

1 **Modelling sea ice formation in the Terra Nova Bay polynya**

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15 **Abstract**

16 Antarctic sea ice is constantly exported from the shore by strong near surface winds opening leads
17 and large polynyas in the pack ice. The latter, known as wind-driven polynyas, are responsible for
18 significant water mass modifications due to the high salt flux into the ocean associated with
19 enhanced ice growth. The Ross Sea is an oceanographic environment of interest being characterized
20 by the presence of wind-driven polynyas. In particular we are going to focus on the Terra Nova Bay
21 (TNB) polynya. Brine rejected during sea ice formation processes that occur in TBN polynya
22 densifies the water column leading to the formation of the most characteristic water mass of the
23 Ross Sea, the High Salinity Shelf Water (HSSW). This, in turn, takes part to the formation of the
24 Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW), the densest water mass of the Southern Ocean which plays a
25 major role in the global meridional overturning circulation affecting the global climate system. A
26 coupled sea ice – ocean model has been developed to simulate the seasonal cycle of sea ice
27 formation in, and export off, the polynya. The sea ice model accounts for both thermal and
28 mechanical processes. The oceanic circulation is described by a reduced gravity model, one-and-a-
29 half layer. The domain resolution is of 1 km, which is sufficient to represent the salient features of
30 the coastline geometry, notably the Drygalski Ice Tongue. The model is forced by a combination of
31 Era Interim reanalysis and in-situ data from automatic weather stations, and also by climatological
32 oceanic dataset developed through in situ oceanic observations. The sensitivity of the polynya to the
33 atmospheric forcing is well reproduced by the model when merging in situ and reanalysis data,
34 which allows to capture in detail the strength and the spatial distribution of the katabatic winds. The
35 model resolves accurately sea ice drift in TNB and sea ice production rates leading to realistic
36 polynya extent estimates. The model-derived polynya extent has been validated. The comparison
37 between the modelled sea ice concentration and the MODIS high resolution satellite images
38 confirms that the model is able to reasonably reproduce the TNB polynya evolution in terms of both
39 shape and numerical extent.

1. Introduction

Observations and models have clearly shown that changes in atmospheric forcing and ocean circulation affect the Antarctic sea ice extent (Jacobs and Comiso, 1997; Liu et al., 2004; Lefebvre et al., 2005; Zhang 2007; Turner et al., 2009; Liu and Curry, 2010). The strong pattern of increasing ice cover in the Ross Sea region, found to be the highest contributor among the five Southern Ocean sectors in 1979 - 2010 period with a positive trend of $13700 \pm 1500 \text{ km}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$, has been ascribed to changes in atmospheric circulation (Parkinson and Cavalieri, 2012). Enhanced northward winds have changed sea ice drift and export offshore affecting the dynamics of the local oceanography. These changes can impact the wind driven polynyas occurrence in Antarctic coastal areas modifying their activity and consequently the production of cold and salty water through sea ice growth processes (Holland and Kwok, 2012). Especially, variation in size or extent of polynyas are believed suitable indicators of climatic change (Morales Maqueda et al, 2004).

The wind-driven Terra Nova Bay (TNB) polynya, located in the western sector of the Ross Sea, plays a remarkable role in sea ice and ocean dynamics of this region (Kurtz and Bromwich, 1985; Bromwich, 1989). The polynya opening results principally from the synergy of meteorological and physical features of this region. Especially during the winter, TNB is frequently forced by cold and strong katabatic downslope flows that advect sea ice away from the coast. Their action prevents sea ice from consolidating as thick pack ice and at the same time allows its continuous formation leaving the relatively warm water ice exposed to the cold atmosphere. Also the presence and the orientation of the Drygalski Ice Tongue is essential for the polynya maintenance, since this barrier blocks the incoming sea ice from the south and controls through its length the polynya extent (Frezzotti and Mabin, 1994). Due to the constant formation and offshore drift of new ice, the TNB polynya contributes to sea ice mass budget of the whole area producing approximately 10% of sea ice annually formed in the Ross Sea (Kurtz and Bromwich, 1985; Van Woert, 1999b). Associated with the wind-forced ice production is a salt flux that causes haline convection affecting the characteristics of the entire water column at TNB and the thermohaline structure of the whole Ross

66 Sea (Kurtz and Bromwich, 1985; Trumbore et al., 1991). TNB polynya is considered to be by far
67 the largest producer of High Salinity Shelf Water (HSSW) (Kurtz and Bromwich, 1983, 1985;
68 Jacobs et al., 1985; Van Woert, 1999a, b; Budillon and Spezie, 2000; Budillon et al., 2003; Fusco et
69 al., 2009) that plays a crucial role in the formation of Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) (Kurtz and
70 Bromwich, 1985; Jacobs and Comiso, 1989; Van Woert, 1999a), contributing significantly to the
71 deep ocean ventilation and the global thermohaline circulation (Jacobs et al., 1985; Orsi et al., 1999;
72 Jacobs 2004).

73 The main goal of this study is to investigate the sea ice behaviour in the Terra Nova Bay polynya in
74 response to external forcing and to estimate the associated sea ice and HSSW production. To this
75 purpose a coupled sea ice – ocean model was developed and applied to Terra Nova Bay. The model
76 simulates the seasonal cycle of sea ice formation in Terra Nova Bay polynya accounting for both
77 sea ice dynamic and thermodynamic processes. The first ones produce no ice directly, but cause the
78 ice drifting (horizontal transport) in or off the area and its deformation as a result of rafting, ridging
79 and convergence/divergence phenomena. On the contrary, the latter are responsible for local ice
80 growth or melt and heat transfer between the involved surfaces (Rothrock, 1979). Both kind of
81 processes alter the local mean thickness (ice volume per unit area) and involve exchanges of mass
82 (fresh water) and energy with the atmosphere and ocean (Flato, 2003).

83 A further target of this work is the estimate of the TNB polynya extent, characterized by areas with
84 low sea ice concentration. Computing the polynya extent is a hard matter depending on the accuracy
85 and the limitations of the models and the remote sensing tools, as well as on their capability to
86 resolve in time and in space the processes involved in the polynya variability. Polynya extent
87 estimates are not trivial to retrieve since local ice thickness or ice production rates are often
88 unknown. Papers focusing on the variability of sea ice and open water concentration in TNB exist
89 in literature, mainly concerning the wintertime season. Some authors investigated the polynya
90 extent through one dimensional models forced by in situ and reanalysis data (Van Woert, 1999a,
91 1999b; Fusco et al., 2002; Petrelli et al., 2008) or through satellite observations (Kern, 2007; Ciappa

et al., 2012). The polynya extent here is retrieved from sea ice concentration and validated by the comparison with polynya extent detected from MODIS satellite images.

The paper is organized as it follows. Section 2 provides a description of the coupled sea ice – ocean model and the main formulations adopted to resolve sea ice dynamics and thermodynamics. Section 3 presents some sensitivity experiments with respect to specific physical factors and parameterizations in order to tune the model to the peculiarities of TNB region. In particular, sea ice behaviour in the polynya area in response to the wind forcing is highlighted. Section 4 shows the results of one year simulation of sea ice formation in TNB region as well as the polynya extent estimates. Section 5 focuses on the comparison between the TNB polynya extent estimates and the high resolution MODIS images. Finally, discussion and concluding remarks are outlined in Section 6.

2. Description of the model

The coupled sea ice – ocean model presented here is a simple general circulation model (GCM) applied to the TNB polynya. In contrast with the polynya flux models describing the evolution of a polynya in terms of the polynya edge contour, it predicts sea ice concentration as distributed over some regular spatial grid within a given domain (Wilmott et al., 2007). The model is run at high resolution (1 km) in order to cope with the complexity of the coastline geometry and the meteorological patterns of this region. Both dynamic and thermodynamic processes of sea ice are incorporated in the model. An accurate representation of the main sea ice processes, often overlooked in numerical simulations of the polar regions (Russell et al., 2006; Maksym et al., 2012) and, a realistic sea ice dynamics, especially in the Southern Ocean, are crucial to describe the interaction of thin ice and polynyas with the atmospheric and oceanic circulation (Stössel et al, 1990). The ocean is represented by a one-and-a-half layer reduced gravity ocean model in which the oceanic dynamics satisfy the hydrostatic equilibrium and the Boussinesq approximation. Then, the stratification is simplified as a two-layer fluid in which the active layer (mixed layer) moves above

117 a lower stagnant (motionless) layer of infinite depth. Sea ice behaves as a floating zero layer system
 118 without thermal inertia, as proposed by Semtner (1976), interacting thermodynamically with the
 119 atmosphere and the underlying mixed layer of the ocean. The coupling of sea ice with the surface
 120 ocean layer allows us to simulate the seasonal cycle of sea ice formation in, and export off the
 121 polynya. The model requires atmospheric and ocean forcing as inputs that are applied as surface and
 122 bottom boundary conditions. The atmospheric forcing is given by air temperature, surface pressure,
 123 humidity, cloud cover, precipitation and wind fields. The model needs also the solar radiation in
 124 order to compute the balance of radiative and the turbulent heat fluxes. The ocean forcing consists
 125 of the ocean temperature and salinity profiles. The main variables involved in the coupled sea ice-
 126 ocean model are shown in Fig.1 as well as the heat balance at air-ocean, air-ice and ice-ocean
 127 interfaces.

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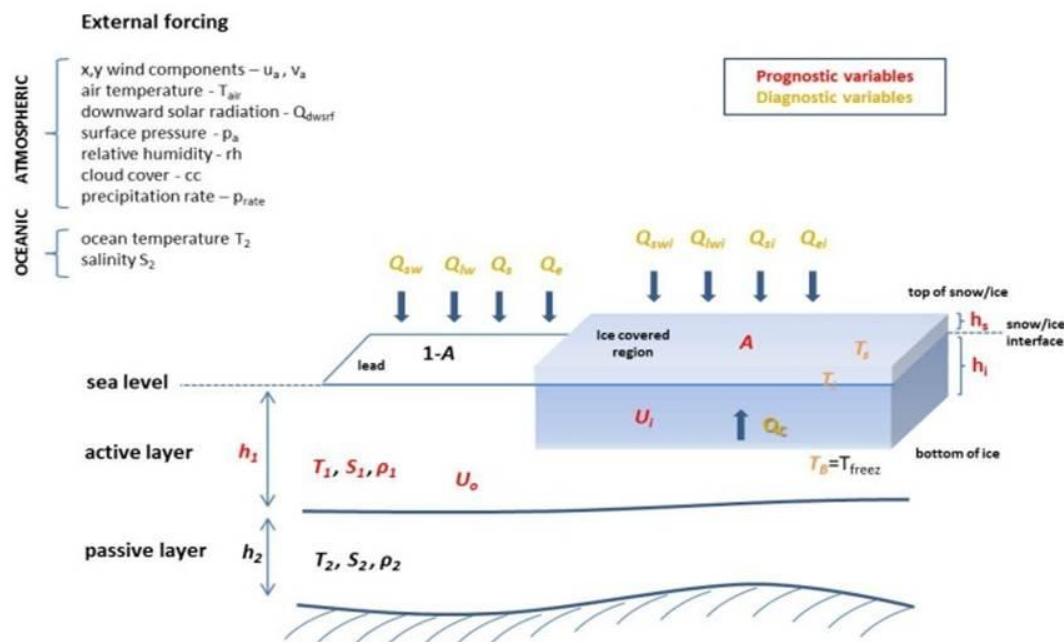


Fig. 1: Schematic view of the main variables of the coupled sea ice – ocean model. The radiative and turbulent heat fluxes (Wm^{-2}) are separately calculated over the ice free (leads) and ice covered part of a grid cell. The positive vertical direction is downward.

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132 Sea ice is characterized by the ice concentration (A), defined as the fraction of a grid cell covered
133 by ice varying between zero and one and by the ice thickness (h_i). The non-covered fraction of each
134 grid cell ($1-A$) is referred to as a lead. Sea ice is allowed to be covered by a snow layer (h_s) that is
135 important for the determination of the growth rates of sea ice (Stössel et al., 1990). Also, snow-ice
136 formation from Fichfet and Maqueda (1999) which takes part in the thickening of sea ice is
137 prescribed. A , h_i and h_s are prognostically calculated by continuity equations including dynamic and
138 thermodynamic terms. Sea ice drift, that is the ice velocity $\mathbf{U}_i (u_i, v_i)$ is computed by the momentum
139 equation expressed as the force balance among the Coriolis force, wind and ocean stresses and
140 interaction between floes due to ice deformation. The atmosphere and ocean stresses
141 parameterization includes the ice concentration as a multiplicative factor to be consistent with the
142 theory of free drift in regions of low ice concentration according Connolley et al. (2004). The
143 internal ice forces are resolved using the elastic-viscous-plastic rheology by Hunke and Dukowicz
144 (1997), where the coupling between the dynamics and sea ice thickness (h_i) and concentration (A) is
145 allowed through the internal ice pressure (see more in section 3.1) as in Hibler's (1979)
146 formulation. The active layer of the ocean is maintained at the freezing point as long as ice is
147 present. It is simply represented by one layer of a depth h_1 , temperature T_1 , salinity S_1 and density
148 ρ_1 , the latter from Maqueda et al. (1999), which are determined by the entrainment of water from
149 the motionless infinitely deep layer (h_2) of a prescribed temperature T_2 , salinity S_2 and ρ_2 . The
150 entrainment velocity depending on air-sea fluxes that control the strength of turbulence in the mixed
151 layer is described following the Lemke (1987) parameterization. The oceanic variables together
152 with the ocean velocity, $\mathbf{U}_o (u_o, v_o)$ are calculated prognostically via continuity and momentum
153 equations as for the ice. The stress term is from Mellor and Kantha (1989) and is described by the
154 combination of the shear stress at the surface of ice covered ocean and the wind stress acting at the
155 surface of ice free ocean. The vertical turbulent mixing and dissipation due to the bottom friction at
156 the base of the active layer is prescribed according to the parameterization of Pacanowski and
157 Philander (1981). The radiative and the turbulent heat fluxes are calculated separately following

158 Budillon et al. (2000) over the leads (Q_{sw} , Q_{lw} , Q_s and Q_e) and the ice covered parts (Q_{swi} , Q_{lwi} , Q_{si}
159 and Q_{ei}). The conductive heat flux (Q_C) through the ice contributes to the net heat balance
160 determining the thermodynamic changes in ice thickness and concentration due to vertical and
161 lateral processes. In computing sea ice production, the temperature at the base of ice T_B is set at the
162 freezing point and the ice surface temperature T_s and the temperature at snow-ice interface T_i are
163 calculated diagnostically from this balance.

164

165 **2.2 Model domain and set up**

166 The model domain consists in a wide region of the western Ross Sea including an extended area
167 along the coast of Victoria Land south of the Drygalski Ice Tongue and the northern region of the
168 Wood Bay. It is 488 km long and 154 km large extending approximately from 74°S to 78°S in
169 latitude and from 162°E to 168°E in longitude. A spatially uniform horizontal resolution of 1 km is
170 used to study the small scale behaviour of sea ice in TNB. It is also considered to be sufficient in
171 representing the salient features of the coastline geometry such as the Drygalski Ice Tongue. Hence
172 the horizontal grid is a rectangle of XY dimensions subdivided in square grid cells resulting in a
173 grid of $154 \times 488 = 75152$ grid points. The Arakawa B-grid is used for the spatial discretization
174 where all the scalar variables, such as the thermodynamic and transport variables are computed at
175 the center of the grid cell, while all the vector variables are defined at the corners. Hence two masks
176 have been created for these two sets of variables. A land mask is specified in the center of the cells
177 with 0 representing land and 1 oceanic cells. A corresponding mask is defined for all corner
178 quantities such as the wind speed, sea ice velocity and stress components. The advection equation is
179 discretized with a first order upstream scheme. The solutions of the momentum equations and the
180 advective and thermodynamic processes are computed using two different time steps: a small one
181 for the momentum (Δt) and a larger one for the advection (ΔT_a). All the input parameters such as
182 constants and coefficients are shown in Table 1. The x stands for a varying value in the performed

183 experiments. Sea ice concentration and thickness and ocean fields are initialized at the beginning of
184 each integration with a prescribed value or with a restart from the previous integration.

185 Open lateral boundary conditions ensuring a minimum of signal reflections at the boundary have
186 been used so that advective flows leaving the domain are allowed to freely exit the domain using an
187 upstream formulation, while flows into the domain use a simple sponge boundary condition that
188 relaxes the variables to their climatological external values (Martinsen and Engedahl, 1987). The
189 main physical parameters of atmosphere, sea ice and ocean used in the model are showed in Table
190 2.

Parameter	Symbol	Value
X domain	X	154000 m
Y domain	Y	488000 m
T domain	T	x^* days
Time step for momentum	Δt	600 s
Time step for advection	Δta	1.2 s
Elastic timescale	Δte	180 s
Air drag coefficient	C_{da}	x^*
Ocean drag coefficient	C_{do}	x^*
Ice strength parameter	P^*	x^* N/m ²
Ice concentration parameter	C	20
Creep limit	c	5×10^{-11} 1/s
Eccentricity of the elliptical yield curve	e	2
Demarcation ice thickness	h_{pu}	x^* m

Table 1: Input parameters of the model.

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Thermal conductivity of sea ice	κ_i	2.2 W/m/K
Thermal conductivity of snow	κ_s	0.3 W/m/K
Emissivity of atmosphere	ϵ_a	0.95
Emissivity of ocean	ϵ_o	0.985
Albedo of ocean	α_o	0.07
Albedo of ice	α_i	0.07-0.7
Albedo of snow	α_{sn}	0.85
Latent heat of fusion of ice	L_{fi}	3.34×10^5 J/m ³
Latent heat of vaporization of water	L_e	2.5×10^9 J/m ³
Latent heat of fusion of snow	L_{fsn}	3.34×10^5 J/m ³
Latent heat of sublimation of snow	L_{ssn}	2.834×10^6 J/m ³
Specific heat capacity of ocean	c_{pa}	3985 J/m ³ /°C
Specific heat capacity of air	c_{po}	1004 J/m ³ /°C
Density of air	ρ_a	1.3 Kg/m ³
Density of ice	ρ_i	900 Kg/m ³
Density of snow	ρ_s	330 Kg/m ³
Density of ocean	ρ_o	1024 Kg/m ³
Melting point of freshwater ice	t_{fus}	0°C
Salinity of sea ice	s_i	4 psu
Exchange coeff. for sensible heat (leads/ice)	c_H	1.75×10^{-3}
Exchange coeff. for latent heat over leads	c_E	1.75×10^{-3}
Exchange coeff. for latent heat over ice	c_E	1×10^{-3}
Stefan-Boltzmann constant	K	5.67×10^{-8}
Minimum vertical viscosity	ν_{min}	1×10^{-3}

Table 2: Physical parameters of atmosphere, sea ice and ocean.

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2.2 Forcing fields

The ocean forcing consists of climatological oceanographic profiles of ocean temperature and salinity developed through the analysis of available in situ temperature and salinity datasets. These datasets consist of hydrographic mooring and CTD profile data collected from February 1995 to January 2008 within the CLIMA (Climatic Long-term Interaction for the Mass-balance in Antarctica) project of the Italian National Research Antarctic Program (PNRA). The two climatological datasets include idealized monthly temperature and salinity values, spatially uniform in the model domain and varying vertically up to 800 meters in depth. In detail, 8 depth levels (0 m, -30 m, -50 m, -100 m, -150 m, -300 m, -500 m, -800 m) are chosen for the computation of the oceanic mixed layer, so that the temperature and salinity profiles consist of 8 monthly values. As main atmospheric forcing, the Era-Interim reanalysis from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), has been prescribed. The data extracted from the global domain provide surface six-hourly parameters at a 0.5×0.5 degree horizontal resolution covering the model domain with 16×11 grid points, in latitude and in longitude respectively. Specifically, the input data consist of the 10 meter eastward and northward wind components (m/s), the 2 meter temperature (K), the downward surface solar radiation (Wm^{-2}s), the surface (1000 mb level) pressure (Pa), the relative humidity (%), the total cloud cover (0-1) and the precipitation rate (m of water). The oceanographic and atmospheric data have been spatially and temporally interpolated over the whole model domain. Meteorological observations from Automatic Weather Stations (AWSs) have been also employed to force the model.

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2.2.1 Atmospheric field setting

The resolution of the local winds is a crucial factor in estimating sea ice production especially in a small coastal polynya like the TNB one. In particular during winter, sea ice production in TNB is

247

248 largely determined by katabatic winds which are the main forcing of the TNB polynya size (Petrelli
 249 et al., 2008; Gallé, 1997). Petrelli et al. (2008) showed that a simplified resolution of the katabatic
 250 winds leads to an underestimation of sea ice winter production of up to 50% which results in an
 251 underestimation of the formation rate of HSSW and consequently of AABW. In spite of their
 252 relatively high resolution, the ECMWF reanalysis have been found to underestimate the wind
 253 speeds in several studies (Cullather et al., 1997; Fusco et al., 2002; Petrelli et al., 2008) providing
 254 therefore an improper representation of the wind fields along and offshore TNB. A wind correction
 255 has been applied to coastal and offshore model grid points value combining the Era Interim data
 256 with in-situ atmospheric data from Automatic Weather Stations (AWSs) which show a significantly
 257 increased skill over ECMWF atmospheric variables (Petrelli et al., 2008).
 258 A merging function has been designed so that the correction factor for each grid point value varies
 259 with the distance from the weather station. Era Interim and AWS data are merged resulting in the
 260 effective wind vector defined as

$$V_{eff} = V_{AWS} e^{-\frac{r}{R}} + V_{Era} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{r}{R}}\right)$$

262
 263 where V_{AWS} and V_{Era} are the wind vectors from AWS and ERA-Interim respectively, r is the
 264 distance from the AWS and R is an e-folding length scale so that the influence range of the AWS
 265 depicts a circumference.
 266 In particular, atmospheric data from two AWSs have been used. In a first phase of the sensitivity
 267 tests only Rita AWS (-74.72° S, 164.03° E), installed within the Meteo-Climatological Observatory
 268 of the PNRA in proximity of the Italian base “Mario Zucchelli” downstream of the Priestley
 269 Glacier, has been considered.
 270 Successively, Manuela AWS (-74.95° S, 163.69° E), installed within the AWS project of the
 271 University of Wisconsin-Madison Antarctic Meteorology Program on Inexpressible Island has been

272 also included. The AWS Manuela lies downstream of the Reeves Glacier which represents the main
273 area of confluence of the katabatic flows from the interior of Antarctica.
274 Rita e Manuela datasets consist, respectively, of one hourly and ten minute intervals data relative to
275 air temperature (°C), wind speed (m/s) and direction, surface pressure (hPa), relative humidity (%).
276 The merging function has been applied also for the air temperature and relative humidity data.
277

278 3 Sensitivity experiments

279 An improper choice of the parameters which describe sea ice evolution results often in unrealistic
280 simulations leading to inaccurate results of sea ice outputs. Several sensitivity experiments were
281 performed to define the best set of parameters controlling TNB sea ice dynamics and
282 thermodynamics in response to wind forcing. Two key parameters have been found to control the
283 wind driven polynyas: the rheology ice strength parameter P^* and the demarcation ice thickness H ,
284 named also lead-closing parameter, that is simply the prescribed thickness of new ice formed in
285 leads. The rate at which the leads close under freezing conditions is inversely proportional to the
286 value of H . Both parameters have a strong effect on polynya size and sea ice extent and volume
287 estimates (Hibler, 1979; Stössel et al., 1990; Stössel, 1992).
288 Finally a sensitivity analysis was carried out turning attention to the air-ice and ice-ocean drag
289 coefficients which control the wind stress on the sea surface and sea ice. The choice of these
290 parameters depends on the study area and especially on the wind forcing time and spatial resolution,
291 therefore the model was opportunely tuned and optimized with respect to them.

292

293

294 3.1 Sensitivity to ice strength parameter

295 The ice strength parameter P^* is a key element in sea ice rheology that relates sea ice strength (P) to
296 its concentration (A) and mean thickness (h). It was first introduced by Hibler (1979) in the
297 constitutive equation for sea ice strength as

298

$$P = P^* h e^{[-C^*(1-A)]}$$

299

300 where P^* and C^* are empirical values. Ice strength exhibits a strong dependence on sea ice
301 concentration and especially on the amount of the thin ice/open water ($1 - A$). For low ice
302 concentrations the ice strength decreases significantly and most of the sea ice is deformed (Hibler,
303 1979; Wilmott et al., 2007, Feltham, 2008). Sea ice also offers less resistance to compression when
304 h and P^* are low, and tends to pile up more easily because of enhanced mechanical ridging and
305 rafting. Then, P^* is a critical parameter controlling sea ice drift behaviour in the wind driven
306 polynyas and, therefore, it represents the main tuning parameter to achieve a realistic sea ice drift
307 pattern (Owens and Lemke, 1990; Stössel et al., 1990; Steele et al., 1997).

308 Some experiments have been carried out to observe the impact of P^* on sea ice dynamics in TNB.
309 Also the influence of the merging function and the size of the R factor on sea ice evolution have
310 been considered. Table 3 displays the different combination of P^* and the merging conditions
311 varying alternately in these experiments. The control experiment referred to as CASE 1 run using a
312 $P^* = 27500 \times 10^4 \text{ N/m}^2$ by Hibler and Walsh (1982) that is the most widely used value for the ice
313 strength parameter and $R=25 \text{ km}$. The CASE 2 is different from the control run just for $P^* = 5000$
314 N/m^2 as in Hibler (1979), while the CASE 3 and CASE 4 differ from the control experiment in the
315 absence of the merging between reanalysis and AWS data and in the larger influence range of AWS
316 data respectively.

317

318

Experiment	P^* (N/m ²)	R factor (km)
CASE 1	27500	25
CASE 2	5000	25
CASE 3	27500	-
CASE 4	27500	50

Table3: Sensitivity tests of sea ice evolution with respect to P^* and R factor.

In all the runs the demarcation ice thickness - H was set to 0.1 m. Regarding the oceanic forcing, a relaxation time of 7 days to climatological data was set in all the experiments. The time interval of the atmospheric input was set to 6 hours, while that of the output fields to 1 day so that the model gives a daily output for each computed variable. Fig. 3 (a, b) depicts the wind forcing and the respective ice drift fields on 8th July 2000. The CASE 1 and the CASE 2 exhibit the same wind fields being forced with the same wind configuration. The wind velocities present maximum values of 19.66 m/s in CASE 1/CASE 2 and 20.65 m/s in CASE 4, while in CASE 3, where the merging function is switched off, they reach a maximum value of only 7.27 m/s. The mean and minimum values are 6.03 m/s and 4.67 m/s for the CASE 1/CASE 2, 8.03 m/s and 6.19 m/s for CASE 4 and 5.68 m/s and 3.18 m/s for CASE 3. The ice velocities show max values of 0.32-0.34 m/s and mean values of 0.05-0.08 except in CASE 3, where the ice drift is forced only by the ERA-Interim data, showing smaller max and mean values of 0.1 m/s and 0.03 m/s respectively.

It can be observed that for large wind and ice velocities the polynya responds with large extents (CASE 1) even though sea ice concentration and thickness distributions resulting from the CASE 2, CASE 3 and CASE 4 are very similar to those simulated by the control experiment. The reduced ice strength does not affect significantly the ridging of sea ice as well as sea ice drift in convergent regions altering relatively little the ice concentration and thickness distribution. This indicates the polynya area is not highly sensitive to P^* in the determination of its opening/closure for this set of forcing. This is probably due to the major influence of this parameter in areas of thick ice rather than in region formed by thin and broken ice cover (Kreysner et al., 2000). On the contrary an

345 increasing of R factor (Case 4) leads, as expected, to larger ice drift velocities and hence to a greater
 346 polynya opening.

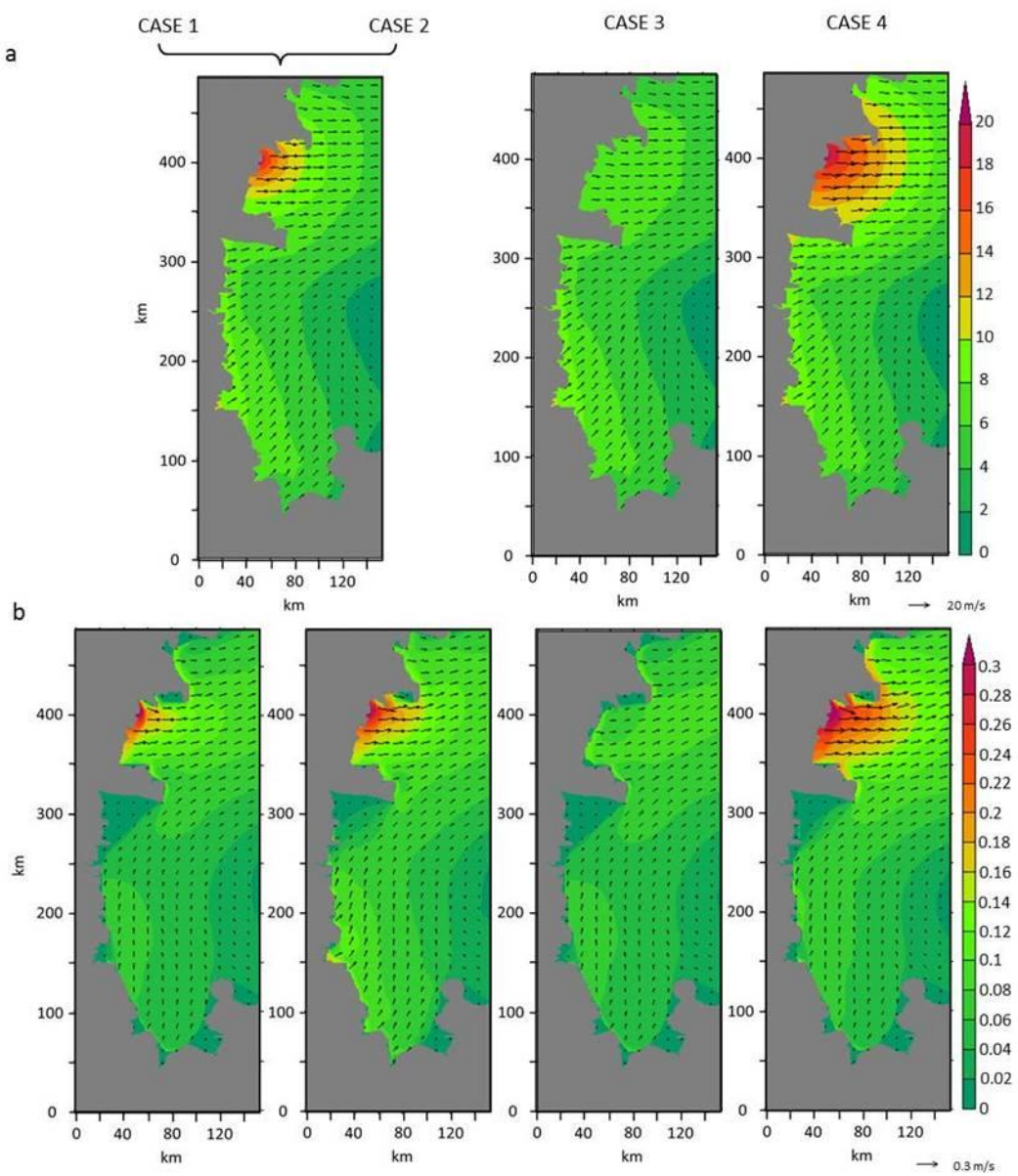


Fig. 3: Maps of wind velocities (a) and modelled ice drift velocities (b) on 8th July 2000 for CASE 1/CASE 2, CASE 3 and CASE 4.

2.2 Sensitivity to demarcation ice thickness

350 While the behaviour of the consolidated ice is mostly determined by the ice rheology, the interior of
 351 the polynya is affected by the new ice thickness parameterization. The new ice thickness is
 352 controlled by the demarcation ice thickness parameter H (Hibler, 1979) that is expressed as a
 353 transition value between thin ice (open water) and thick ice. It is a crucial element in sea ice models

354 as the ice thickness collection depth in polynya flux models, since it represents the thickness at
 355 which newly-formed ice in the polynya is transferred into thicker solid sea ice. Thereby it affects
 356 sea ice thermodynamics lowering heat loss through thin ice inside the polynya and determining
 357 primarily the mean thickness and sea ice concentration (Hibler, 1979; Olason and Harms, 2010).
 358 H has been often defined constant in literature assuming a value in the range 0.1-0.5 m (Hibler,
 359 1979; Pease, 1987; Ou, 1988; Darby et al. 1994, 1995). However the wind speed is considered to be
 360 an important part of the new ice thickness parameterization (Mellor and Kantha, 1989; Winsor and
 361 Björk, 2000; Olason and Harms, 2010).
 362 Few experiments showed in Table 4 were performed with different values of H . The control
 363 experiment (CASE 5) was run with $H=0.2$ m, that is considered more appropriate than the 0.5 m
 364 proposed by Hibler (1979) in simulating the behaviour of the thin ice inside the polynya (Olason
 365 and Harms, 2010). In the second (CASE 6) and third experiment (CASE 7) sea ice concentration
 366 and thickness are simulated using a constant $H=0.3$ m and $H=0.4$ m respectively, while in the fourth
 367 one (CASE 8) a varying H has been used. In particular the collection depth parameterization of
 368 Winsor & Björk (2000) is employed assuming the demarcation thickness to be a function of the
 369 wind speed:

370

$$H = \frac{a + |V| \cdot b}{c}$$

371

372 where V is the surface wind velocity and the constants are $a = 1$, $b = 0.1$ and $c = 15$. That means
 373 that H varies in the range 0.1-0.3 m in presence of wind speeds between 5-35 m/s.

374 In all the experiments R is fixed to 50 km except in CASE 9 in which the merging function is not
 375 applied. The value of 27500 N/m^2 for P^* and of 30 days for the relaxation time to oceanic forcing
 376 have been used. Fig. 4 shows the results of sea ice concentration and thickness simulation on 8th
 377 July 2000 for the CASE 5 - CASE 9. Note that a lower ice demarcation thickness value gives higher

ice concentration values and lower ice thickness values resulting from enhanced heat losses over open water and thin ice especially during winter (Maykut, 1978).

380

Experiment	H (m)	R factor (km)
CASE 5	0.2	50
CASE 6	0.3	50
CASE 7	0.4	50
CASE 8	$f(V)$	50
CASE 9	0.2	-

Table 4: Sensitivity tests of sea ice evolution with respect to H and R factor.

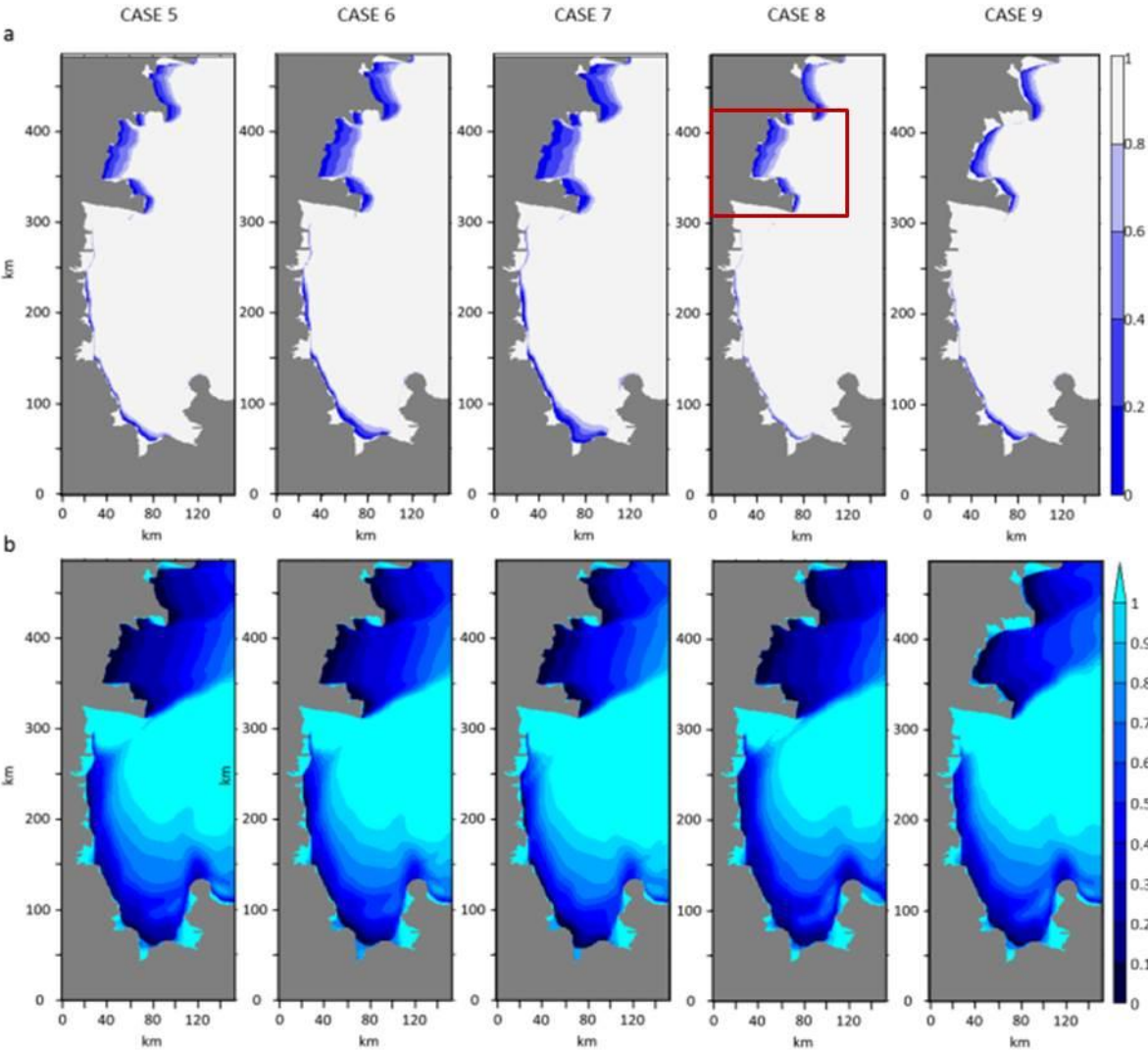


Fig. 4: Simulation maps of sea ice concentration (a) and sea ice thickness (b) for CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9 on 8th July 2000. The portion of the domain marked by the red box in (a) is the area defined for computational purposes as TNB region extending approximately from 310 km to 425 km in Y and bordered by X = 120 km .

387 The CASE 8 results are similar to the sea ice distribution observed in CASE 5 suggesting that the
 388 dependence of sea ice evolution on the wind velocities provides plausible values for H . This is well
 389 supported by the estimates of daily sea ice production (km^3/day) in TNB area on July 2000 (Fig. 5)
 390 derived from sea ice concentration fields for all the experiments. Cumulative sea ice production
 391 (km^3) for the whole of July 2000 is also showed in Table 5. Note that the TNB area is identified by
 392 the region of the domain that extends within the ranges 1-120 km in X (longitude) and 310-425 km
 393 in Y (latitude) as shown in Fig. 4. Sea ice production rate computed using a non-spatially uniform H
 394 (CASE 8) depicted by the magenta line shows a trend very similar to that of the CASE 1 except for
 395 a few days when it exhibits larger wind velocities. As it can easily be observed, CASE 9, where
 396 wind forcing is given by the winds reanalysis alone, underestimates considerably sea ice production
 397 rate compared to the CASE 5 and all the others. The results suggest that the model reproduces quite
 398 well the relationship between the wind forcing and sea ice dynamics in TNB and the modelled
 399 variables are fairly realistic.
 400 However, more satisfying simulations of sea ice output fields can be achieved investigating more
 401 extensively the wind forcing (Stössel et al. 2011) and the resulting wind stress in the TNB causing
 402 the increasing or decreasing of the open water and thin ice extent.

403

Experiment	Sea Ice production (km^3) in July 2000
CASE 5	10.08
CASE 6	11.09
CASE 7	12.12
CASE 8	9.79
CASE 9	6.83

404

407 **Table 5:** Sea ice production in July 2000 for the CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9 experiments.

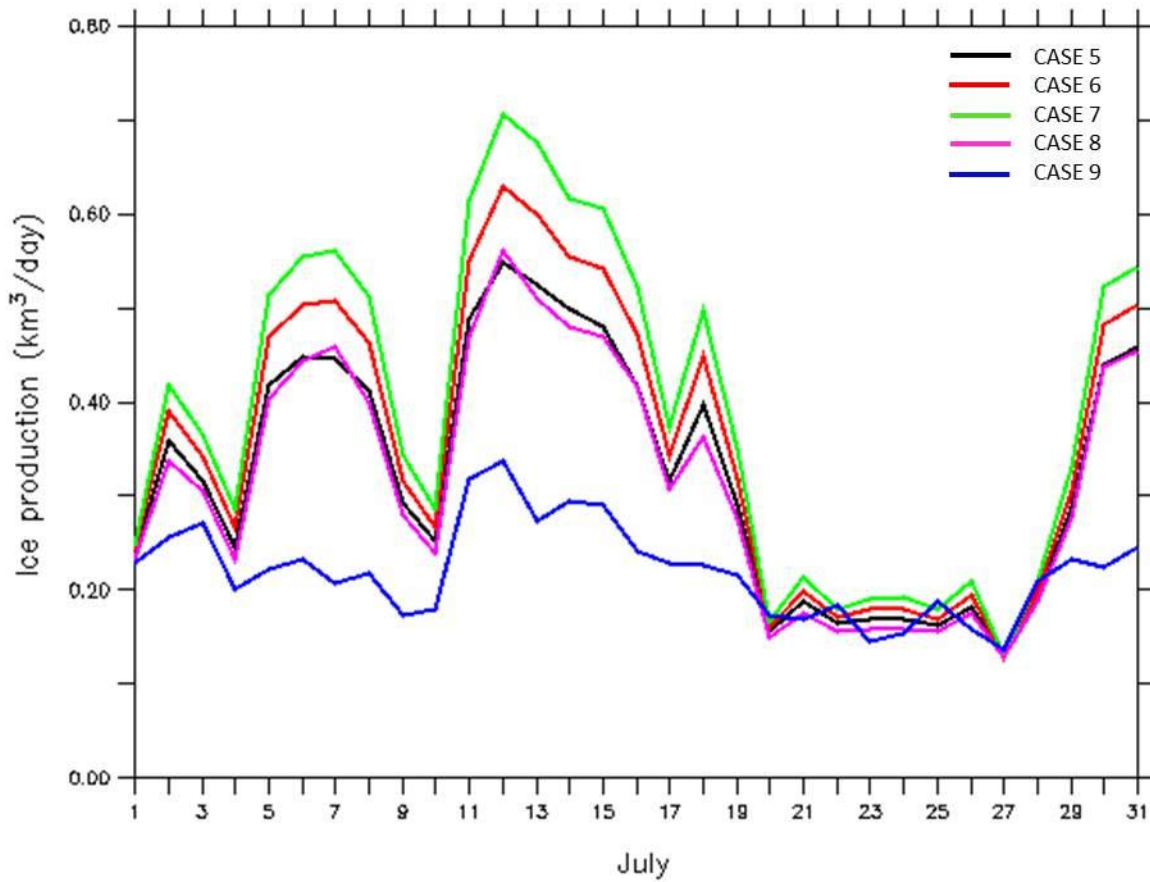


Fig. 5: Daily ice production in the TNB region on 8th July 2000 for CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9 .

2.2 Sensitivity to air-ice and ice-ocean drag coefficients

Along with P^* , the atmospheric and oceanic drag coefficients have been identified as crucial parameters for sea ice drift. A few sensitivity experiments were performed to obtain the optimal set of the drag coefficients to run the model under more realistic conditions.

We also focused on the regime of the katabatic winds and its impact on sea ice evolution in TNB and on the polynya size. The latter, in fact, is a consequence of the freezing of the water in the bay as a result of a weakening of the katabatic flows or changing in their trajectory (Bromwich and Kurtz, 1984; Priestley, 1914). The duration of the katabatic events have a greater contribution than the intensity and frequency of the katabatic flows in determining the polynya extent (Ciappa et al.,

419 2012; Rusciano et al., 2013). Rusciano et al. (2013) found most frequent katabatic events take place
 420 during the winter season and last on average from one to three hours. That means that long time
 421 intervals (daily/six hourly) atmospheric input probably misrepresent the real and local atmospheric
 422 field in a given temporal period. On the other hand, a single source of AWS data fails to properly
 423 reproduce the coastal wind regime resulting from the drainage of the interior katabatic airflows
 424 through the different confluence pathways (Petrelli et al., 2008). In view of these considerations, in
 425 the next experiments the time resolution was increased so that the model is able to catch any
 426 katabatic events. Furthermore a second dataset from AWS Manuela (see section 2.2.1) was taken
 427 into account to enlarge the area of influence of the katabatic flows. Unfortunately, no other weather
 428 station is available in the southernmost region of the bay and near to the Drygalski Ice Tongue. Also
 429 the merging function was modified and the range of influence of the AWS data on the reanalysis
 430 data is let to assume an ellipse shape rather than a circumference. This time r is the distance in X
 431 and Y from the AWS multiplied by the opposite semi-axis and R is the e-folding length scale
 432 specifically given by the product of the semi-axes $R1$ and $R2$ of the ellipse with a fixed length.
 433 Specifically, in the next runs $R1=50$ km and $R2=20$ km for both stations.

434 Table 6 shows the experiments performed to explore the impact of varying c_{da} and c_{do} parameters,
 435 increasing and/or decreasing the one with respect to the other, on sea ice drift. Substantially, an
 436 increasing of c_{da} and/or at the same time a decreasing of c_{do} let sea ice to move faster and vice
 437 versa.

438 The first experiment (E_{15}) is the control simulation of one winter month of the year 2005 for which
 439 the model has been configured with constant and more commonly used values for the drag
 440 coefficients, $c_{da} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$ and $c_{do} = 5 \times 10^{-3}$. In the next experiments the two drag coefficients were
 441 let to vary individually or simultaneously with respect to those of the control run. Specifically in the
 442 second experiment (E_{35}) c_{da} varies and c_{do} is the same of the control, in the third one (E_{11}) only c_{do}
 443 varies while in the fourth (E_{31}) and in the fifth (E_{34}) experiments both two parameters vary together.
 444 The sixth experiment ($E_{c_{da}/c_{do}}$), described afterwards, was carried out using non constant values for

the drag coefficients. All the experiments are forced with atmospheric forcing from the AWS Manuela at ten minutes resolution combined with hourly data from the AWS Rita. The resulting values are averaged with the six hourly ERA-Interim data so as to adjust the background parameters fields, especially the winds. In addition, the output time of the variables simulated by the model were set equal to 3 hours since, as explained above, this value would appear to be a good compromise to catch katabatic winds.

As the previous sensitivity experiments, a significant dependence of the sea ice simulation on the wind forcing can be inferred from the results of the modelled output fields. The sea ice distribution appears to be very sensitive to the pattern of the wind stress which varies considerably depending on the surface winds. Fig. 6 (top panel) shows the wind velocities and the wind stress for E₁₅, E₃₅, E₁₁, E₃₁ and E₃₄ experiments. The wind field is the same for all the experiments since they have been forced with the same wind configuration and showing a max values up to 23 m/s and a mean value of 9 m/s. The wind stress which varies depending on the drag parameters, exhibit averages of 0.16, 0.41, 0.13, 0.27 and 0.40 N/m² in E₁₅, E₃₅, E₁₁, E₃₁, E₃₄, respectively. The largest values have been found, as expected, in E₃₅, E₃₁ and E₃₄ with a maximum of 1.48, 1.34 and 1.47 N/m² versus much smaller maximum in the CTRL run (E₁₅) and in E₁₁ of approximately 0.54 N/m².

Experiment		c_{da}	c_{do}	
1	E_{15} <u>CTRL</u>	1×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	-
	E_{35}	3×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	
	E_{11}	1×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}	
	E_{31}	3×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}	
	E_{34}	3×10^{-3}	4×10^{-3}	
	$Ec_{da}c_{do}$	$1 \times 10^{-3} \quad V \leq 10 \text{ m/s}$ $3 \times 10^{-3} \quad V \geq 20 \text{ m/s}$	$1,3 \times c_{da}$	
2	Ew_{15}	$= E_{15}$		Wind Enhancement
	Ew_{31}	$= E_{31}$		
	Ew_{34}	$= E_{34}$		
	$Ew_{cda/cdo}$	$= Ec_{da}c_{do}$		

467

Table 6: Sensitivity tests with respect to the air-ice and ice-ocean coefficients.

469

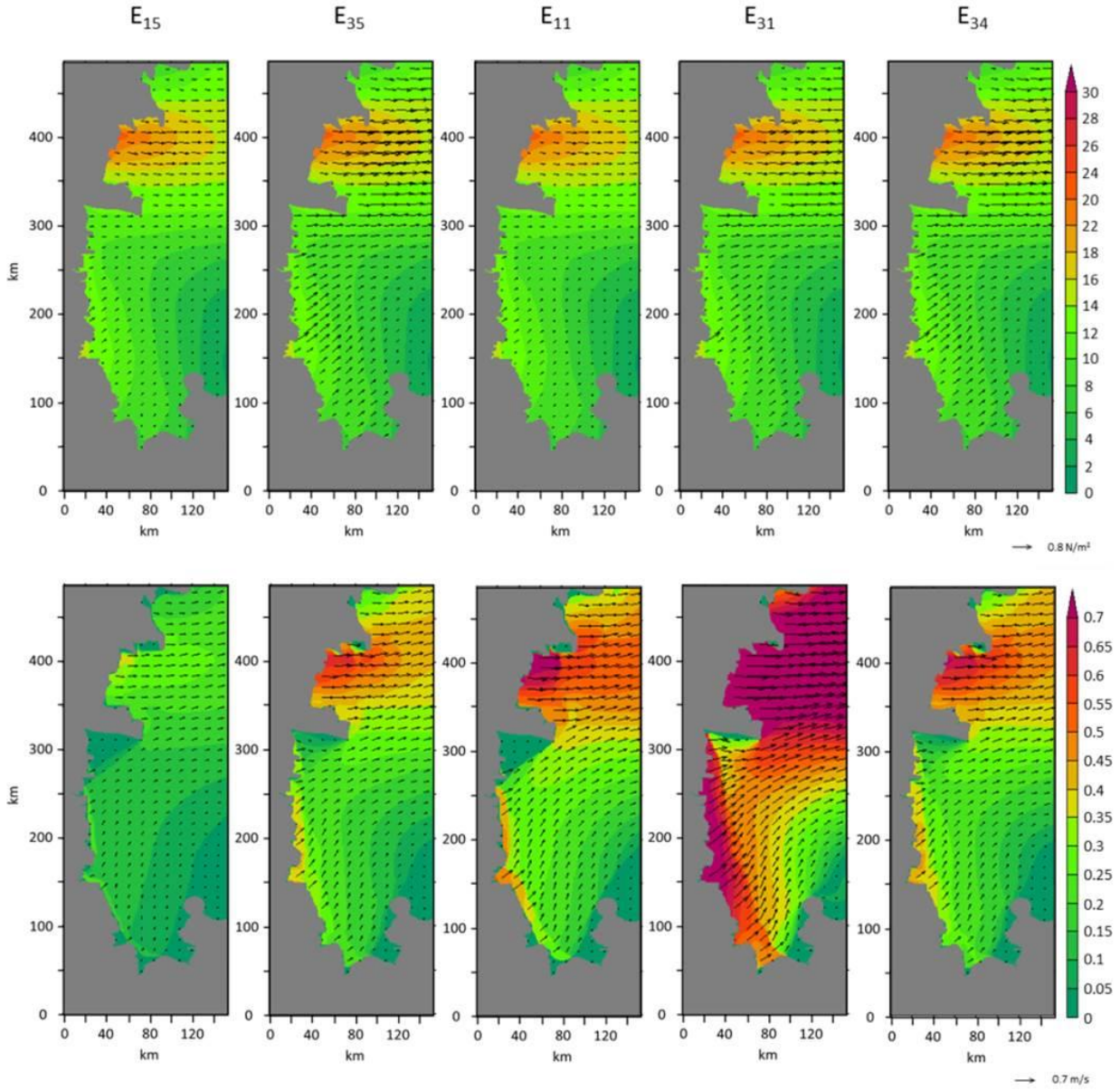


Fig. 6: Wind speed with the superimposed wind stress (on the top) and sea ice drift velocities (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for E_{15} , E_{35} , E_{11} , E_{31} , E_{34} . The scale arrows on the right indicate the length of the wind stress vector and ice velocity vector, respectively 0.8 N/m^2 and 0.7 m/s .

The bigger wind stress in E_{35} , E_{31} and E_{34} leads to maximum ice velocities drift (Fig. 6 bottom) of 0.65, 1.37 and 0.70 m/s respectively; the mean values are 0.23, 0.50 and 0.25 m/s. Maximum and mean values of 0.81 and 0.26 m/s respectively and comparable with those from E_{34} experiment, result from E_{11} where the two coefficients c_{da} and c_{do} differ not much the one from another. Smaller values, as expected, come from E_{15} with a maximum of 0.37 m/s and a mean of 0.12 m/s. Sea ice concentration and thickness maps displayed in Fig. 7 reveals that sea ice distribution, resulting from

479 the modelled wind field and sea ice drift, is well simulated in E_{35} , E_{11} and E_{34} where the gap
 480 between c_{da} and c_{do} is small. On the other hand, when c_{do} is much greater than c_{da} , the ice drift
 481 becomes unrealistic and too strong also in regions out of the range of the coastal winds or, in the
 482 opposite case, really insignificant along shore. These results supports the importance of the c_{da}/c_{do}
 483 ratio considered the most basic dynamics parameter determining the mean drift speed (McPhee,
 484 1980; Lepparanta, 1981; Stössel, 1992; Geiger et al., 1998; Harder and Fisher, 1999).

485

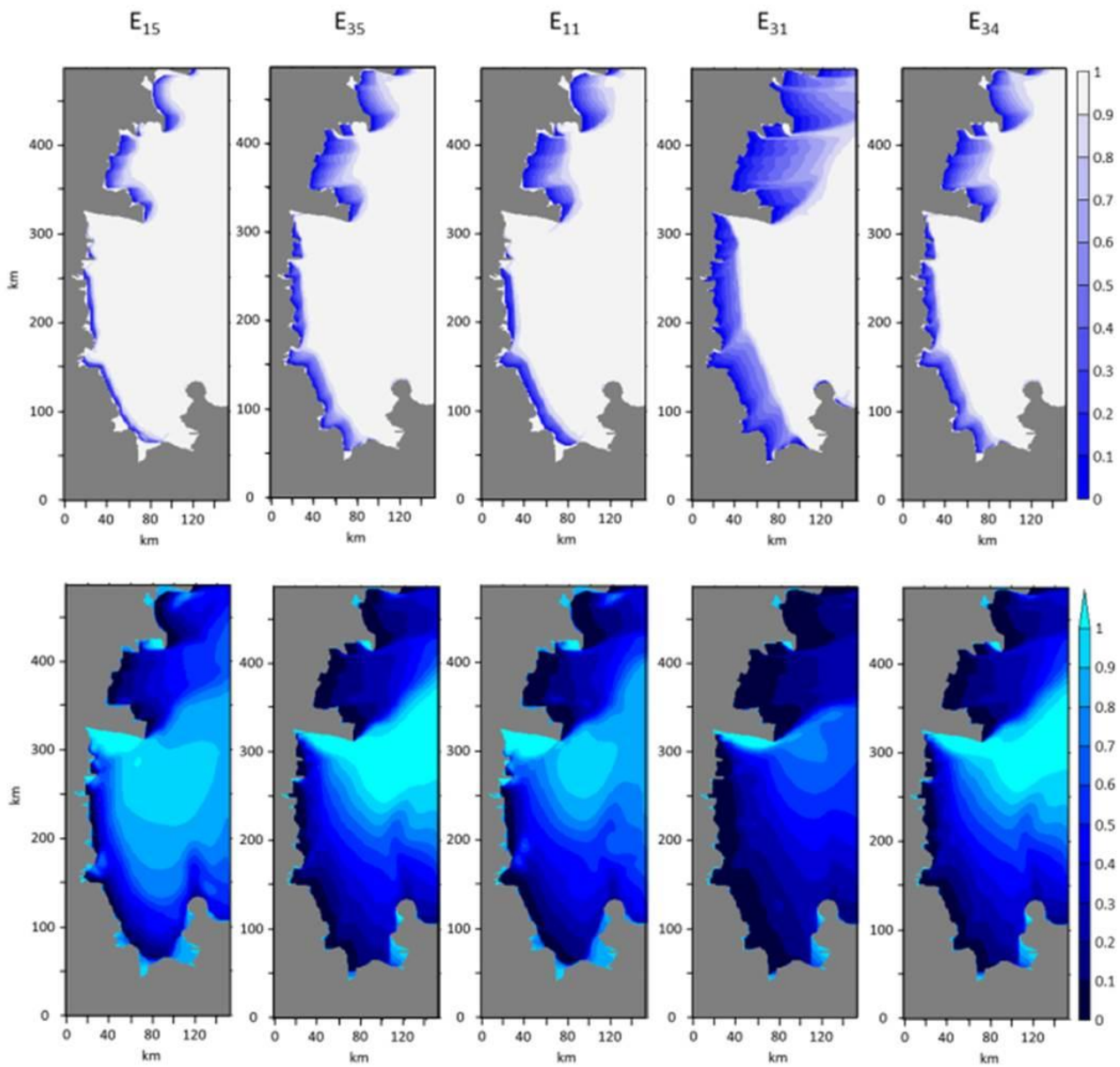


Fig. 7: Sea ice concentration (on the top) and sea ice thickness (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for E_{15} , E_{35} , E_{11} , E_{31} , E_{34} .

486

Furthermore, unlike the strength parameter P^* which has a strong impact mainly in thick and more compact areas of the pack ice, the c_{da}/c_{do} ratio influences the ice drift in all regions during all season (Kreysner et al., 2000). Therefore, in the last experiment ($E_{c_{da}/c_{do}}$), c_{da} was let to vary from 1×10^{-3} for wind speed smaller or equal to 10m/s, and to 3×10^{-3} for wind speed larger or equal to 20 m/s. Then, c_{do} is allowed to depends linearly on the c_{da} through a constant factor of 1.3. Fig. 8a shows the wind forcing with the superimposed wind stress and the ice velocity (top panel) from the $E_{c_{da}/c_{do}}$ on the 30th July 2005 at 24.00 and the relative ice concentration and thickness maps (on the bottom). Mean and maximum values of the wind stress are very similar to those resulting from E_{34} showing a maximum of 1.39 N/m² and a mean of 0.30 N/m² causing an ice drift with a mean ice velocity of 0.27 m/s with maximum values of 0.71 m/s. A further set of experiments indicated by the number 2 in Table 6 has been performed to deal with the systematic underestimation of the wind speeds especially in coastal areas and near TNB in global reanalysis (Cullather et al., 1997; Fusco et al., 2002; Petrelli et al., 2008). An enhancement function has been designed and applied to improve the prediction of sea ice field. This function represents a correction, varying spatially and differently for both wind components, modifying thus the wind fields in the whole domain. It enhances very strong Era Interim winds, which can be assimilated to katabatic winds allowing very slow ones to be unchanged. Basically the wind vector is multiplied by a function like the following

$$a \cdot \left(1 + \tanh \left(\frac{w - w'}{w''} \right) \right) / 2$$

where a is an amplifying factor, \tanh is the hyperbolic tangent, w is the x/y wind speed component, while the two parameters w' and w'' (m/s) control for what values of the wind the enhancement occurs and how rapidly the wind enhancement takes place respectively. Suitable values used in the following experiments are $a=2$, $w''=10$ while w' has been fixed to 4 and 0 respectively for the

511 eastward and northward component of the wind. However, the wind and ice fields from the
 512 Ewc_{da}/c_{do} showed in Fig. 8 b suggest that the wind enhancement function results in unrealistically
 513 large wind stress values which go beyond the expected values. In conclusion, the results of Ec_{da}/c_{do}
 514 provide the best simulations of the sea ice dynamics of TNB.
 515

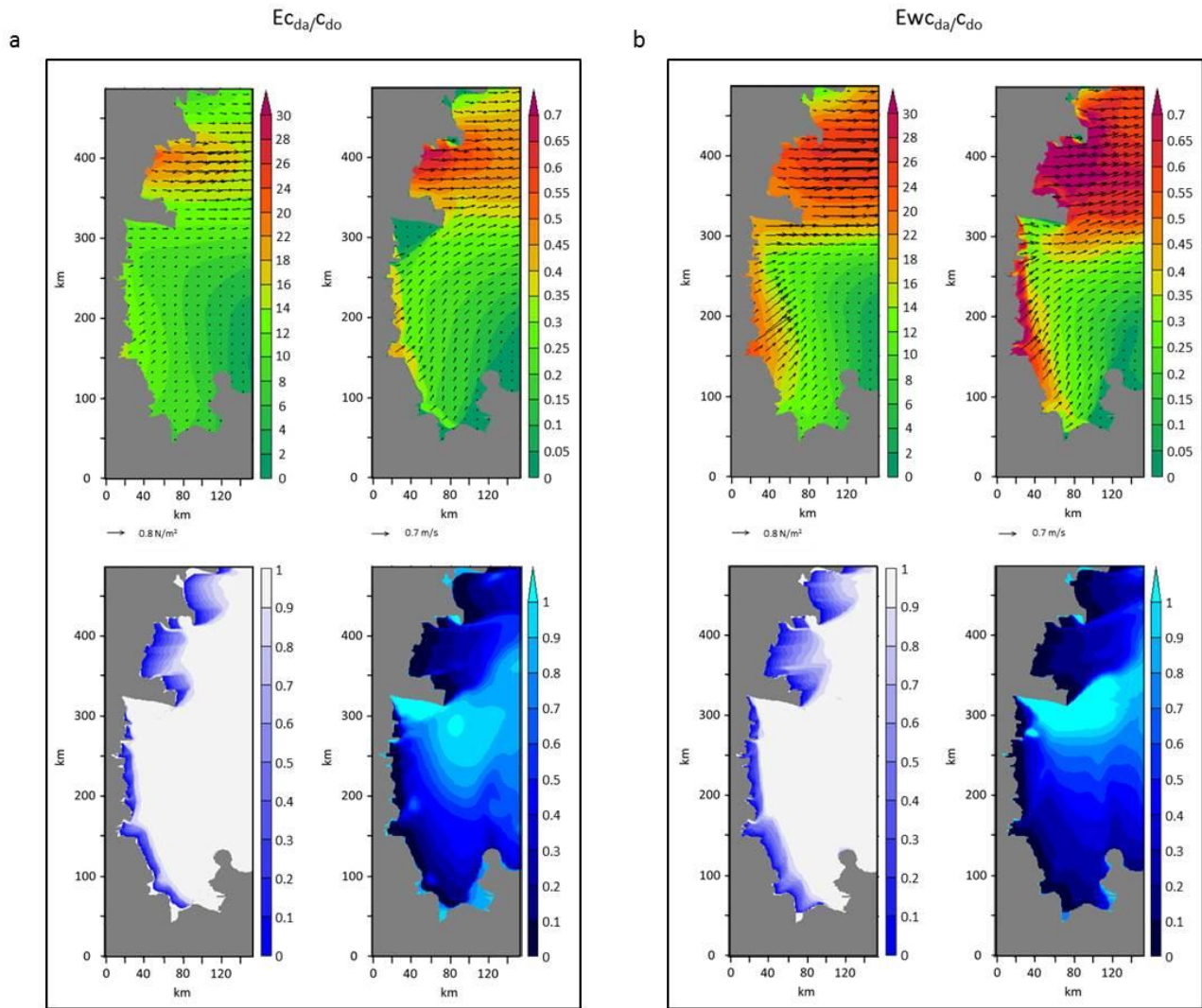
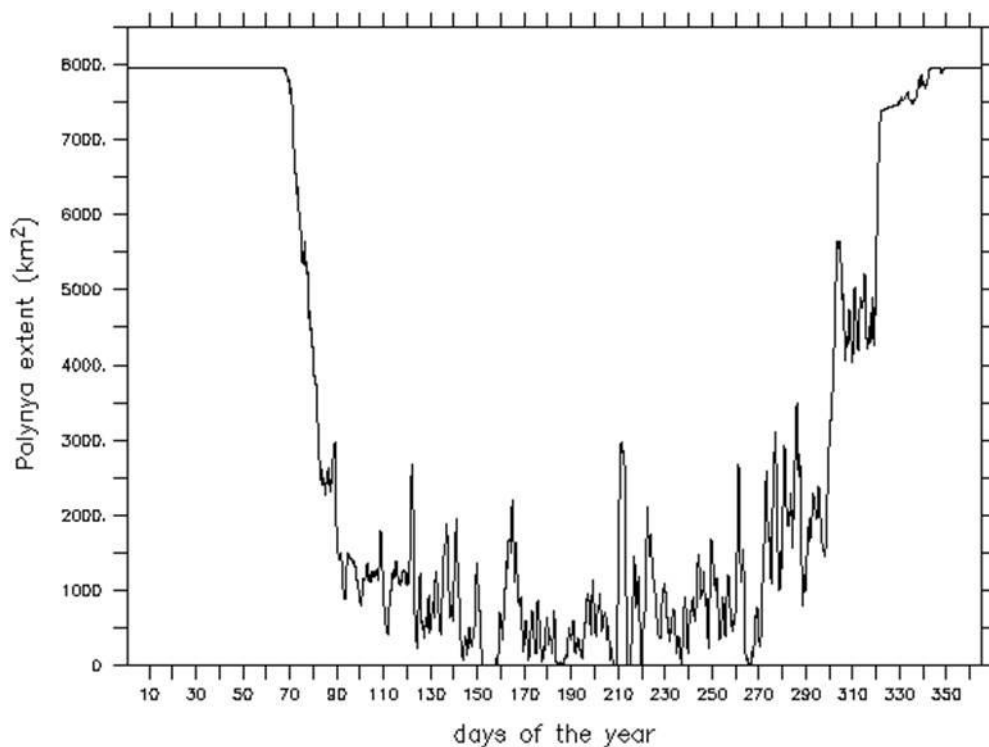


Fig. 8: Wind fields and modelled sea ice drift fields (on the top) and the corresponding sea ice concentration and thickness distribution (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for Ec_{da}/c_{do} (a) and Ewc_{da}/c_{do} (b) run without and with the enhancement function respectively.

517 4 One year numerical simulation and results

518 One year simulation of TNB sea ice evolution has been carried out to investigate the polynya
 519 behaviour in response to the local katabatic flows. The main results of the 2005 simulation are
 520 showed.

521 The modelled polynya behaviour follows the characteristic dynamics of sea ice and ocean
 522 circulation in TNB. During the summer season, approximately from November to March, the bay is
 523 mostly ice free. It starts to be covered by sea ice in late March, when the low atmospheric and
 524 oceanic temperatures let the sea surface freeze. The evolution of the polynya is strongly controlled
 525 by the action of katabatic winds which allow TNB to be almost never completely ice covered in
 526 winter. Katabatic winds are very intense between April and October (Rusciano et al. 2013), and
 527 within this period several cycles of opening/closure of the polynya occurred.
 528 Model-derived polynya extents in TNB area, defined in the section 3.2, have been computed for
 529 2005. The polynya area is usually defined as the sum of the surfaces of open water and thin sea ice
 530 and therefore is restricted to the oceanic region within which the ice concentration is smaller than a
 531 given threshold (Willmott et al. 2007). This threshold is rather arbitrary varying commonly from 0.5
 532 to 0.7 (Parmiggiani 2006; Kern et al., 2007). An ice concentration threshold of 0.7 has been used
 533 here to estimate the TNB polynya extent. A marked dependence of the polynya extent on the wind
 534 forcing can be observed (Fig. 9).



535 **Fig. 9:** Model-derived polynya extent in the TNB region in the year 2005.

536 An increase of the polynya size is associated to the occurrence of katabatic events. The peak extent
 537 in midwinter occurred in July with a maximum value of 2962 km², followed by other two large
 538 extents of the polynya in August and September of 2868 km² and 2674 km² respectively (Table 7).
 539 Polynya mean extents vary approximately from just over 500 km² up to almost 900 km², except in
 540 March/April, when sea ice formation processes start, and in October, which represents the end of
 541 the wintertime and the beginning of sea ice melting processes. The computed polynya extents are in
 542 good agreement with the wintertime values estimated by Petrelli et al. (2008) and with those
 543 recently published by Ciappa et al. (2012) who computed a mean annual open water of around 900
 544 km² in the period 2005-2010 and 600 km² in 2006 using MODIS thermal infrared data. In any case,
 545 the computation of the polynya extent is not trivial since it depends on the accuracy and the
 546 limitations of the models and the remote sensing tools, as well as on their capability to resolve in
 547 time and in space the processes involved in the polynya variability. In addition, the local coastal
 548 winds have a strong but not exclusive impact on the polynya size which is caused by the interaction
 549 between katabatic forcing and synoptic weather conditions on longer timescales. The major effect
 550 of the katabatic winds on short timescales is the local recirculation of sea ice in TNB and its
 551 redistribution within the polynya area (Petrelli et al., 2008). The recirculation forced by these local
 552 winds enhances the ice production maintaining high ice production rates in open water and thin ice
 553 regions.

Winter months	Maximum Polynya extent (km ²)	Mean Polynya extent (km ²)
March	7946	5574
April	1806	1174
May	2688	871.2
June	2205	557.2
July	2962	532.5
August	2868	766.9
September	2674	875.6
October	5637	2304

558 **Table 7:** Monthly maximum and mean polynya extent of the TNB polynya.
 559

562 Sea ice production in TNB area (Table 8) has been also computed by model sea ice fields outputs.
563 The ice production rate (Fig. 10), depends primarily on the presence of open water and on the
564 surface wind speeds, therefore following the same trend as the TNB polynya extent. The spatial
565 maximum sea ice production daily rate over TNB area exhibits a maximum of $0.70 \text{ km}^3/\text{day}$ on 30th
566 July (211th julian day) that is equivalent to 48.08 cm/day . These estimates are comparable to those
567 of Petrelli et al. (2008) who found in high resolution winter experiment an ice production maximum
568 daily rate of 26.4 cm/day . They are quite consistent, even if slightly smaller, with results from
569 Fusco et al. (2002) whose ice production rates for the years 1993 and 1994 show a monthly average
570 of 39 cm/day and a maximum of 72 cm/day in August 1994. Smaller daily rates result in a
571 cumulative ice production value of 39.29 m over the 2005 versus yearly ice production of 81.7 m
572 and 68.8 m for 1993 and 1994 presented in Fusco et al. (2002) and similar values in Kurtz &
573 Bromwich (1985) and Van Woert (1999a, 1999b). These results were obtained using only AWS
574 data, while ice production was already significantly reduced if computed using the ECMWF data.
575 The spatially cumulative daily ice production is also showed in Fig. 11. The highest peaks of ice
576 production occur in May, June and July with the maxima of 0.61 , 0.54 and 0.70 km^3 respectively.
577 The cumulative ice production, that is the sea ice volume produced in the whole year 2005, is 57.91
578 km^3 . This value is consistent with the mean value of annual cumulative sea ice production of $59.2 \pm$
579 10 km^3 estimated by Tamura et al. (2008) for the TNB polynya. In particular, the ice volume in the
580 months of June and July amounts overall to 16.37 km^3 which is in good agreement with the value of
581 16.4 km^3 computed by Petrelli et al. (2008) in her winter experiment. The brine rejection (kg/day),
582 associated with the new ice production, and the HSSW production (m^3/day), are also calculated
583 following Markus et al. (1998) and Van Woert (1999a) respectively showed in (Fig. 11).
584 The salt and HSSW production are larger in wintertime, when the ice production is higher. Their
585 cumulative values in the year 2005 within the TNB polynya are $1.7 \times 10^{12} \text{ kg}$ and $0.5 \times 10^{13} \text{ m}^3$
586 respectively. These values are in good agreement with those of other works even if relative to

different years. Fusco et al. (2002), for example, estimated a salt production of about 4.6×10^{12} kg and a HSSW production of 1.5×10^{13} m³ in the years 1993-94.

Winter months	Maximum daily rates of sea ice production (km ³ /day)	Mean daily rates of sea ice production (km ³ /day)	Monthly cumulative sea ice (km ³)
March	0.42	0.16	4.99
April	0.40	0.26	7.86
May	0.61	0.30	9.25
June	0.54	0.25	7.52
July	0.70	0.22	6.98
August	0.58	0.30	9.39
September	0.44	0.24	7.34
October	0.39	0.14	4.29

Table 8: Daily sea ice production rates from ice production rates spatially cumulated over TNB polynya area.

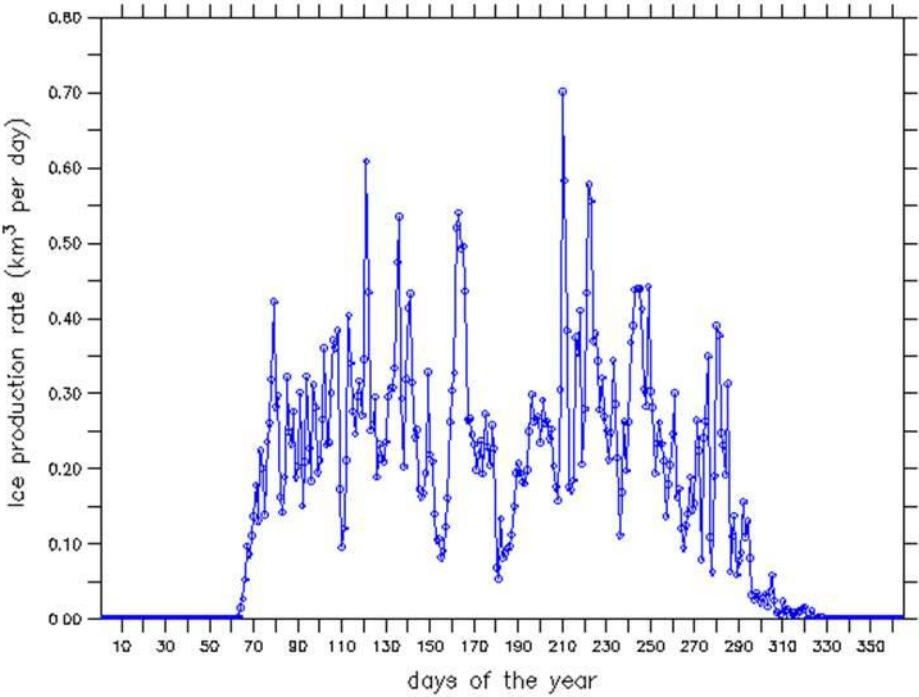


Fig. 10: Spatially cumulated daily rate of sea ice production for the TNB region in the year 2005 .

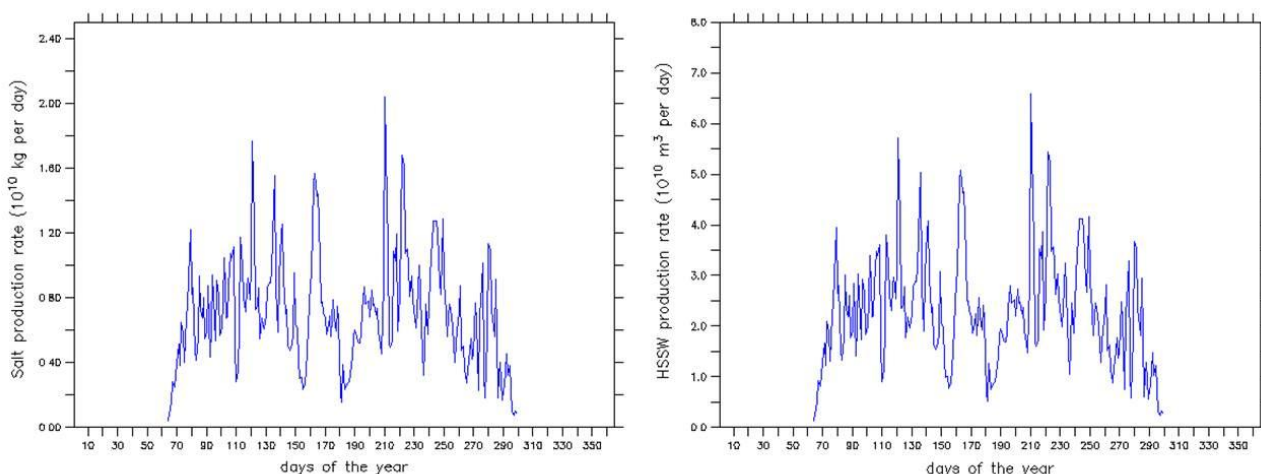


Fig. 11: Salt production rate (on the left) and HSSW production rate (on the right) in the TNB polynya area in the year 2005.

5 Model comparison with MODIS data

In situ measurements are particularly poor in remote or hardly accessible areas during the Antarctic winter, therefore satellite observations represent a useful tool in tuning numerical simulations of the coupled models (Linch et al., 1997). Satellite images in combination with numerical weather prediction model data and in situ data from Automatic Weather stations provide a good database to study polynya-atmosphere interactions in TNB area (Gallée, 1997; Ciappa et al., 2012).

Whereas true measurements of ice thickness and then total ice volume in Terra Nova Bay are not available, the model-derived polynya extent was compared to satellite images. Particularly, the NASA's MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) sensor provides high temporal and spatial resolution measurements of Earth's land, ocean and atmospheric processes in several spectral bands and swath. The MODIS/Aqua Level 1B 1km Calibrated Radiances at 1 km resolution have been used to retrieve the ice surface temperature (IST) in the TNB region and subsequently to derive the polynya extent. Radiance data from MODIS channels 31 and 32 are converted to brightness temperatures (Kelvins) through the inversion of the Planck's law equation

614 (Key et al., 1994). For ice/snow surface temperature (IST) computation the equation based on the
615 technique of Key et al. (1997), originally developed for the Advanced Very High Resolution
616 Radiometer (AVHRR), is used.

617 In order to support the dependence of the opening/closing cycles of the polynya on the wind
618 forcing, a few significant periods in the wintertime of 2005 characterized by stronger katabatic
619 events have been identified. For each period sea ice concentration maps from ice fields model
620 outputs have been produced. The polynya edge is identified by the first contour line characterized
621 by an ice concentration threshold of 0.7. These maps have been compared with MODIS IST images
622 obtained following the aforementioned procedure for the same period.

623 Fig. 12 and Fig. 14 show the wind speed from both Rita and Manuela AWSs during two katabatic
624 events observed in May and July (1-5 May and 28-31 July respectively). The evolution of the
625 polynya extent detected by MODIS can be observed in Fig. 13 and Fig. 15 where the modelled sea
626 ice concentration for the same days is also showed. Sea ice concentration maps at the temporal steps
627 closer to those of satellite scenes have been chosen to match at the best model and MODIS
628 products.

629 The model seems to reproduce reasonably sea ice dynamics as shown by the similar polynya
630 behaviour in both sea ice concentration and IST maps. The drift of sea ice responds to wind forcing
631 which shows a predominant West-West Nord West direction. Stronger winds are responsible for sea
632 ice advection offshore, opening the polynya, and contributing to increase its extent, while weaker
633 winds just hamper the closure keeping the polynya opened. According to Pease (1987), a seaward
634 wind component exceeding 10m/s is sufficient to maintain a polynya in coastal zones. Our results
635 are in agreement with the suggested threshold.

636

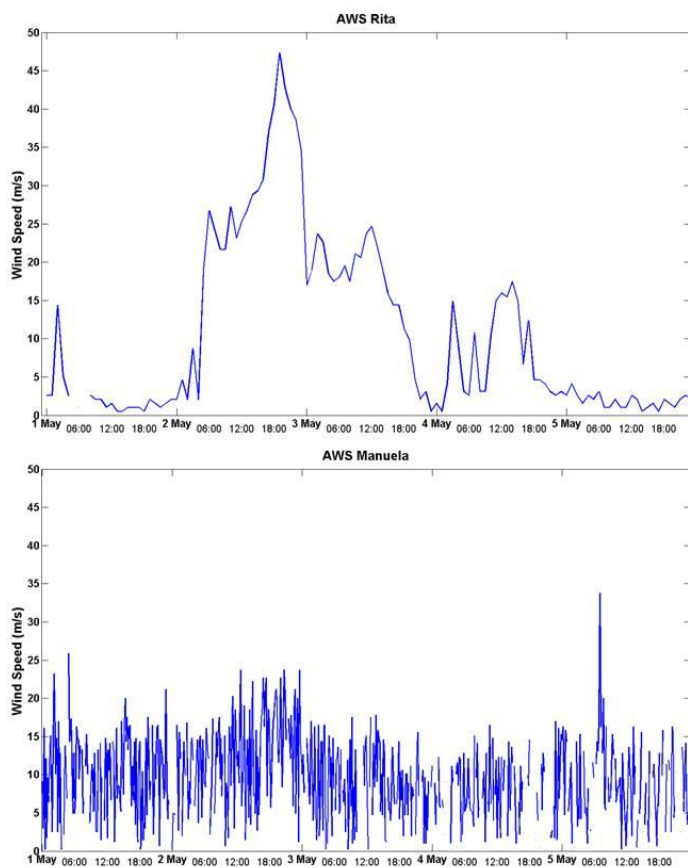


Fig. 12: Wind speed from Rita (on the top) and Manuela (on the bottom) AWSs on 1-5th May 2005.

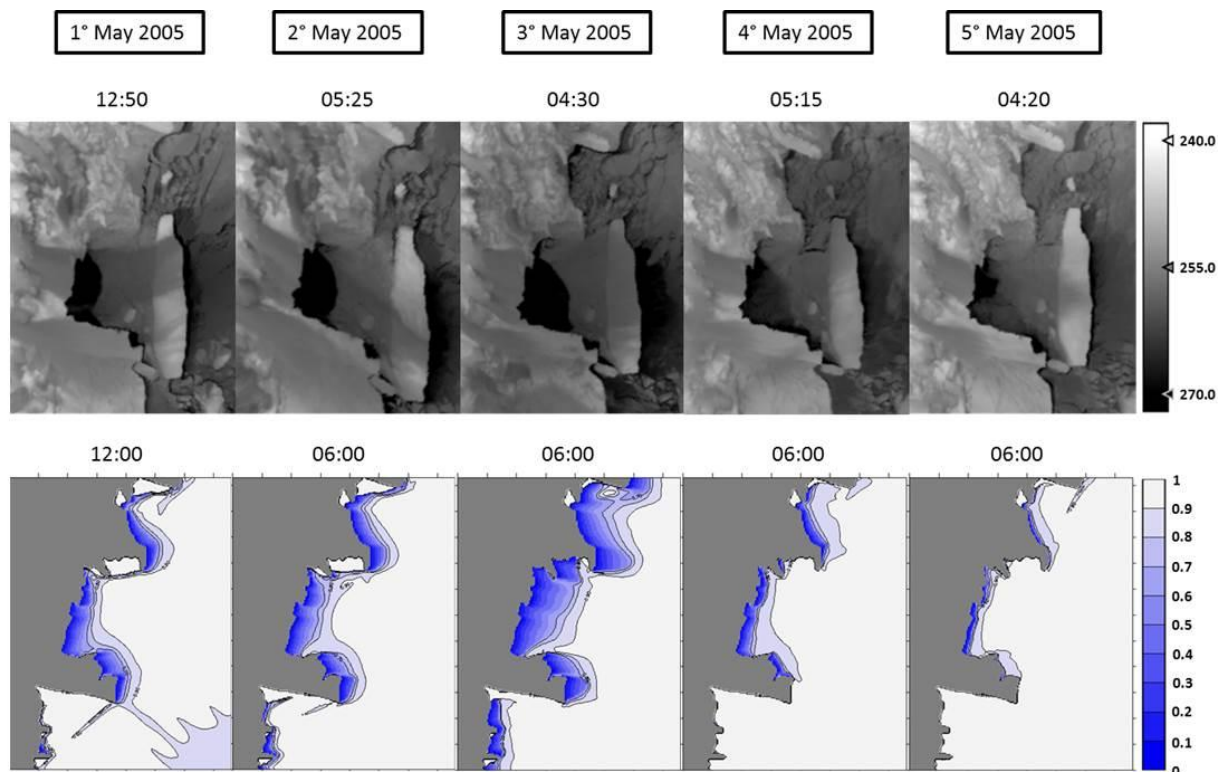


Fig. 13: IST MODIS scenes (on the top) and the modelled sea ice concentration maps (on the bottom) displaying the polynya evolution on 1-5th May 2005.

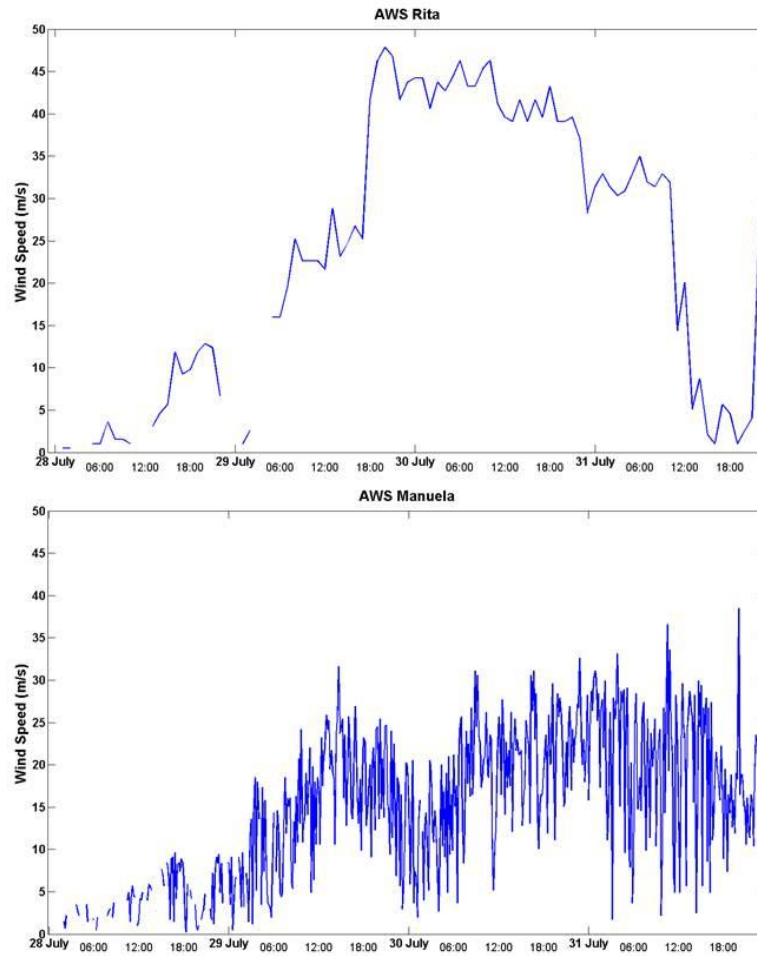


Fig. 14: Wind speed from Rita (on the top) and Manuela (on the bottom) AWSs on 23-31th July 2005.

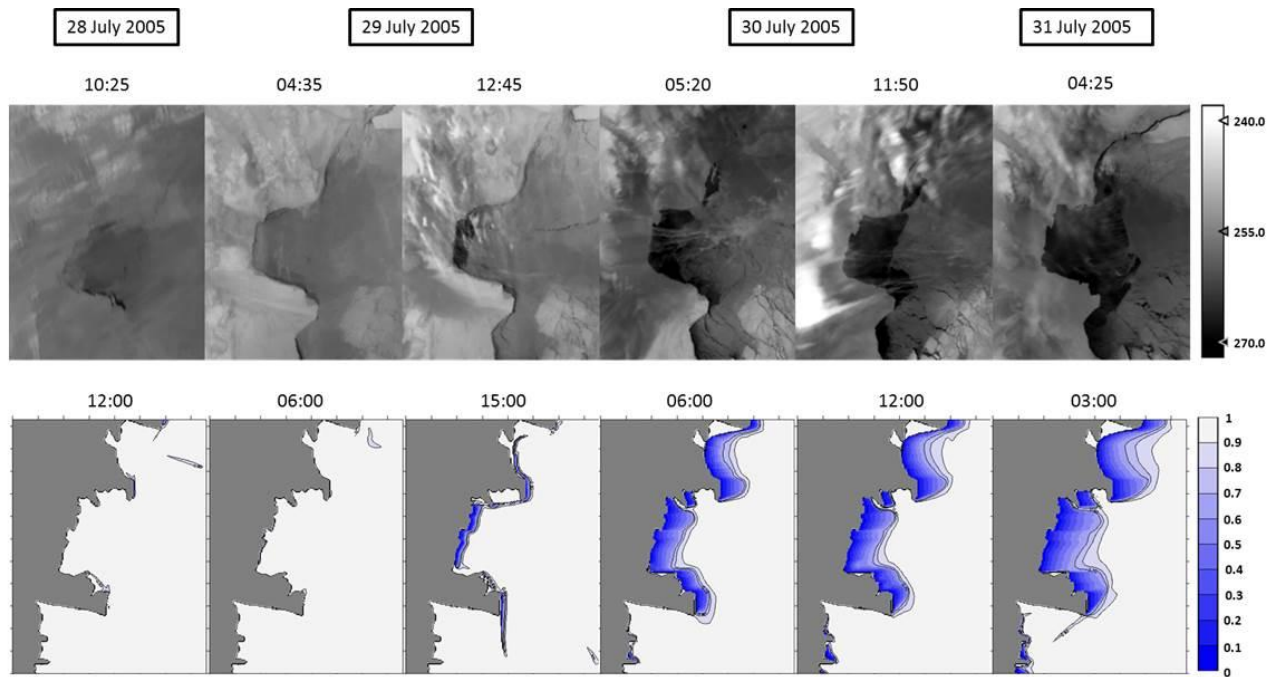


Fig. 15: IST MODIS scenes (on the top) and the modelled sea ice concentration maps (on the bottom) displaying the polynya evolution on 23-27th July 2005.

643 The small polynya observed at the beginning of the 1st of May (Fig. 13) increases its extent on 2nd
644 day of the month upon an increase of the wind speed measured by the AWS Rita, exhibiting a value
645 well over 20 m/s reaching a peak of almost 50 m/s. Wind speed from the AWS Manuela with an
646 average value of 20 m/s contribute to enlarge the polynya eastward. The polynya size keeps on
647 increasing at the beginning of 3rd of May until the wind speed drops sharply, below 10 m/s for AWS
648 Rita, and the polynya starts closing on 4th and 5th of May. The small discrepancies between the
649 spatial distribution of sea ice in model simulations and IST MODIS scenes are thought to be due to
650 the iceberg B-15A drifting in front of the TNB approximately in April-May 2005. The presence of
651 this iceberg blocks the drift of sea ice offshore leading the ice to accumulate in its proximity. In
652 fact, in IST MODIS scenes the edge of the polynya is located more toward the coast and southward
653 reducing thus the northern portion of the whole polynya extent. The simulation of sea ice
654 distribution in July 2005 (Fig. 15) shows a higher degree of similarity with that observed in satellite
655 images probably since the advection of sea ice is less affected by the iceberg moving out of the bay.
656 On 28th July the polynya is almost totally closed because of the wind speeds are near to zero. After
657 an enhancement of the wind forcing the polynya starts opening at the beginning of the 29th of July
658 and expands rapidly seaward. The largest opening of the polynya occurs on 31 July 2005 in
659 response to the stronger wind speeds values recorded previously by AWS stations, near to 50 m/s
660 for Rita and 40 m/s for Manuela. Some discrepancies between the simulated polynya and that
661 observed in MODIS scenes may probably due to the gaps (missing data) in the AWSs wind
662 datasets.

663 The modelled polynya extents have been also computed for both MODIS IST scenes and sea ice
664 concentration maps on 28-31 July. The aforementioned sea ice concentration threshold of 0.7 has
665 been used for the modelled ice. A varying threshold for IST proposed by Ishikawa et al. (1996) and
666 Zwally et al. (1983) that discriminates open water and thin ice from thick ice or land fast ice has
667 been employed for satellite maps. Setting sea ice concentration to 0.7, our IST threshold is given by
668 $T_{th} = 0.3T_f + 0.7T_{ice}$ where T_f is the temperature of the open water at the freezing point and T_{ice} is

the temperature of sea ice around the polynya. Both the temperature values are extracted from the IST scenes after they have been visually inspected one by one. In particular, T_f is given by the warmest IST found within the polynya and T_{ice} is estimated as the average of the IST values found around the open water.

Polynya extents from the 28th July to the 31th July, present the largest opening of the whole of 2005, as also found in Ciappa et al. (2012), and are showed in Table 9. The model-derived polynya extents mostly agree with those computed from MODIS IST images revealing the same temporal trend in polynya increasing during the observed katabatic event. The polynya extent values are less comparable to the MODIS based extents retrieved by Ciappa et al. (2012) showing a polynya extent of approximately 7615 km² on 31 July at 4:25 versus the corresponding MODIS-derived and model-derived polynya extents of 3393 km² and 2831 km² respectively. That is due to the wider domain considered in his estimates, including all the open water fraction occurred north of TNB (Wood Bay) and south of the Drygalski Ice Tongue.

TNB polynya event in July 2005	Model-derived polynya extent (km ²)	MODIS-derived polynya extent (km ²)
28 th 12:00	12	40
29 th 06:00	0	25
29 th 15:00	389	391
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31 th 03:00	2831	3393

Table 9: TNB polynya extents from model sea ice concentration outputs and from MODIS IST from 28th to 31th July 2005.

6 Discussion and concluding remarks

This work focuses on the investigation of sea ice formation in the TNB polynya in response to wind forcing. Because of the lack of direct observations related to sea ice fields, models provide valuable insight into the mean state of the ice cover (Flato, 2003) together with satellite observations which

indeed fail often in availability and spatial resolution. A coupled sea ice-ocean model that simulates the seasonal cycle of sea ice formation in, and export off, the polynya is presented. The model consists in a one-and-a-half layer reduced gravity ocean in which the oceanic dynamics satisfy the hydrostatic equilibrium and the Boussinesq approximation. Vertical mixing in the ocean is prescribed according to the parameterization of Pacanowski and Philander (1981). The model allows for the presence of a sea ice cover which behaves as a zero layer system without thermal inertia, as proposed by Semtner (1976), interacting dynamically and thermodynamically with the atmosphere and the ocean. The model also allows for internal ice forces resolved by the elastic-viscous-plastic ice rheology developed by Hunke and Dukowicz (1997). Vertical and lateral growth/decay rates of sea ice are obtained from energy budgets at both the bottom and surface boundaries of the ice cover and in leads opening within the ice cover. Also, snow-ice formation is prescribed when the load of snow is large enough to depress the snow-ice interface under the water level. The model is applied to TNB area, including also the nearby regions north and south of the bay in order to characterize at the best seasonal sea ice variability and polynya behaviour. The horizontal resolution is of 1 km, which is sufficient to represent the salient features of the coastline geometry, notably the Drygalski Ice Tongue. The model has been forced by a combination of Era Interim reanalysis by ECMWF and in-situ data from Rita and Manuela AWS, and also by in situ oceanic data.

The modelled sea ice fields have proved to be very sensitive to the atmospheric forcing. Sea ice evolution has been found to be shaped by different parameters involved in the dynamics of sea ice which in turn affects the thermal processes that occur in the ice cover. Several sensitivity experiments have been performed in order to optimize and set up a few main parameterizations and coefficients, thus improving the model outputs. The choice of an ice thickness collection depth (H) varying with the wind speed used by Winsor & Björk (2000) has revealed the best compromise in simulating sea ice fields and thermodynamic heat losses through thin ice inside the polynya. In contrast, the rheology parameter P^* has not been found to affect significantly the drift of sea ice

720 resulting in almost unchanged outputs of sea ice concentration and thickness distribution. The
721 importance of the air drag coefficient, one of the most important factors in modelling ice motion,
722 has been also stressed. First the response of the model to constant values of the air-ice (c_{da}) and ice-
723 ocean (c_{do}) drag coefficients and after to the c_{da}/c_{do} ratio have been observed, the latter being the
724 most basic parameter of sea ice dynamics determining the mean sea ice drift speed (Geiger et al.,
725 1998; Harder and Fisher, 1999). For this reason a c_{da} varying with wind speed has been defined,
726 while c_{do} is allowed to depend linearly on the c_{da} through a constant factor. Also a wind
727 enhancement function has been developed in order to try to improve the prediction of sea ice fields.
728 However, its application has revealed no progress in model forcing causing too much high values of
729 the wind stress.

730 A simulation of sea ice formation in TNB has been performed for the whole of 2005 to observe the
731 response of the polynya dynamics to the wind forcing. Unsurprisingly, the largest openings of the
732 polynya match the stronger katabatic winds which have been found in wintertime, mainly from
733 April to October. The largest opening of polynya occurs in July with an extent of 2962 km², while
734 mean polynya extent over the wintertime 2005 ranges between approximately 500 km² and 900
735 km². Sea ice production and the associated brine and HSSW productions have also been computed
736 exhibiting values cumulated over the whole year 2005 of 57.91 km³, 1.7×10^{12} kg and 0.5×10^{13} m³
737 respectively. These results are in good agreement with those by Fusco et al. (2002, 2009) who
738 estimated, even if related to different period (1993-94), a salt production of about 4.6×10^{12} kg and a
739 HSSW production of 1.5×10^{13} m³. In order to support and validate the model outputs, a comparison
740 with sea ice conditions detected by satellite images has been thought essential. Satellite images
741 detected from MODIS sensor have been chosen for this purpose since they reach a high spatial
742 resolution of 1 km, the same as that of the model. In order to observe the strong relationship
743 between the wind field and the TNB polynya extent, some wintertime periods including significant
744 katabatic events have been selected. For these periods the MODIS IST scenes have been compared
745 with the modelled sea ice concentration maps. The TNB polynya area seems to be reproduced

746 reasonably well by the model in terms of both shape and distribution of sea ice. However, small
747 differences in sea ice distribution respect to that observed in the MODIS IST scenes are visually
748 detectable in some regions. These differences involve especially the areas located along the coast
749 characterized by the variable shelf-ice borders and the presence of land fast ice. In particular, two
750 given areas, the region south of Drygalski Ice Tongue and the one north of TNB (Wood Bay)
751 appear almost recurrently ice free in the modelled sea ice maps.

752 The modelled polynya extents in MODIS IST scenes and the corresponding model sea ice maps
753 have been also computed from 28th to 31th July 2005. The application of an ice state dependent
754 threshold for IST in MODIS images let us to validate the polynya extent with a higher reliability.
755 The model-derived polynya extents are very similar to those computed from MODIS IST images.
756 The extent value of 2831 km² computed from the modelled ice concentration for the 31th July at
757 3:00 is quite consistent with that obtained from the MODIS scenes of 3393 km² for the same day at
758 4:25. On the other hand, both extents are much smaller and, hence, less comparable to MODIS
759 based estimation of 7615 km² retrieved by Ciappa et al. (2012) on the same day because of the
760 wider area considered in his work including the open water fraction also north of TNB (Wood Bay)
761 and south of the Drygalski Ice Tongue.

762 Finally, despite the small discrepancies in sea ice distribution in some given regions and polynya
763 extents, the model works quite well reproducing reasonably sea ice evolution. The divergences may
764 be investigated more extensively in the future through an improvement of the model in capturing
765 fast ice or the use of a more accurate land mask including the fast ice. The detection of the polynya
766 area and its extent is obviously affected by fog, clouds or other atmospheric disturbance that often
767 compromise the quality of the used satellite images. At any rate, modelling the opening and closing
768 polynya events is a difficult task especially if the size of polynya is relatively small, like in Terra
769 Nova Bay (Pease, 1987; Lynch et al., 1997; Petrelli et al, 2008). The results have further
770 highlighted the sensitivity of sea ice simulations to wind forcing which is the major aspect stressed
771 in numerous modelling works on Southern Ocean. Accurate sea ice simulations in terms of sea ice

772 distribution and thickness can be achieved, provided that the model is forced with realistic winds
773 and lower boundary conditions, in particular ocean temperatures as found by Stössel et al. (2011).
774 High resolution wind forcing is necessary to capture in more detail coastal sea ice processes, such
775 as coastal polynyas, ice drift and ice compression against some particular coastline features.

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778 **Acknowledgments**

779 The authors are thankful to the Meteo-Climatological Observatory of the Italian National Program
780 for Research in Antarctica and the Antarctic Meteorological Research Center of the University of
781 Wisconsin-Madison for the Automatic Weather Stations data sets. They are also grateful to the
782 European Centre for Medium-range Weather Forecast for the interim reanalysis and to the MODIS
783 Atmosphere and Archive and Distribution System Nasa Website for free access to MODIS radiance
784 products. This work was performed in the framework of CEFA (PNRA) project.

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Parameter	Symbol	Value
X domain	X	154000 m
Y domain	Y	488000 m
T domain	T	\times° days
Time step for momentum	Δt	600 s
Time step for advection	Δta	1.2 s
Elastic timescale	Δte	180 s
Air drag coefficient	C_{da}	\times°
Ocean drag coefficient	C_{do}	\times°
Ice strength parameter	P°	\times° N/m ²
Ice concentration parameter	C	20
Creep limit	c	5×10^{-11} 1/s
Eccentricity of the elliptical yield curve	e	2
Demarcation ice thickness	h_{pu}	\times° m

Table 1: Input parameters for the model user

Parameter	Symbol	Value
Thermal conductivity of sea ice	κ_i	2.2 W/m/K
Thermal conductivity of snow	κ_s	0.3 W/m/K
Emissivity of atmosphere	ε_a	0.95
Emissivity of ocean	ε_o	0.985
Albedo of ocean	α_o	0.07
Albedo of ice	α_i	0.07-0.7
Albedo of snow	α_{sn}	0.85
Latent heat of fusion of ice	L_{fi}	$3.34 \times 10^5 \text{ J/m}^3$
Latent heat of vaporization of water	L_e	$2.5 \times 10^9 \text{ J/m}^3$
Latent heat of fusion of snow	L_{fsn}	$3.34 \times 10^5 \text{ J/m}^3$
Latent heat of sublimation of snow	L_{ssn}	$2.834 \times 10^6 \text{ J/m}^3$
Specific heat capacity of ocean	c_{pa}	$3985 \text{ J/m}^3/\text{°C}$
Specific heat capacity of air	c_{po}	$1004 \text{ J/m}^3/\text{°C}$
Density of air	ρ_a	1.3 Kg/m ³
Density of ice	ρ_i	900 Kg/m ³
Density of snow	ρ_s	330 Kg/m ³
Density of ocean	ρ_o	1024 Kg/m ³
Melting point of freshwater ice	t_{fus}	0°C
Salinity of sea ice	s_i	4 psu
Exchange coeff. for sensible heat (leads/ice)	c_H	1.75×10^{-3}
Exchange coeff. for latent heat over leads	c_E	1.75×10^{-3}
Exchange coeff. for latent heat over ice	c_E	1×10^{-3}
Stefan-Boltzmann constant	K	5.67×10^{-8}
Minimum vertical viscosity	v_{min}	1×10^{-3}

Table 2: Physical parameters of atmosphere, sea ice and ocean.

Experiment	P^* (N/m ²)	R factor (km)
CASE 1	27500	25
CASE 2	5000	25
CASE 3	27500	-
CASE 4	27500	50

Table3: Sensitivity tests of sea ice evolution with respect to P^* and R factor.

Experiment	<i>H</i> (m)	R factor (km)
CASE 5	0.2	50
CASE 6	0.3	50
CASE 7	0.4	50
CASE 8	<i>f</i> (V)	50
CASE 9	0.2	-

Table 4: Sensitivity tests of sea ice evolution with respect to H and R factor.

Experiment	Sea Ice production (km ³) in July 2000
CASE 5	10.08
CASE 6	11.09
CASE 7	12.12
CASE 8	9.79
CASE 9	6.83

Table 5: Sea ice production in July 2000 for the CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9 experiments.

Experiment		c_{da}	c_{do}	
1	E_{15} <u>CTRL</u>	1×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	-
	E_{35}	3×10^{-3}	5×10^{-3}	
	E_{11}	1×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}	
	E_{31}	3×10^{-3}	1×10^{-3}	
	E_{34}	3×10^{-3}	4×10^{-3}	
	$Ec_{da}c_{do}$	$1 \times 10^{-3} \quad V \leq 10 \text{ m/s}$ $3 \times 10^{-3} \quad V \geq 20 \text{ m/s}$	$1.3 \times c_{da}$	
2	Ew_{15}	$= E_{15}$		Wind Enhancement
	Ew_{31}	$= E_{31}$		
	Ew_{34}	$= E_{34}$		
	$Ew_{cda/cdo}$	$= Ec_{da}c_{do}$		

Table 6: Sensitivity tests with respect to the air-ice and ice-ocean coefficients.

Winter months	Maximum Polynya extent (km ²)	Mean Polynya extent (km ²)
March	7946	5574
April	1806	1174
May	2688	871.2
June	2205	557.2
July	2962	532.5
August	2868	766.9
September	2674	875.6
October	5637	2304

Table 7: Monthly maximum and mean polynya extent of the TNB polynya.

Winter months	Maximum daily rates of sea ice production (km ³ /day)	Mean daily rates of sea ice production (km ³ /day)	Monthly cumulative sea ice (km ³)
March	0.42	0.16	4.99
April	0.40	0.26	7.86
May	0.61	0.30	9.25
June	0.54	0.25	7.52
July	0.70	0.22	6.98
August	0.58	0.30	9.39
September	0.44	0.24	7.34
October	0.39	0.14	4.29

Table 8: Daily sea ice production rates from ice production rates spatially cumulated over TNB polynya area.

TNB polynya event in July 2005	Model-derived polynya extent (km ²)	MODIS-derived polynya extent (km ²)
28 th 12:00	12	40
29 th 06:00	0	25
29 th 15:00	389	391
30 th 06:00	1858	1936
30 th 12:00	2148	2385
31 th 03:00	2831	3393

Table 9: TNB polynya extents from model sea ice concentration outputs and from MODIS IST from 28th to 31th July 2005.

Figure(s)

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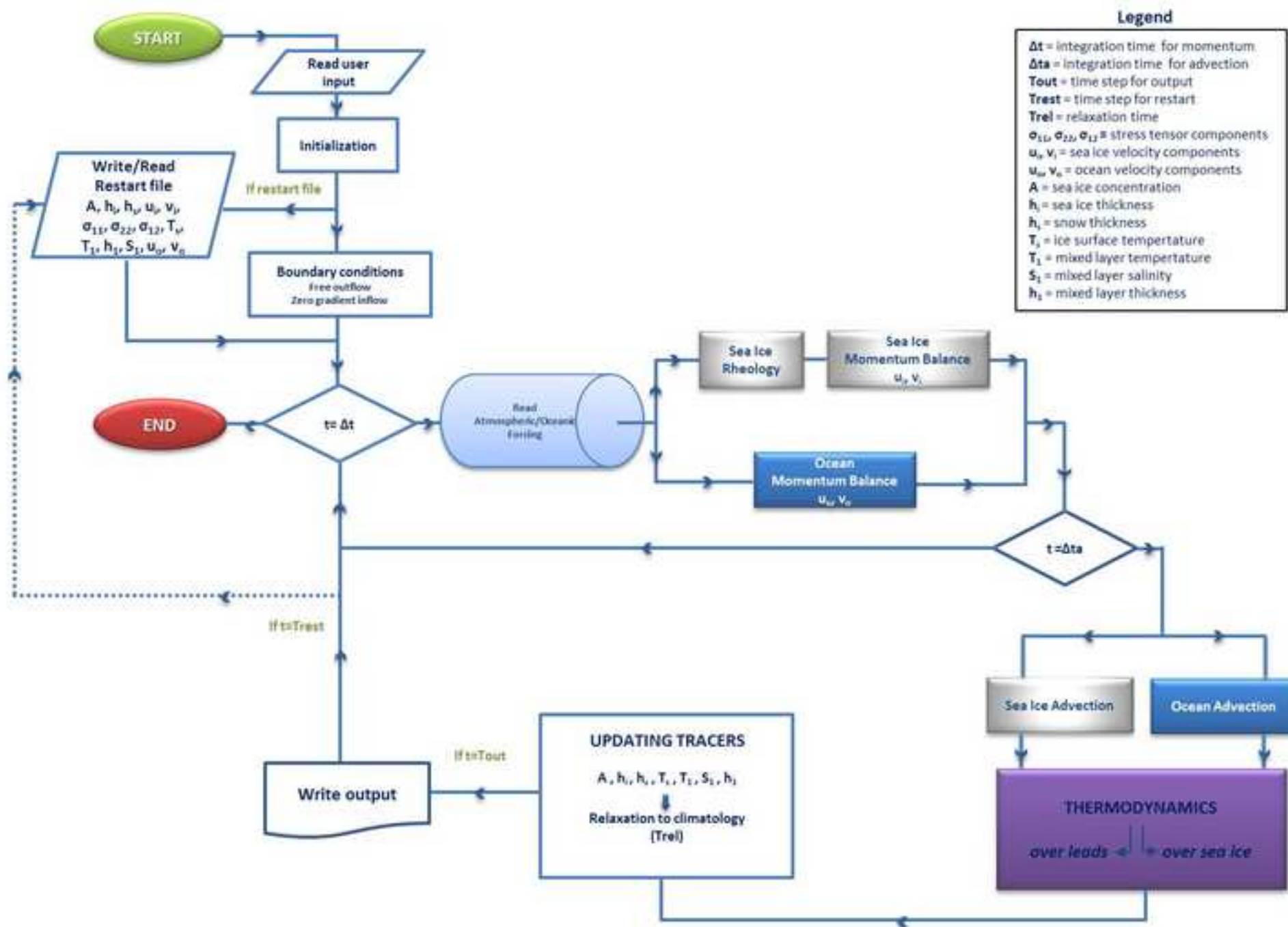


Fig. 2: Diagram flow of the coupled sea ice-ocean model.

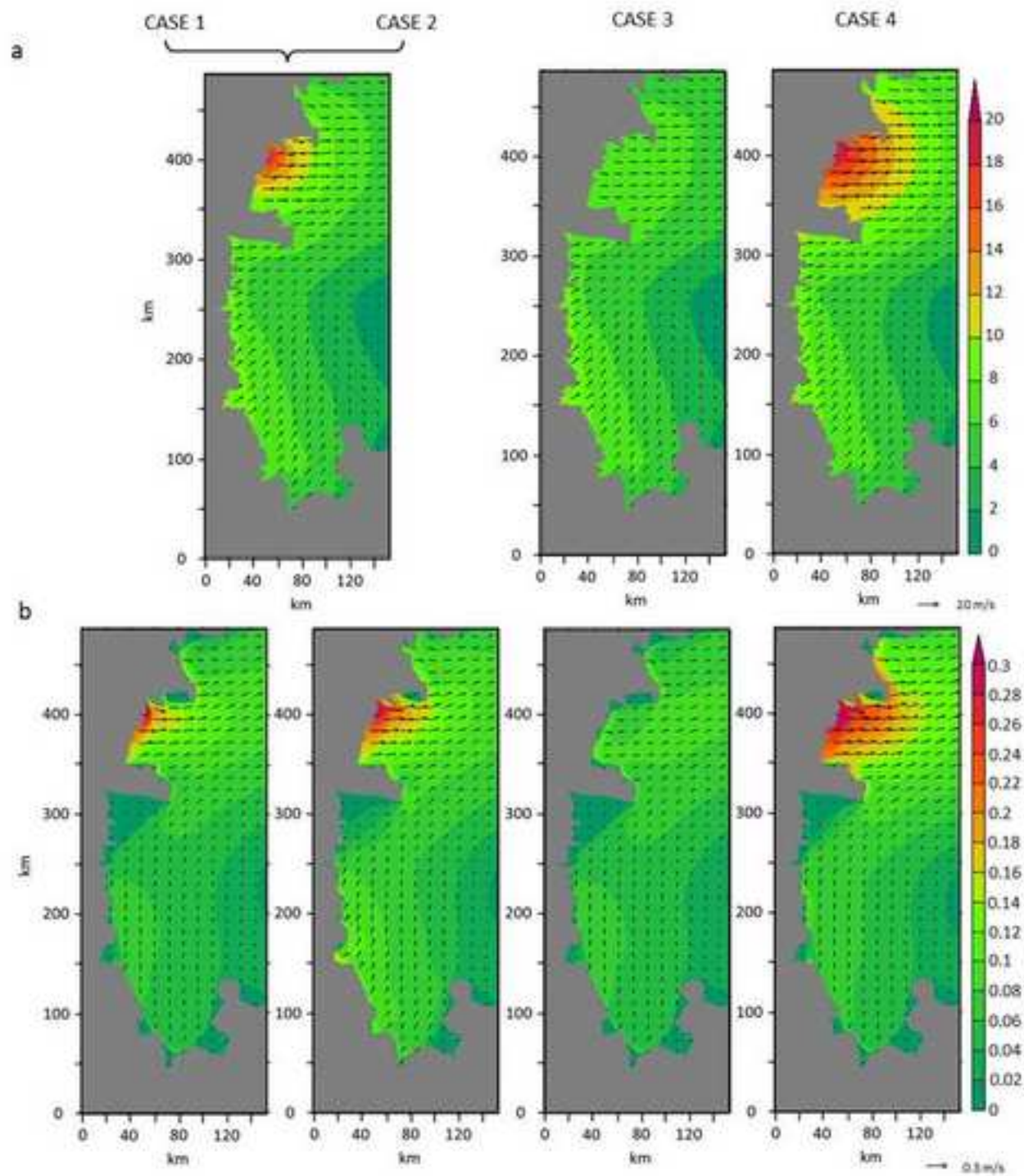


Fig. 3: Maps of wind velocities (a) and modelled ice drift velocities (b) on 8th July 2000 for CASE 1/CASE 2, CASE 3 and CASE 4.

Figure(s)

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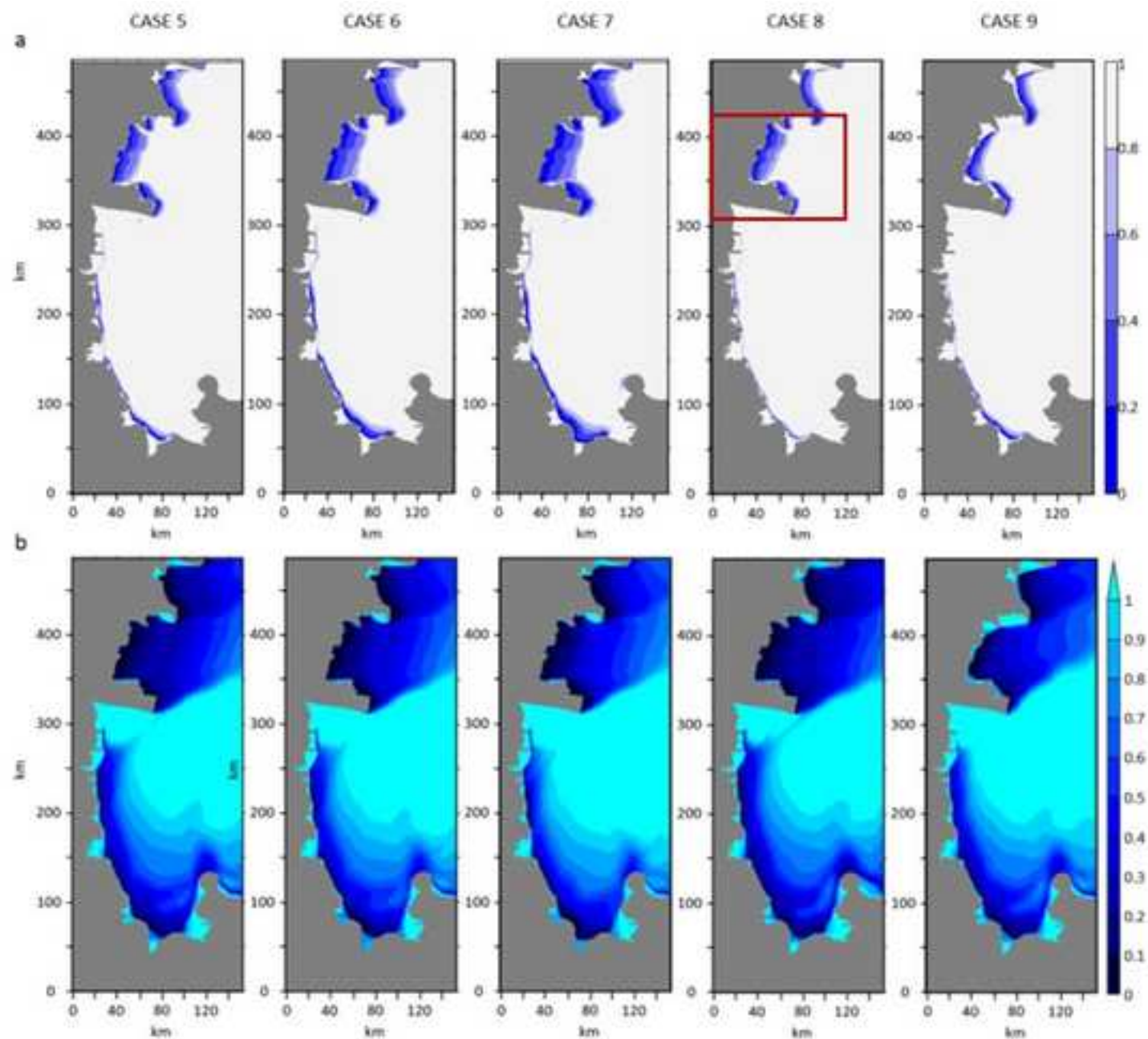


Fig. 4: Simulation maps of sea ice concentration (a) and sea ice thickness (b) for CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9 on 8th July 2000. The portion of the domain marked by the red box in (a) is the area defined for computational purposes as TNB region extending approximately from 310 km to 425 km in Y and bordered by X = 120 km.

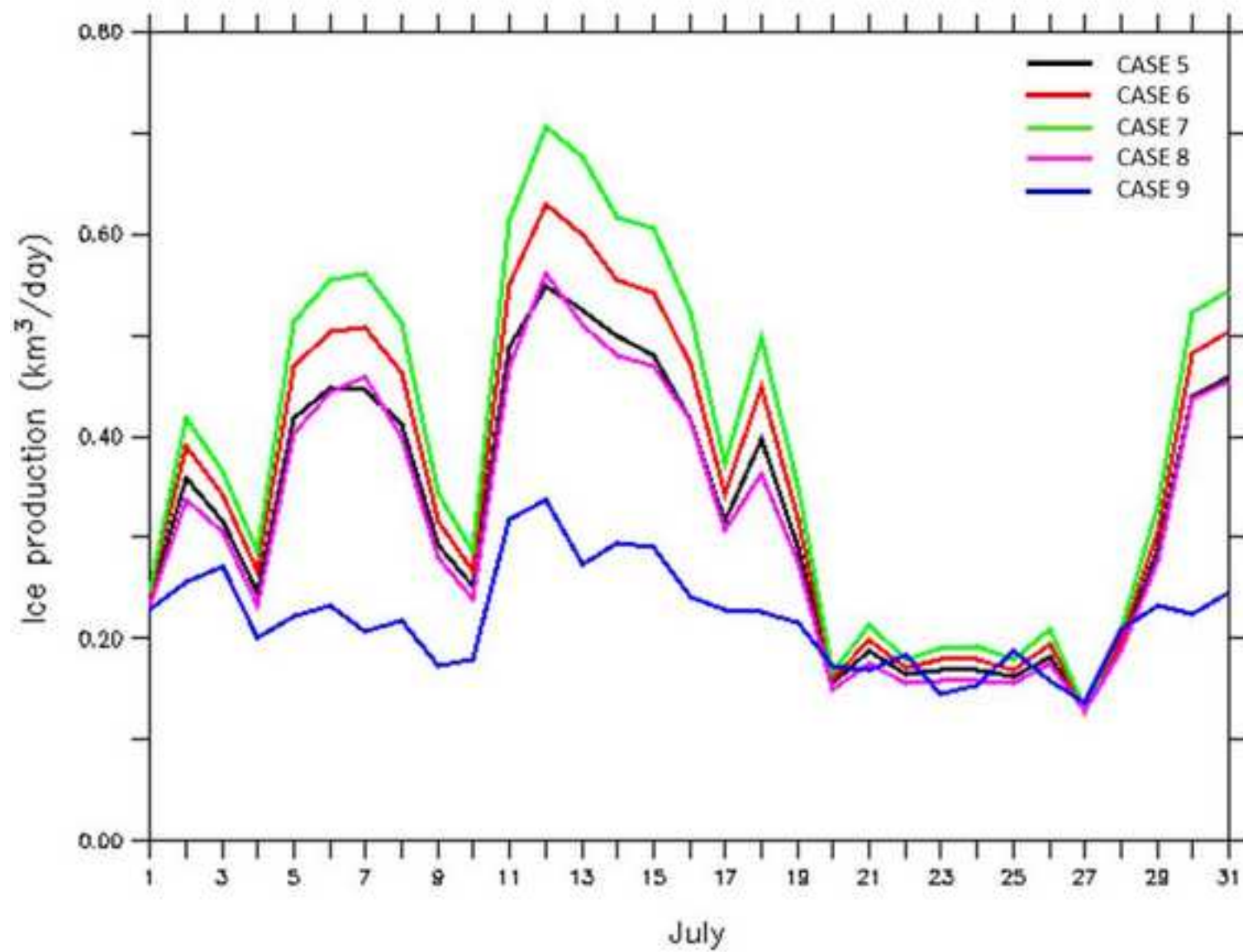


Fig. 5: Daily ice production in the TNB region on 8th July 2000 for CASE 5, CASE 6, CASE 7, CASE 8 and CASE 9.

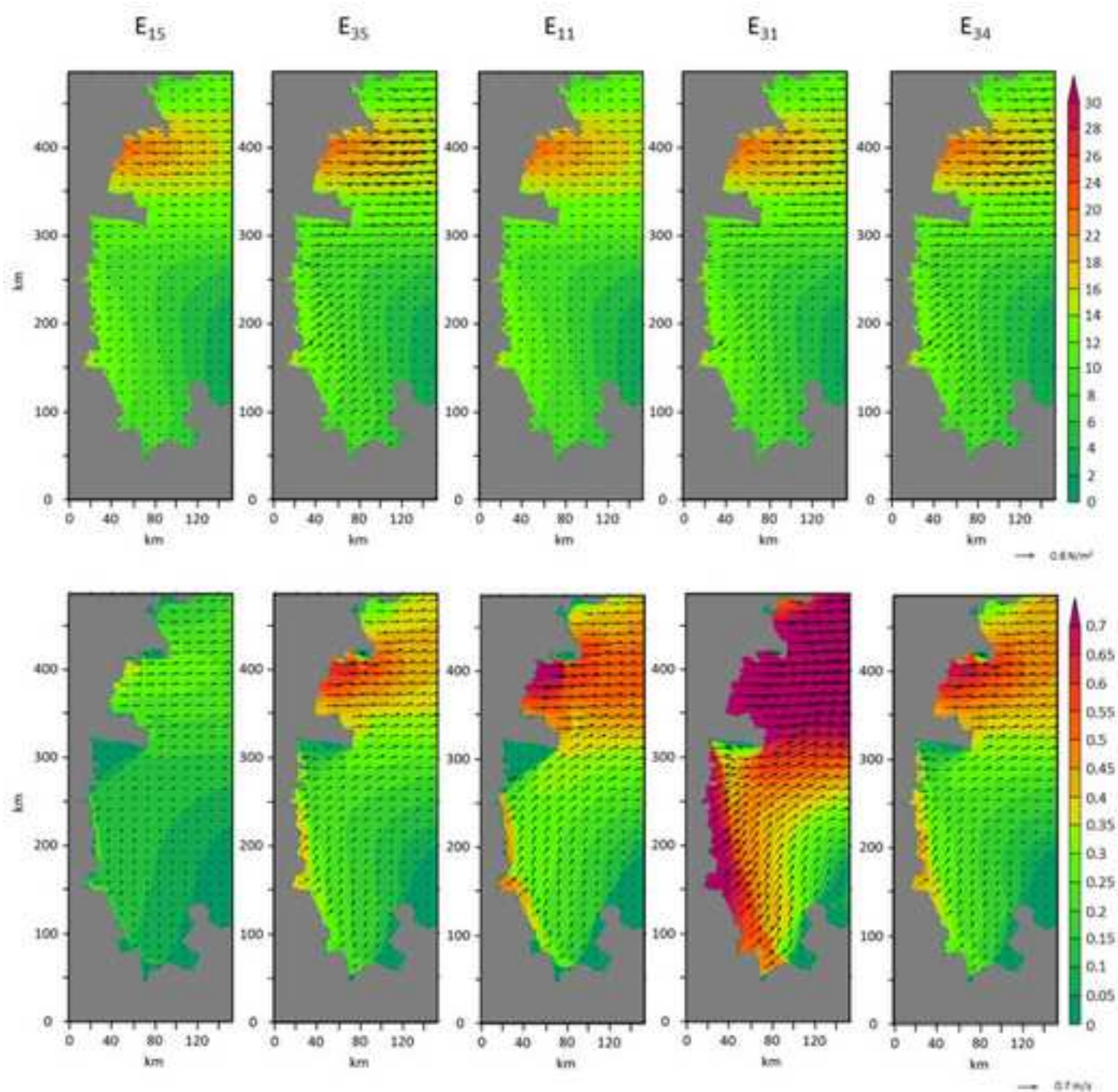


Fig. 6: Wind speed with the superimposed wind stress (on the top) and sea ice drift velocities (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for E_{15} , E_{35} , E_{11} , E_{31} , E_{34} . The scale arrows on the right indicate the length of the wind stress vector and ice velocity vector, respectively 0.8 N/m^2 and 0.7 m/s .

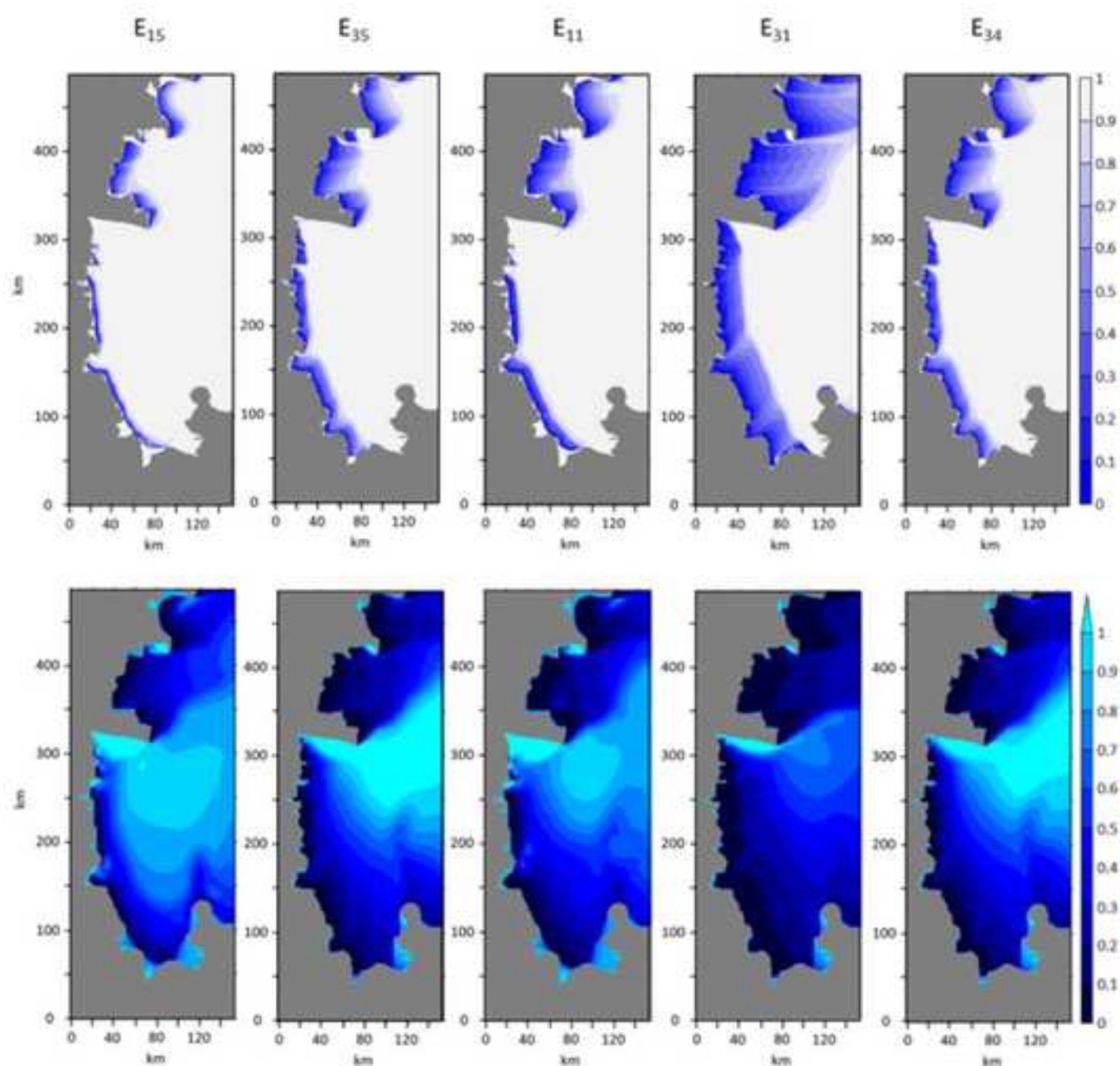


Fig. 7: Sea ice concentration (on the top) and sea ice thickness (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for E_{15} , E_{35} , E_{11} , E_{31} , E_{34} .

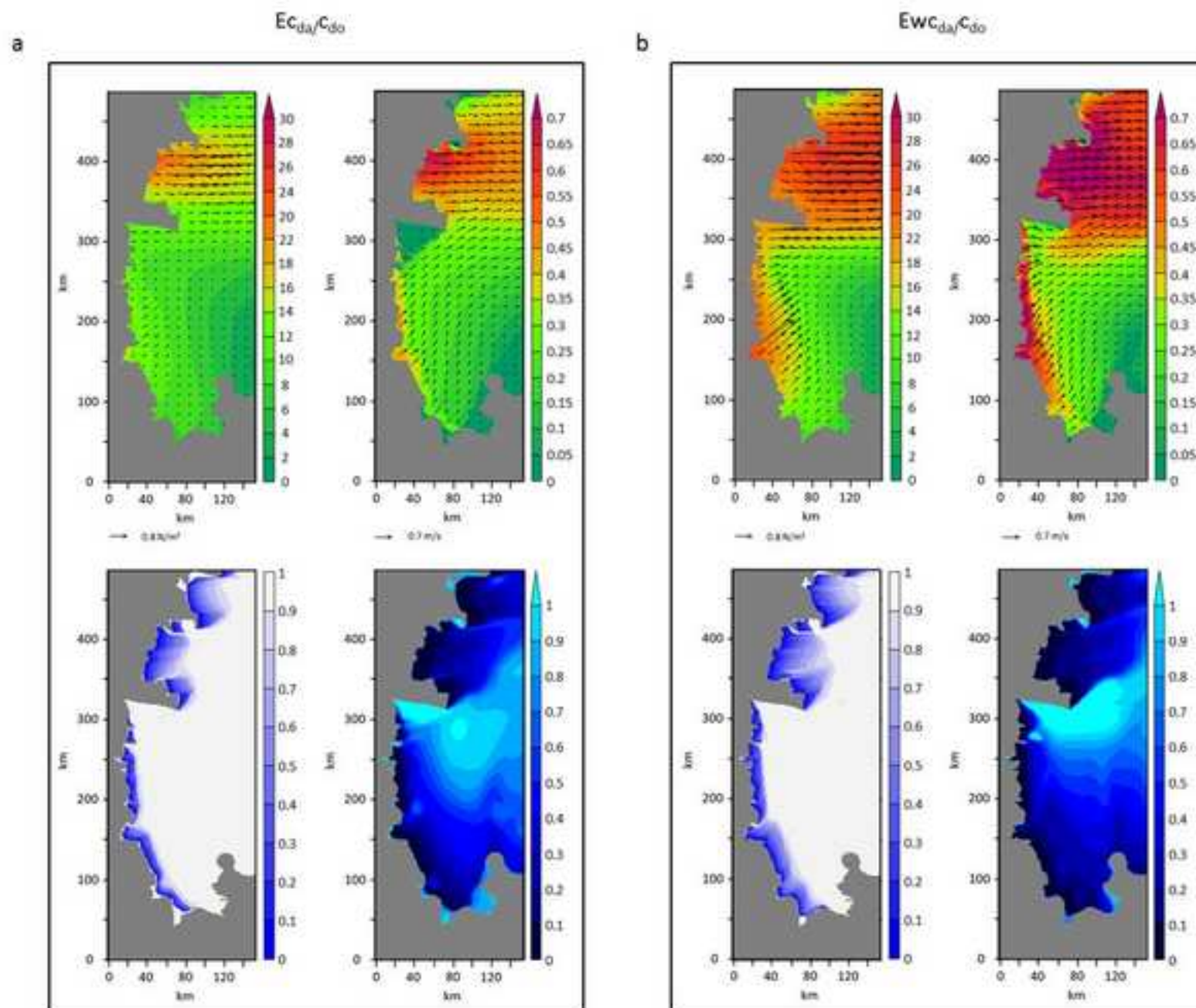


Fig. 8: Wind fields and modelled sea ice drift fields (on the top) and the corresponding sea ice concentration and thickness distribution (on the bottom) on 30th July 2005 for Ec_{da}/c_{do} (a) and Ewc_{da}/c_{do} (b) run without and with the enhancement function respectively.

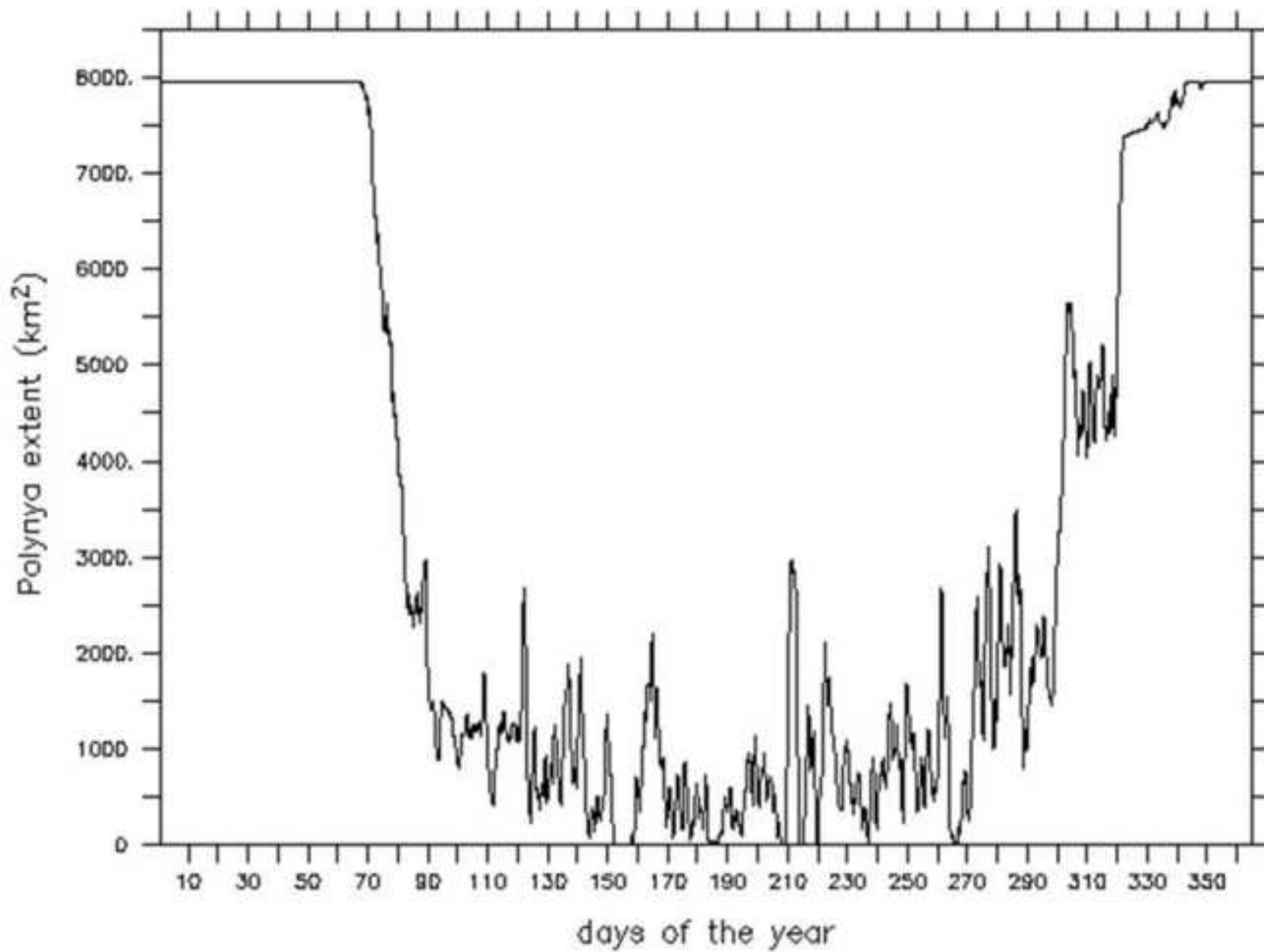


Fig. 9: Model-derived polynya extent in the TNB region in the year 2005.

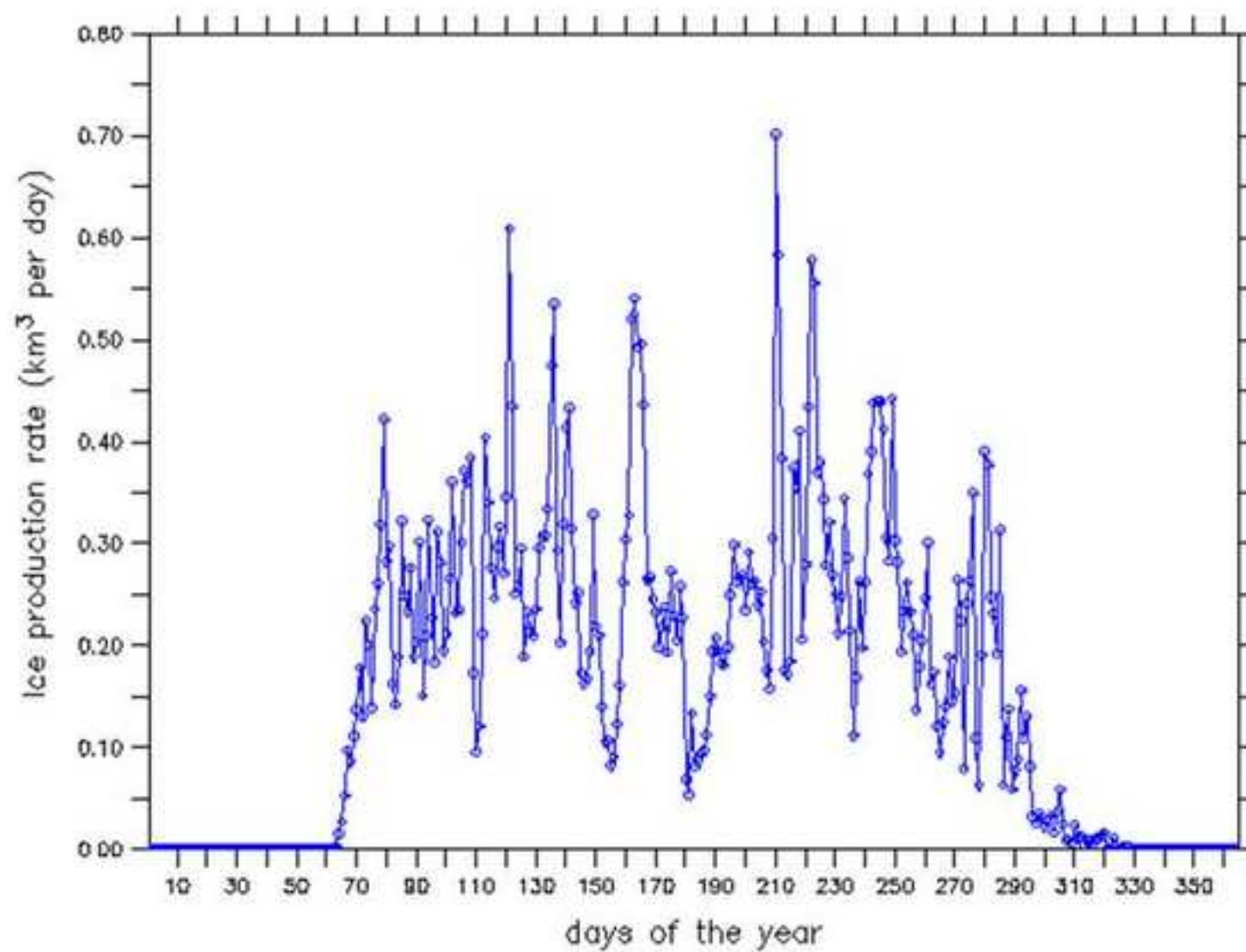


Fig. 10: Spatially cumulated daily rate of sea ice production for the TNB region in the year 2005 .

Figure(s)

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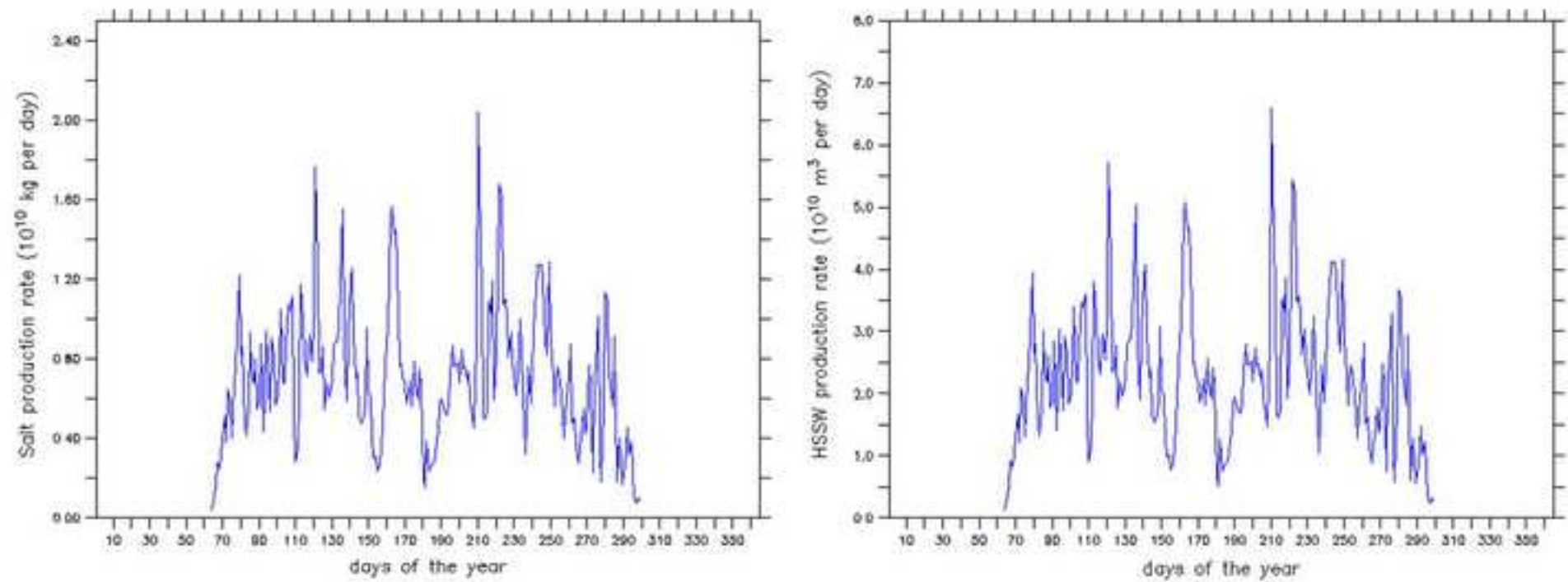


Fig. 11: Salt production rate (on the left) and HSSW production rate (on the right) in the TNB polynya area in the year 2005.

Figure(s)
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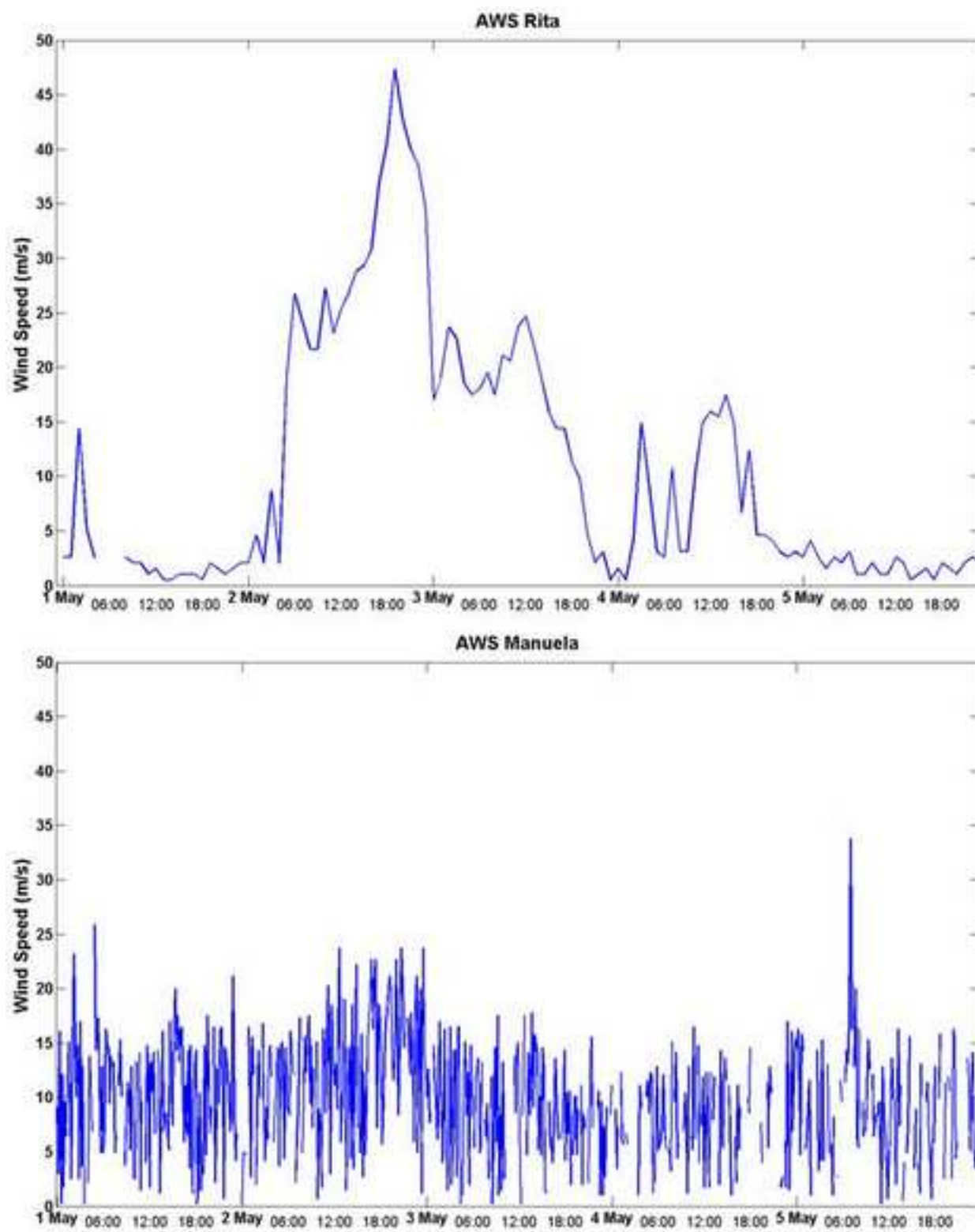


Fig. 12: Wind speed from Rita (on the top) and Manuela (on the bottom) AWSs on 1-5th May 2005.

Figure(s)

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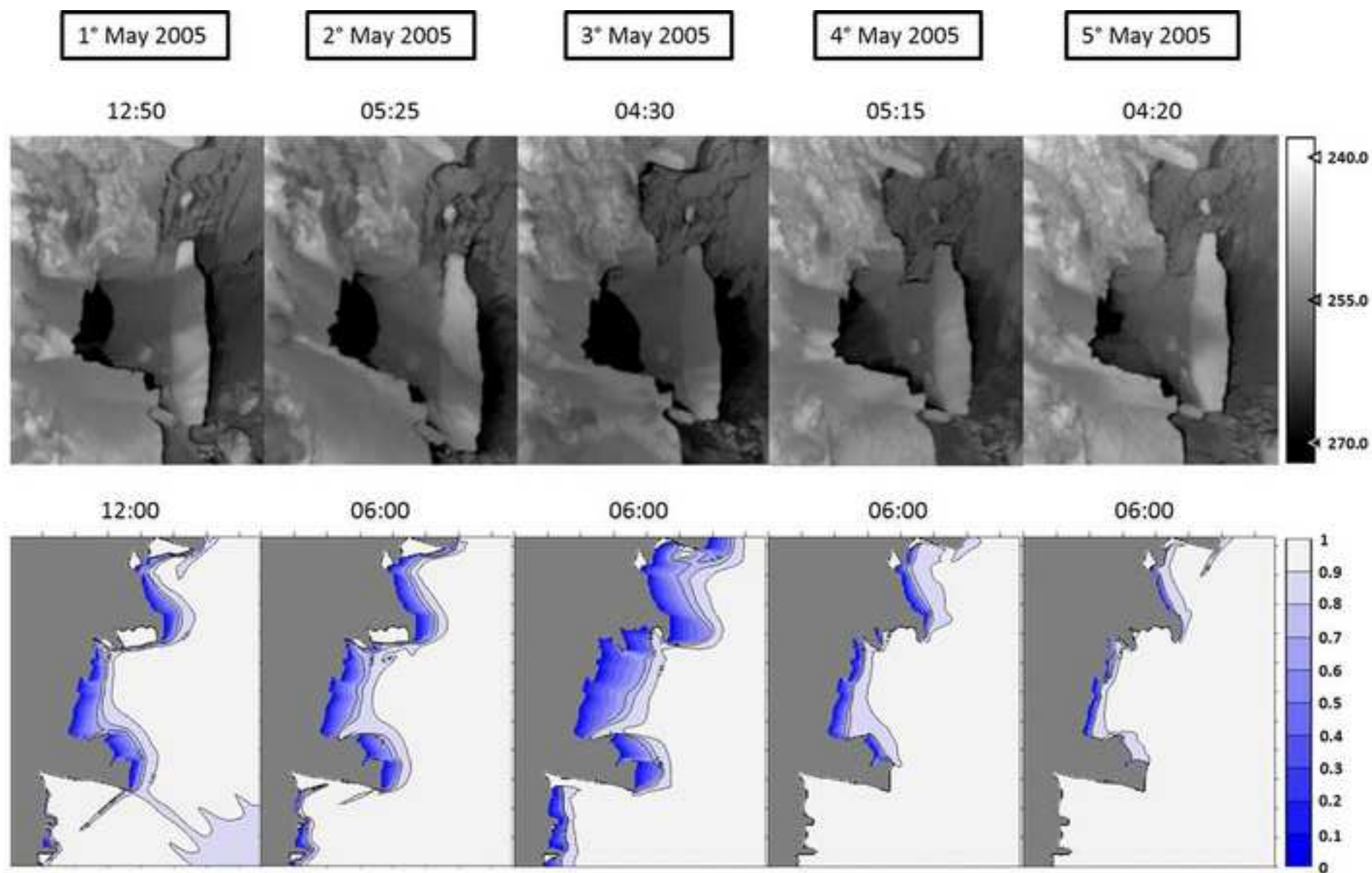


Fig. 13: IST MODIS scenes (on the top) and the modelled sea ice concentration maps (on the bottom) displaying the polynya evolution on 1-5th May 2005.

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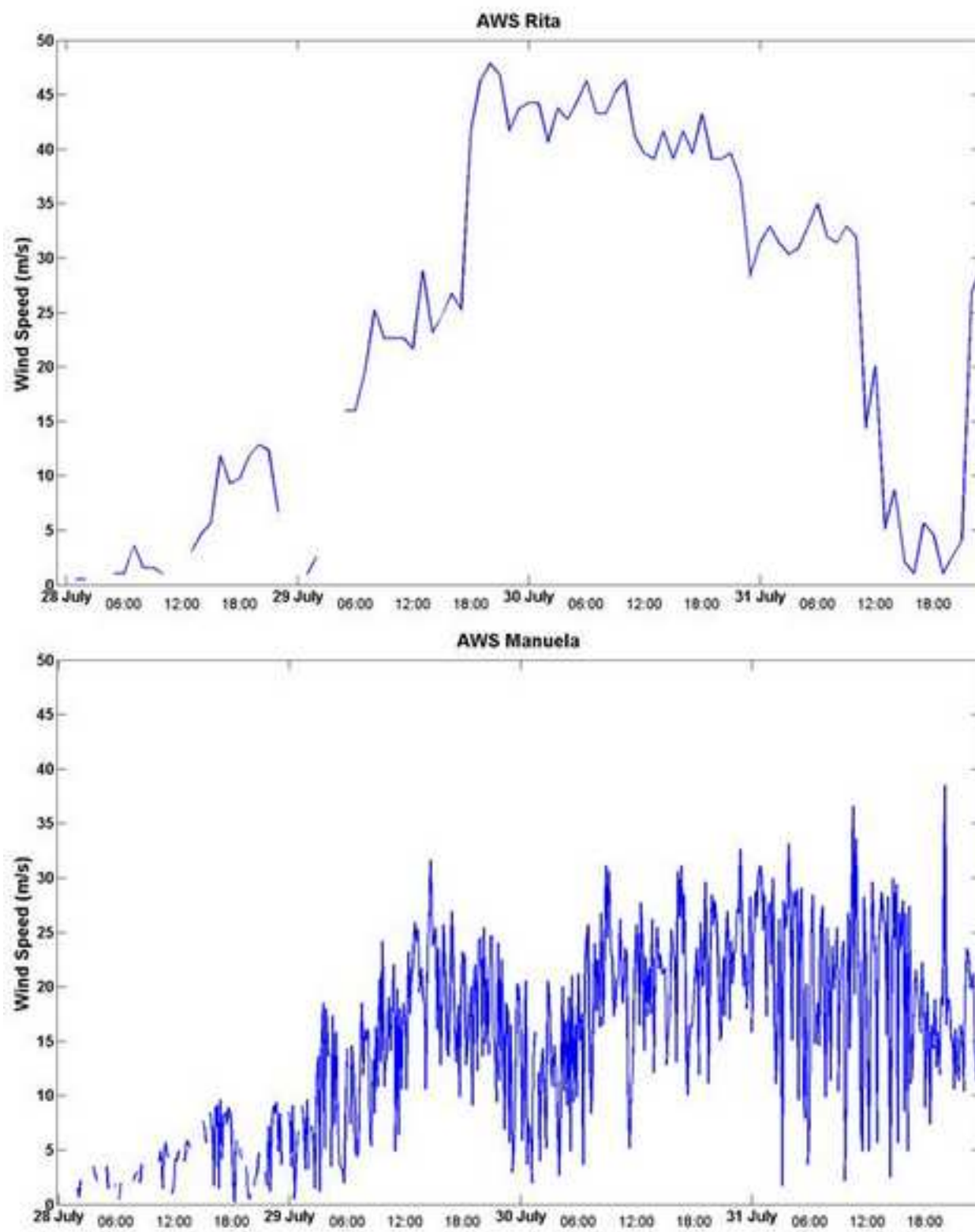


Fig. 14: Wind speed from Rita (on the top) and Manuela (on the bottom) AWSs on 23-31st July 2005.

Figure(s)

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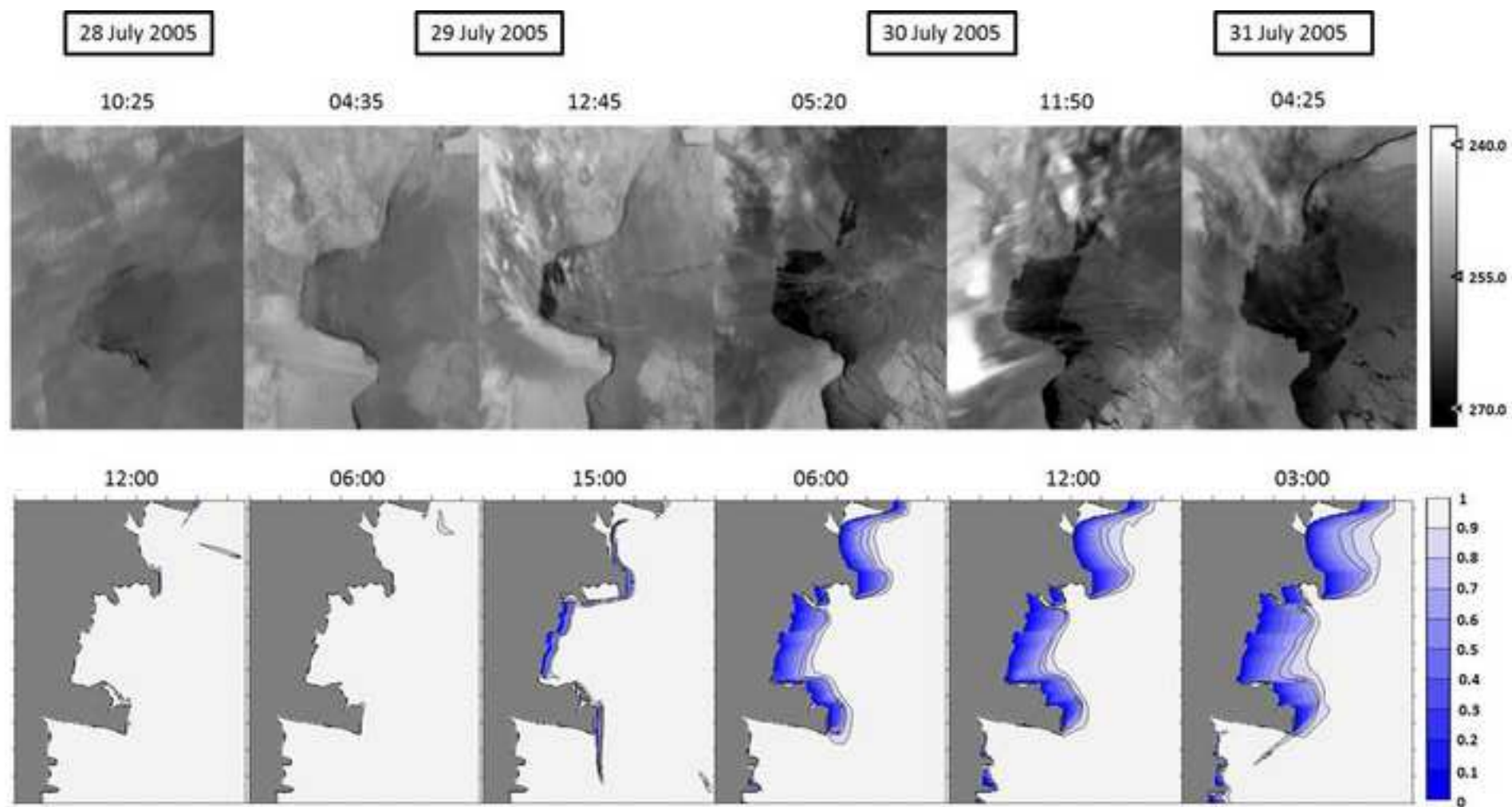


Fig. 15: IST MODIS scenes (on the top) and the modelled sea ice concentration maps (on the bottom) displaying the polynya evolution on 23-27th July 2005.