

1      **Greenland Ice Sheet Contribution to 21<sup>st</sup> Century Sea  
2      Level Rise as Simulated by the Coupled  
3      CESM2.1-CISM2.1**

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14      **Key Points:**

- 15      • CESM2.1-CISM2.1 simulates relatively strong warming and weakening of meridional overturning circulation by 2100.
- 16      • The Greenland ice sheet contributes 23 mm by 2050, and 109 mm by 2100, to global mean sea level rise.
- 17      • The role of the northern basins becomes progressively important as surface runoff strongly increases over the second half of the century.

21      **Abstract**

22      The Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) mass balance is examined with an Earth system/ice sheet  
 23      model that interactively couples the GrIS to the land and atmosphere. The simulation  
 24      runs from 1850 to 2100, with historical and SSP5-8.5 forcing. By mid-21<sup>st</sup> century, the  
 25      cumulative contribution to global mean sea level rise (SLR) is 23 mm. Over the second  
 26      half of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the surface mass balance becomes negative in all drainage basins,  
 27      and an additional 86 mm of SLR is contributed. The annual mean GrIS mass loss in the  
 28      last two decades is 2.7 mm sea level equivalent (SLE) yr<sup>-1</sup>. Strong decrease in SMB (3.1  
 29      mm SLE yr<sup>-1</sup>) is counteracted by a reduction in ice discharge from thinning and retreat  
 30      of outlet glaciers. The southern GrIS drainage basins contribute 73% of the mass loss  
 31      by mid-century. This decreases to 55% by 2100, as surface runoff in the northern basins  
 32      strongly increases.

33      **Plain Language Summary**

34      The Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) is a vast mass of ice that slowly moves under the  
 35      force of gravity. It gains mass at the surface from snowfall, and it loses mass from glacier  
 36      calve at the ocean front. These two processes used to be in balance. Now, recent obser-  
 37      vations have found an acceleration in the mass loss, meaning an acceleration in the GrIS  
 38      contribution the global mean sea level rise. This acceleration is thought to result from  
 39      human-induced global warming.

40      This study uses a global model that both calculates ice flow of the GrIS, as well  
 41      as processes in the other Earth components: the atmosphere, ocean, land, and sea-ice.  
 42      To have a present-day reference, the model is provided with forcing (most importantly:  
 43      atmospheric greenhouse gas concentrations) for the historical period (1850-2014). Next,  
 44      we provide the model with forcing for the remainder of the 21st century (2015-2100). For  
 45      this, the high-end SSP5-8.5 scenario is used in order to examine in what ways the GrIS  
 46      and the global Earth system respond to the “worst-case” scenario.

47      By 2050, the GrIS has lost an amount of mass that is equal to 23 mm of global mean  
 48      sea level rise. Over the second half of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the overall GrIS surface is not  
 49      gaining net mass anymore due in increased melting conditions. In particular, the role  
 50      of the dry north becomes progressively important as meltwater runoff strongly increase.  
 51      By 2100, the GrIS contribution to sea level rise is 109 mm sea level equivalent.

## 52 1 Introduction

53 The Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) has been losing mass at an increasing rate over  
54 the past two decades (Shepherd et al., 2019), and has recently become a major contrib-  
55 utor to global mean sea-level rise (Chen et al., 2017). The IPCC Fifth Assessment Re-  
56 port identified the polar ice sheets as one of the main sources of uncertainty in 21<sup>st</sup> cen-  
57 tury sea-level rise projections (Church et al., 2013). A recent expert assessment estimates  
58 the GrIS cumulative contribution by 2100 to be between 20 and 990 mm, with a median  
59 of 230 mm (Bamber et al., 2019). The ice sheet and climate modelling communities have  
60 recently joined efforts to advance our understanding of ice sheet mass loss, and to im-  
61 prove future projections. This has come together in the Ice Sheet Modelling Intercom-  
62 parison Project for CMIP6 (ISMIP6; Nowicki et al. (2016)). Part of the uncertainty in  
63 current SLR estimates stems from insufficient understanding of the complex interactions  
64 between ice sheets and the broader Earth system. This highlights the importance of cou-  
65 pled Earth system/ice-sheet models. ISMIP6 therefore proposed for coupled Earth sys-  
66 tem/ice sheet models to simulate the GrIS response under two different forcing scenar-  
67 ios: a) 1% per year increase in CO<sub>2</sub> to 4x pre-industrial concentration; and b) the his-  
68 torical period 1850-2014, followed by the remainder of the 21<sup>st</sup> century under the high-  
69 end SSP5-8.5 scenario (Shared Socioeconomic Pathways; O'Neill et al. (2016)).

70 In this study, the Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2; Danabasoglu  
71 et al. (accepted pending minor revisions)) with an interactive GrIS (CESM2.1-CISM2.1,  
72 (Muntjewerf et al., in preparation)) is used to simulate the period 1850-2100 under his-  
73 torical and SSP5-8.5 forcing. This paper presents the 21<sup>st</sup> century projections of the global  
74 climate and the Greenland ice sheet response, as well as the projected GrIS contribu-  
75 tion to global mean sea level rise. Section 2 describes the model, ice-sheet/Earth sys-  
76 tem coupling, and the experiment design. Section 3 presents the results, with four sub-  
77 sections on the climate and whole-GrIS mass change, the partition of mass change per  
78 drainage basin, the freshwater budget, and a comparison to standard CESM2.1 simu-  
79 lations without an interactive GrIS. Section 4 discusses the results in the context of ear-  
80 lier studies, and draws the main conclusions.

**81 2 Method: Model Description and Experimental Set-Up****82 2.1 The Community Earth System Model (CESM2)**

83 The Community Earth System Model version 2 (CESM2) (Danabasoglu et al., ac-  
84 cepted pending minor revisions) is a comprehensive, fully coupled, Earth system model  
85 that is contributing simulations of past, present, and future climates to the Coupled Model  
86 Intercomparison Project phase 6 (CMIP6; Eyring et al. (2016)). CESM2 includes com-  
87 ponent models of the atmosphere (CAM6), land (CLM5), ocean (POP2), sea-ice (CICE5),  
88 river transport (MOSART), and land-ice (CISM2.1; Lipscomb et al. (2019)). The sim-  
89 ulations described here were run with nominal 1-degree horizontal resolution in the at-  
90 mosphere, land, ocean, and sea ice components. The ice sheet model was run on a 4-km  
91 limited-area grid, centered on Greenland.

**92 2.2 Interactive Earth System/Ice-Sheet Coupling**

93 CESM2.1-CISM2.1 supports a time-evolving Greenland ice sheet that is interac-  
94 tively coupled to other Earth system components (Muntjewerf et al., in preparation).  
95 The surface mass balance (SMB) is computed in CLM5 as the difference between annual  
96 snow accumulation and surface ablation, derived from the surface energy balance. The  
97 SMB is calculated on multiple elevation classes to more accurately account for subgrid-  
98 scale variations in elevation-driven surface climate and SMB (Fyke et al., 2011; Lipscomb  
99 et al., 2013; Sellevold et al., 2019). The SMB is then downscaled to the higher-resolution  
100 ice-sheet model grid, using a trilinear interpolation scheme that separately conserves the  
101 total ablated and accumulated mass.

102 Freshwater fluxes from the ice sheet to the ocean are the sum of surface runoff from  
103 CLM5, and basal melt water and ice discharge from CISM2. Liquid water is routed to  
104 the ocean where it is distributed over the upper 30 m (Sun et al., 2017). Solid water is  
105 spread diffusively in the ocean surface layer (maximum distance of 300 km from the coast),  
106 where it is melted instantaneously using energy from the global ocean surface.

107 Dynamic land units in CLM5 enable the transition from glaciated to non-glaciated  
108 land cover, consistent with the evolving ice sheet margin in CISM2. The ice sheet sur-  
109 face topography in CISM2 is used to recompute the fractional glacier coverage in CLM5,  
110 subsequently affecting the albedo, soil, and vegetation characteristics. Surface elevation

111 and topographic roughness fields in CAM6 are updated every 10 years to incorporate  
 112 changes in the ice sheet geometry into atmospheric flow calculations.

### 113 2.3 Experimental Set-Up

114 Two simulations are analyzed in this study: the historical simulation between 1850-  
 115 2014, and its continuation to 2100 following the SSP5-8.5 scenario (Nowicki et al., 2016;  
 116 O'Neill et al., 2016). The historical forcing is based on observations of greenhouse gas  
 117 concentrations, stratospheric aerosol data (volcanoes), land use change, and solar insola-  
 118 tion. The pre-industrial (1850 CE) CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is 287 ppmv (parts per million  
 119 by volume), and increases to 397 ppmv in year 2014. Further details on the historical  
 120 simulations can be found in Eyring et al. (2016).

121 For the 21<sup>st</sup> century we used the SSP5-8.5 CMIP6 scenario (O'Neill et al., 2016).  
 122 This scenario starts in 2015 from the end of the historical period, and ends in year 2100  
 123 when the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is 1142 ppmv. This means that the CO<sub>2</sub> con-  
 124 centration increases by approximately 1% per year (see Fig. 1a and Fig S4). This emis-  
 125 sion and land-use scenario produces a total anthropogenic radiative forcing of 8.5 W m<sup>-2</sup>  
 126 relative to pre-industrial in the year 2100.

127 The historical simulation starts from the spun-up pre-industrial model state de-  
 128 scribed in Lofverstrom et al. (in review). In this state, the GrIS is in near-equilibrium  
 129 with the simulated pre-industrial climate of CESM2.1. The GrIS residual drift is about  
 130 0.03 mm SLE yr<sup>-1</sup>. This quasi-spun-up GrIS state overestimates the present-day observed  
 131 volume by 12%, and area by about 15%.

### 132 2.4 Basin-Scale Analysis

133 For the regional scale analysis, we use the six major Greenland drainage basins as  
 134 defined in Rignot and Mouginot (2012). The basin separation is based on glacier types  
 135 (marine-terminating versus land-terminating) as well as SMB regime (dry versus wet).  
 136 In regions where the ice sheet extent is overestimated, drainage basins are extended to  
 137 the ice sheet margin. Finally, based on the flow direction we extend each drainage basin  
 138 from the CISM margin into the ocean to define six major ice-ocean sectors to compute  
 139 the freshwater discharged to the ocean from each basin.

140 **3 Results**

141 The analysis is focused on three climatological periods: contemporary period (av-  
 142 eraged over years 1995-2014) from the historical simulation, and mid-century (2031-2050)  
 143 and end-of-century (2081-2100) from the SSP5-8.5 simulation.

144 **3.1 Evolution of Global Climate and GrIS Mass Budget**

145 The atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration increases in the SSP5-8.5 scenario from 287  
 146 ppmv in 1850, to 397 ppmv in 2014, 566 ppmv in 2050, and 1142 ppmv in 2100 (Figure  
 147 1, Table S1). Global mean temperatures increase by 5.4 K in the last two decades of the  
 148 21<sup>st</sup> century relative to the pre-industrial era (simulation analysed in Muntjewerf et al.  
 149 (submitted)). With respect to the contemporary period (1995-2014), the global temper-  
 150 ature increases by 1.4 K mid-century and 4.6 K by end-of-century. The Arctic ampli-  
 151 fication factor, defined as the ratio of temperature change north of 60°N and of the global  
 152 mean, is 2.0 by mid-century, and 1.8 by end-of-century.

153 The North Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (NAMOC; defined as the  
 154 maximum of the overturning stream function north of 28N and below 500 m depth in  
 155 the North Atlantic basin) remains relatively stable throughout the historical period, with  
 156 a mean index of 24 Sv (blue line in Fig. 1b); the only exception is an anomalously stronger  
 157 overturning circulation in the 1960s when the NAMOC strength increases by about 3  
 158 Sv. The overturning cell becomes progressively weaker throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century, and  
 159 has collapsed (8.6 Sv) by the end of the century (Table S2). The importance of Green-  
 160 land freshwater fluxes for weakening NAMOC is discussed in section 3.3. A comparison  
 161 of the NAMOC evolution in CESM2.1-only simulations (i.e., not including an interac-  
 162 tive GrIS) is made in section 3.4.

163 The climate warming results in a positive GrIS contribution to global mean SLR  
 164 (Figure 1c). The rate of ice mass loss increases from the pre-industrial near-equilibrium  
 165 (0.03 mm SLE yr<sup>-1</sup>) to 0.08 mm SLE yr<sup>-1</sup> during the contemporary period, 0.55 mm  
 166 SLE yr<sup>-1</sup> by mid-century, and 2.68 mm SLE yr<sup>-1</sup> by the end of the century (Table S1).  
 167 Global mean temperature change at the time of mass loss acceleration is approximately  
 168 2.7 K with respect to pre-industrial. The mass evolution is in broad agreement with that  
 169 in the 1% to 4xCO<sub>2</sub> simulations that are performed with CESM2.1-CISM2.1 and CESM2.1-  
 170 only; the processes leading to this acceleration are discussed in further detail in Muntjewerf

et al. (submitted) and Sellevold and Vizcaino (submitted), respectively. At the end of the century, the GrIS area and volume have decreased by 3% and 1.2% relative to the pre-industrial ice sheet, corresponding to a global mean SLR of 109 mm.

The surface mass balance (SMB) is the main contributor to the GrIS mass budget change (Figure 1d, Table S1). By mid-century, the GrIS integrated SMB is still positive ( $350 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$ ), and approximately  $200 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$  less than for the contemporary period ( $564 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$ ). The GrIS integrated SMB becomes negative by year 2077 based on the long-term linear trend. The rate of expansion of ablation areas (areas with average  $\text{SMB} > 0$ ) accelerates with similar timing. By mid-century, the SMB is strongly reduced in southern Greenland (Figure S1). By the end of the century, ablation areas extend far inland around the entire ice sheet, including along the northern periphery. The northern margins later than the southern margins; by end-of-century, northern surface mass loss has intensified and the equilibrium line altitude (the altitude where  $\text{SMB}=0$ ) is much higher. In the interior of the ice sheet, SMB moderately increases due to greater snowfall.

The ice sheet thickness changes in broad agreement with changes in the surface mass balance. Most of the thinning occurs in the south and/or below the 2000-m elevation contour (Figure S1,b-c), and the thickness increases in the ice sheet interior (Figure S1,e-f). Surface velocities increase throughout the 21<sup>st</sup> century in the intermediate areas between the high interior and the ice sheet margins (Figure S1,h-i) due to the increase in surface elevation gradients resulting from SMB-induced thinning at the margins. Conversely, surface velocities at the margin decrease because of ice thinning and marginal retreat. As a result, the ice discharge is reduced by 8% ( $45 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$ ) by mid-century, and by 33% ( $189 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$ ) by the end of the century compared to the contemporary period (Table S1 and Figure S2). This partially compensates the mass loss from reduced SMB ( $214 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$  and  $1129 \text{ Gt yr}^{-1}$  in mid-century and end-of-century, respectively (Table S1)). These simulations do not include explicit ocean forcing of marine-based ice, and therefore outlet glacier acceleration is not simulated (Joughin et al., 2012).

### 3.2 Sea Level Rise Contribution by Drainage Basin

This section presents the mid-century and end-of-century mass balance change for individual drainage basins, with the contemporary mass budget as reference (Figure S3).

202 By mid-century, The mean total GrIS mass budget decreases by 196 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> by mid-  
 203 century (-196 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 2), as a result of an SMB decrease of 38% (215 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
 204 partially compensated by a reduction in ice discharge of about 8% (45 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>). The  
 205 SMB in all six drainage basins decreases but remains positive (Figure S3). Basins with  
 206 the largest SMB reductions are the SW (-66 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) and SE (-80 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>), decreas-  
 207 ing with 79% and 36% compared to their contemporary values, respectively. A relatively  
 208 smaller mid-century decrease in SMB is simulated in the NE basin (29%, -32 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>).  
 209 The SMB changes are smallest in the CW, NW and NO basins. Taken together, the change  
 210 in mass loss in the northern basins (NO, NW, NE) represents about 26% of the total SMB  
 211 reduction (-55 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>). The relative change in contribution of these three basins to to-  
 212 tal GrIS SLR is 25% by mid-century (-43 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>).

213 At the end of the century (right panel in Figure 2), the mean total mass budget  
 214 of the GrIS is reduced by 935 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> compared to the contemporary budget, from a  
 215 -1129 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> reduction in SMB, which is partially (17%) compensated by a 189 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>  
 216 reduction in ice discharge. Similarly, the basal melting increases by 4 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> by the end  
 217 of the century. This term, however, is small compared to the total mass loss, and is thus  
 218 disregarded in the rest of this discussion.

219 The largest end-of-century decrease in the SMB and ice discharge is simulated in  
 220 the SE basin (290 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> and 81 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>), but this basin is the second largest in the  
 221 total Greenland contribution to SLR (right panel in Figure S3). The SW basin is the  
 222 largest contributor to global mean SLR, because the ice discharge decreases less than in  
 223 the SE. Further, the decrease in the SMB is relatively high in the NE basin (-203 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
 224 where it results in a total mass budget decrease of -172 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> (right panel in Figure  
 225 2). The NO and NW basins show similar values of decrease in SMB (-145 and -141 Gt  
 226 yr<sup>-1</sup>), that together with the NE contribute 43% of the total GrIS SMB decrease. The  
 227 relative part of these three basins to total GrIS SLR contribution (for this period 2081-  
 228 2100) is 45%.

### 229   3.3 Freshwater Fluxes

230 The change in total-GrIS freshwater fluxes is comparatively moderate by mid-century,  
 231 with runoff increasing less than 200 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> (from 427 to 619 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>), and some de-  
 232 crease in the solid freshwater flux which consists primarily of ice discharge (from 481 to

430 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 3). By this time, the NAMOC index has already decreased by 6 Sv (Figure 1 and Figure S4), suggesting that freshwater fluxes from Greenland play a comparative minor role for weakening the NAMOC. A similar result is found for a 1% to four-times-CO<sub>2</sub> simulation with the coupled CESM2.1-CISM2.1 ((Muntjewerf et al., submitted); compare time series of freshwater fluxes there with Figure S4).

By end-of-century, runoff has more than tripled relative to the contemporary period (to 1445 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Figure 3). The reduction in ice discharge (to 260 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>), however, results in a total freshwater flux that is only 1.5 times the contemporary flux. Per basin, the SW and SE regions contribute the largest volume to the total runoff during all periods. However, their contribution decreases relatively from 63% (267 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> on a GrIS total of 427 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the contemporary period to 48% (696 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> on a GrIs total of 1445 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the end-of-century period. This is due to an increasing contribution of the northern basins (NW, NE, and NO) from a relative large increase in runoff. They contribute 44% (642 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) of the total-GrIS runoff by end-of-century, as opposed to 29% (129 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) in the contemporary period.

During all periods, the SE region contributes the most in absolute terms to the GrIS ice discharge (Figure 3). Relative to the contemporary discharge, all basins have similar reductions by mid-century (around 10%), however by end-of-century the northern basins have the highest reductions (up to 73% for NO). This higher sensitivity is in agreement with the comparison of the evolution of seven major outlet glaciers from different basins in Muntjewerf et al. (submitted).

### 3.4 Comparison with CESM2 Simulations without Interactive Green-land Ice Sheet

Finally, we compare the SMB and NAMOC responses to the historical ensembles and a suite of scenario simulations that were conducted without an interactive GrIS (CESM2.1). This section does not consider total SLR contribution, as diagnoses of SLR from CESM2.1 would tend to be overestimated because of missing the negative feedback of ice discharge as described in sections 3.1 and 3.2. We consider 11 CESM2.1 ensemble members from the historical period, and the following scenario simulations between 2015-2100: SSP1-2.6 (2 members), SSP2-4.5 (3 members), SSP3-7.0 (2 members), and SSP5-8.5 (2 members), with the scenario details provided by O'Neill et al. (2016).

264 For the SMB, the CESM2.1 simulations show a lower contemporary SMB and a  
 265 lower end-of-century SMB, and a higher SMB sensitivity to warming thann CESM2.1-  
 266 CISM2.1 (Figure 4 and Table S2). The reduction in SMB between the full historical mean  
 267 [1850-2014] and the contemporary mean [1995-2014] is larger in CESM2.1 (-65 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>:  
 268 from 455 to 390 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>) than in CESM2.1-CISM2.1 (-17 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>: from 588 to 571 Gt  
 269 yr<sup>-1</sup>). This difference in response is likely due to the area and volume overestimation  
 270 of the spun-up GrIS (Lofverstrom et al., in review). The contemporary CESM2.1-CISM2.1  
 271 overestimates the SMB (Noël et al., 2018) and simulates higher interannual SMB vari-  
 272 ability than CESM2.1 (80 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> vs. 28 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>), whereas CESM2.1 simulates a re-  
 273 alistic SMB (Noël et al., 2019).

274 For end of century under SSP5-8.5 forcing, the SMB is almost 400 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup> lower  
 275 for CESM2.1 compared with CESM2.1-CISM2.1 (-906 vs -511 Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>). Part of the smaller  
 276 SMB reduction in the CESM2.1-CISM2.1 run is likely because high-melt areas on the  
 277 margin are removed dynamically, whereas they are allowed to remain in the non-evolving  
 278 CESM2.1 simulation. This result is consistent with results of the CESM2.1 versus CESM2.1-  
 279 CISM2.1 comparison for the idealised simulations of 1% per year CO<sub>2</sub> increase to 4x pre-  
 280 industrial (Sellevold & Vizcaino, submitted; Muntjewerf et al., submitted). Regardless  
 281 of these differences in the magnitude of the SMB response, the SMB evolution shows sim-  
 282 ilar timing for both models. The CESM2.1-CISM2.1 response to SSP5-8.5 exceeds the  
 283 CESM2.1 response to less extreme scenarios (e.g., SSP3-7.0).

284 The NAMOC index evolves in a similar fashion in both CESM2.1-CISM2.1 and CESM2.1  
 285 simulations (Figure 4 and Table S2). The peak of the NAMOC strength in the second  
 286 half of the 20th century is simulated by both models.

## 287 4 Discussion and Conclusions

288 The projected GrIS contribution to SLR of 109 mm by 2100 is in general agree-  
 289 ment with pre-AR5 multi-model results (Bindschadler et al., 2013) and the AR5 assess-  
 290 ment (Church et al., 2013). The latter gives a likely range of 70 to 210 mm. Our pro-  
 291 jection also lies within the range of post-AR5 estimates from Fürst et al. (2015); Calov  
 292 et al. (2018) and Golledge et al. (2019), which are of 102 mm [std.dev 32], 46-130 mm,  
 293 and 112 mm, respectively. A lower estimate (58 mm) is given by Vizcaino et al. (2015)  
 294 with a coupled Earth system/ice sheet model of coarse (3.75 degrees) resolution with energy-

295 balance-based melt calculation. A higher range (140-330 mm) is estimated by Aschwanden  
 296 et al. (2019) with an ice sheet model forced with spatially uniform warming.

297 The SSP5-8.5 scenario simulation relates to the idealized 1% simulation (Muntjewerf  
 298 et al., submitted), because the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at the end of the SSP5-  
 299 8.5 reaches the same value as the idealized simulation does in year 140: when quadru-  
 300 pled pre-industrial values are reached (see Table S1 and Figure S4). The last two decades  
 301 of the SSP5-8.5 simulation and the two decades when reaching quadrupled atmospheric  
 302 CO<sub>2</sub> (131-150) have a similar global mean temperature, GrIS ice discharge, and cumu-  
 303 lative contribution to global mean SLR. The mass balance is lower in the SSP5-8.5 as  
 304 a result of a more negative SMB, hence the SSP5-8.5 reaches a higher rate of GrIS con-  
 305 tribution to global mean SLR. Finally, the NAMOC differs with a later start of the weak-  
 306 ening, and more remaining overturning strength by the end of the 21<sup>st</sup> under SSP5-8.5  
 307 forcing.

308 The presented simulations have been one of the first with CESM2.1-CISM2.1 in-  
 309 cluding an interactive Greenland ice sheet. In conclusion, the contribution to sea level  
 310 rise is 23 mm by 2050, with an additional 85 mm by 2100 in the SSP5-8.5-scenario of  
 311 the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Also, we have seen that the contribution from northern basins to sea  
 312 level rise is minor by mid-century, but becomes of similar magnitude as the southern con-  
 313 tribution by the end of the century.

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325        The World Climate Research Program (WGCM) Infrastructure Panel is the offi-  
 326        cial CMIP document home: <https://www.wcrp-climate.org/wgcm-cmip>. The CMIP6  
 327        and ISMIP6 historical and SSP simulations simulations are freely available, and acces-  
 328        sible via the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) data portals <https://esgf.llnl.gov/nodes.html>  
 329        .gov/nodes.html.

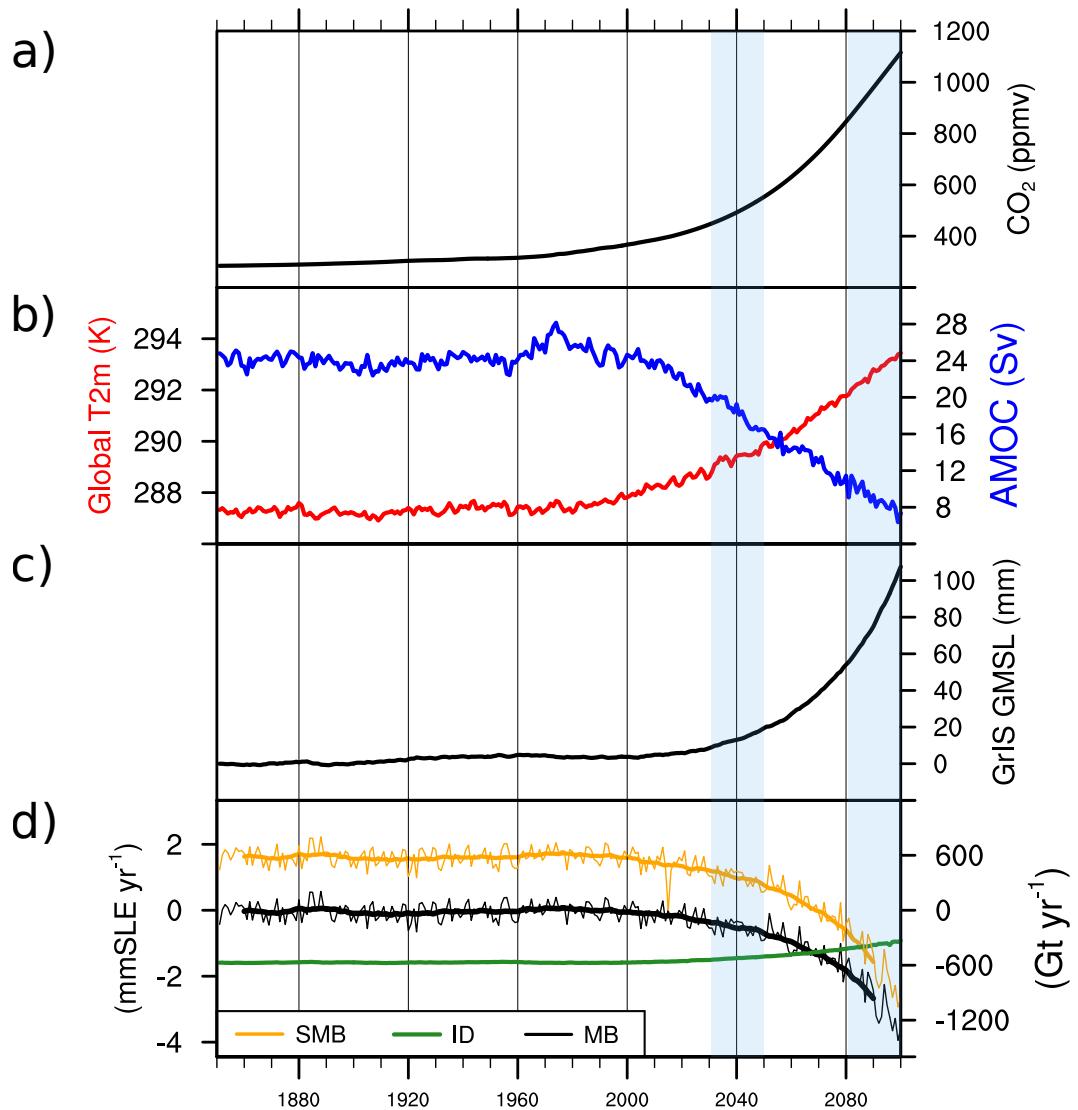
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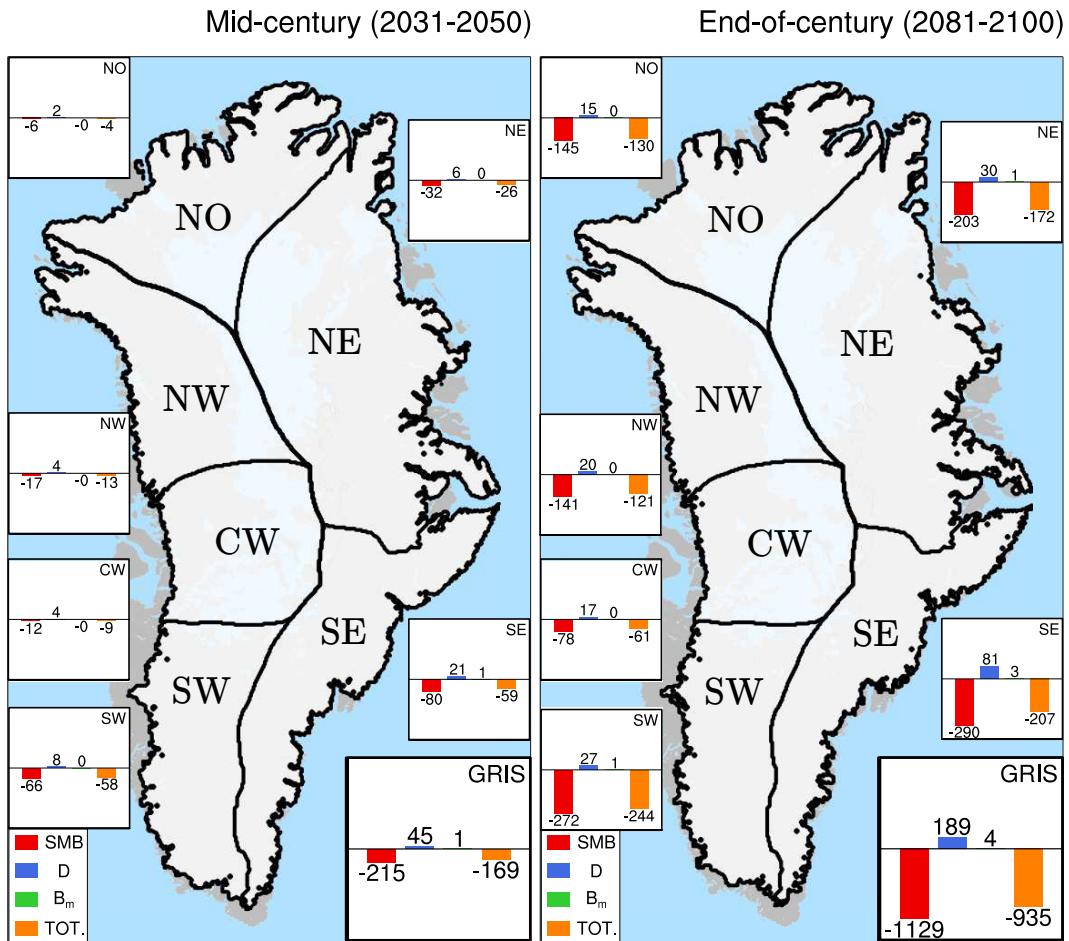
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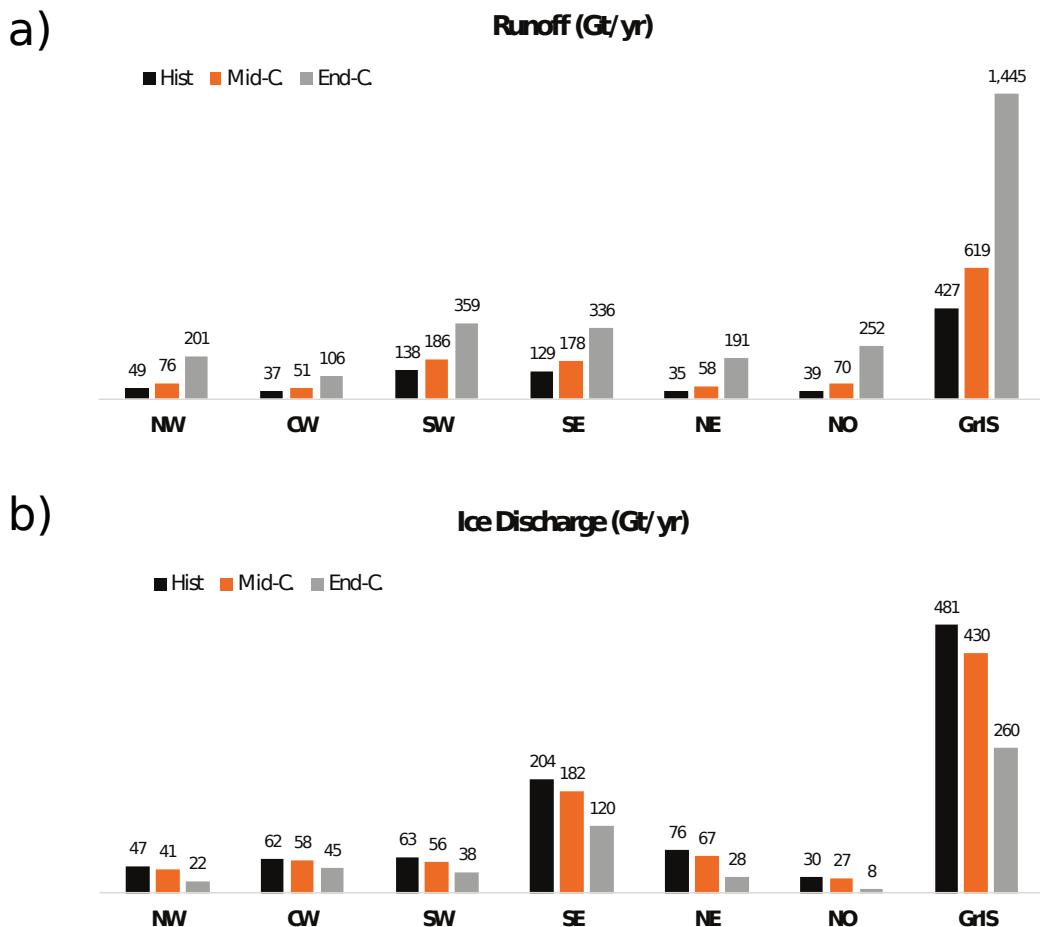
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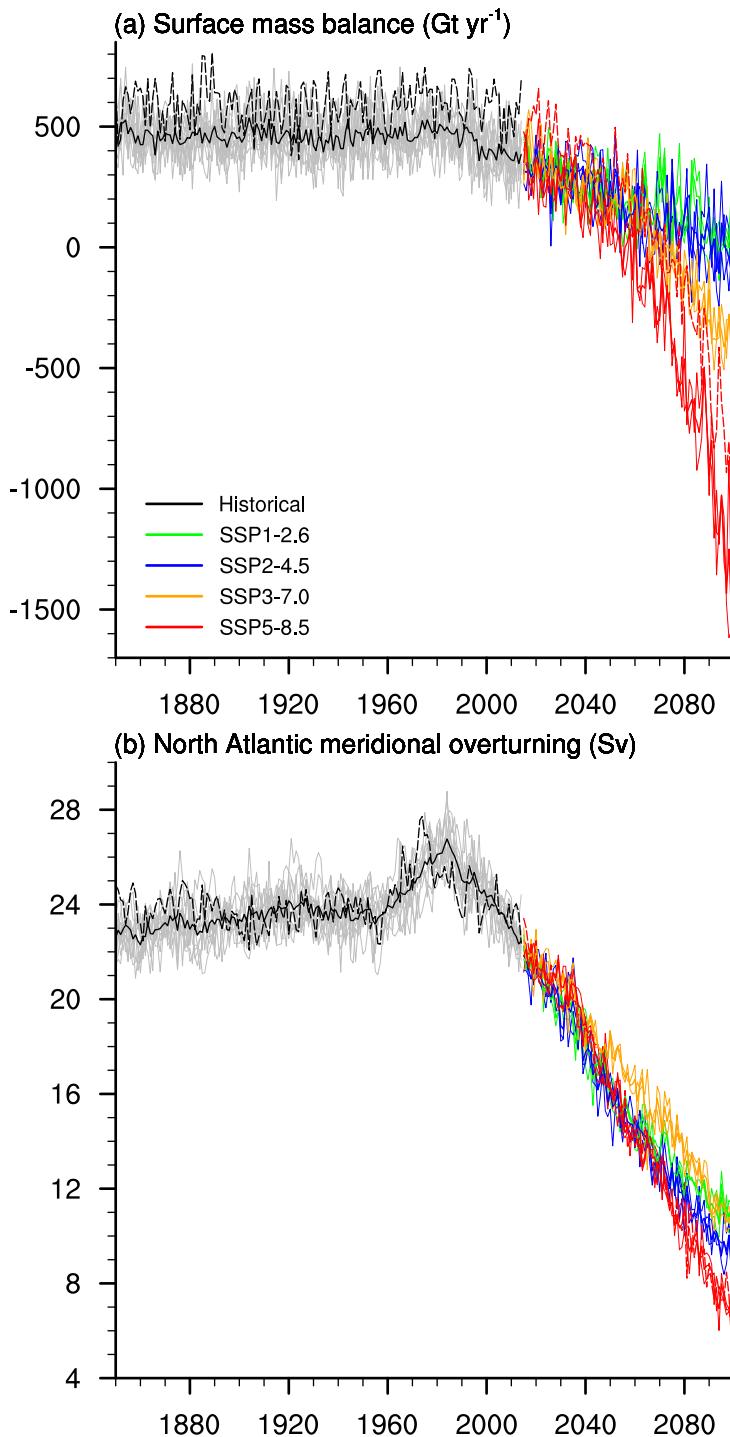
**Figure 1.** 1850-2100 evolution of (a) CO<sub>2</sub> forcing; (b) global mean temperature (K) and AMOC index (Sv); (c) cumulative sea level rise; and (d) Mass Balance (MB) contribution to global mean sea level rise with right axis: Gt yr<sup>-1</sup>, left axis: mm yr<sup>-1</sup>) and components of the mass budget (SMB, Ice Discharge). The shared areas in blue denote the mid-century (2031-2050, left), and end-of-century (2081-2100, right) periods.



**Figure 2.** Change in mass budget (TOT) and components with respect to the contemporary budget (1995-2014) for mid-century (2031-2050, left), and end-of-century (2081-2100, right), in  $\text{Gt yr}^{-1}$ . TOT (Orange)=SMB (Red) + D(Discharge) + B<sub>m</sub> (Basal Melt). Note that discharge is defined as negative.



**Figure 3.** Freshwater flux ( $\text{Gt yr}^{-1}$ ) from (a) Greenland runoff; (b) ice discharge ( $\text{Gt yr}^{-1}$ ) per basin for the contemporary, mid-century and end-of-century periods.



**Figure 4.** Comparison of a) SMB ( $\text{Gt yr}^{-1}$ ) and b) NAMOC index (Sv) evolution for the historical (black, dashed) and SSP5-8.5 (red, dashed) coupled simulations in this paper versus CESM2.1 historical and scenario simulations with a prescribed-surface-elevation, non-dynamical Greenland ice sheet (that is, with non-active CISIM2.1). Thick lines represent scenario-ensemble means.