

## ***Response to Reviewers: Sea Level Trends in the South East Asian Seas***

We would again like to thank the reviewers for their helpful suggestions. We have considered all the comments made by the reviewers and have made the revisions necessary – as discussed below - to hopefully make the manuscript suitable for publication.

***- In my opinion more details should be given on the methodology. As expressed before in my first review, this paper should be self-consistent. I am nevertheless keen to accept the explanation of the ability of reconstructions to capture regional sea level variability, as this is also my feeling, and despite the authors do not provide any evidence.***

To address this concern, we have added to the discussion in section 2 on the methods used in the paper and to create the CSEOF reconstruction. In practice, determining the validity of reconstructions in the past is a challenge. This is because the only measurements we have for comparison are from the tide gauges that are sparse and often with short records. The reference of Strassburg et al. (2014) contained in this section is an important piece of work. In an idealized test, it demonstrated the ability of the CSEOF reconstruction technique to realistically capture sea level based on the historical tide gauge distribution. We have added to the description of this reference as it provides significant support for the use of our reconstruction here. Additionally (with further discussion below), we have added a new figure showing the correlation between the tide gauges and the reconstruction for the available gauges in the SEAS region. For much of the region, the agreement is very good although still with the problem area in the northwest of the region (see below for further discussion). Regarding the estimation of the PDO contribution, the discussion on the method in the present paper is very representative of that presented in the two previous studies, and few details – if any – are left out. We are not exactly sure what portion of the methodology should be described in more detail at this point, but between the added discussion and adjusted figure, we believe we have addressed the methodological concerns and provide a convincing argument of the ability of the CSEOF reconstruction to capture regional variability.

***- The new fig. 2 provides a quantitative estimate of the correlation for the different bodies of water between altimetry and reconstruction. It is remarkable that for 4 of them the correlation is very low, so the comment about the “excellent agreement” in the text is clearly an exaggeration. The first paragraph in section 3 should be re-written to describe appropriately the figure. Also, the authors should state the confidence level of the correlations. It looks like there is no statistically significant correlation in some areas. The authors must also discuss how this fact affects their conclusions. On the basis of what they discuss trends in these areas if they are not able to reproduce the observed variability for the present period?***

We have re-written the first paragraph of section 3 to more accurately reflect what Figure 2 shows. We have also added a caveat about the conclusions in this region to section 4. Three of the bodies of water exhibit correlations of 0.5 or lower. For the other bodies, all are significant at the 95% confidence level, except for the one in the northwestern region

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that is significant at the 90% confidence level. While we are not necessarily reproducing the higher-frequency variability in these regions, Figure 4 shows that we are reproducing the trends in these regions reasonably well. Since the focus is on the trends in the region, I think that the comparison to the altimetry lowers the confidence of our analysis in these 3 bodies, but does not outright invalidate it. Furthermore, the main conclusions in the paper are related to the effect of the PDO in region. In the northwestern part of the SEAS region, the impact of the PDO is much lower than in the other areas of the region. In short, we have adjusted the discussion in the paper, but do not feel that the disagreements in 3 of the seas significantly impact the conclusions of the paper.

***- The new figure 3 only provides partial insight on the comparison between tide gauges and altimetry. My request was to mention (at least in the map) how many tide gauges were used in the reconstruction and this has not been answered. I think that the right way to address this issue is to plot the correlations (not only the time series, especially if the correlations are not quoted) in a map with all the tide gauges used. Some of them can be also plotted as time series. The current Fig. 3 is only qualitative. In Fig. 3 legends, axis and titles are not readable.***

We agree that Figure 3 was not adequate. We have replaced Figure 3 to show the correlation between the tide gauges and the reconstruction. Only the tide gauges used in the reconstruction are shown. The size of the circles is related to the available record length of the tide gauges from 1950 to 2010 (largest circles cover the full time period). We have removed the time series comparisons since, as the reviewer notes, these are qualitative comparisons. The new Figure 3 is consistent with the results in Figure 2. The correlations are strong everywhere except the northwestern portion of the region. We used the results of this test to diagnose this disagreement in a more detailed fashion. We have added the appropriate discussion to the paper. We thank the reviewer for the suggestion, as this figure provides some insight into why the reconstructions are not performing well in the northwest of the SEAS region.

***- Besides, it would be useful to include a comparison with tide gauges that were not included in the reconstruction. There are good quality tide gauges in the region that could not be used because of their limited time span but that could still be useful for the comparisons.***

When selecting gauges to include, we were quite liberal in our approach. In other words, if a record was greater than 5 years in length and of relatively high quality (as determined through a variety of editing criteria) it was included in the reconstruction. Given this approach, there are few high quality tide gauges in the PSMSL datasets that remain for comparison.

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

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26 **Abstract**

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

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49 **1. Introduction**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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## 130 **2. Data and Methods**

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

### 200 3. Results

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

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

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

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

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

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

304 Similarly, *Hamlington et al.* [2013; 2014b] discussed the influence of the PDO on  
305 both global and regional sea level trends, demonstrating that changes in the PDO have a  
306 significant impact on sea level trends in the tropical Pacific. Computing 17-year trends of  
307 the PDO index [*Mantua et al.*, 2002], extrema are found centered roughly on the years of  
308 1965, 1980, and 1997, corresponding closely to the centers of the three windows  
309 considered here. In light of the aforementioned previous studies and the analysis shown  
310 here, it is clear that there is a strong relationship between sea level trends in the SEAS  
311 region and decadal scale climate variability. *Hamlington et al.* [2014b] extended the  
312 study of *Hamlington et al.* [2013] and estimated the contribution of the PDO to regional  
313 sea level trends measured over the past twenty-years in the Pacific Ocean. Using a similar

314 technique, here we estimate and subsequently remove the trends associated with the PDO  
315 in the SEAS region. First, twenty-year regional trend maps were computed with a least-  
316 square estimate of the trend from the sea level reconstruction dataset. Trend maps were  
317 computed starting in 1960 (using data from 1950 to 1970), and then advancing one year  
318 at a time to end up with 41 total trend maps. Empirical orthogonal functions (EOF) of the  
319 twenty-year trend maps from the sea level reconstruction were then computed. The  
320 variance explained by the trend patterns of the first three EOFs was found to be 41%,  
321 30%, and 13%, respectively, with a total of 84% variance in these first three modes.

322 The question was then asked whether any of these EOF modes could be attributed to  
323 specific climate signals? To evaluate whether any of the modes are related to the PDO  
324 and by extension whether changes in the PDO affect the trends in global mean sea level,  
325 a twenty-year running trend is calculated for the PDO index, which is derived from sea  
326 surface temperature patterns in the north Pacific. In addition to the agreement of the  
327 spatial patterns of the first mode and the PDO in the north Pacific, the strong relationship  
328 between the two is demonstrated by a correlation of 0.96 between the twenty-year PDO  
329 trends and EOF mode 1 of the twenty-year trends from the reconstructed sea level  
330 dataset. In other words, the first EOF mode from the decomposition of the twenty-year  
331 trends in the sea level reconstruction appears to be closely linked to the PDO, both in  
332 terms of its spatial pattern and temporal variability over the past sixty years. The  
333 contribution of this first EOF mode to regional trends during the satellite altimetry time  
334 period (the last twenty years) was evaluated and used in this study.

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



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

#### 344 **4. Discussion and Conclusion**

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

353 Here, we have used two sea level reconstructions created using two different  
354 techniques to study the sea level trends in the SEAS. The two reconstructions agree  
355 reasonably well with the satellite altimetry and tide gauge data in the region, although  
356 some disagreement is found in the northwestern part of the region, likely resulting from  
357 poor tide gauge coverage and quality upon which to base the reconstruction. The  
358 reconstructions also agree well for the three 17-year windows considered (centered on  
359 1967, 1984 and 2001), and exhibit decadal-scale fluctuations in the sea level trends in the

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

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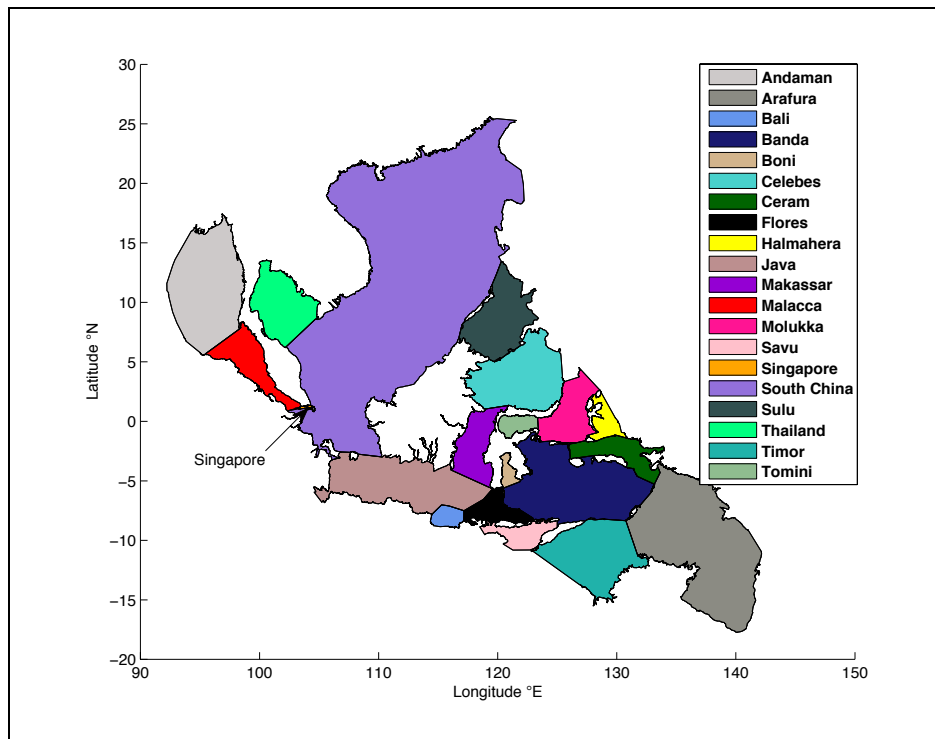
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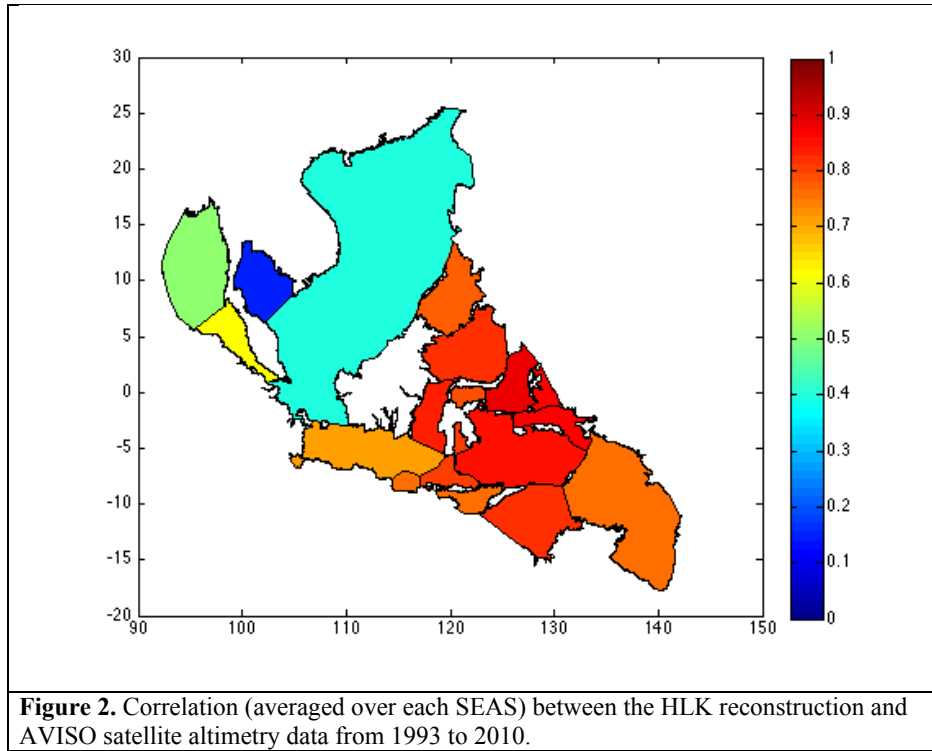
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**Figure 1.** The 20 bodies of water (seas, straits, and gulfs) defined in the *Limits of the Ocean and Seas* (IHO,1953) for the SEAS region.

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

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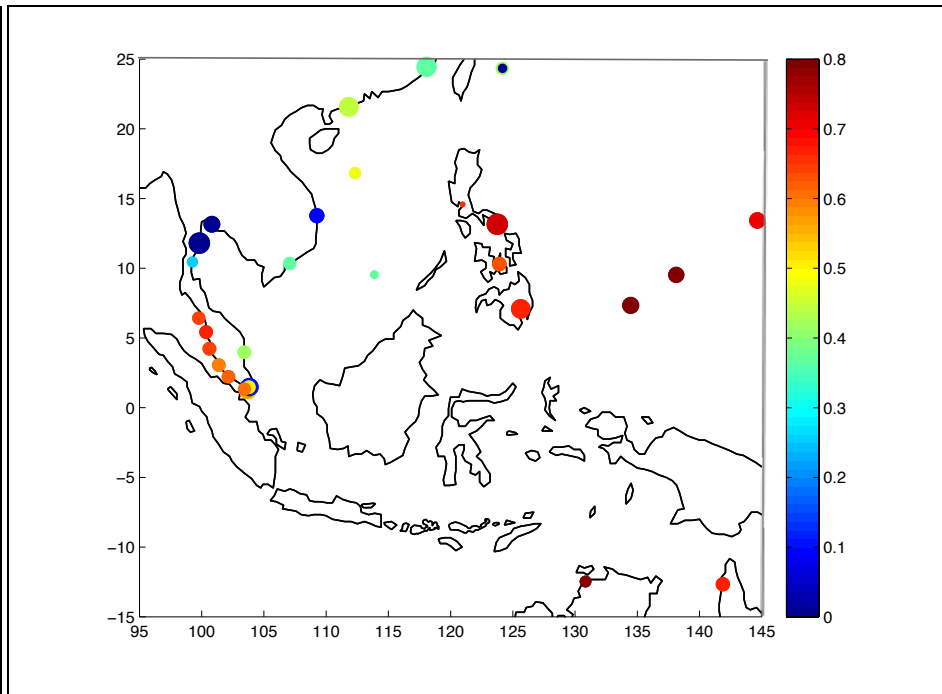


Figure 3. Comparison between the HLK reconstruction and the tide gauge data. Each circle represents a tide gauge used in the reconstruction. The color of each point represents the correlation between the reconstruction and tide gauge, while the size of the circle represents the length of the record available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

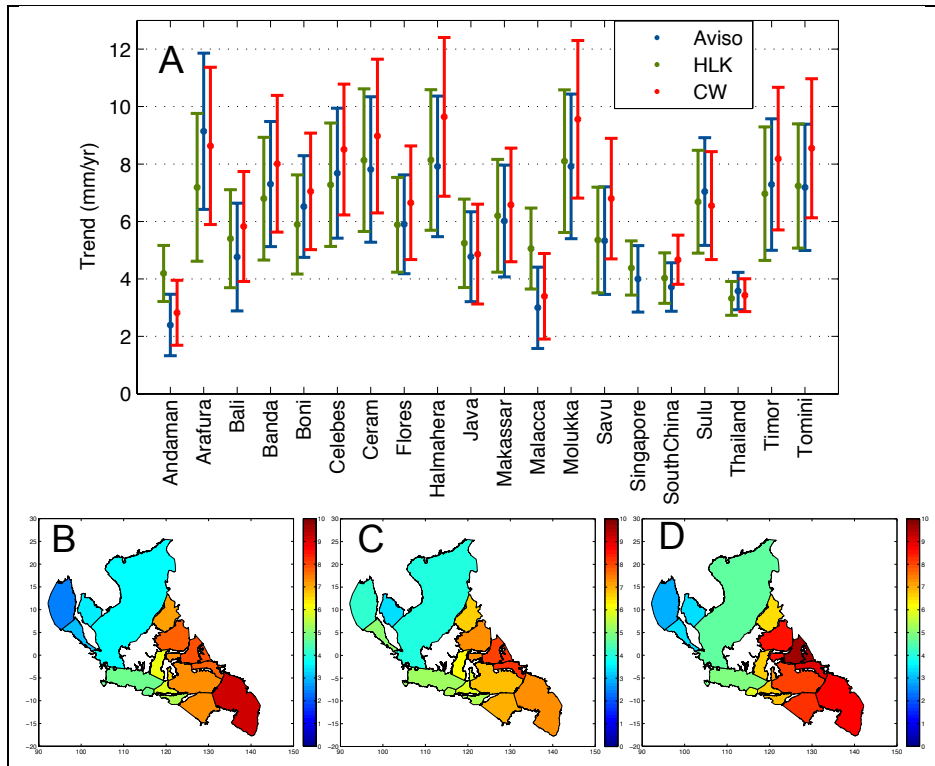
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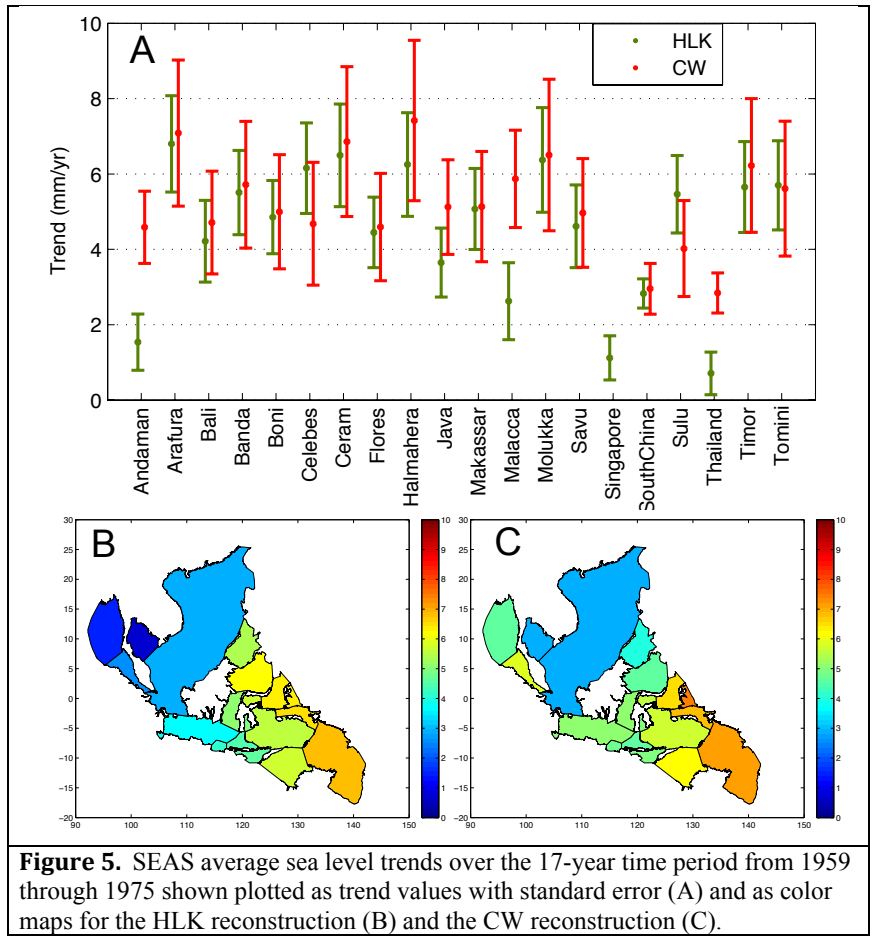
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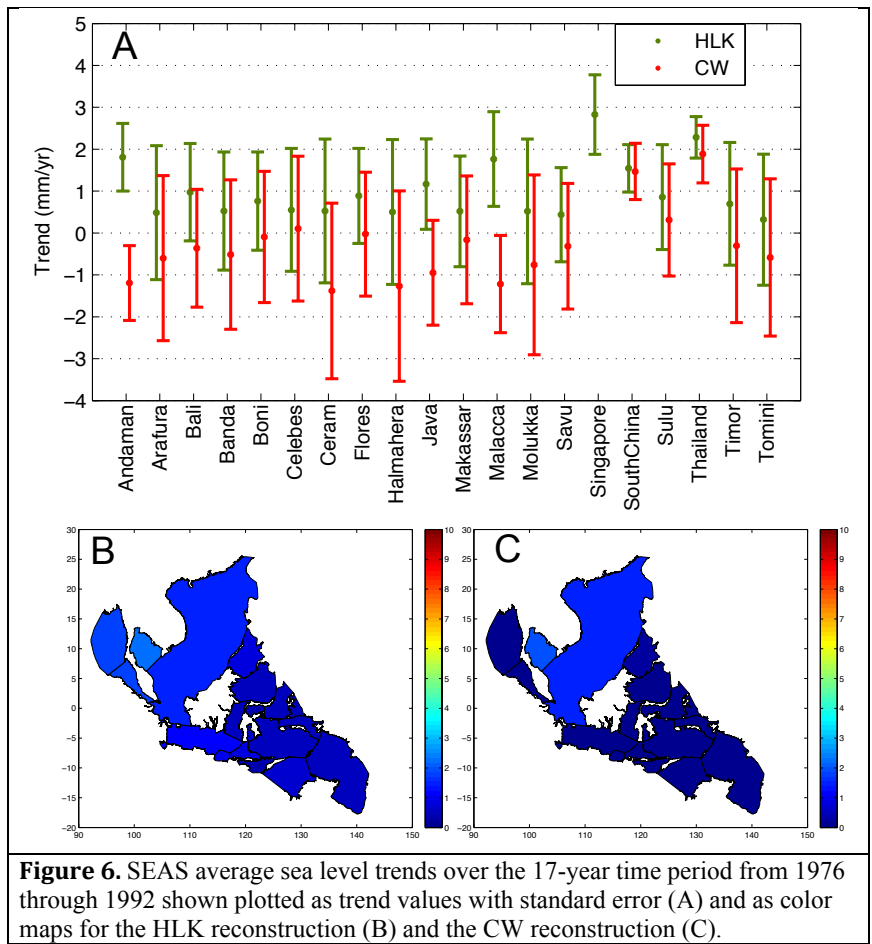
**Figure 4.** SEAS average sea level trends over the 17-year satellite altimeter record from 1993-2009 shown plotted as trend values with standard error estimates (A) and as color maps for AVISO (B), the HLK reconstruction (C), and the CW reconstruction (D). Reconstructed average trends agree with the AVISO values to within the estimated error.

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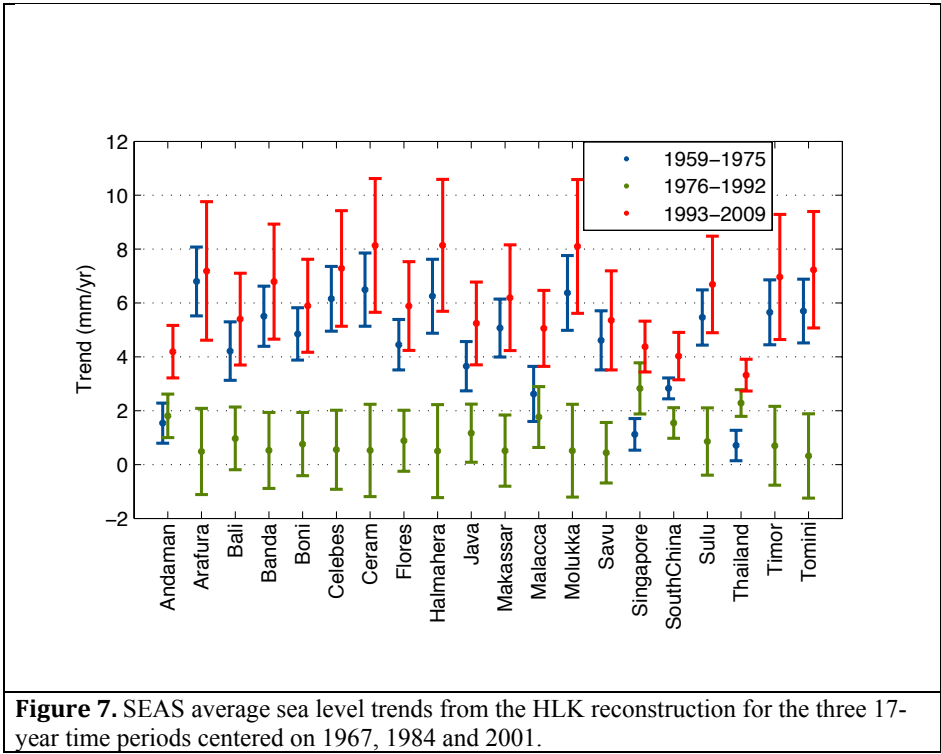


**Figure 5.** SEAS average sea level trends over the 17-year time period from 1959 through 1975 shown plotted as trend values with standard error (A) and as color maps for the HLK reconstruction (B) and the CW reconstruction (C).

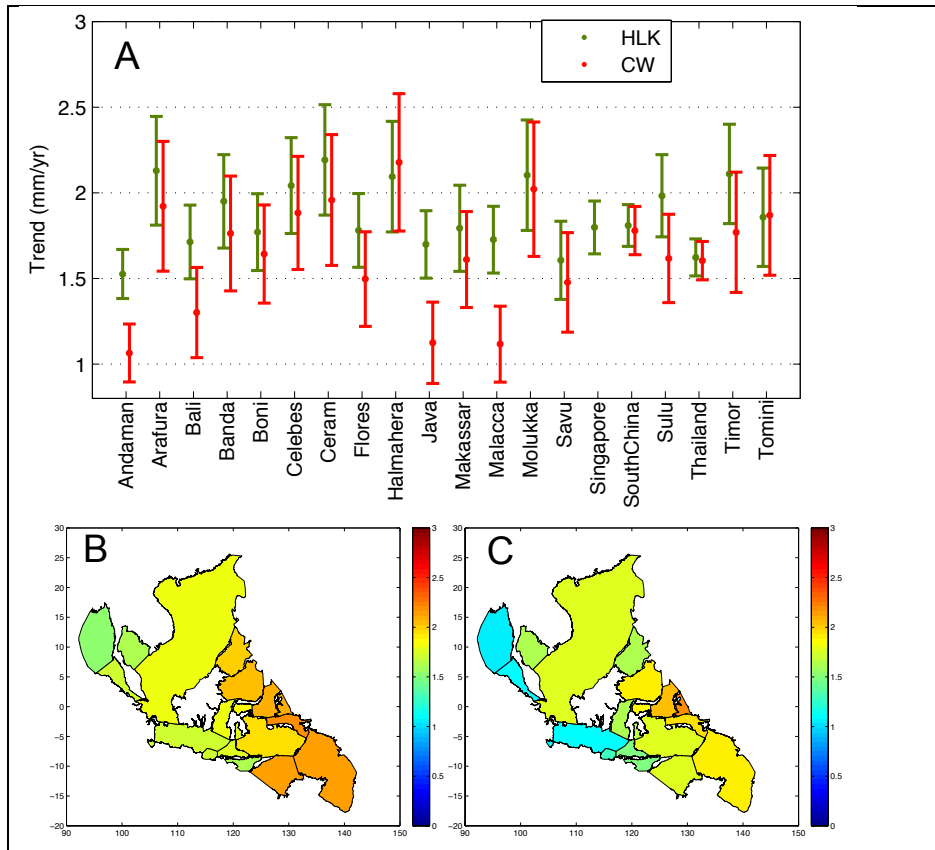
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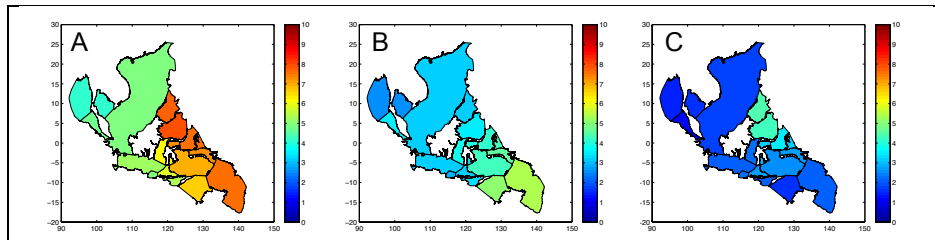


**Figure 7.** SEAS average sea level trends from the HLK reconstruction for the three 17-year time periods centered on 1967, 1984 and 2001.



**Figure 8.** SEAS average sea level trends over the 60-year time period from 1950 through 2009 shown plotted as trend values with standard error (A) and as color maps for the HLK reconstruction (B) and the CW reconstruction (C).

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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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