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8th September 2020

To the editor, ESSD

Bed topography of Princess Elizabeth Land in East Antarctica

Many thanks for sending review of the above paper. We are pleased that both referees found the paper worthy of publication in ESSD, pending some changes. Please find uploaded a file containing details of how we have changed the above paper in accordance with referees' advice.

Referee 1 (anon.)

The main concern for referee 1, was that we hadn't used BedMachine Antarctica to compare the new results against. We have now included Bedmachine into the paper, as requested.

In the original paper we provided an assessment of basal hydrology. The referee recommended we chose an alternative algorithm to calculate the flow of water. To simplify and focus the paper - so that it simply presents the bed data - we have now taken out the basal hydrology component (including subglacial lakes).

On statements about this being the final section of bed to be covered by RES data - we stand by that, and we feel it would be of interest generally to point this out. However, we recognise that we have made too many references to national and organisational contributions and have removed much of these.

Referee 2 – Robert Bingham

For referee 2, there are very few changes required. We have reduced mention of the various institutions, as recommended. We have also made minor edits suggested in a pdf version of the paper supplied by the referee.

We hope that the paper is now ready for publication in ESSD. Do let us know if further modifications are necessary.

Yours sincerely,

Martin Sieget

Martin Siegert

1 Bed topography of Princess Elizabeth Land in East Antarctica

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- 19

20 Abstract

21

22 We present a topographic digital elevation model (DEM) for Princess Elizabeth Land (PEL), East 23 Antarctica - the last remaining region in Antarctica to be surveyed by airborne radio echo sounding 24 (RES) techniques. The DEM covers an area of ~900,000 km² and was established from ICECAP2_RES 25 data collected by the ICECAP-2 consortium, led by the Polar Research Institute of China, from collected 26 in four campaigns since 2015. Previously, the region (along with Recovery basin elsewhere in East 27 Antarctica) was characterised by an inversion using low resolution satellite gravity data across a large 28 (>200 km wide) data-free zone to generate the Bedmap2 topographic product. We use the mass 29 conservation (MC) method to produce an ice thickness grid across faster-flowing (>30 m yr⁻¹) regions 30 of the ice sheet and streamline diffusion in slower-flowing areas. The resulting ice thickness model is integrated with an ice surface model to build the bed DEM. With the revised bed DEM, we are able to 31 32 model the flow of subglacial water and assess where the hydraulic pressure, and hydrological routing, 33 is most sensitive to small ice surface gradient changes. Together with BedMachine Antarctica, and 34 Bedmap2, this new ICECAP2 bed DEM completes the first order measurement of subglacial 35 continental Antarctica – an international mission that began around 70 years ago. The ice thickness 36 and bed elevation DEMs of PEL (resolved horizontally at 500 m relative to ice surface elevations 37 obtained from the Reference Elevation Model of Antarctica) are accessible from 38 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3666088 (Cui et al., 2020).

39 1. Introduction

40

Radio-echo sounding (RES) is commonly used to measure ice thickness, and to understand subglacial
topography and basal ice-sheet conditions (Dowdeswell and Evans, 2004; Bingham and Siegert, 2007).
A series of airborne geophysical explorations were conducted across East Antarctica in the 1970s-by

44 the Scott Polar Research Institute (SPRI) (Robin et al., 1977; Dean et al., 2008; Turchetti et al., 2008;

45 Naylor et al., 2008), which led to the first compilation 'folio' maps of subglacial bed topography, ice-

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46 sheet surface elevation and ice thickness of Antarctica (Drewry and Meldrum, 1978; Drewry et al., 47 1980; Jankowski and Drewry, 1981; Drewry, 1983). Since then, multiple efforts have been made to 48 collect and compile RES data in order to expand the RES database across the continent (Lythe et al., 2001; Fretwell et al. 2013). Russian glaciologists conducted tThe first geophysical exploration of the 49 50 coast of Princess Elizabeth Land (PEL) was conducted between 1971–2016, providing basic ice 51 thickness, bed topography and magnetic field data (Popov and Kiselev, 2018; Popov, 2020). To date, 52 virtually no RES data have been acquired upstream of ~300 km from the grounding line of PEL. Hence, 53 this region has been described as one of the so-called 'poles of ignorance' (Fretwell et al., 2013) and 54 its representation in recent bed DEMs (Bedmap2 and BedMachine Antarctica) is as a zone of flat 55 topography, reflecting the absence of RES data (Morlighem et al., 2020). Indeed, other data gaps 56 (Recovery system, Diez et al., 2019; and South Pole, Jordan et al, 2018) have been filled recently, 57 leaving PEL as the last remaining significant region in Antarctica to be surveyed systematically.

58

59 In the absence of bed data, glaciologists have had to rely on satellite imagery, inversion from poor 60 resolution satellite gravity observations, and ice-flow modelling to infer the subglacial landscape and 61 its interaction with the ice above (Fretwell et al., 2013; Jamieson et al., 2016). For example, 62 combination of three satellite-derived mosaics, and some initial exploratory RES data (Blankenship et 63 al., 2017), have been used to hypothesise the subglacial features of PEL (Jamieson et al., 2016). That 64 study utilised the first RES data collected as part of the collaborative effort between the US-UK-Australian ICECAP programme (International Collaborative Exploration of Central East Antarctica 65 through Airborne geophysical Profiling), which was conducted between 5th December 2010 and 20th 66 67 January 2013 (Blankenship et al., 2017). Jamieson et al. (2016), revealing the presence of a potentially 68 large (>100 km long) subglacial lake (white box; Figure 1a and 1b) and an expected canyon morphology 69 across the PEL sector (Jamieson et al., 2016). Previously, a study by Dongchen et al. (2004) adopted 70 the interferometric synthetic-aperture radar (InSAR) satellite technology to generate an 71 'experimental' subglacial bed elevation model across the ice sheet margin (Figure 1a). While the result 72 contains a level of 'detail', it has an obvious limitation in that the bed elevation was based solely on 73 the satellite data and without direct measurement of the subglacial landscape. Another study used an 74 inversion technique to generate a 'synthetic' glacier thickness of the PEL region from satellite gravity 75 data, as part of the Bedmap2 compilation (Fretwell et al., 2013). A gualitative inspection of the 76 Bedmap2 bed elevation product reveals the bed of PEL to be anomalously flat –a consequence of its 77 use of satellite gravity data in a low-resolution inversion for bed elevation across a data-free region. 78 Hence, the bed topography in PEL is the poorest-defined of any region in Antarctica – and indeed of 79 any land surface on Earth.

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81 Here, we present the first detailed ice thickness DEM for PEL, based on new RES measurements collected by the ICECAP2 consortium programme led by the Polar Research Institute of China (PRIC) 82 since 2015, which we refer to as the 'ICECAP2' DEM. We integrated the RES data with ice surface 83 84 elevation measurements to produce a bed DEM. We briefly discuss the differences between the 85 ICECAP2 DEM and its representation in both Bedmap2 and BedMachine Antarctica, and the impact of 86 the ICECAP2 DEM on calculations of the flow of subglacial water. The ICECAP2 bed DEM is relative to 87 ice surface elevations from the Reference Elevation Model of Antarctica (Howat, et al., 2019). The ice 88 thickness DEM can be easily integrated with updated surface DEMs (i.e. Helm et al., 2014) and, in 89 particular, the upcoming Bedmap3 product.

90 2. Study Area

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The PEL sector of East Antarctica is bounded on the west by the Amery Ice Shelf, and on the east by Wilhelm II Land (Figure 1a). The region covered by the ICECAP2 DEM we present here extends ~1,300 km from East to West and ~800 km from North to South. In comparison with Bedmap2, the ICECAP2 DEM benefits from recently acquired airborne geophysical data collected by the ICECAP2 programme over four austral summer seasons from 2015 to 2019 (Figure 1c). We use the Differential Interferometry Synthetic Aperture Radar (DInSAR) grounding line (Rignot et al., 2011) to delimit the ice-shelf facing margin of the ice sheet.

99 3. Data and Methods

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During the first field season (2015/16), a survey acquiring exploratory 'fan-shaped' radial profiles, to maximize range and data return on each flight, was completed across the broadly unknown region of PEL. These flight lines extend from the coastal Progress Station to the interior ice-sheet divide at Ridge B (Figure 1a). In the second and third seasons (2016/17 and 2017/18), a survey 'grid' was completed, targeting enhanced resolution over a proposed subglacial lake and a series of basal canyons (see Jamieson et al., 2016). In the fourth season (2018/19), a few additional transects were completed to fill the largest data gaps within aircraft range.

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Field data acquisition was achieved using the "Snow Eagle 601" aerogeophysical platform; a BT-109 110 67 airplane operated by the Polar Research Institute of China for the Chinese National Antarctic 111 Research Expedition (CHINARE) program (Figure 2a and b). The suite of instruments configured on the 112 airplane include a phase coherent RES system, functionally similar to the High Capability Airborne 113 Radar Sounder developed by the University of Texas Institute for Geophysics (UTIG), which has been 114 used on many ICECAP surveys (i.e. Young et al., 2011; Greenbaum et al., 2015). HiCARS is a phase 115 coherent RES system, operating at a central frequency of 60 MHz and a peak power of 8 kW, making 116 it capable of penetrating deep (>3 km) ice in Antarctica. After applying coherent integration and pulse 117 compression at a bandwidth of 15 MHz, which gave an along-track spatial sampling rate and a vertical 118 resolution of ~20 m and ~5.6 m, respectively. Further details on the parameters and introduction of 119 the **RES** system can be found in Cui et al. (2018). A JAVAD GPS receiver and its four antennas are 120 mounted at the aircraft centre of gravity (CG), tail and both wings. GPS data from antenna at the 121 aircraft CG were used for RES data interpretation.

122 4. Data Processing

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Ice thickness measurements were derived from two RES data products from which the ice-bed 124 125 interface was traced and digitized: (a) 2D focused SAR processed data applied to RES data from the first two seasons; and (b) unfocused 'field' RES data from the third and fourth seasons. Raw RES data 126 127 were first separated to differentiate PST (Project/Set/Transect) during the field data processing. Pulse 128 compression, filtering, 10-traces coherent stacking and 5-traces incoherent stacking were then applied 129 to generate a field RES data product. The field RES data can be used for quality control and are also 130 good enough for initial ice-bed interface measurements, from which a first-order ice thicknesses and 131 bed elevation DEM was calculated. To achieve better-quality RES images, two-dimensional focused 132 SAR processing was applied to data from the first two seasons (Peters et al., 2007). The ice-bed

interface was picked in a semi-automatic manner using a picking program used previously by the 133 ICECAP program on data from the Aurora and Wilkes subglacial basins (Blankenship et al., 2016; 134 135 Blankenship et al., 2017). Ice thicknesses were calculated from multiplying two-way travel time by the velocity of electromagnetic waves in ice (i.e. 0.168 m ns⁻¹) (Cui et al., 2018). Firn corrections were not 136 137 applied, and thus may be subject to a small systematic error. The precise point positioning (PPP) 138 method was used in the GPS processing to improve positioning accuracy since the flight distance is 139 too far from the GPS base station for post airborne GPS data processing. Processed GPS data were 140 interpolated and fitted to the radar traces according to time stamps generated by the integrated 141 airborne system. Aircraft to ice-surface range was calculated by multiplying the two-way travel time of the radar reflections of the ice surface by its velocity in air (0.3 m ns⁻¹). Figure 2c shows examples 142 of the two-ways RES images from the data collected in 2017/18. 143

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145 *4.1 Quantifying ice thicknes and bed topography* and subglacial hydrology pathway

To derive the ice thickness map (Figure 4a) based on the ICECAP2 radar measurements, we employed a variety of techniques depending on the ice speed following the approach described in Morlighem et al. (2020). In fast flowing regions (i.e. velocity >30 m yr⁻¹), we relied on mass conservation (MC; Figure 3), constrained by the ICECAP2 RES data and additional RES data that were available as part of BedMachine Antarctica (Morlighem et al., 2020). In the slower moving regions inland, we relied on a streamline diffusion interpolation to fill between data points (Figure 3).

- 152 For the purpose of comparing the ICECAP2 DEM (Figure 4b) with Bedmap2 (Figure 4c) and BedMachine Antarctica (Figure 4d) bed DEMs, the 500 m ice-surface elevation DEM from The 153 154 Reference Elevation Model of Antarctica (Howat et al., 2019) was used. Prior to the subtraction 155 process, the Bedmap2 and BedMachine ice thickness DEMs were transformed from the g104c geoid 156 vertical reference to WGS 1984 vertical reference frame. The ice thickness for both Bedmap2 and 157 BedMachine are in "ice equivalent" rather than an estimation of the physical ice thickness from firn 158 correction. The Bedmap2 and BedMachine ice thickness DEMs were resampled using the "Bilinear" 159 function in ArcGIS to a 500 m spacing and referenced to the polar stereographic projection (Snyder, 160 1987). The ice thickness from all three models were then subtracted from the ice surface elevation DEM (Howat et al., 2019) to produce a bed DEMs at 500 m resolution. Difference maps were then 161 computed by subtracting the Bedmap2 (Figure 4e) and BedMachine (Figure 4f) bed DEMs from the 162 163 ICECAP2 bed DEM. Crossover analyses show RMS errors of 24.2 m (2015/16), 39.2 m (2016/17), 10.4 164 m (2017/18), 7.5 m (2018/19) and 35.4 m (for the full dataset).
- 165 **5. Results**
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- 167 5.1 Subglacial morphology of Princess Elizabeth Land
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The ICECAP2 RES data allow us to form an appreciation of the subglacial topography of PEL (Figure 4a and b). While its hypsometry (Figure 5) reveals an area-elevation distribution that is mainly concentrated around 0 to 500 m (>15% frequency, Figure 5a) with a mean elevation of 233.44 m, the DEM reveals a newly-discovered broad, low-lying subglacial basin (>250 m below sea level; Figure 4b, black box). This is the most distinct new topographic feature uncovered by the ICECAP2 data. The data also resolve higher ground across the northwest grid of the ICECAP2 DEM (Figure 5a). A deep (i.e. ~1000m below sea level) subglacial trough can be observed near to Zhaojun Di area, coinciding with

- the location of fast ice flow towards the Amery Ice Shelf (Figure 1a). Mountains beneath Ridge B
 (Figure 1a) can be observed in enhanced resolution from the ICECAP2 data (Figure 5b) with an average
 elevation of ~1500 m above sea level. The bed topography closer to the grounding line (i.e. Wilhelm II
 Land) and at the central grid areas are characterized as having a lower bed elevation (below sea level,
 Figure 5b), consistent with the recent BedMachine Antarctica product (Morlighem et al., 2020).
 Subglacial troughs with depth less than ~500 m can also be observed in Wilhelm II Land.
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183 5.2 Comparison with Bedmap2 and BedMachine Antarctica

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185 The ICECAP2 DEM of PEL, the corresponding Bedmap2 and BedMachine DEMs, and maps displaying differences between the three are shown in Figure 4b-f. The ICECAP2 DEM reveals substantial changes 186 187 relative to Bedmap2 and BedMachine bed products especially across the central upstream region of 188 PEL. For example, the ICECAP2 DEM shows noticeable disagreement from Bedmap2 across the 189 Australian Antarctic Territory extending from the central grid of the DEM (i.e. Korotkevicha Plateau 190 and King Leopold and Queen Astrid Coast) to the Mason Peaks at the northern grid, with mean 191 difference of ~-230m. However, the bed elevation is higher in the ICECAP2 bed DEM compared with 192 Bedmap2 across Wilhelm II Land with a mean difference of ~170m and near to the SPRI-60 subglacial 193 lake with mean difference of ~230m. A significant difference can also be seen between ICECAP2 and 194 BedMachine bed DEMs across the central grid of the DEM. The ICECAP2 DEM is shown lower in bed 195 elevation relative to BedMachine with mean difference of ~-400m. Because the ICECAP2 bed DEM is 196 higher in some places compared with Bedmap2 and BedMachine, and lower in others, the mean 197 differences for the entire PEL study area are only -18m and -79m, respectively.

198

199 We also present five terrain profiles for both DEMs (Figure 6), which collectively cover most of the 200 PEL sector (Figure 1b). The purpose is to capture as much of the subglacial morphology as possible 201 and assess the accuracy of the DEMs in their characterization of these subglacial features. In general, 202 and as one would expect, the ICECAP2 bed DEM shows reasonable agreement with the RES transects 203 in all profiles compared with Bedmap2 bed DEM. Consistencies between the ICECAP2 DEM and the 204 bed elevation from RES data picks can be seen upstream of the ICECAP2 DEM grid (i.e. Mason Peaks 205 and Zhaojun Di) with a correlation coefficient of 0.83 (RE:3%) and 0.97 (RE:1%) for Profile A and B, respectively. This is higher relative to both the Bedmap2 and BedMachine DEMs, which are 0.74 206 (RE:19%) and 0.56 (RE:36%) for Profile A, and 0.89 (RE:11%) and 0.07 (RE:26%) for Profile B, 207 208 respectively. A significant improvement is also noted in the ICECAP2 DEM across the American 209 Highland in Profile C (Figure 6), with a correlation coefficient of 0.91 (RE:5%), compared with 0.59 210 (RE:9%) for Bedmap2 and 0.33 (RE:11%) for BedMachine. A slightly lower correlation coefficient 211 quantified for the ICECAP2 DEM in Profile D, at 0.85 (RE:17%), but it is still higher than in Bedmap2 at 212 0.57 (RE:32%) and BedMachine at 0.54 (RE:48%). In Profile E (near to Wilhelm II Land), the ICECAP2 213 DEM correlation coefficient is slightly higher at 0.91 (RE:0.5%) than BedMachine at 0.87 (RE:0.37%), 214 and much higher than in Bedmap2 at 0.57 (RE:40%).

215 6. Data availability

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The ICECAP2 ice thickness and bed elevation models of the PEL sector are available in 500 m horizontal resolutions at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3666088 (Cui et al., 2020). The airborne radio-echo sounder ice thickness measurements used to generate the products, recorded here in comma220 separated values (CSV) format is accessible from https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3815064. The 500 221 m ice-sheet surface elevation DEM derived from the Reference Elevation Model of Antarctica (Howat, 222 et al., 2019) can be obtained from https://www.pgc.umn.edu/data/rema/. If the users wish to modify the bed DEM, our model can be easily integrated with the updated surface elevation models (Bamber 223 224 et al., 2009; Helm et al., 2014). Auxiliary details for the MEaSUREs InSAR ice velocity map of Antarctica 225 can be found at https://doi:10.5067/MEASURES/CRYOSPHERE/nsidc-0484.001. The satellite images 226 for MODIS Mosaic of Antarctica 2008-2009 and RADARSAT (25m) are obtainable from 227 https://doi.org/10.7265/N5KP8037 and https://research.bpcrc.osu.edu/rsl/radarsat/data/, 228 respectively. A summary of the data used in this paper and their availability is provided in the Table 1.

229 7. Summary

230

231 We have compiled the first airborne RES dataset for PEL; acquired by ICECAP2 and led by PRIC. From 232 the data, using a combination of interpolation and modelling techniques, we have generated a bed DEM at a higher resolution of 500 m for ice sheet modelling. The DEM has a total area of ~899,730 233 234 km². Considerable variabilities between the ICECAP2 DEM and Bedmap2 and BedMachine Antarctica 235 are observed, particularly at the central grid of the DEM where a broad subglacial basin occurs 236 between ICECAP2 bed DEM and both Bedmap2 and BedMachine bed DEMs has been identified and 237 measured, and across the Wilhelm II Land toward the margin and near to the SPRI-60 subglacial lake 238 between ICECAP2 and Bedmap2 bed DEMs. The ICECAP2 DEM completes the first-order data coverage 239 of subglacial Antarctica – a feat spanning around 70 years of international collaboration.

240 241

242 Acknowledgements

243 This paper is a contribution of the ICECAP2 consortium (International Collaborative Exploration of 244 Central East Antarctica through Airborne geophysical Profiling) led by SB, JLR, DDB and MJS. The 245 research was supported by the Chinese Polar Environmental Comprehensive Investigation and 246 Assessment Programs (CHINARE-02-02), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (41941006) 247 and the National Key R&D Program of China (2019YFC1509102). MJS acknowledges support from the 248 British Council's Global Innovation Initiative between the UK, USA, China and India. We thank the 249 volunteers at QGIS for open-source software used to draw many of the figures in this paper. DDB, JG 250 and DY acknowledge the G. Unger Vetlesen Foundation, and US National Science Foundation grants 251 PLR-1543452 and PLR- 1443690. JR acknowledges the Australian Antarctic Division, which provided 252 funding and logistical support (AAS 4346 and 4511). This work was also supported by the Australian 253 Government's Cooperative Research Centres Programme through the Antarctic Climate & Ecosystems 254 Cooperative Research Centre and under the Australian Research Council's Special Research Initiative 255 for Antarctic Gateway Partnership (Project ID SR140300001). This is UTIG contribution ####.

256

257 Competing Interests

258 The authors report no competing interests for this paper.

259

260 Author contributions

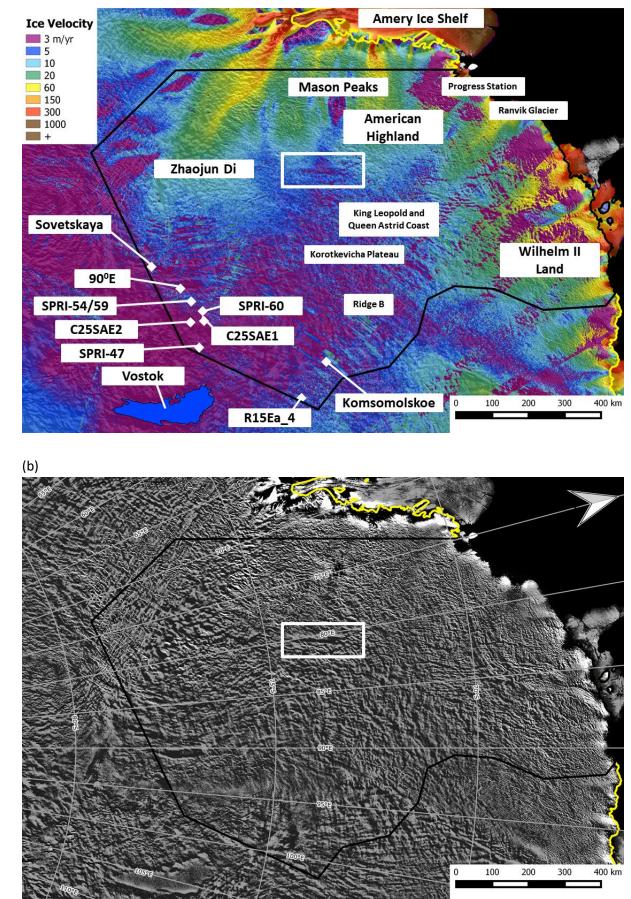
- 261 This paper was research and written by the ICECAP2 (partnership, in which all authors are members.
- 262 Specific responsibilities are as follows. XB, JSG, JG, LL, LEL, FH, WW, LJ and JRL undertook fieldwork
- 263 and data acquisition. JSG and DAY undertook data processing. MM and HJ undertook data

- 264 interpolation. All authors comments and edited drafts of this paper. The paper was written by MJS
- 265 and HJ.
- 266

Table 1: Data files and locations.

Products	Files	Location	DOI/URL
Bed elevation	500 m bed	Zenodo Data Repository	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3666
DEM	elevation DEM	Cui et al. (2020)	088
Ice thickness DEM	500 m ice	Zenodo Data Repository	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3666
	thickness DEM	Cui et al. (2020)	088
Airborne ice thickness data	Polar Research		
	Institute of China	Zenodo Data Repository	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3815
	ice thickness data	Cui et al., (2020)	064
	in CSV format		
1 km ice sheet surface DEM	ERS-1 radar and	National Snow and Ice	https://nsidc.org/data/docs/daac/nsid
	ICESat laser	Data Center (NSIDC)	c0422_antarctic_1km_dem/
	satellite altimetry		
Ice velocity map of Central	MEaSUREs InSAR-	National Snow and Ice	https://doi:10.5067/MEASURES/CRYO
	based ice velocity	Data Center (NSIDC)	SPHERE/nsidc-0484.001
Antarctica	bused lee velocity		
Ice sheet surface satellite imagery	MODIS Mosaic of		
	Antarctica	National Snow and Ice	https://doi.org/10.7265/N5KP8037
	(2008 – 2009)	Data Center (NSIDC)	11(1ps.//doi.org/10./203/N3KP803/
	(MOA2009)		
	RADARSAT (25m)	Byrd Polar and Climate	https://research.bpcrc.osu.edu/rsl/rad
	satellite imagery	Research Center	arsat/data/

271 (a)



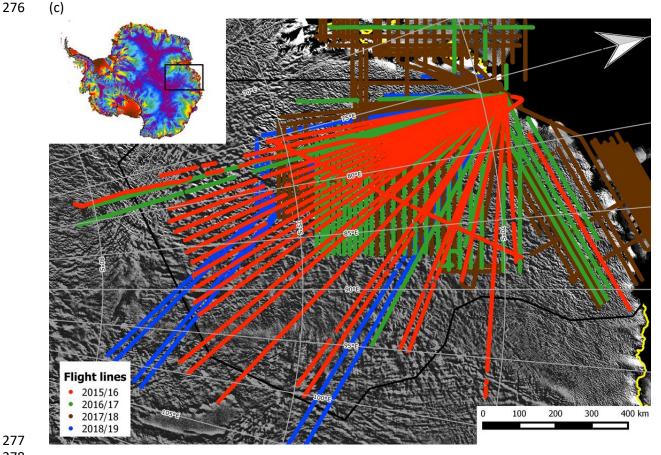


Figure 1. Map of (a) ice flow velocity version 2 (Rignot et al., 2017b); (b) MODIS Mosaic of Antarctica 2008–2009 satellite image (Haran et al., 2014). The black line denotes the grid boundary for ICECAP2 bed elevation model White box indicates a location of a previously discovered smooth-surface elongated and extensive feature interpreted as a potential subglacial lake (Jamieson et al., 2016); and (c) the Aerogeophysical flight lines surveyed by PRIC in four seasons which are 2015/16 (orange), 2016/17 (green), 2017/18 (red) and 2018/19 (blue) across the PEL sector; the inset denotes location of the study region in East Antarctica. Figures 1b and 1c are overlain by MODIS Mosaic of Antarctica 2008–2009 (Haran et al., 2014). The Differential Interferometry Synthetic Aperture Radar (DInSAR) grounding line (yellow line) are also shown (Rignot et al., 2017a).





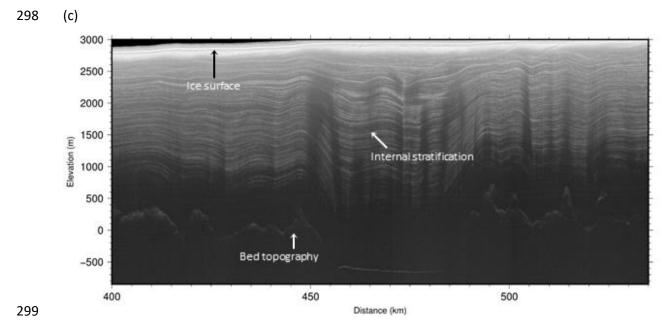


Figure 2. (a) Snow Eagle 601 airplane operated by the Polar Research Institute of China for the Chinese National Antarctic Research Expedition (CHINARE) program; (b) The interior image of the airplane showing the airborne radio-echo sounder equipment; and (c) Two-dimensional radio-echo sounding radargram collected in 2017/18 revealing the quality of internal layers, bed topography and subglacial lake water.

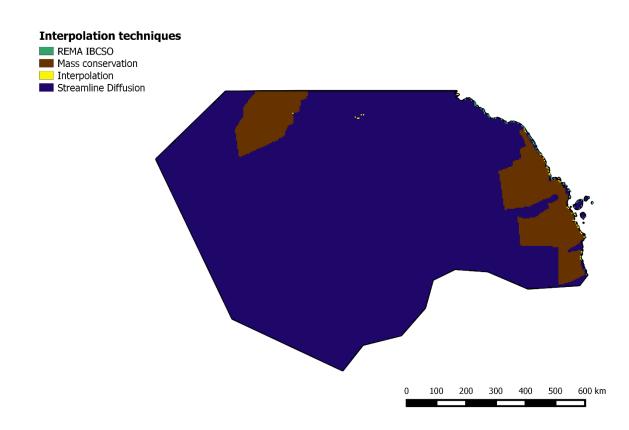


Figure 3. Map shows interpolation techniques used to infer ice thickness DEM across PEL, reference

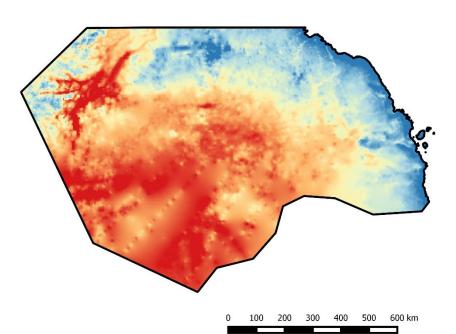
- 310 Elevation Model of Antarctica, International Bathymetric Chart of the Southern Ocean (REMA IBCSO, 211 group) mass conservation (brown) internalation (wellow) and streamline diffusion (blue)
- 311 green), mass conservation (brown), interpolation (yellow) and streamline diffusion (blue).

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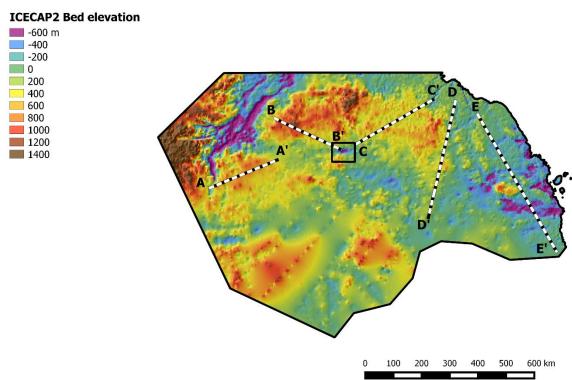


Ice thickness

750 m
1000
1250
1500
1750
2000
2250
2500
2750
3000
3250
3500

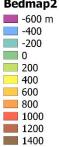


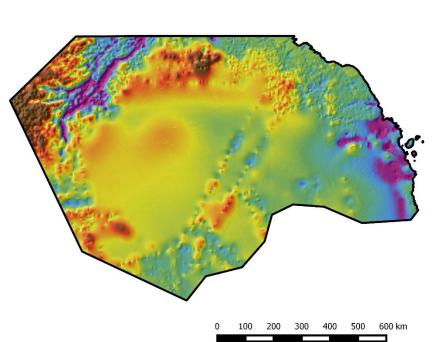
(b)





Bedmap2 Bed elevation

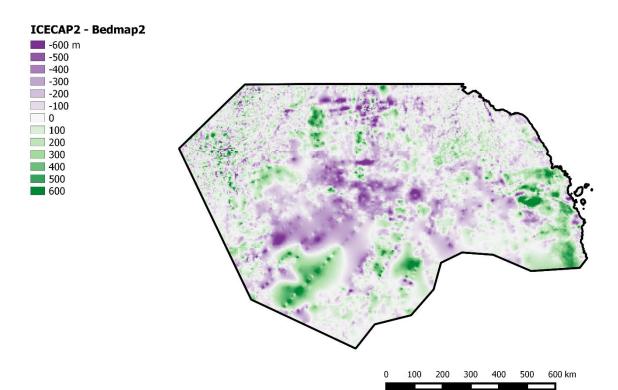




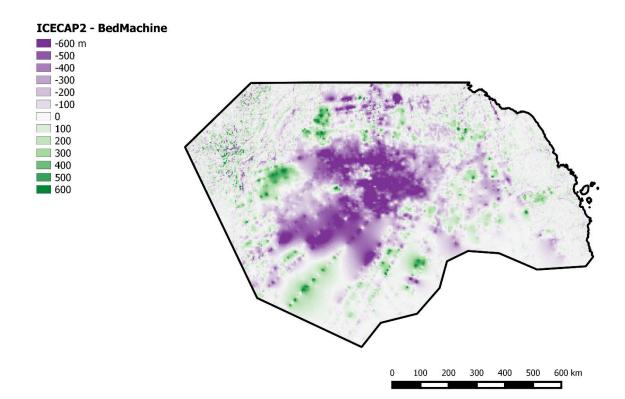
(d)

BedMachine Bed elevation -600 m -400 -200 800 200 300 400 500 600 km



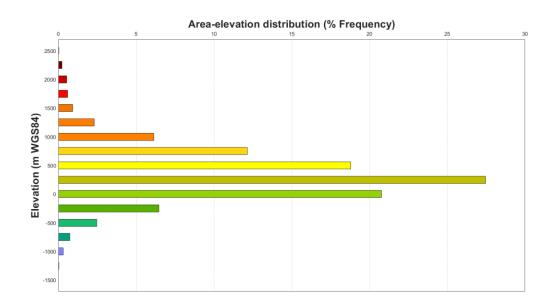






- Figure 4. Bed elevation maps for Princess Elizabeth Land. (a) ICECAP2 ice thickness DEM derived using mass conservation; (b) ICECAP2 bed DEM for the PEL sector. Profiles A–A', B–B', C–C', D–D' and E–E' are overlain in (b). The black box indicates a location of a previously discovered smooth-surface elongated and extensive feature interpreted as a potential subglacial lake (Jamieson et al., 2016). (c) Bedmap2 bed elevation model. (d) BedMachine bed elevation. (e) Difference map between the ICECAP2 and Bedmap2 DEMs; (f) Difference map between the ICECAP2 and BedMachine DEMs.
- 337

338 (a)



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340 (b)

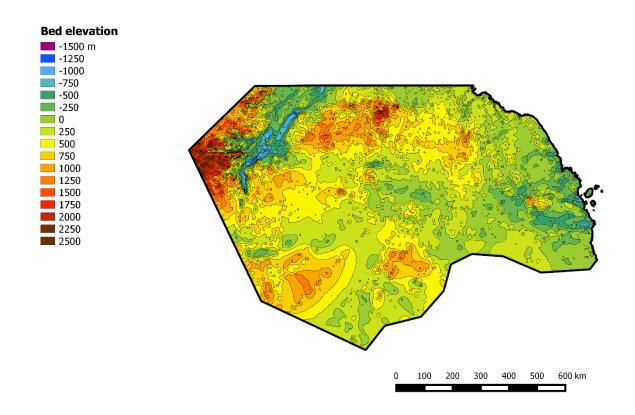
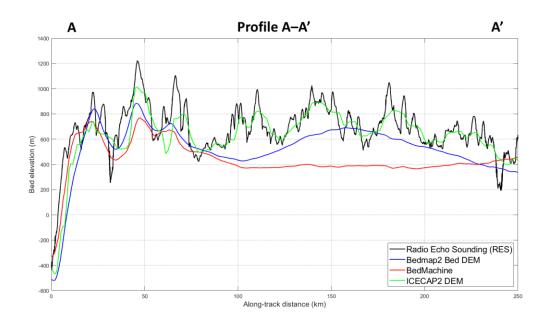


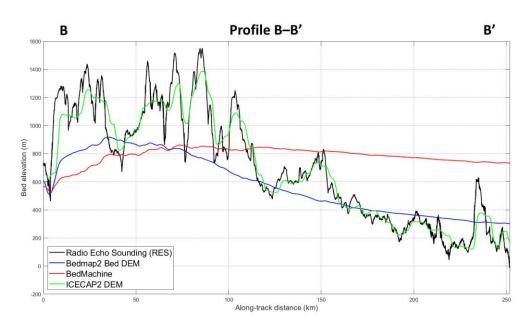
Figure 5. (a) Hypsometry (area-elevation distribution) derived from the ICECAP2 bed elevation model;
and (b) Bed elevation model determined for the PEL sector, East Antarctica. The graph and map have
the same elevation-related colour scheme.

345 (a)



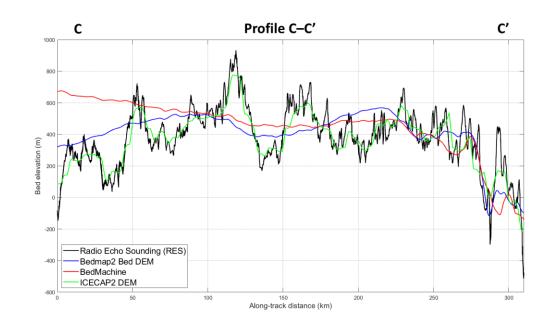


(b)

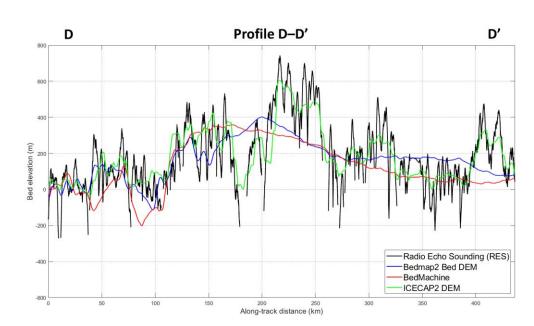








(d)





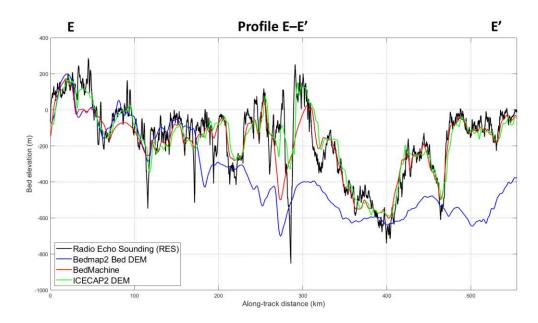




Figure 6. Bed elevations for RES transects (black), Bedmap2 (blue), BedMachine (red) and ICECAP 2
(green) for (a) Profile A–A', (b) Profile B–B', (c) Profile C–C', (d) Profile D–D' and (e) Profile E–E'.

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