

1 **Title: Sea Level Trends in South East Asian Seas (SEAS)**

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25 **Abstract**

26 Southeast Asian Seas (SEAS) span the largest archipelago in the global ocean and
27 provide a complex oceanic pathway connecting the Pacific and Indian Oceans. The SEAS
28 regional sea level trends are some of the highest observed in the modern satellite
29 altimeter record that now spans almost two decades. Initial comparisons of global sea
30 level reconstructions find that 17-year sea level trends over the past 60 years exhibit good
31 agreement with decadal variability associated with the Pacific Decadal Oscillation and
32 related fluctuations of trade winds in the region. The SEAS region exhibits sea level
33 trends that vary dramatically over the studied time period. This historical variation
34 suggests that the strong regional sea level trends observed during the modern satellite
35 altimeter record will abate as trade winds fluctuate on decadal and longer time scales.
36 Furthermore, after removing the contribution of the PDO to sea level trends in the past
37 twenty years, the rate of sea level rise is greatly reduced in the SEAS region. As a result
38 of the influence of the PDO, the SEAS regional sea level trends during 2010s and 2020s
39 are likely to be less than the global mean sea level (GMSL) trend if the observed
40 oscillations in wind forcing and sea level persist. Nevertheless, long-term sea level trends
41 in the SEAS will continue to be affected by GMSL rise occurring now and in the future.

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48 **1. Introduction**

49 Sea level is a measurement of considerable interest and importance for the study of
50 climate because it reflects both mass and heat storage changes in the global ocean.
51 Variations in sea level over long time periods provide an important “lens” into the current
52 state of the climate. Over the last century, sea level has been rising at an increasing rate
53 due to the thermal expansion of water associated with the warming ocean and the melting
54 of land ice [e.g. *Church et al.*, 2011]. While the trend in global mean sea level (GMSL) is
55 positive (estimated from satellite altimetry to be 3.2 mm/yr.), the rise of sea level is far
56 from uniform across the globe. Regional sea level changes in most areas of the ocean are
57 strongly affected by spatially varying factors such as ocean warming, ocean dynamic
58 responses, and gravitational and solid earth effects from changing surface mass [e.g.
59 *Slangen et al.*, 2012; *Perrette et al.*, 2013].

60 Attributing the trends in both regional and global sea level to specific processes has
61 important implications for projecting sea level rise in the future. Removing short-term
62 trends, for instance, associated with known climate variability can allow for a better
63 understanding of the underlying warming trend [*Hamlington et al.*, 2011a; 2013; 2014b;
64 *Chambers et al.*, 2012; *Frankcombe, et al.*, 2014]. In some regions, internal climate
65 variability on decadal (or longer) timescales can lead to trends that are significantly larger
66 than the background secular trend. Identifying and explaining signals contributing to
67 regional and global sea level variability and trends has been a frequently studied problem
68 in recent years [e.g. *Bromirski et al.*, 2011; *Chambers et al.*, 2012; *Hamlington et al.*,
69 2011a; 2013; 2014b; *Merrifield et al.*, 2012; *Zhang et al.*, 2012; *Fasullo et al.*, 2013;
70 *Moon et al.* 2013, *Frankcombe, et al.*, 2014].

71 Understanding how low frequency climate variability affects sea level trends (both
72 globally and regionally) is in part hampered by the available observations. Since 1993
73 satellite altimetry has provided accurate measurements of sea surface height (SSH) with
74 near-global coverage. These measurements have led to the first definitive estimates of
75 GMSL rise and have improved our understanding of how sea level is changing regionally
76 on decadal timescales. The relatively short satellite record, however, does little to answer
77 the question of how the current state of the ocean compares to previous states.
78 Furthermore, the short altimeter record is not long enough to separate decadal scale
79 variability from the trend [*Frankcombe et al.*, 2014]. Tide gauges, on the other hand,
80 have measured sea level over the last several hundred years, with some records extending
81 back into the 17th century. While providing long records, the spatial resolution of tide
82 gauges is poor, making studies of GMSL and the large-scale patterns of low-frequency
83 ocean variability difficult. To overcome these challenges and to make accurate
84 comparisons between climate variations over different time periods, a long and consistent
85 data record is necessary. Through the incorporation of historical measurements,
86 reconstruction techniques have been developed and used to overcome the challenges
87 posed by short modern observational records [*Smith et al.*, 1996; *Smith and Reynolds*,
88 2004; *Chambers et al.*, 2002; *Church et al.*, 2004; *Hamlington et al.*, 2011b; 2012;
89 2014a; *Meysignac et al.*, 2012]. By combining the dense spatial coverage of satellite
90 altimetry with the long record length of the tide gauges in a sea level reconstruction, it is
91 possible to create a dataset with the temporal length of the tide gauge record and the
92 spatial coverage of the satellite altimetry. This allows for an examination of longer
93 timescale climate signals and the chance to assess their contribution to sea level trends

94 both regionally and globally. Furthermore, it is possible to determine whether the current
95 rate and spatial pattern of sea level change are exceptional or instead are simply a
96 recurrence of multi-decadal climate oscillations [e.g. *Meysignac et al.*, 2012;
97 *Hamlington et al.*, 2014b].

98 Here, we focus on an area of the ocean particularly affected by rising sea level in the
99 past two decades. The Southeast Asian Seas (SEAS) region spans the largest archipelago
100 in the global ocean and is comprised of a total of 20 seas according to the *Limits of the*
101 *Ocean and Seas* published by the International Hydrographic Organization (IHO) in 1953
102 (IHO, 1953). Figure 1 shows the regional seas, straits, and gulfs as defined by the IHO
103 and delineated by a high-resolution coastline data set [*Fourcy and Lorvelec*, 2013]. The
104 region has many low-lying and densely populated coastal areas including large urban and
105 rural river deltas and thousands of small-inhabited islands. The Indonesian archipelago
106 alone consists of 17,508 islands (6,000 inhabited) and encompasses the only tropical
107 interoceanic through flow in the global ocean, providing a complex oceanic pathway
108 connecting the Pacific and Indian Oceans. The Indonesian throughflow, and thus sea
109 level, is driven primarily by free equatorial Kelvin and Rossby waves originating along
110 the Indian and Pacific equatorial waveguides [*Wijffels and Meyers*, 2004].

111 In the past two decades the SEAS region has experienced rising sea levels at rates
112 more than double the global mean. Given the low-lying and densely populated coastal
113 areas, there is great concern regarding whether the trends observed in the past two
114 decades will persist into the coming decades. In this study, we examine the sea level
115 trends in the SEAS region over the past sixty years, and extend recent studies on sea level
116 in the Pacific Ocean [e.g. *Meysignac et al.*, 2012; *Merrifield et al.*, 2012; *Hamlington et*

117 *al.*, 2013; 2014b] to assess the direction of sea level variability in the near future. Our
118 goal is to understand if the trends observed in the SEAS region by satellite altimeters are
119 exceptional or have similarly occurred in the past, and if the trend pattern in the region is
120 driven by decadal variability, what should be expected with regards to sea level rise in the
121 future. To do this, we will use two different sea level reconstructions coupled with the
122 satellite altimetry data. Using the definition of the SEAS provided by the IHO, we also
123 estimate the trend in each individual sea and discuss the effect of decadal climate
124 variability on trends in the SEAS region. This study has important implications for the
125 coastal populations in the SEAS region, providing the opportunity to gain a better
126 understanding of future sea levels in perhaps the area on Earth most gravely affected by
127 recent sea level rise.

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129 **2. Data and Methods**

130 To study the historical sea level trends in the SEAS region, two different
131 reconstructions are used. Sea level reconstructions are created by decomposing training
132 data (provided by satellite altimeters in this case) into basis functions. These basis
133 functions are then fit to *in situ* tide gauge measurements back through time to create a
134 dataset with the spatial coverage of the satellite altimetry and record length of the tide
135 gauges. The two reconstructions used here differ primarily in the selection of basis
136 function decomposition methods. The first reconstruction of *Church and White et al.*
137 [2004; 2006; 2011; referred to as the reconstruction of CW, hereafter] uses empirical
138 orthogonal functions (EOFs). EOF basis functions were first used in reconstructions of
139 sea surface temperature [*e.g. Smith et al.* 1996] and sea level pressure [*e.g. Kaplan et al.*

140 2000], and have been extended for use in sea level reconstructions [e.g. *Chambers et al.*,
141 2002]. The second sea level reconstruction considered here uses cyclostationary
142 empirical orthogonal functions (CSEOFs) as basis functions [*Hamlington et al.*, 2011;
143 2012; referred to as the reconstruction of HLK (*Hamlington, Leben, Kim*), hereafter].
144 Like EOFs, CSEOF analysis decomposes the training data set (provided in this case by
145 satellite altimetry measurements) into loading vectors (LVs) and principal component
146 time series (PCTS) for each individual mode. CSEOFs differ from EOFs, however, in
147 that they include time dependence in the LVs, allowing extraction of periodic or
148 cyclostationary signals [see for example, *Kim et al.*, 1996; 1997]. A recent study
149 examined the reconstruction of sea level using EOFs and CSEOFs in an idealized setting,
150 and found the CSEOF reconstruction provided many advantages when attempting to
151 capture the effect of internal climate variability on sea level [*Strassburg et al.*, 2014]. By
152 using the satellite altimetry dataset as “truth”, the ability to reconstruct regional
153 variability given the distribution of tide gauges at different times in the past was tested. In
154 each of the 17 cases tested, the CSEOF-based reconstruction outperformed the EOF-
155 based reconstruction in the ability to accurately represent regional sea level. Based on the
156 results of this prior study and for the purposes of this paper, the HLK reconstruction is
157 considered to be the primary dataset for the historical trend analysis, with the CW
158 reconstruction serving as a comparison.

159 Once the training data is decomposed using either EOF or CSEOF analysis, a number
160 of modes are selected, explaining a subset of variance in the original training dataset, and
161 fit to the tide gauge measurements back through time to create the reconstructed sea level
162 dataset. The CW reconstruction uses 1°x1° monthly sea surface height anomaly (SSHA)

163 maps derived from TOPEX/Poseidon, Jason-1 and Jason-2 10-day repeat altimetry data.
164 The HLK reconstruction uses the satellite altimeter data product produced and distributed
165 by the Archiving, Validation, and Interpretation of Satellite Oceanographic (AVISO;
166 <http://www.aviso.oceanobs.com/>) as part of the Ssalto ground-processing segment. The
167 data set has quarter-degree resolution and was created from measurements spanning 1992
168 through present using the following satellites: TOPEX/Poseidon, ERS-1&2, Geosat
169 Follow-On, Envisat, Jason-1, and OSTM. These sea level measurements were updated
170 and reprocessed by applying homogeneous corrections and inter-calibrations and
171 referenced to a consistent mean. Then, the along-track data were gridded through a global
172 space-time objective mapping technique. In this paper, the AVISO data are also used as a
173 direct comparison to the reconstructions during the past two decades.

174 The two reconstructions also differ in how global mean sea level (GMSL) is
175 accounted for. The CW reconstruction introduces an “EOF0”, a spatially constant mode
176 that captures the mean of the tide gauges through time. *Calafat et al.* [2014] studied the
177 use of this constant EOF mode and its effect on the GMSL in the resultant reconstruction.
178 Although the inclusion of EOF0 was found to have a negative effect on the ability to
179 explain the impact of internal climate variability on GMSL, the regional trends are not
180 necessarily similarly negatively affected, making the use of the CW reconstruction
181 suitable for the purposes of this study. Regardless, this computational difference should
182 be kept in mind when comparing trends from the two datasets. The HLK reconstruction
183 does not use a constant basis function, instead relying on a weighted average of the tide
184 gauges that is added after the fitting of the CSEOF modes to the historical tide gauge

185 measurements. Through this procedure, information regarding the contribution of internal
186 climate variability to GMSL is preserved in the reconstruction.

187 For historical data, both of the two reconstructions considered here use tide gauge
188 data from the Permanent Service for Mean Sea Level (PSMSL; <http://www.psmsl.org>).
189 PSMSL supplies a wide range of tide gauge data, but availability depends highly on the
190 region and timeframe in question. Each reconstruction uses different tide gauge editing
191 and selection criteria depending on time-series length, data gaps, area weighting, etc.
192 These will not be discussed in this report but can be found in the respective references for
193 each of the reconstructions. To establish a common time period for comparison, only the
194 reconstruction data available from 1950 to 2009 is used in this analysis. For any
195 additional details on the generation of the two reconstructed sea level datasets, the reader
196 is directed to the references [EOF reconstruction – *Church and White et al.* 2004; 2006;
197 CSEOF reconstruction – *Hamlington et al.* 2011; 2012], which provide a more complete
198 description of the computational methods and selection choices that were involved.

199 **3. Results**

200 Before analyzing the trend variability in the SEAS region, the ability of the HLK
201 reconstruction to accurately represent sea level variability in the SEAS region is
202 evaluated. Fig. 2 shows the correlation between the AVISO satellite altimetry data (trend
203 and seasonal signal removed) and HLK reconstruction (trend removed) averaged over
204 each of the individual SEAS. In general, the correlations are high with statistical
205 significance at the 90% or higher confidence level for all but three SEAS. The
206 northwestern SEAS have lower correlations suggesting lower confidence should be given
207 to the trend results in the relevant SEAS. To investigate this further and as an additional

208 test, the HLK reconstruction is compared to the tide gauge records in the region (Fig. 3).
209 Correlations between the tide gauge records and reconstruction are shown by the color of
210 each marker, while the available record length of the tide gauge is provided by the size of
211 the marker (largest markers represent tide gauges with most complete records over the
212 time period from 1950 to 2009). Similar to the comparison with the altimetry, the
213 agreement is good outside of the northwestern portion of the SEAS region. Examining
214 the tide gauge records in this region, the tide gauge at Ko Lak, Thailand exhibits a sharp
215 increase in trend after 2000. From 1950 to 2000, the sea level trend at this record has a
216 negative trend. Without having a physical explanation of the sharp increase, it is likely
217 that this gauge should have been left out of the reconstruction procedure, as it appears to
218 have negatively impacted the results in this region. This highlights the care that must be
219 taken when reconstructing sea level in regions with few tide gauge records – a single
220 record has the potential to negatively affect the reconstruction in such regions. As will be
221 shown below, however, the 20-year trends in these regions show good agreement with
222 satellite altimetry, and poor agreement with regards to the internal variability in these
223 northwestern regions do not detract from the discussion in this paper regarding the wider
224 SEAS area. In short, from these two tests (Figs. 2 and 3), the HLK reconstruction appears
225 to be sufficiently accurate to study the trend variability from 1950 to 2009 in the SEAS
226 region.

227 While the sea level trends in the SEAS region have been large in the past two
228 decades, a more pressing topic is whether the regional sea level trends will be similarly
229 high in the coming decades. Projecting future regional sea level rise is a challenging task
230 that requires expertise across a wide range of disciplines, and a broad understanding of

231 the Earth system. One way to gain an understanding of possible future directions and
232 ranges of sea level is to study changes on similar timescales in the past. As discussed
233 above, sea level reconstructions extend the satellite altimetry record of sea level back in
234 time, providing the opportunity to study the influence of low frequency variability on sea
235 level trends. To highlight the trend variability at the time scales observed over the current
236 altimetric record, both reconstructed sea level datasets (CW and HLK) were first annually
237 averaged over the 1950 to 2009 record. 17-year regional trend maps were computed with
238 a least-square estimate of the trend from the sea level reconstruction dataset. While recent
239 studies have shown that serial correlation can affect the trend analysis of sea level [*e.g.*
240 *Dangendorf et al.*, 2014], accounting for such correlation is beyond the scope of the
241 present study and will not be considered. In *Meysignac et al.* [2012], the question was
242 asked whether the pattern of sea level trends observed during the satellite altimeter era
243 had similarly occurred in the past 60 years. This was further explored in *Hamlington et*
244 *al.* [2013] by correlating the AVISO trend map with roughly 20-year trend maps from the
245 sea level reconstructions extending back to 1950. Both studies – *Meysignac et al.* [2012]
246 and *Hamlington et al.* [2013] - showed extrema centered in roughly 1967, 1977 and 1999,
247 implying a trend pattern like that observed by satellite altimetry has existed in the past.
248 These previous studies have important implications for the understanding of the sea level
249 trends in the SEAS, highlighting the decadal variability that affects sea level in the
250 region. Motivated by these results to explore the topic further, here we focus on the three
251 independent 17-year sea level trend patterns from the sea level reconstructions centered
252 on the years of 1967, 1984, and 2001.

253 Sea level trends in the SEAS region are some of the largest observed in the modern
254 satellite altimeter record covering the past two decades. Regional sea level trends over the
255 17-year satellite altimeter record 1993 through 2009 are shown in Figure 4 for the
256 AVISO data set and each of the sea level reconstructions during the training data set time
257 period. Reconstructed sea level average trends in the SEAS agree with the AVISO values
258 to within the estimated error, with the two reconstructions also showing good agreement
259 over the entire region. Trends in the region over this time period are strictly positive and
260 approach values greater than 1 cm/year in some areas. Trend values in the southeastern
261 part of the SEAS region have been particularly high in the past two decades. To
262 determine how the recent sea level trends compare to the past, sea level trends from 1959
263 to 1975 are computed (Fig. 5). As in the past two decades, the sea level trend in each of
264 the seas in the region is positive, with the highest trends found in the southeastern part of
265 the SEAS region. In general, the two reconstructions agree although some discrepancy is
266 seen in the northwestern region of the SEAS, possibly a result of differing tide gauge
267 selection between the two reconstructions. As seen in Fig. 2, the agreement between the
268 HLK sea level reconstruction and the satellite altimetry data in these same northwestern
269 SEAS is not strong. Coupled with the disagreeing trend analysis here, there is an
270 indication that reconstructing sea level in the northwestern region is difficult given the
271 available tide gauges. Finally, the sea level trend pattern in the SEAS from 1976 to 1992
272 is computed from both reconstructions (Fig. 6). In contrast to the other two time periods,
273 the sea level trends are much lower throughout the region, with the range of sea level
274 trends in some areas becoming negative. Again, the two reconstructions agree to within
275 the estimated error.

276 By comparing the 17-year sea level trend patterns from the past 50 years, the decadal-
277 scale variability of sea level change in the SEAS region becomes evident. In Figure 7,
278 using only the HLK reconstruction, the trends for each sea over the three independent
279 time periods are presented to highlight this variability. The similarity between trends for
280 the time periods centered on 1967 and 2001 is clear, as are the significantly lower trends
281 estimated for the 17-year window centered on 1984. The question remains, what is
282 driving these changes in the SEAS sea level trends and, more generally, the western
283 Pacific sea level trends? *Merrifield et al.* [2012] showed that, when detrended by GMSL,
284 the western Pacific sea level is correlated with the low-frequency variability of the
285 Pacific Decadal Oscillation (PDO) and the Southern Oscillation Index (SOI). This sea
286 level signal is driven by anomalous decadal wind variability over the equatorial Pacific
287 and propagates along the Rossby waveguide through the SEAS archipelago reaching as
288 far south as Fremantle on the western Australian coast.

289 Similarly, *Hamlington et al.* [2013; 2014b] discussed the influence of the PDO on
290 both global and regional sea level trends, demonstrating that changes in the PDO have a
291 significant impact on sea level trends in the tropical Pacific. Computing 17-year trends of
292 the PDO index [*Mantua et al.*, 2002], extrema are found centered roughly on the years of
293 1965, 1980, and 1997, corresponding closely to the centers of the three windows
294 considered here. In light of the aforementioned previous studies and the analysis shown
295 here, it is clear that there is a strong relationship between sea level trends in the SEAS
296 region and decadal scale climate variability. *Hamlington et al.* [2014b] extended the
297 study of *Hamlington et al.* [2013] and estimated the contribution of the PDO to regional
298 sea level trends measured over the past twenty-years in the Pacific Ocean. Using a similar

299 technique, here we estimate and subsequently remove the trends associated with the PDO
300 in the SEAS region. First, twenty-year regional trend maps were computed with a least-
301 square estimate of the trend from the sea level reconstruction dataset. Trend maps were
302 computed starting in 1960 (using data from 1950 to 1970), and then advancing one year
303 at a time to end up with 41 total trend maps. Empirical orthogonal functions (EOF) of the
304 twenty-year trend maps from the sea level reconstruction were then computed. The
305 variance explained by the trend patterns of the first three EOFs was found to be 41%,
306 30%, and 13%, respectively, with a total of 84% variance in these first three modes.

307 The question was then asked whether any of these EOF modes could be attributed to
308 specific climate signals? To evaluate whether any of the modes are related to the PDO
309 and by extension whether changes in the PDO affect the trends in global mean sea level,
310 a twenty-year running trend is calculated for the PDO index, which is derived from sea
311 surface temperature patterns in the north Pacific. In addition to the agreement of the
312 spatial patterns of the first mode and the PDO in the north Pacific, the strong relationship
313 between the two is demonstrated by a correlation of 0.96 between the twenty-year PDO
314 trends and EOF mode 1 of the twenty-year trends from the reconstructed sea level
315 dataset. In other words, the first EOF mode from the decomposition of the twenty-year
316 trends in the sea level reconstruction appears to be closely linked to the PDO, both in
317 terms of its spatial pattern and temporal variability over the past sixty years. The
318 contribution of this first EOF mode to regional trends during the satellite altimetry time
319 period (the last twenty years) was evaluated and used in this study.

320 Fig. 9A shows the AVISO measured sea level trends, while Fig. 9B shows an
321 estimate of the portion of these trends that are attributable to the PDO, obtained from the

322 procedure outlined above. The trends associated with the PDO are positive across the
323 entire region, and removing the PDO contribution from the AVISO trends results in
324 significantly reduced sea level trends in the SEAS region (Fig. 9C). While the presence of
325 other internal climate variability can not be ruled out, the difference between the AVISO
326 trends and the PDO-related trends provides an improved understanding of the long-term
327 sea level trends that may persist into the future independent of fluctuations caused by
328 natural occurring cycles.

329 **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

330 This study focuses on a region of the globe that has been significantly impacted
331 by rising sea levels in the past two decades. Whether sea level trends will be similarly
332 high in the coming decades is an important question with significant societal and
333 economic implications for the SEAS region. While projecting future sea level is an
334 expansive problem involving a wide range of disciplines, an understanding of future sea
335 level can be gained by looking at the past. Sea level reconstructions provide a useful tool
336 for understanding sea level changes in the past, present and future by extending the short
337 satellite altimetry record back in time with the help of tide gauges.

338 Here, we have used two sea level reconstructions created using two different
339 techniques to study the sea level trends in the SEAS. The two reconstructions agree
340 reasonably well with the satellite altimetry and tide gauge data in the region, although
341 some disagreement is found in the northwestern part of the region, likely resulting from
342 poor tide gauge coverage and quality upon which to base the reconstruction. The
343 reconstructions also agree well for the three 17-year windows considered (centered on
344 1967, 1984 and 2001), and exhibit decadal-scale fluctuations in the sea level trends in the

345 SEAS region over the past 60 years. In light of this study and other recent studies [*e.g.*
346 *Merrifield et al.*, 2012; *Hamlington et al.*, 2013], it is likely that the recent strong sea
347 level trends observed during the altimetry record will abate as trade winds fluctuate on
348 decadal timescales as the PDO undergoes a shift in phase. This suggests that SEAS
349 regional sea level trends during the 2010s and 2020s are likely to be significantly lower
350 than trends observed in the past 20 years, similar to the smaller sea level trends observed
351 during the 1976 to 1992 time period relative to GMSL. While the trends can be expected
352 to be lower in the coming decades the long-term sea level trends in the SEAS region will
353 continue to be affected by GMSL rise occurring now and in the future. The sea level
354 trends from both reconstructions over the full time period from 1950 to 2009 are positive
355 for the entire SEAS region (Fig. 8). This underlying trend will be expected to persist (Fig.
356 9), increasing the impact of decadal-scale fluctuations of sea level trends. In other words,
357 in the future when the large positive sea level trends in the SEAS observed during the
358 satellite altimeter era return to the region, the impact can be expected to be much more
359 severe due to the higher seas upon which the decadal variability is occurring. Studies
360 such as this one serve to highlight the importance of understanding and estimating the
361 contribution of naturally occurring periodic variability to sea level trends while
362 maintaining the context of underlying long-term sea level rise that will persist now and in
363 the future.

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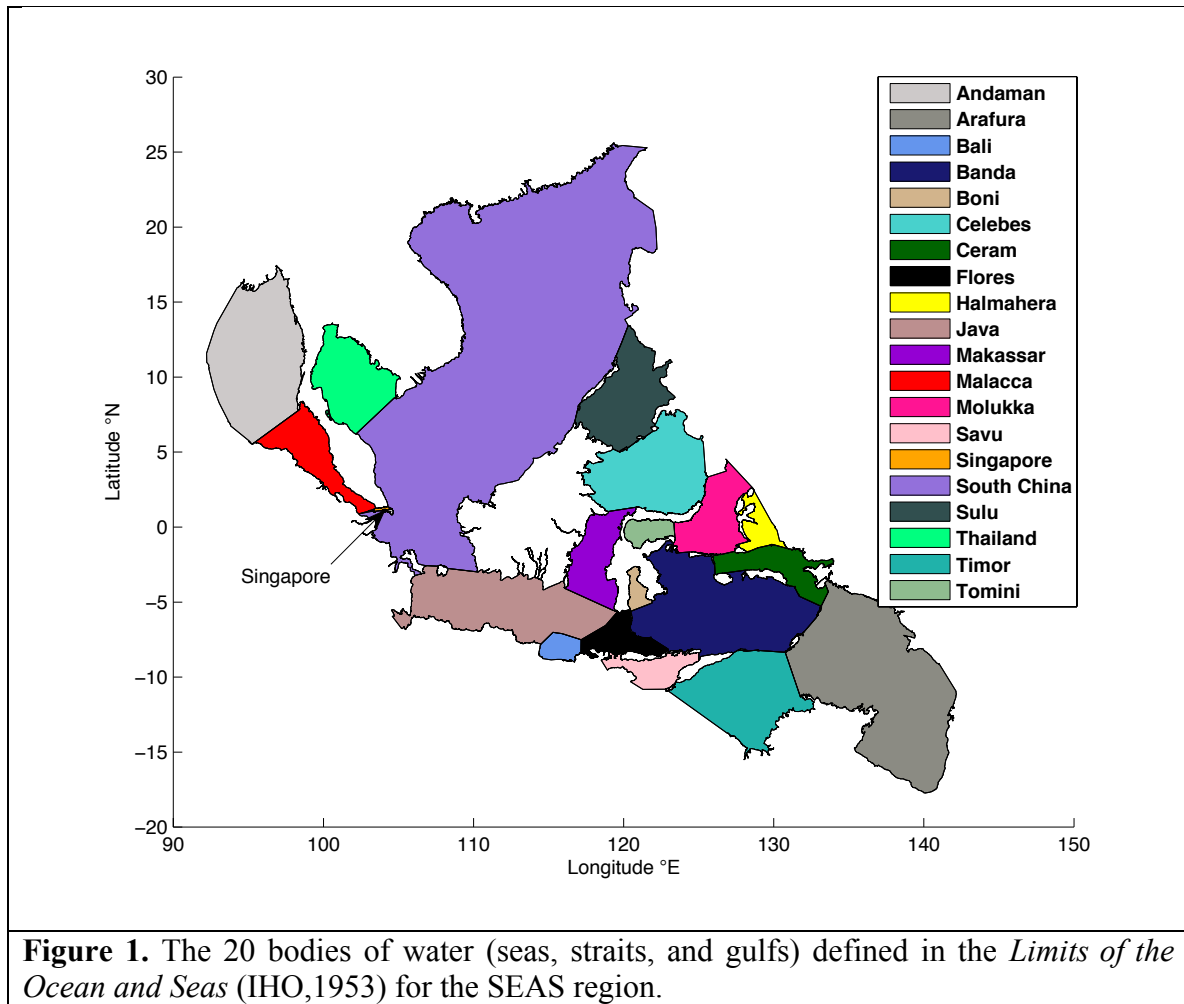


Figure 1. The 20 bodies of water (seas, straits, and gulfs) defined in the *Limits of the Ocean and Seas* (IHO,1953) for the SEAS region.

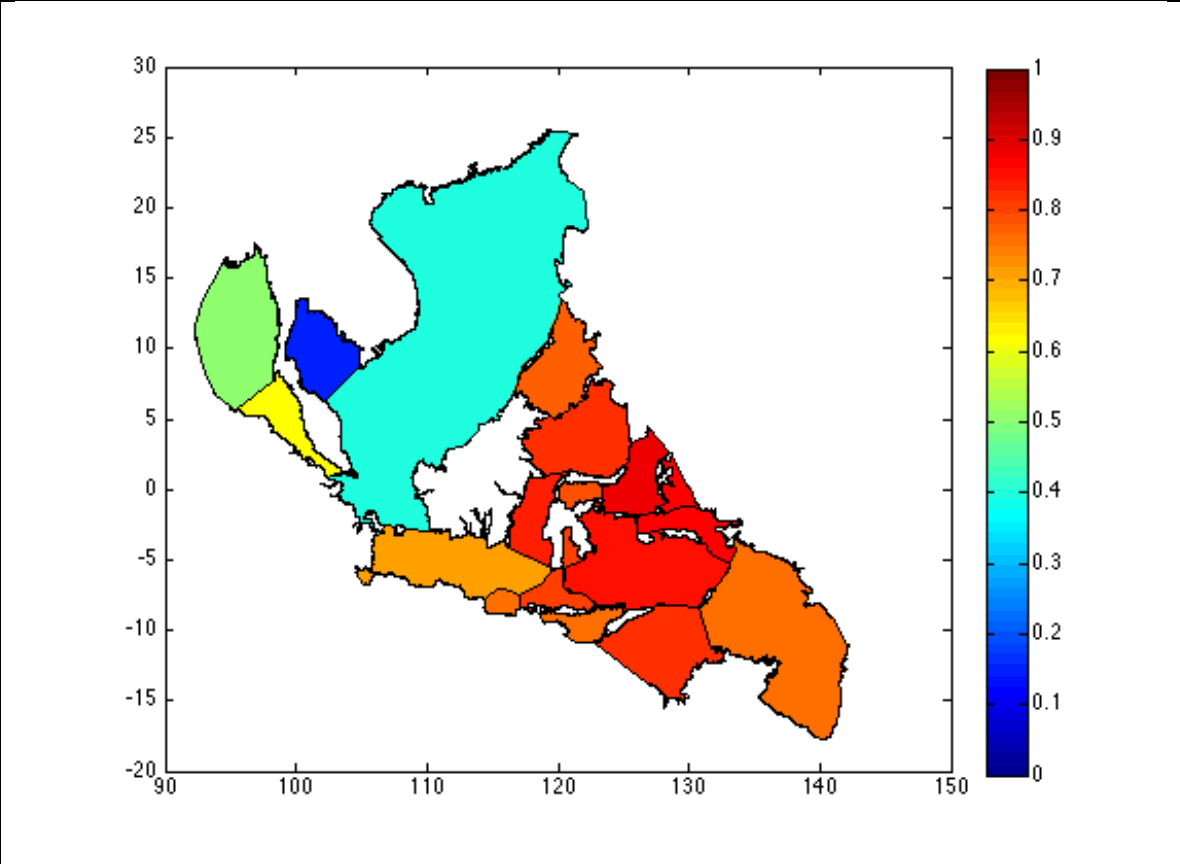


Figure 2. Correlation (averaged over each SEAS) between the HLK reconstruction and AVISO satellite altimetry data from 1993 to 2010.

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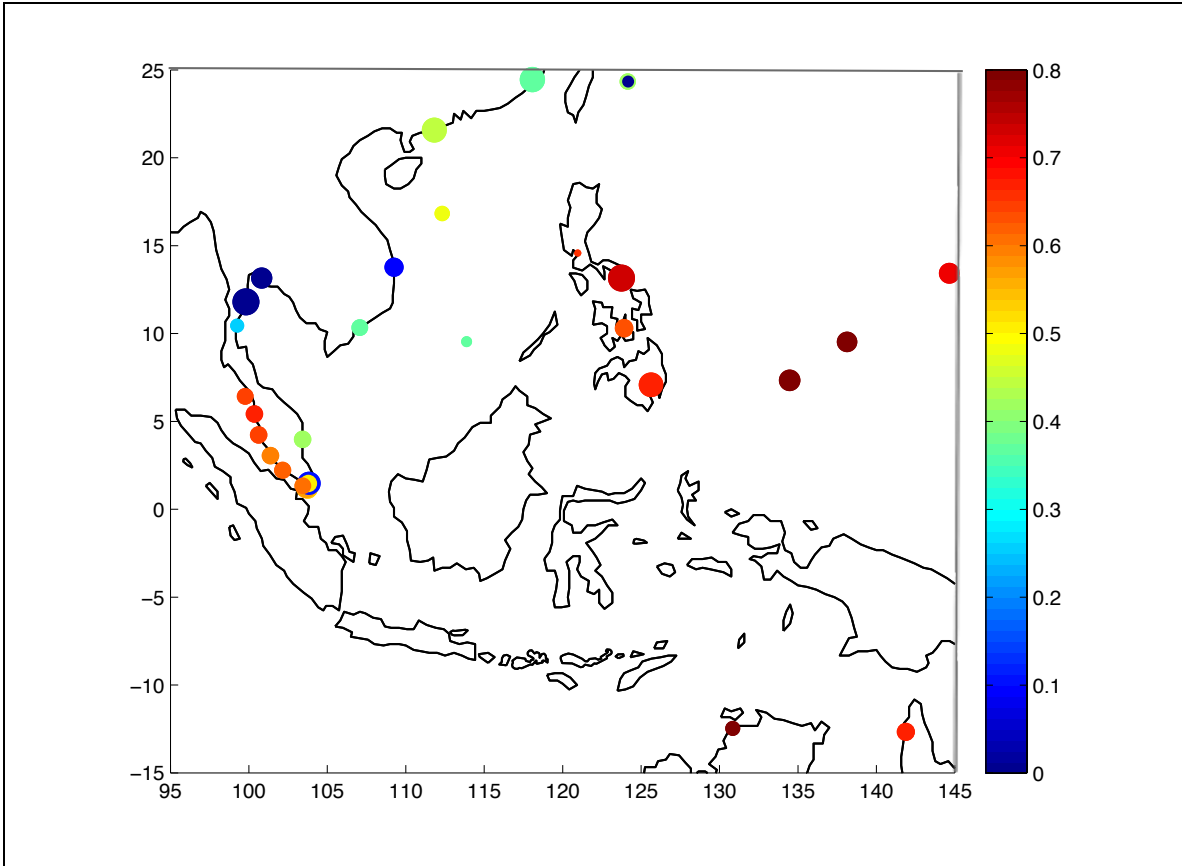
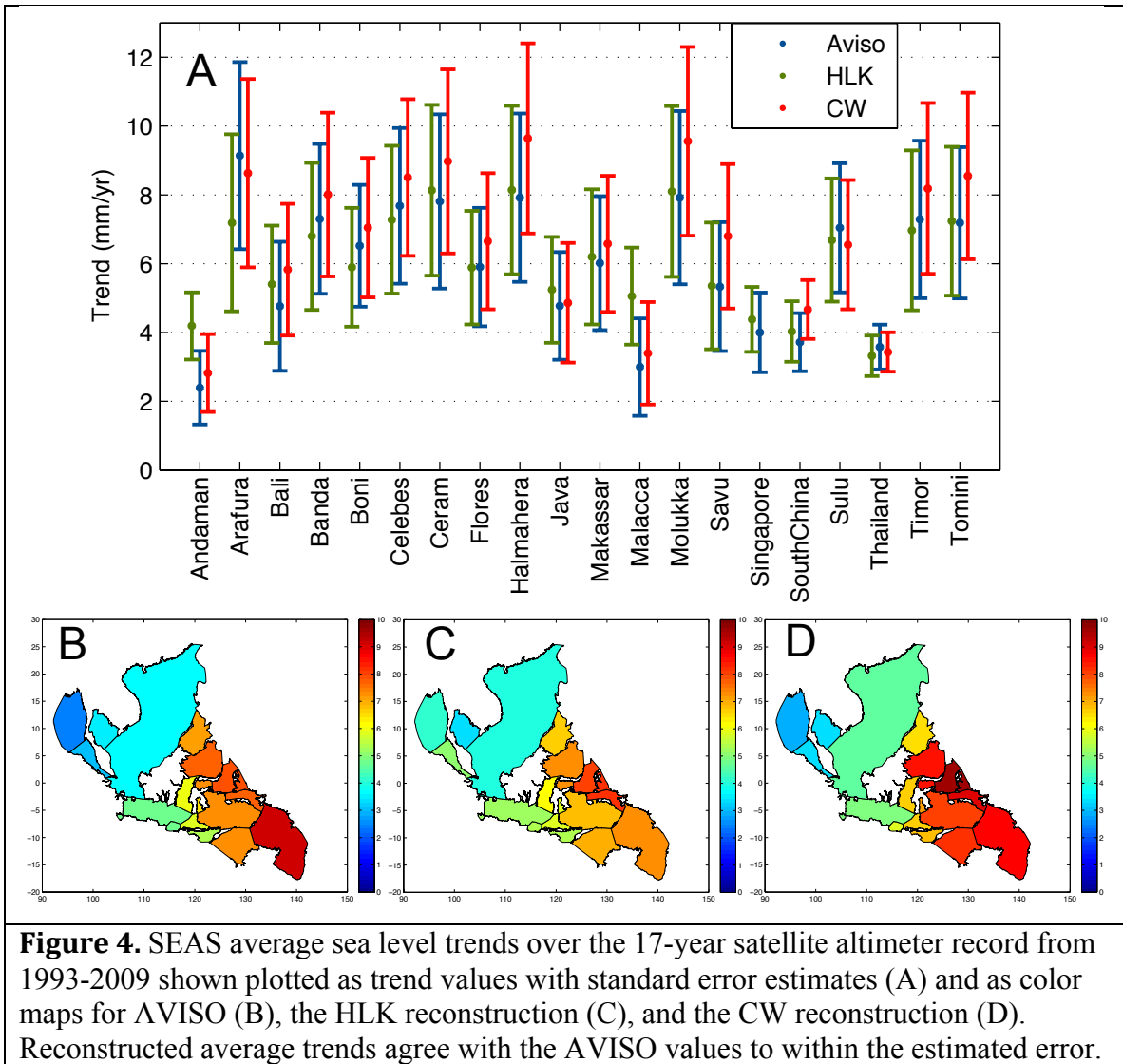
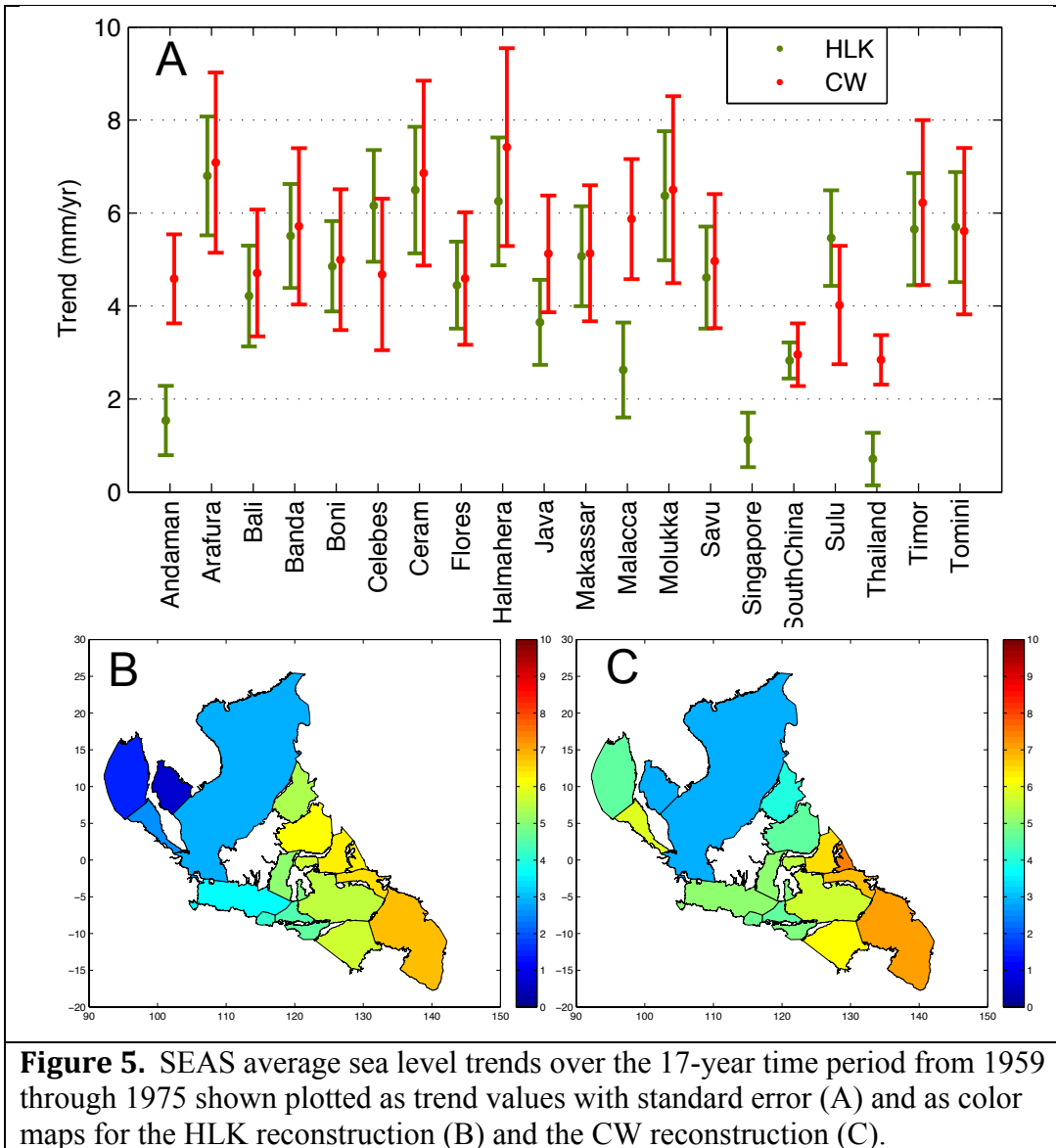


Figure 3. Comparison between the HLK reconstruction and the tide gauge data. Each circle represents a tide gauge used in the reconstruction. The color of each point represents the correlation between the reconstruction and tide gauge, while the size of the circle represents the length of the record available for comparison (largest circles relate to records that span the full time period from 1950 to 2010).

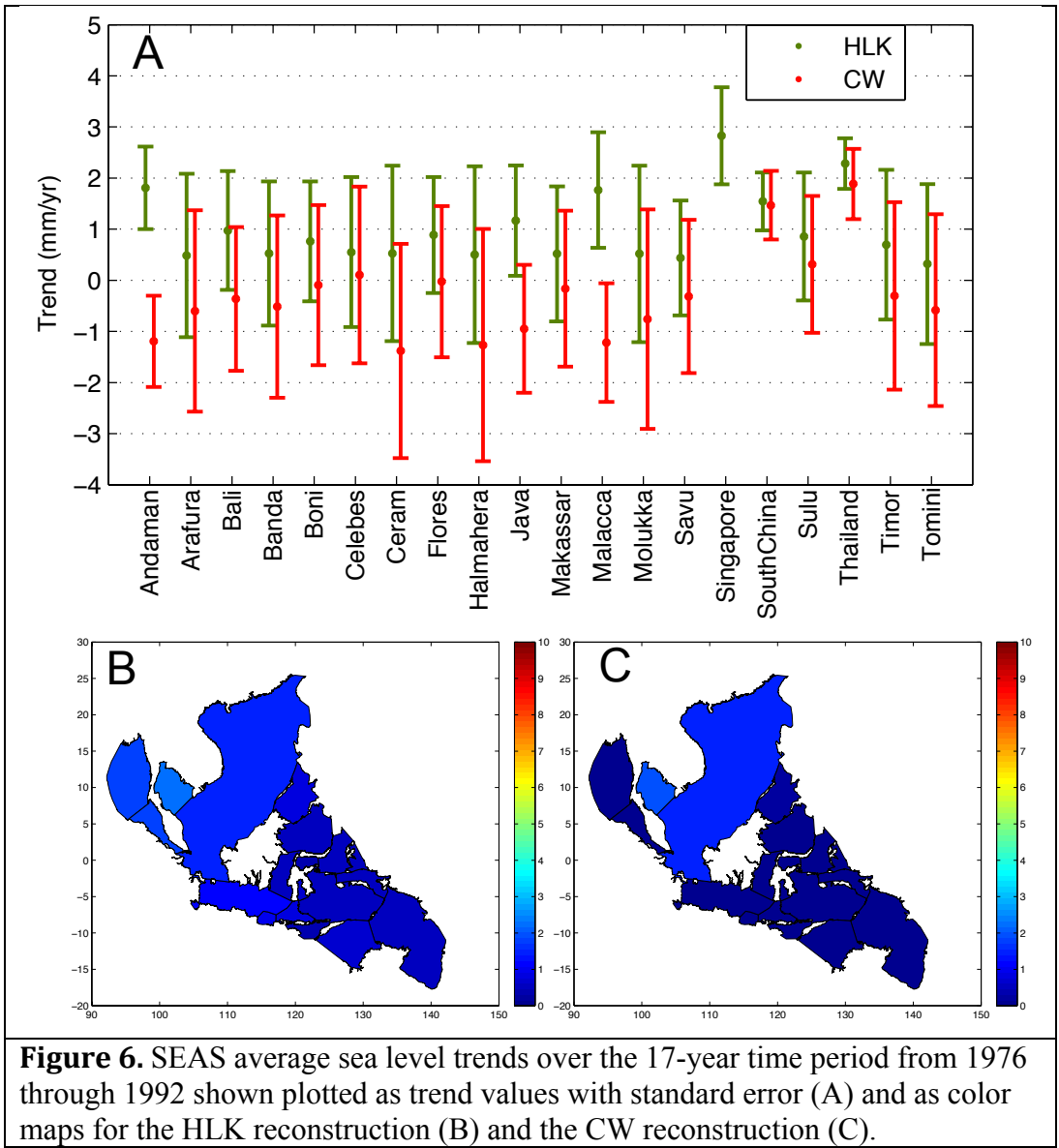
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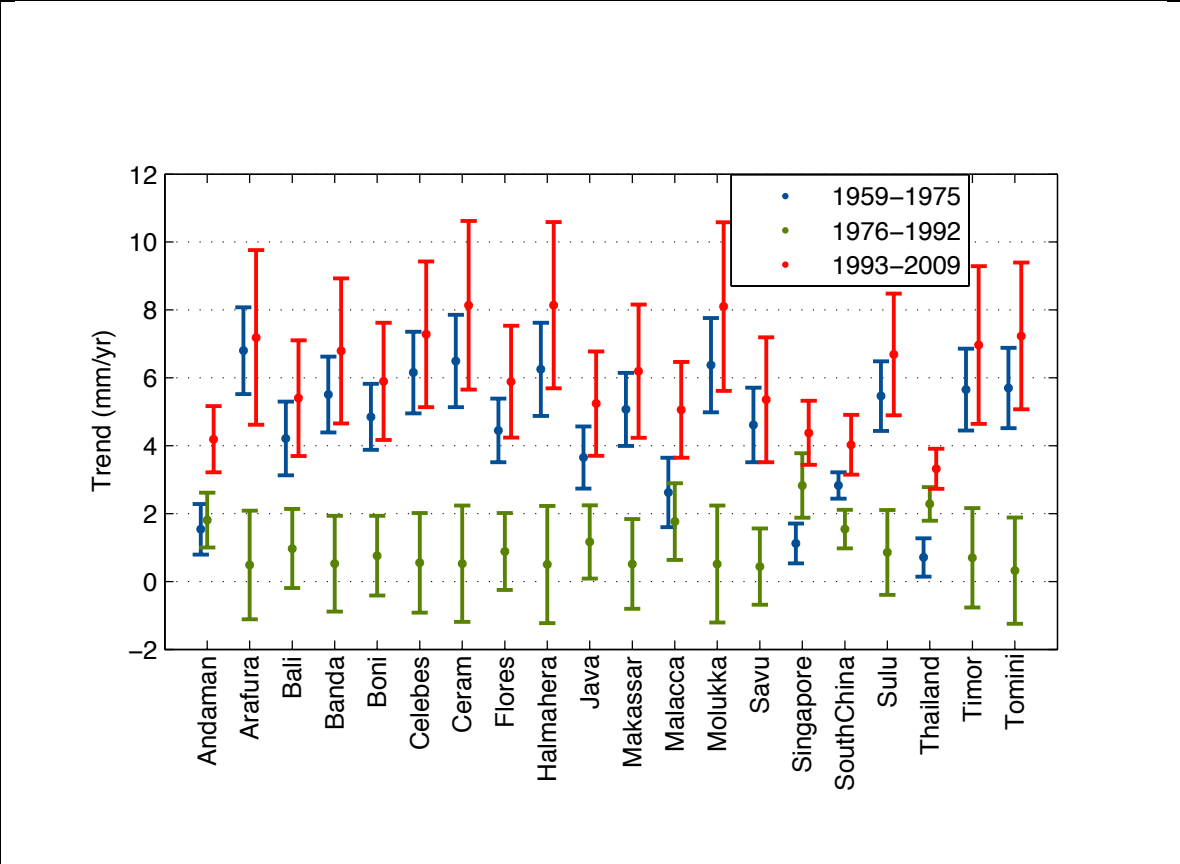
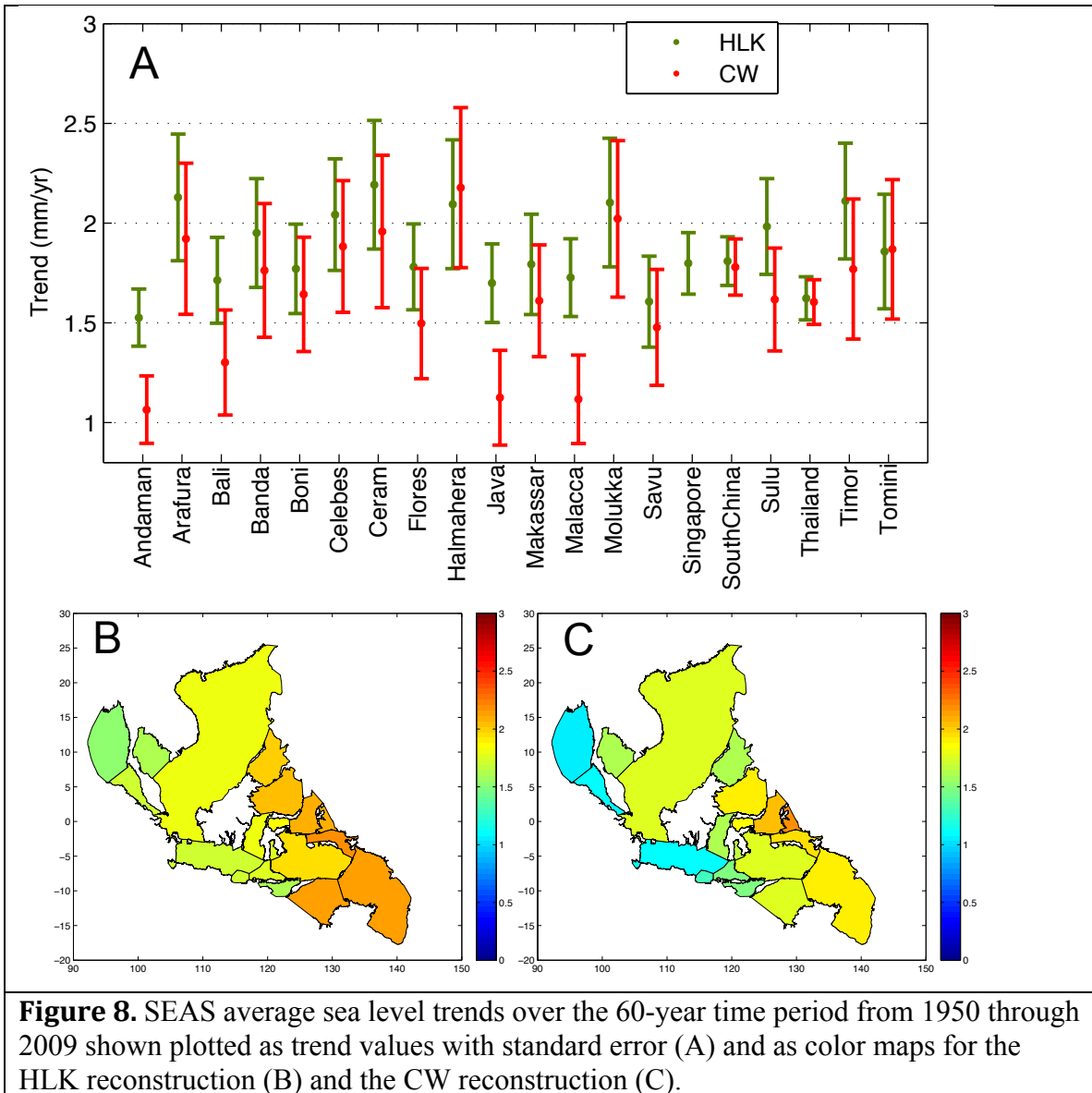


Figure 7. SEAS average sea level trends from the HLK reconstruction for the three 17-year time periods centered on 1967, 1984 and 2001.



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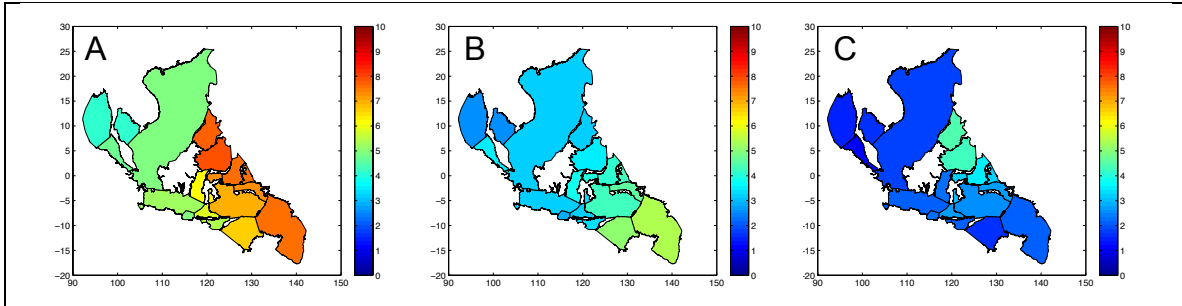


Figure 9. SEAS average sea level trends (mm/yr.) for the past 20 years from (A) the AVISO dataset (B) the PDO contribution estimated from the reconstruction (C) the difference between A and B.

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