumvent this TZ single-point failure location.

108         This study focuses on the yet-to-be characterized surface mass balance of HPP and the  
109 location of the MIS terminus, addressing both science and logistical concerns. We analyze  
110 recent changes in ice elevation across the TZ and surrounding region and explore a proposed  
111 new road location on the TZ Hillside, which would connect MIS with HPP and replace Pegasus  
112 Ice Road in the event the current route becomes unpassable (Fig. 2, white line). To determine if  
113 there is any evidence of MIS-HPP instability, we corrected and differenced satellite-derived  
114 digital elevation models (DEMs) acquired several years apart to spatially measure elevation  
115 changes (inferring ice thickness changes) across HPP and MIS. To explore the proposed new  
116 road location on the TZ Hillside, we completed ground-penetrating radar (GPR) and GPS  
117 surveys to measure ice thicknesses and ice flow velocities, respectively. We then used three-  
118 dimensional finite element numerical modeling to calculate ice flow flux on the TZ Hillside and  
119 estimate potential ice flow impacts to the proposed new road location.



120

121 *Figure 2. Airborne image of Hut Point Peninsula (HPP), on Ross Island. Noted are the*  
 122 *locations of the transition zone (TZ), the McMurdo Ice Shelf (MIS) terminus (blue arrows),*  
 123 *the grounding zone (black solid line), the Pegasus Ice Road (orange dotted line), which is the*  
 124 *current road from MIS onto HPP, the proposed new road between MIS and HPP (white solid*  
 125 *line), and the GPR and GPS field survey area on the TZ Hillside (green dotted area).*

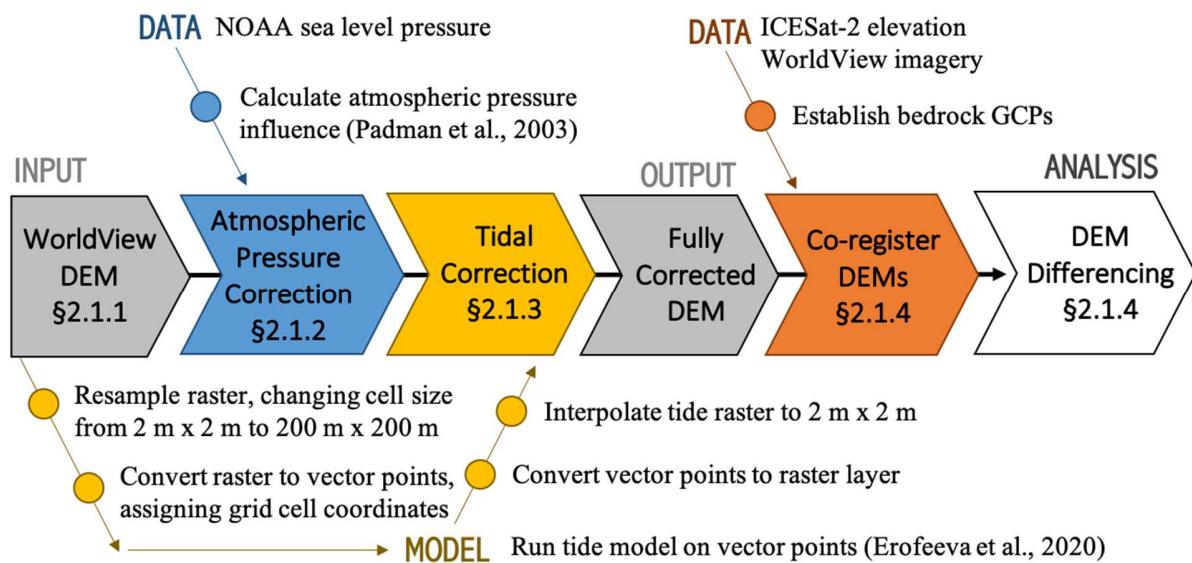
126

127 **2. METHODS**

128 **2.1. Surface Elevation Change**

129 To quantify elevation changes across the HPP-MIS region, we established a new  
 130 workflow (schematically depicted in Fig. 3) combining *in situ* data, remote sensing

131 measurements, and numerical modeling results to accurately co-register DEM pairs prior to  
 132 differencing. In addition to minimizing the impact of terrain shadows and clouds on vertical  
 133 measurements, we also isolated variability in the TZ region due solely to changes in tidal phase  
 134 and amplitude, and atmospheric pressure (e.g., Kulshrestha et al., 2020). This workflow and  
 135 relevant data sets are more thoroughly described in the following sections (sections 2.1.1. –  
 136 2.1.4.).



137  
 138 **Figure 3. Schematic diagram outlining the steps and data sets used in the developed method to**  
 139 **correct each DEM prior to differencing. This method accounts for differences in atmospheric**  
 140 **pressure (blue) and tidal amplitude (yellow) between DEMs, as well as variability in DEM**  
 141 **processing (orange).**

143 2.1.1. DEM generation and filtering

144 To quantify the change in ice elevation across HPP and MIS, we estimated the  
 145 hypsometric variation of the grounded glacial ice and surrounding ice shelf (Fig. 1, red box)



146 using Reference Elevation Model of Antarctica (REMA) 2 m resolution DEM strips (Howat et  
147 al., 2019). These elevations are generated from Maxar’s WorldView imagery using the Surface  
148 Extraction with TIN-based Search-space Minimization (SETSM) algorithm (Noh & Howat,  
149 2015) to calculate stereo-parallax with each image’s rational polynomial coefficients. Potential  
150 errors in SETSM processed DEMs arise from extreme shadowing effects, clouds, and image  
151 acquisition from various off-nadir degrees (Child et al., 2020). To account for these errors, we  
152 removed spurious elevations via manual inspection of DEM hillshade maps and unprocessed  
153 WorldView imagery. Due to variability in DEM spatial coverage, elevation change between  
154 2011 and 2015 was calculated using different DEM pairs for grounded ice and the ice shelf to  
155 maximize the extent of the results, therefore DEMs from 6 February 2011, 14 March 2011, and  
156 16 February 2015 were prepared for differencing.

157

### 158 *2.1.2. Atmospheric Pressure Correction*

159 The elevation of a freely floating ice shelf is impacted by changes in atmospheric  
160 pressure; therefore, differences in atmospheric pressure between data collection days could result  
161 in erroneous measurements of vertical change. To remove the impact of atmospheric pressure,  
162 we used the ice shelf correction established in Padman et al. (2003), where a pressure difference  
163 of 1 hPa between the measured value and standard atmospheric pressure (1013.25 hPa) results in  
164 0.82 cm adjustment in elevation. To determine atmospheric pressure, we used the National  
165 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) National Centers for Environmental  
166 Information site (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products>), located adjacent to McMurdo Station  
167 (Fig. 1, purple circle), at the closest measurement in time (25-28 min) to the image acquisition

168 time. We then adjusted the ice shelf (Fig. 1, teal shaded region) in each DEM to standard  
169 atmospheric pressure.

170

### 171 2.1.3. *Tidal correction*

172 Ice shelf elevation is also impacted by the tidal signal; without correction, differences in  
173 tidal phase and amplitude between the DEM pairs would result in erroneous measurements of ice  
174 shelf elevation change. The tidal signal was calculated using the Tidal Model Driver (TMD;  
175 Padman & Erofeeva, 2005) 2.5 (Erofeeva et al., 2020). Due to the small degree of spatial  
176 variability in the tidal signal (0.1–0.3 m over 11.32 km<sup>2</sup>), we ran the tidal height model at a  
177 down-sampled (200 m) spatial resolution to expedite processing; the tidal height results were  
178 then interpolated to the original 2 m DEM spatial resolution before being applied to the ice shelf  
179 portion of each DEM.

180

### 181 2.1.4. *DEM Differencing*

182 To minimize the impact of seasonal variability on interannual elevation changes, we  
183 focused on using only DEMs collected at the end of the austral summer season; however,  
184 nonuniformities in the spatial extent of each DEM necessitated that elevation change between  
185 2011 and 2015 be calculated using slightly different austral summer DEM pairs for grounded ice  
186 (14 March 2011 and 16 February 2015) and the ice shelf (6 February 2011 and 16 February  
187 2015). After removing erroneous data due to off-nadir data collection, shadows, and clouds, and  
188 correcting for the tidal signal and atmospheric pressure in each DEM, we co-registered the DEM  
189 pairs to correct for transformation shifts (Paul et al., 2015; Paul et al., 2017) caused by terrain  
190 slope and aspect and varying image acquisition parameters (section 2.1.1.). To co-register the

191 DEM pairs we used stable terrain points — non-ice, exposed bedrock with slopes  $< 20^\circ$ — from  
192 REMA (n=84,814 points; following the methods of Nuth & Kääb, 2011 using code from  
193 McNabb, 2019). We compared the corrected, co-registered DEMs with ground control points  
194 (GCPs) constructed from overlapping stable terrain and ICESat-2 tracks (n=6-7 points) to  
195 validate the absolute elevation (average offset of 1.28 m). After taking the difference of the co-  
196 registered DEMs, we quantified the error over stable terrain by calculating a second-degree  
197 polynomial surface and removed from the full differencing results (Racoviteanu et al., 2007).  
198 The range in the trend was -2.8 to 3.4 m and the removal resulted in a very strong relative  
199 agreement between DEM pairs of  $0.008 \text{ m} \pm 1.89 \text{ m}$ .

## 200 *2.2. Subsurface Ice Structure*

201 To measure the subsurface structure of Pegasus Ice Road and evaluate the possibility of  
202 relocating the road to the TZ Hillside, we performed GPR surveys in both of these regions. We  
203 collected three 840 m parallel GPR transects (2.5 km total), spaced  $\sim 10$  m apart, on Pegasus Ice  
204 Road in January 2016 using a 400MHz antenna, as well as four parallel and one cross-cutting  
205 transect on the TZ Hillside in November 2016 (5.5 km of 100 MHz and 4.7 km of 400 MHz).  
206 To perform these GPR surveys, we used a Geophysical Survey System Incorporated (GSSI) SIR-  
207 4000 control unit coupled with a GSSI model 3207AP 100 MHz antenna and GSSI model 50400  
208 400 MHz antenna. We recorded scans for 1000–1400 ns, with a two-way travel time (TWTT) at  
209 24 scans  $\text{s}^{-1}$ , and 2048 samples per scan. High and low pass finite impulse response filters were  
210 used during data collection; between 100–800 MHz for the 400 MHz antenna and between 25–  
211 300 MHz for the 100 MHz antenna. The GPR was synced with a handheld Garmin GPSMap78,  
212 recording GPS position at 1 Hz. The GPR antennas were hand-towed at approximately  $0.25 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

213 <sup>1</sup> resulting in traces approximately every 1 cm and GPS positions every 0.25 m. Estimated  
214 horizontal precision of GPR profiles from the handheld GPS was  $\pm 2$  m.

215 To convert TWTT to depth, we first calculated the velocity of the radio waves through  
216 the substrate, using the equation  $V = \frac{c}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}$ , where  $\epsilon$  is relative permittivity,  $V$  is the radio wave  
217 velocity in  $\text{m ns}^{-1}$ , and  $c$  is the speed of light in  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ . For depth calibration of the Pegasus Ice  
218 Road and the TZ Hillside, we used different values for permittivity ( $\epsilon$ ) as the surface types  
219 varied from snow and firn (Pegasus Ice Road) to solid ice (TZ Hillside). For the Pegasus Ice  
220 Road transects, we used a relative permittivity value of 2.8, based on depth-density results from a  
221 shallow core collected within the TZ region (Campbell et al., 2017), which shows that dense firn  
222 ( $\epsilon \sim 2.2$ ) is overlying meteoric and marine ice ( $\epsilon \sim 3.1$ ). For the TZ Hillside, we used the relative  
223 permittivity of ice ( $\epsilon = 3.1$ ) for depth calculations, as the TZ Hillside was primarily composed of  
224 bare ice with only 20–50 cm of snow cover. Based on the TWTT and calculated wave velocity  
225 ( $0.169\text{--}0.179 \text{ m ns}^{-1}$ ), we recorded  $\sim 60$  samples per m depth, which is more than sufficient for a  
226 smooth waveform given the frequencies used. The GPR profiles were processed using GSSI  
227 commercial software (RADAN v. 7.0), and processing included time-zero correction, horizontal  
228 filtering to remove ringing, and stacking to improve signal-to-noise ratios and visualization of  
229 englacial structure.

230

### 231 ***2.3. TZ Hillside Ice Velocity***

#### 232 *2.3.1. In situ surveys*

233 To calculate regional ice velocity and rates of deformation at the proposed road site, we  
234 placed 22 bamboo stakes (2 m in length) in a grid configuration on the TZ Hillside and  
235 performed kinematic GPS surveys at these locations. Stakes were installed by hand drilling 1 m

236 holes using a Kovacs auger. Kinematic GPS surveys were conducted using a roving Trimble  
237 NetR7 and Zephyr Geodetic Antenna unit, with an identical geodetic GPS base station  
238 established at McMurdo Station (2–2.6 km from survey grid). We first surveyed the stakes on  
239 12–15 November 2015 and then resurveyed the stakes on 2 January 2016 (47–51 days between  
240 surveys). Using changes in position, we estimated ice flow velocities and rates of deformation  
241 for this TZ Hillside region. Systematic position uncertainty from the processed baselines was  $1.9$   
242  $\pm 0.01$  cm in the horizontal and  $4.7 \pm 1.9$  cm in the vertical. We also assumed 1 cm of bias  
243 uncertainty due to the stake hole size relative to the distance measured and leveling of the survey  
244 rod. Combining systematic and bias uncertainty, our total horizontal positional error is 2.1 cm at  
245 each measurement.

246

### 247 2.3.2. Numerical Modeling

248 To better resolve the rates of deformation on the TZ Hillside, and determine the  
249 suitability of this region for the proposed new road, *in situ* GPS and GPR measurements were  
250 used to constrain a three-dimensional numerical model. We used surface elevation and ice  
251 thickness measurements from the GPS and GPR surveys, respectively, to develop raster layers,  
252 which we merged to constrain top and bottom surfaces of a finite element numerical model in  
253 COMSOL Multiphysics (v. 5.2a). Model boundary conditions included a no-slip (frozen) bed,  
254 normal surface stress, and open boundaries at the inlet (top of the hillside) and outlet (bottom of  
255 the hillside near the grounding zone). Open boundaries are standard within COMSOL to  
256 represent a geometric boundary separating the modeled domain from non-modeled domain.  
257 Despite the geometric boundary, an “open” boundary indicates that material can enter or exit the  
258 modeled domain via the geometric boundary, following the prescribed physics of the material (in

259 this case, ice). We set the model to have minimal snow and/or firn cover, which allowed for a  
260 constant density ( $\rho$ ) of ice, and used a cold-ice viscosity ( $\mu$ ) of  $\sim 1 \times 10^{15}$  Pa s (Marshall, 2005).  
261 Given the prescribed boundary conditions and rheology, ice flow was driven by gravitational  
262 forcing and internal ice deformation. Model results of surface velocity were compared to stake-  
263 derived surface velocities to analyze model accuracy and robustness; we found the model  
264 velocity to be comparable to the measured velocity within  $\pm 0.1$  m a<sup>-1</sup>. The model was then used  
265 to estimate ice volume flux across the TZ Hillside along the proposed new road location.  
266 Despite HPP being situated immediately above the grounding zone of MIS, likely causing a  
267 complex basal boundary condition down-glacier from the proposed road, our close agreement  
268 between GPS-measured velocities and modeled velocities on the TZ Hillside suggest that our  
269 model provides a reasonable approximation of ice volume flux.

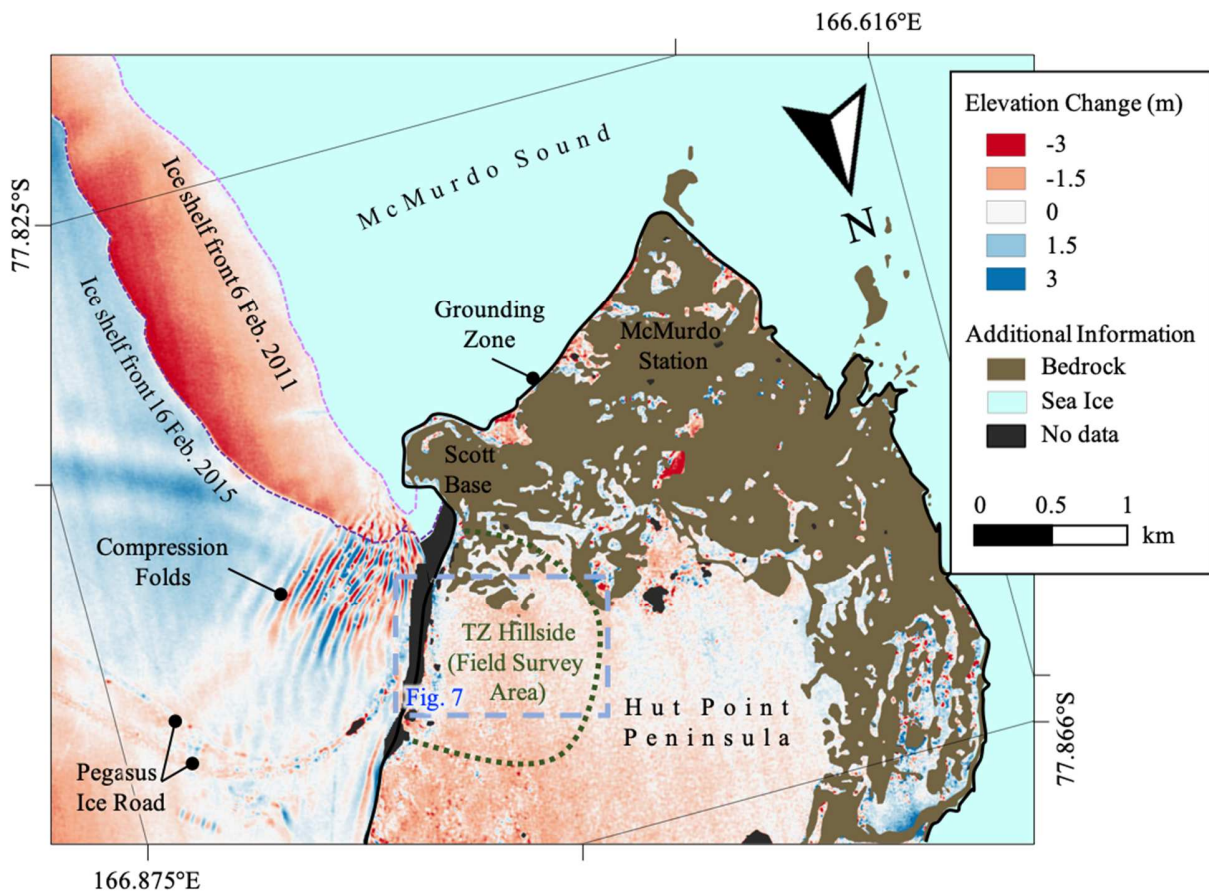
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### 271 **3. RESULTS**

#### 272 ***3.1. Spatial variability of HPP region***

273 After correcting and differencing the 2011 and 2015 DEMs, we found a retreat of the ice  
274 shelf terminus, and predominantly negative elevation changes across the MIS-HPP region. The  
275 elevation change on MIS ranges from -2.8 to 1.9 m (mean:  $-0.34$  m  $\pm$  0.77 m) across this 4-year  
276 time span, with focused gains adjacent to the newly retreated terminus and losses upstream.  
277 These results are consistent with prior results showing a net thinning of the ice shelf as well as  
278 the impact of terminus retreat on near-terminus flotation (Hogg et al., 2021). As the ice shelf  
279 DEMs were not corrected for ice movement, some features across MIS, namely the compression  
280 folds and Pegasus Ice Road, highlight these dynamic changes in their elevation change. The  
281 compression folds show both increasing and decreasing elevation change, highlighting the

282 troughs and peaks of the surface topography and indicating a migration of the folds. The Pegasus  
 283 Ice Road appears in two locations, and indicates a migration of the road due solely to ice shelf  
 284 flow. The variable distance in spacing between the two locations (overlapping at the TZ with  
 285 increasing separation with distance on MIS). Is consistent with variable ice shelf velocities  
 286 during this 4-year period (Fahnestock et al., 2016; Scambos et al., 2019). In the north-central  
 287 region of HPP, the elevation slightly decreased, while the northeast slope experienced the largest  
 288 elevation decreases, resulting in an average change of  $-0.34 \pm 0.77$  m (range: -1.99 to 2.00 m)  
 289 across HPP. This overall net loss across HPP and MIS aligns with previous findings using  
 290 different methods (Campbell et al., 2018) suggesting that this study robustly captures surface  
 291 elevation changes.



292

293 *Figure 4. Surface elevation change on McMurdo Ice Shelf (MIS) between 6 February 2011*  
294 *and 16 February 2015, and on Hut Point Peninsula (HPP) between 4 March 2011 and 16*  
295 *February 2015. The corrected DEM differencing for this study site (Fig. 1, red box) shows ice*  
296 *shelf terminus retreat (light and dark purple dashed lines, across HPP. DEM differencing also*  
297 *highlights ice shelf movement between scenes, with a migration of both the compression folds*  
298 *and Pegasus Ice Road.*

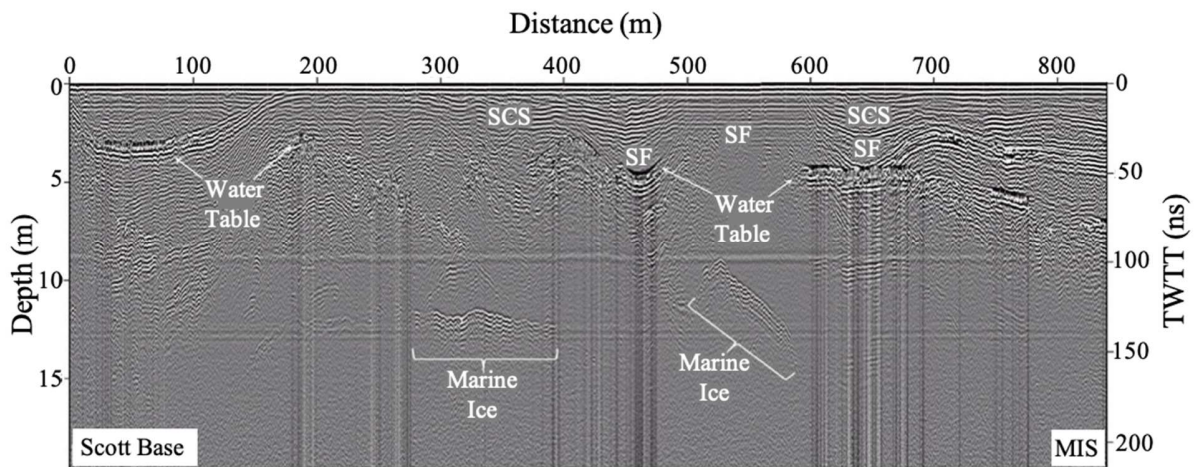
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### 300 **3.2. Ice Structure**

#### 301 *3.2.1. Pegasus Ice Road Structure*

302 The GPR profiles collected on the Pegasus Ice Road (Fig. 5) reveal structure to ~20 m  
303 depth and surface conformable stratigraphy (SCS) in the top 3–5 m. Thicker conformable  
304 stratigraphy is visible within syncline folds (SF) crossing the road. Below the SCS, heavily  
305 deformed, discontinuous, and dipping horizons are present. At 12–15 m depth, a series of  
306 stratified and discontinuous layers are prevalent. The near-surface stratigraphy is likely recent  
307 accumulation and firn reworked during yearly road construction over heavily deformed and  
308 fractured ice, while the strong GPR horizons at 12–15 m depth likely represents discontinuous  
309 marine ice frozen onto the bottom of meteoric ice (e.g., Campbell et al., 2017). Vertical noise  
310 bands originate from specific horizons near 5 m depth, which we interpret to be caused by  
311 laterally continuous water tables within the firn. These horizons occur near the base of the SCS,  
312 which supports our interpretation that the conformable stratigraphy is composed of permeable  
313 firn and the discontinuous layers below are likely impermeable meteoric glacier ice. This  
314 geophysical response to water in glacier snow or firn is a well-documented phenomenon (e.g.,  
315 Campbell et al., 2012; Forster et al., 2014).





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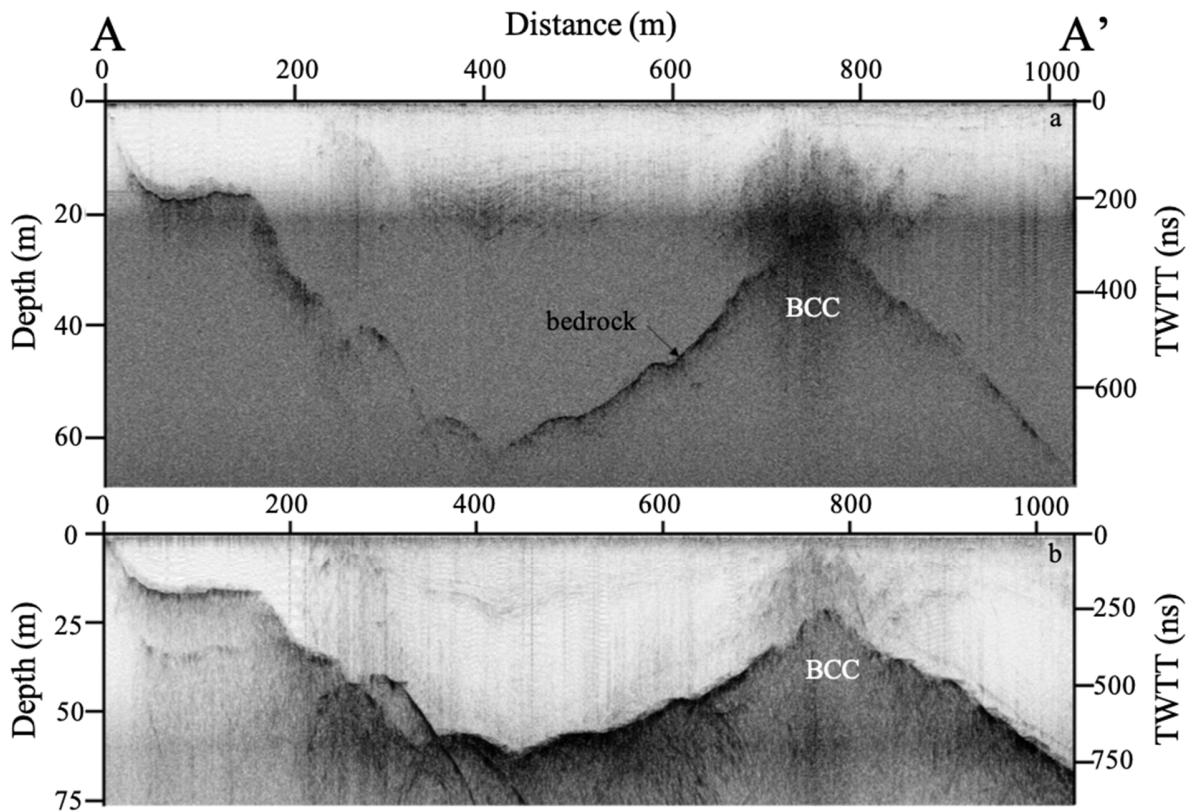
317 *Figure 5. A 400 MHz GPR profile collected along the Pegasus Ice Road in January 2015*  
 318 *Profile shows near-surface conformable stratigraphy (SCS), complex syncline folds (SF),*  
 319 *discontinuous stratified marine ice below, and vertical noise bands, which we interpret to be*  
 320 *caused by water resting on the firn–ice transition. This GPR transect is displayed from Scott*  
 321 *Base on left to MIS on right (GPR profile location is shown in Fig. 7).*

322

### 323 3.2.2. TZ Hillside Ice Structure

324 The 400 MHz and 100 MHz antennas were both used to survey the TZ Hillside and  
 325 quantify subsurface stratigraphy. Both antennas successfully imaged bedrock to ~65 m depth on  
 326 the TZ Hillside, with greater thicknesses near the top of the hill and shallower depths located  
 327 near the bottom, just above Pegasus Ice Road (~40–50 m thick). Profiles collected along the  
 328 proposed new road on the TZ Hillside show relatively flat subglacial topography and ice  
 329 thicknesses reaching 40 m depth. At the top of the hill, a buried symmetrical bedrock feature  
 330 rises to within 25 m of the surface (Fig. 6). Substantial noise, high attenuation rates, and limited  
 331 or no stratigraphy occurs within the radar data above the bedrock rise. Similar complex  
 332 stratigraphy and noise has been observed in GPR profiles from temperate glaciers where snow,

333 firm, or ice has been thermally altered thereby destroying stratigraphic horizons via chemical  
334 diffusion (Campbell et al., 2012). Elsewhere across the TZ Hillside, conformable stratigraphy is  
335 visible to 20–25 m depth in both the 400 MHz (Fig. 6a) and 100 MHz (Fig. 6b) data.

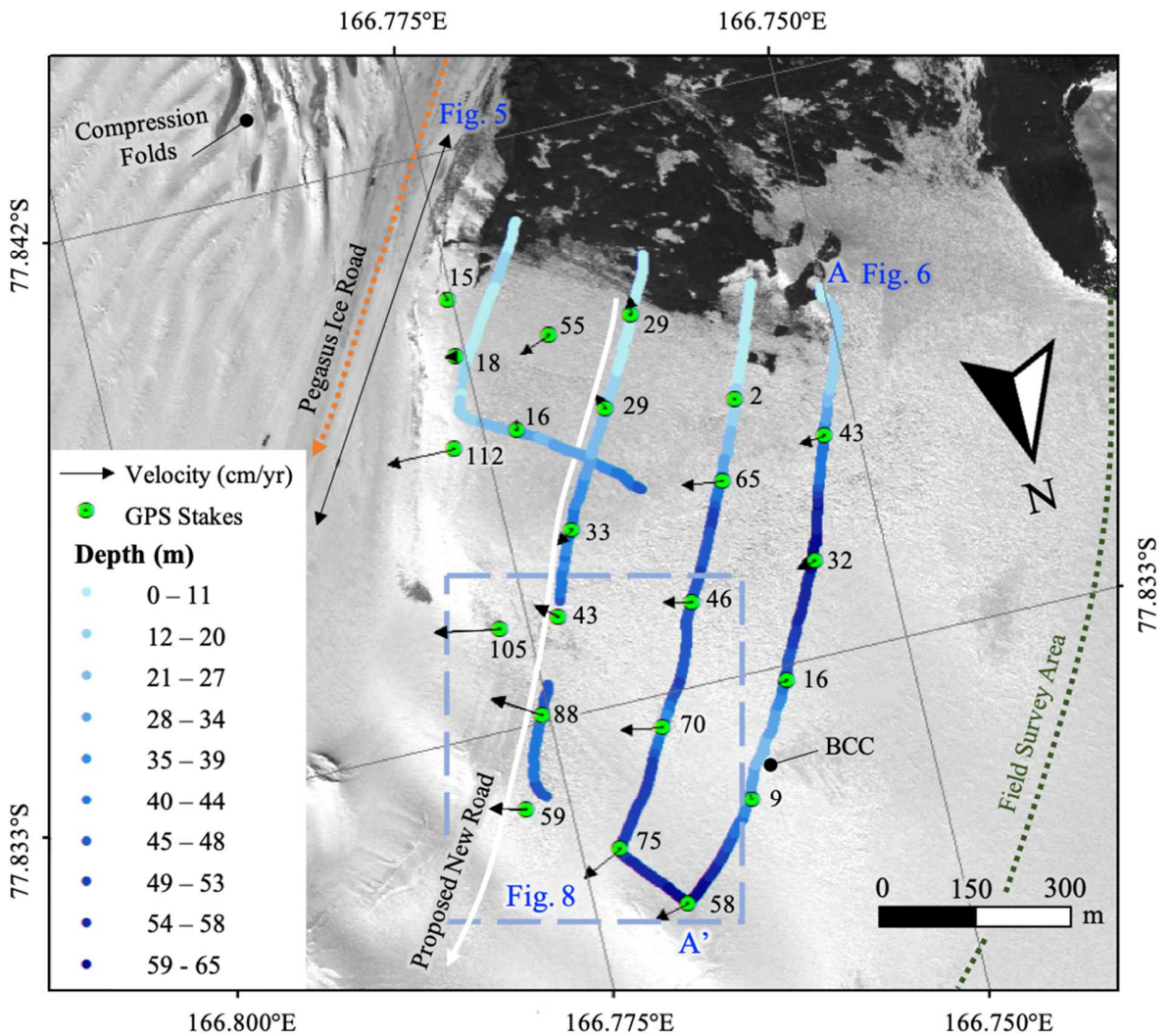


336  
337 **Figure 6.** One of the parallel GPR transects on the TZ Hillside (location noted in Fig. 7),  
338 showing the 400 MHz profile (a) and 100 MHz profile (b) with the bedrock topography and  
339 potentially buried cinder cone (BCC) noted. The complex stratigraphy above the cone is  
340 similar to noise imaged by GPR within temperate glaciers, suggesting that the ice has been  
341 thermally altered above the cone. Therefore, we suggest that ice has been situated overtop of  
342 the cone since its initial formation, or at a minimum, since recent thermal activity.

### 343 3.3. Ice Velocity Profiles

344 *3.3.1. In situ surveys*

345 Repeat kinematic GPS surveys of the 22 bamboo poles installed on the TZ Hillside  
346 revealed average ice-flow velocities from  $0.1\text{--}1.1 \pm 0.167 \text{ m a}^{-1}$  with the highest velocities  
347 located in the eastern corner of the grid and near the bergschrund above the TZ (Fig. 7). While  
348 velocities were measured over austral summer, we assume these average velocities are  
349 maintained during the winter as the average annual temperature is near  $-20.7^\circ\text{C}$  (Monaghan et  
350 al., 2005) and ice thicknesses is  $< 75 \text{ m}$ , suggesting the bed is likely frozen. The velocity  
351 gradients result in tensile stresses towards the east and south, which match locations of observed  
352 crevassing. The velocity measurements along the proposed road range from  $0.29 \text{ m a}^{-1}$  near  
353 exposed bedrock towards the west, to  $0.88 \text{ m a}^{-1}$  closer to the eastern boundary of the grid (Fig.  
354 7).

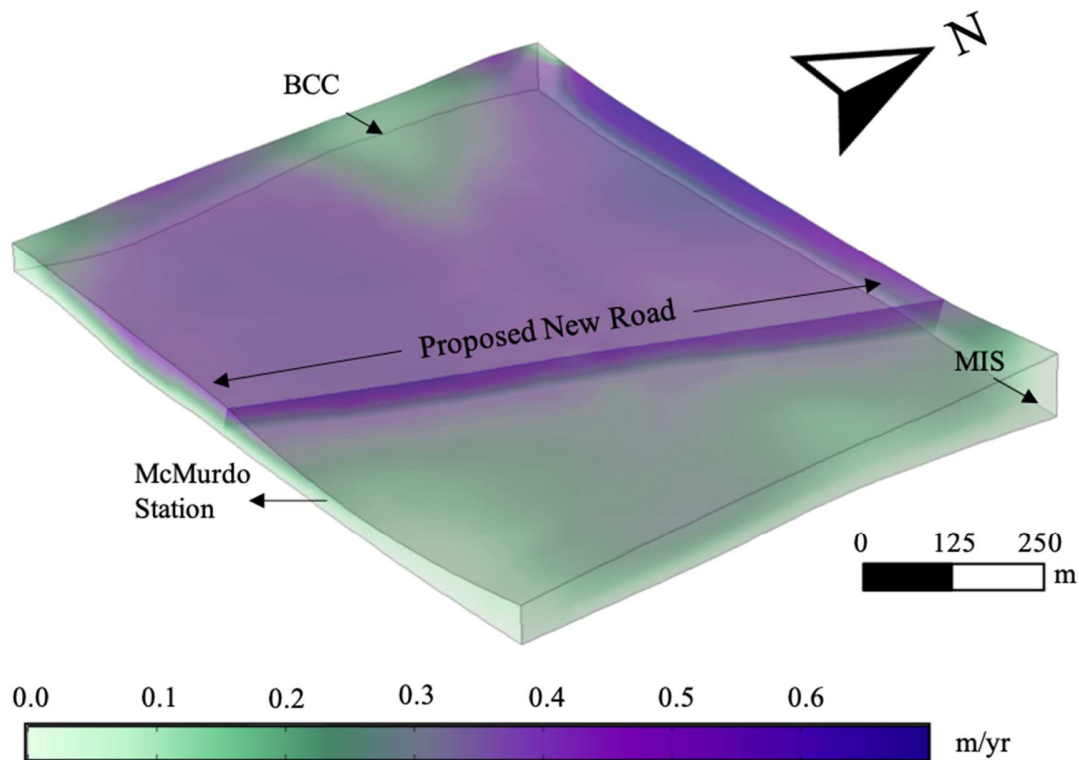


355  
 356 *Figure 7. The Field survey area (inside green dotted line) of the TZ Hillside. Noted are the*  
 357 *locations of the January 2016 GPR transects and the 2015-2016 repeat GPS survey stake*  
 358 *locations (green circles). Transect colors indicate measured ice thicknesses and arrows*  
 359 *indicate ice-flow velocities (magnitude and direction) measured by kinematic GPS surveys in*  
 360 *November 2015 and January 2016. Also noted are the potential buried cinder cone (BCC),*  
 361 *Pegasus Ice Road (orange dotted line), the approximate proposed road location (white solid*  
 362 *line), and specific GPR transects shown in Figs. 5 and 6.*

363

364 3.3.2. *Numerical modeling*

365 Three-dimensional numerical modeling was performed across the TZ Hillside,  
366 specifically focusing on ice velocities around the proposed new road location. Modeling results  
367 show ice-flow velocities between 0.1 and 1.2 m a<sup>-1</sup> across the TZ Hillside (Fig. 8), with an  
368 average modeled ice velocity across the proposed road transect of 0.35 m a<sup>-1</sup>. Velocities are  
369 slowest near the western glacier margin where ice thicknesses approach 0 m depth, and over the  
370 buried cinder cone (BCC) near the top of the TZ Hillside where velocities are on the order of 0.1  
371 m a<sup>-1</sup>. Model velocity result patterns align well with GPS-measured velocities ( $\pm 0.1$  m a<sup>-1</sup>), but  
372 are conservative in magnitude. We calculate the annual volume of ice crossing the road at the  
373 proposed road slice (Fig. 8) and find that over  $204 \pm 24$  m<sup>3</sup> ( $1.64\text{--}2.05 \times 10^5$  kg) of ice would  
374 need to be quarried annually from ice flowing downhill to maintain a bare-earth (bedrock) road.



375  
 376 *Figure 8. Temporal snapshot of the 3D TZ Hillside finite element numerical model showing*  
 377 *modeled ice flow velocities ( $m a^{-1}$ ) and a slice across the proposed new road. McMurdo*  
 378 *Station is to the south and McMurdo Ice Shelf (MIS) and Grounding Line/Transition Zone*  
 379 *(TZ) is to the east of the model. Model dimensions are based on GPR measured ice thickness*  
 380 *and GPS measured elevation. Model velocities closely match observed velocities ( $\pm 0.1 m a^{-1}$ ),*  
 381 *including low velocities over the potential buried cinder cone (BCC). The proposed road slice*  
 382 *was used to integrate annual ice volume crossing the proposed road region.*

383

#### 384 4. DISCUSSION

##### 385 4.1. McMurdo Ice Shelf Stability

386 Differences in MIS elevation between 2011 and 2015 do not show any clear signal of  
387 consistent elevation decrease, but instead show variable change across the study region. The  
388 observed MIS terminus retreat between 2011 and 2015 was accompanied by an increase in  
389 surface elevation near the terminus and a decrease farther upstream. We attribute the isolated  
390 pockets of elevation change in the Pegasus Ice Road locations to be artificial (human-induced),  
391 and from excavators quarrying snow to maintain the road or mitigate shifting snow drifts (Shoop  
392 et al., 2014). The most dramatic change in ice elevation that was not artificially influenced,  
393 occurs in the compression folds, aligning perpendicular to ice flow velocities (Fig. 4), indicating  
394 that the pattern of alternating elevation gain and loss stems from shifting positions of peaks and  
395 troughs of the compression folds. As this is a highly dynamic region, influenced by controlling  
396 variables such as accumulation, ablation, and ice flow, movement of compression fold peaks  
397 over an ~4-year period is a well-supported conclusion. The remainder of the flat MIS region  
398 exhibits fairly uniform elevation loss or gain.

399 While the overall net change of the ice shelf is negative ( $-0.13 \pm 1.11$  m), the distribution  
400 pattern of surface elevation change across MIS is positive near the terminus and negative  
401 upstream; therefore, MIS terminus retreat currently appears to be more of a threat to MIS  
402 stability than surface or basal melt. Previous GPR surveys across MIS revealed higher  
403 accumulation rates near HPP on MIS than towards Black and White Islands (Campbell et al.,  
404 2017). These high accumulation rates near HPP likely counter any summer surface or basal  
405 melting, which suggests that the logistical use of MIS may safely continue as long as the MIS  
406 terminus does not retreat to the TZ. However, MIS-HPP logistical concerns still exist, as  
407 meltwater within the TZ is pooling at the firm-ice transition, which we expect to persist and  
408 potentially increase, as melt on the TZ Hillside continues. Therefore, Pegasus Ice Road may

409 eventually need to be moved depending on future meltwater flux, thinning, and/or retreat of the  
410 MIS terminus into the TZ.

411

#### 412 4.2. *Hut Point Peninsula Stability*

413 While HPP is itself bedrock, Pegasus Ice Road connects MIS to both bases on HPP (Scott  
414 Base and McMurdo Station), by way of crossing the TZ. The results presented here show that  
415 the TZ Hillside currently has a negative mass balance, which could generate instability at the TZ  
416 if or when the TZ Hillside decreases its ice mass contribution (influx) to the TZ. Therefore,  
417 establishing potential alternative routes that removes the TZ crossing, is critical to uninterrupted  
418 Antarctic science logistics. Surface elevation decreases on the northeast slope of HPP near the  
419 TZ is prominent between 2011 and 2015, with an elevation loss between 1–2 m over the 4 year  
420 study period. We interpret this surface lowering to be largely due to surface melt, with a lesser  
421 component from sublimation, as strong Southerly winds were also reported during this study  
422 period (Brett et al., 2020). We propose that this surface lowering is the primary source of  
423 meltwater runoff pooling on the TZ, since the TZ Hillside is primarily composed of impermeable  
424 ice (e.g., Shoop et al., 2014).

425 The GPR profiles and GPS surveys collected across the TZ Hillside evaluated a potential  
426 alternative new road location. To install a road across the TZ Hillside, either blasting of ice to  
427 place the road on solid ground, or grooming an ice road over the current surface, would need to  
428 occur. Both options have major construction challenges, and each would require sizeable annual  
429 maintenance. The TZ Hillside is predominantly ice, therefore minimal firm is readily available to  
430 quarry for ice road maintenance. This does not account for the far greater volume of ice that  
431 would need to be excavated to create an initial bare-earth (bedrock) road. The model results



432 suggest that a bedrock-based road would be more problematic to initially build and maintain, if  
433 not impossible, due to the sizeable volume of annual ice removal that would be required.  
434 However, the steep slope of the TZ Hillside would also make for potentially treacherous ice road  
435 conditions, due to meltwater drainage, refreezing, and snow drifts. These adverse conditions  
436 would need to be accounted for in design, building, and maintenance strategies prior to moving  
437 the current Pegasus Ice Road to the TZ Hillside.

438

#### 439 *4.3. DEM Differencing Caveats*

440 Differencing corrected DEMs highlights elevation change in the region, however, some  
441 anomalies in the elevation data sets were not or could not be removed prior to differencing,  
442 primarily the movement of MIS and intra-seasonal variability. The DEMs from 2011 and 2015  
443 were all acquired during austral summer, however intra-seasonal variability in storms and snow  
444 drifting could still contribute to some of the calculated elevation differences. These seasonal  
445 snow drifts are observable as isolated pockets of larger elevation change between bedrock  
446 outcrops on HPP. Steep slopes can also impact elevation calculations (e.g., Wang et al., 2019),  
447 which is especially true for large-scale features (10s m) within steep terrain. A majority of the  
448 terrain within this study maintains relatively consistent slopes across long distances (100s m);  
449 however, all slopes were considered over glaciated regions, and regions where slopes are  $>20^\circ$   
450 are isolated and therefore unlikely to have an impact on larger-scale changes (overall trends of  
451 net gains and losses). To date, there are no detailed studies of this region to quantifying the  
452 accumulation rate, therefore future investigations should include acquiring these data to enable  
453 the removal of small-scale seasonal impacts.

454           While we were able to resolve overall ice shelf elevation differences between 2011 and  
455 2015, we were not able to resolve the nature of MIS thinning; specifically, if the elevation  
456 change resulted in a change of the ice shelf composition (percent of marine ice, glacier ice,  
457 accumulation), which is critical to ice shelf stability. Previous MIS studies suggest that marine  
458 ice reaches close to a third of the total MIS thickness (Arcone et al., 2016), but the distribution of  
459 marine ice under MIS (and most other ice shelves) is currently unknown. This is, in part, due to  
460 the difficulties of measuring ice shelf composition using GPR, as conductive attenuation  
461 prevents GPR from penetrating the full ice shelf thickness (e.g., Arcone et al., 2016), and also  
462 due to spatially sparse *in situ* measurements (i.e., borehole measurements; e.g., Craven et al.,  
463 2009). Other studies suggest significant annual thinning of MIS via basal melt, which would  
464 counter significant marine ice freeze-on (e.g., Rack et al., 2013; Stern et al., 2013; Tinto et al.,  
465 2019). This discrepancy between freeze-on and melt, and a lack of marine ice thickness  
466 observations, is perhaps one of the greatest unknowns to MIS stability. To better resolve ice  
467 shelf stability, future marine ice thickness measurements are critical to better contextualize  
468 changes in ice shelf elevation.

469

## 470 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

471           The MIS-HPP region serves as the primary logistics hub for both the United States and  
472 New Zealand Antarctic Programs. The MIS also buttresses several tributary glaciers and is  
473 critical to the stability of the Ross Ice Shelf. Problematically, MIS is disproportionately  
474 susceptible to potential disintegration, due to high surface and basal melt rates, meltwater  
475 pooling, and tidal flexure. If MIS were to weaken or collapse, the United States and New  
476 Zealand Antarctic science programs would also incur sizeable logistics challenges. Here we

477 focused on measuring the changes in ice elevation across MIS and HPP, and assessing a potential  
478 new access road between MIS and HPP. Through differencing DEMs collected in the austral  
479 summers of 2011 and 2015, we identified regions of large elevation change ( $\sim \pm 2$  m), as well as  
480 MIS terminus retreat. The GPR surveys along Pegasus Ice Road found that the TZ crossing  
481 maintains pooled meltwater at the firn-ice transition, which can weaken the ice in this triaxial  
482 confluence of the HPP, MIS, and McMurdo sea ice. Additionally, GPR and GPS surveys on the  
483 TZ Hillside, as well as a resulting numerical model, explored the possibility of relocating the  
484 Pegasus Ice Road to bypass the TZ crossing. Results from the GPR, GPS, and numerical model  
485 showed that installation of a bare-earth (bedrock) road or ice surface road would require either  
486 sizeable glacier ice excavation or complex engineering on steep glacier terrain to bypass the  
487 current TZ crossing. Both scenarios would also require nearly constant maintenance due to  
488 glacier ice creep, melt, and snow drifting. While changes in ice elevation across the MIS-HPP  
489 region indicate no immediate need for rerouting Pegasus Ice Road to avoid the TZ crossing,  
490 GPS, GPR and modeling results also did not suggest a straightforward immediate rerouting  
491 solution. However, due to increasing ocean and atmospheric temperatures, combined with the  
492 vulnerability and importance of MIS to Antarctic logistics, continued remote sensing and *in situ*  
493 monitoring of this region is essential to exploring alternative MIS-HPP access points.  
494 Additionally, MIS is intrinsically connected to both East and West Antarctica through its shared  
495 boundary with the Ross Ice Shelf, such that changes in MIS will extend beyond the MIS region.  
496 These teleconnections necessitate that changes in MIS elevation, velocity, and ice thickness  
497 (including basal marine ice thickness) be quantified and monitored more extensively across this  
498 region to capture potential dynamical changes, which could prelude additional, far-reaching,  
499 dynamic responses.

500

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509

## 510 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

511 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
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513

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