

1 Landfast ice thickness in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago from Observations and Models

2 Stephen. E. L. Howell¹, Frédéric Laliberté¹, Ron Kwok², Chris Derksen¹ and Joshua King¹

3 ¹Climate Research Division, Environment and Climate Change Canada, Toronto, Canada

4 ²Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA

5 Abstract

6 Observed and modelled landfast ice thickness variability and trends spanning more than five
7 decades within the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA) are summarized. The observed sites
8 (Cambridge Bay, Resolute, Eureka and Alert) represent some of the Arctic's longest records of
9 landfast ice thickness. Observed end-of-winter (maximum) trends of landfast ice thickness
10 (1957-2014) were statistically significant at Cambridge Bay (-4.31 ± 1.4 cm decade⁻¹), Eureka (-
11 4.65 ± 1.7 cm decade⁻¹) and Alert (-4.44 ± 1.6 cm decade⁻¹) but not at Resolute. Over the 50+ year
12 record, the ice thinned by ~ 0.24 - 0.26 m at Cambridge Bay, Eureka and Alert with essentially
13 negligible change at Resolute. Although statistically significant warming in spring and fall was
14 present at all sites, only low correlations between temperature and maximum ice thickness were
15 present; snow depth was found to be more strongly associated with the negative ice thickness
16 trends. Comparison with multi-model simulations from Coupled Model Intercomparison project
17 phase 5 (CMIP5), Ocean Reanalysis Intercomparison (ORA-IP) and Pan-Arctic Ice-Ocean
18 Modeling and Assimilation System (PIOMAS) show that although a subset of current generation
19 models have a 'reasonable' climatological representation of landfast ice thickness and
20 distribution within the CAA, trends are unrealistic and far exceed observations by up to two
21 orders of magnitude. ORA-IP models were found to have positive correlations between
22 temperature and ice thickness over the CAA, a feature that is inconsistent with both observations
23 and coupled models from CMIP5.

24 **1. Introduction**

25 The World Meteorological Organization (WMO, 1970) defines landfast sea ice as “sea
26 ice which remains fast along the coast, where it is attached to the shore, to an ice wall, to an ice
27 front, or over shoals, or between grounded icebergs.” In the Arctic, this ice typically extends to
28 the 20-30 m isobaths [Mahoney *et al.*, 2007; Mahoney *et al.*, 2014]. It melts each summer and
29 reforms in the fall but there are regions along the northern coast of the Canadian Arctic
30 Archipelago (CAA) where multi-year landfast ice (also termed an “ice plug”) is present. The two
31 most prominent regions of multi-year landfast sea ice in the CAA are located in Nansen Sound
32 and Sverdrup Channel [Serson, 1972; Serson, 1974] (Figure 1). It has been documented that ice
33 remained intact from 1963-1998 in Nansen Sound and from 1978-1998 in Sverdrup Channel
34 [Jeffers *et al.*, 2001; Melling, 2002; Alt *et al.*, 2006]. The extreme warm year of 1998
35 disintegrated the ice in both regions and their survival during the summer melt season in recent
36 years has occurred less frequently [Alt *et al.*, 2006]. Over the entire Arctic, landfast ice extent is
37 declining at 7% decade⁻¹ since the mid-1970s [Yu *et al.*, 2013]

38 Records of landfast ice thickness provide annual measures of ice growth that can also
39 almost entirely be attributed to atmospheric forcing with negligible deep ocean influence on local
40 ice formation. While the key forcings on landfast ice and offshore ice are different, the seasonal
41 behavior of landfast ice can nevertheless provide useful information for understanding the
42 interannual variability of ice thickness in both regimes. Presently, there is no pan-Arctic network
43 for monitoring changes in landfast ice but available measurements suggest thinning in recent
44 years. Thickness measurements near Hopen, Svalbard revealed thinning of landfast ice in the
45 Barents Sea region by 11 cm decade⁻¹ between 1966 and 2007 [Gerland *et al.*, 2008]. From a
46 composite time series of landfast ice thickness from 15 stations along the Siberian coast,

47 *Polyakov et al.* [2010] estimate an average rate of thinning of 3.3 cm decade⁻¹ between the mid-
48 1960s and early 2000s. Relatively recent observations by *Mahoney et al.* [2007] and
49 *Druckenmiller et al.* [2009] found longer ice-free seasons and thinner landfast ice compared to
50 earlier records.

51 At four sites in the CAA, *Brown and Cote* [1992] (hereinafter, BC92) provided the first
52 examination of the interannual variability of end-of-winter (maximum) landfast ice thickness and
53 associated snow depth over the period 1957-1989. Their results highlighted the insulating role of
54 snow cover in explaining 30-60% of the variance in maximum ice thickness. Similar results were
55 also reported by *Flato and Brown* [1996] and *Gough et al.* [2004]. In the record examined by
56 BC92, no evidence for systematic thinning of landfast ice in the CAA was found. Landfast ice
57 thickness records at several of these CAA sites are now over 50 years in length, which represents
58 an addition of more than two decades of measurements since BC92 during a period that saw
59 dramatic reductions in the extent and thickness of Arctic sea ice [e.g. *Kwok and Rothrock*, 2009;
60 *Stroeve et al.*, 2012].

61 The sparse network of long term observations of snow and ice thickness in the Arctic
62 (clearly exhibited by only four ongoing measurements sites operated by Environment Canada in
63 the CAA) has made the use of models imperative to provide a broader regional scale perspective
64 of sea ice trends in a warming climate. Given the coarse spatial resolution of global climate
65 models, previous studies focusing on the CAA have relied on either a one-dimensional
66 thermodynamic dynamic model [*Flato and Brown*, 1996; *Dumas et al.*, 2006] or a regional three-
67 dimensional ice-ocean coupled model [e.g. *Sou and Flato*, 2009]. Specifically, *Dumas et al.*
68 [2006] found projected maximum ice thickness decreases of 30 cm by 2041-2060 and 50 cm by
69 2081-2100 and *Flato and Sou* [2009] reported a potential 17% decrease in overall ice thickness

70 throughout the CAA by 2041-2060. However, in recent years some global climate models,
71 reanalysis products, and data assimilation systems are now of sufficient spatial resolution to
72 assess potential landfast ice thickness changes within the CAA.

73 This analysis examines the trends of measured landfast ice thickness, snow depth and air
74 temperature over a 50+ year period between 1957 and 2014 and compares the results with the
75 earlier analysis by BC92. We then use this observational foundation to evaluate the
76 representativeness of landfast ice in state-of-the-art global climate models, assimilation systems
77 and re-analysis products.

78

79 **2. Data Description**

80 **2.1. Observations**

81 Landfast ice thickness and corresponding snow depth measurement have been made
82 regularly at many coastal stations throughout Canada since about 1950. These data are quality
83 controlled and archived at the Canadian Ice Service (CIS) and represent one of the few available
84 sources of continuous ice thickness measurements in the Arctic. In general, thickness
85 measurements are taken once per week, starting after freeze-up when the ice is safe to walk on
86 and continuing until breakup or when the ice becomes unsafe. Complete details of this dataset
87 are provided by Brown and Cote (1992). The dataset is available on the CIS web site
88 (<http://www.ec.gc.ca/glaces-ice/>, see Archive followed by Ice Thickness Data). Four sites in the
89 CAA were selected for study: Alert, Eureka, Resolute, and Cambridge Bay (Figure 1). Although
90 there are other sites in the database, these sites are the only ones that span the same 55-year
91 period between 1960 and 2014. The record at Mould Bay, used in BC92, terminated in the early
92 1990s. Together these sites cover $\sim 20^\circ$ in latitude (Figure 1) that are adjacent to an area of thick

93 Arctic sea ice that experienced the highest thinning in recent years [*Kwok and Rothrock, 2009;*
94 *Laxon et al., 2013*]. Values of maximum or end-of-winter ice thickness and corresponding snow
95 depth during the ice growth season were extracted from the weekly ice and snow thickness data
96 at the selected sites (see supplementary material). As this study is concerned with annual
97 variability in maximum ice thickness, the main period of interest extends from September to late
98 May.

99 The other source of observed data used in this study was Environment Canada’s monthly
100 mean air temperature records at Alert, Eureka, Resolute, and Cambridge Bay for which a
101 complete description is provided by *Vincent et al. [2012]*.

102

103 **2.2. Models**

104 The representation of CAA landfast sea ice thickness within the Coupled Model
105 Intercomparison project phase 5 (CMIP5) is analyzed using the 1850-2005 Historical experiment
106 followed by the 2006-2099 Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (RCP85) experiment
107 [*Taylor et al., 2012*] (Table 1). Monthly sea ice thickness (variable *sit*), sea ice concentration
108 (variable *sic*), 2 meter temperature (variable *tas*) and snow depth (variable *snd*) were used. The
109 CMIP5 data were retrieved from the British Atmospheric Data Centre database and accessed
110 through the Center for Environmental Data Analysis (www.ceda.ac.uk). Ensemble r6i1p1 and
111 r7i1p1 from model EC-EARTH were removed because of corrupted data. We obtain the multi-
112 model mean of trends and their statistical significance at each grid point by creating the
113 distribution of trends through a Monte-Carlo simulation. We use a t-distribution for the
114 interannual variability and build a noise model to account for internal variability as in *Swart et*
115 *al. [2014]* and *Laliberté et al. [2016]*. We obtain the multi-model mean of Pearson correlations

116 and their statistical significance by first performing a Fisher transform and then applying the
117 same method as for the trends. The inverse Fisher transform is applied after obtaining the multi-
118 model mean and its significance. See the appendix for a complete description of the method.

119 We also investigate ice thickness values from a selection of the highest resolution models
120 [*Storto et al., 2011; Forget et al., 2015; Haines et al., 2014, Zuo et al., 2015; Masina et al.,*
121 *2015*] from the Ocean Reanalysis Intercomparison (ORA-IP) [*Balsameda et al., 2015; Chevallier*
122 *et al., 2016*] (Table 2) and from the Pan-Arctic Ice-Ocean Modeling and Assimilation System
123 (PIOMAS) [*Zhang and Rothrock, 2003*]. Supporting 2 meter temperature data was obtained from
124 ERA-Interim [*Dee et al., 2011*].

125

126 **3. Results and Discussion: Observations**

127 **3.1. Climatology**

128 The average behavior of landfast ice at the four sites over the 50+ year record is
129 summarized in Table 3. Ice growth, approximately linear through most of the season, slows after
130 March (Figure 2). Ice thickness reaches a maximum of ~2-2.3 m by late May at all sites. Values
131 are consistent with that reported by BC92 and with recent observations of *Melling et al. [2015]*
132 and *Haas and Howell [2015]*. The standard deviations are nearly uniform (at ~0.2 m) across all
133 sites, giving a relatively low coefficient of variation (CV; a measure of relative dispersion
134 defined as the ratio of the standard deviation to the mean) of ~0.1. The thickest ice is found in
135 Eureka with a 1957-2014 mean of 2.27 m, which is likely due to climatologically lower air
136 temperatures in the fall and winter (Table 3).

137 Snow depth also appears to grow linearly through the season, peaking in May but unlike
138 ice thickness the monthly variability is high (CV ~0.4) (Figure 3). Mean October to May snow

139 depths at Resolute, Eureka and Alert range from ~18-23 cm compared to only ~8 cm at
140 Cambridge Bay (Table 3). The rapid buildup of the snow cover due to storms in the fall and early
141 winter that is evident over the Arctic Ocean multi-year ice cover [Warren *et al.*, 1999; Webster *et*
142 *al.*, 2014], is not seen in these snow depth records within the CAA. The linear behavior in snow
143 depth is likely maintained by continuous wind-driven redistribution and densification throughout
144 the ice growth season [BC92; Woo and Heron, 1989].

145

146 **3.2. Trends**

147 The time series of maximum ice thickness at Cambridge Bay, Resolute, Eureka and Alert
148 are illustrated in Figure 4 and summarized in Table 1. Statistically significant (95% or greater
149 confidence level) negative maximum ice thickness trends are present at Cambridge Bay (-
150 4.31 ± 1.4 cm decade⁻¹), Eureka (-4.65 ± 1.7 cm decade⁻¹) and Alert (-4.44 ± 1.6 cm decade⁻¹) (Table
151 1). A slight negative trend is present at Resolute but not statistically significant at the 95%
152 confidence level (Table 1). Over the 50+ year record, the ice thinned by ~0.24-0.26 m at
153 Cambridge Bay, Eureka and Alert with essentially negligible change at Resolute. These trends in
154 the CAA are similar to trends on the Siberian coast (-3.3 cm decade⁻¹) [Polyakov *et al.*, 2010] but
155 lower in magnitude compared to the Barents Sea (-11 cm decade⁻¹) [Gerland *et al.*, 2008].

156 For the shorter record (late 1950s–1989, ~30 years) investigated by BC92 there was a
157 negative trend at Alert (-7.1 cm decade⁻¹), no evidence of a trend at Eureka, and a positive trend
158 at Resolute (10 cm decade⁻¹) but only the positive trend at Resolute was statistically significant at
159 the 95% or greater confidence level. Our results from the present 50+ year record suggest that
160 the negative trend at Alert is robust and the trend at Eureka is now negative and significant. The
161 trend at Resolute is now slightly negative however it is not statistically significant.

162 Typically, ice thickness reaches its maximum in late May with trends toward earlier dates
163 of maximum ice thickness present at all sites (significant at Resolute, Eureka and Alert; Table 3).
164 The significant trends are between -2.0 ± 0.1 days decade⁻¹ at Eureka to -6.2 ± 1.5 days decade⁻¹ at
165 Resolute. At Resolute, the date of maximum ice thickness is now on average more than a month
166 earlier than the early 1960's although this is not reflected in the trend in ice thickness. Freeze
167 onset at these sites is also increasing at $\sim 3-6$ days decade⁻¹ [Howell *et al.*, 2009] and
168 demonstrates a shortened growth season at Resolute, Eureka and Alert. Together, the trends of
169 ice thickness and their recorded dates suggest a systematic thinning of landfast ice at Cambridge
170 Bay, Eureka and Alert.

171

172 **3.3. Ice thickness linkages with snow depth and temperature**

173 The variability of landfast thickness at these Arctic sites was previously found to be
174 largely driven by interannual variations in snow depth and air temperature [BC92; Flato and
175 Brown, 1996]. With the 50+ year record at the four sites, we can examine the corresponding
176 linkages to snow depth and temperature.

177 For snow depth, the only trend that is statistically significant at the 95% confidence is
178 Cambridge Bay at -0.8 ± 0.4 cm decade⁻¹ (Table 3). In contrast, BC92 found a significant positive
179 trend at Alert (4 cm decade⁻¹), a trend of low significance in Eureka, and a negative and
180 significant trend at Resolute (-3.3 cm decade⁻¹). Looking at the detrended correlations (r)
181 between snow depth and ice thickness reveals the strongest correlation at Resolute ($r=-0.71$)
182 followed by Eureka ($r=-0.66$), Alert ($r=-0.47$) and Cambridge Bay ($r=-0.31$). Figure 6 provides
183 evidence from extreme years of the role of deeper snow inhibiting ice growth compared to
184 thinner snow, but the positive trends in snow thickness are not significant at Resolute, Eureka

185 and Alert. This may in part be due to the single pointwise snow depth and ice thickness
186 measurements made at each point in time, which fail to capture spatial heterogeneity in the snow
187 depth/ice thickness relationship.

188 With respect to observed temperature, we find significant warming trends in the spring
189 and fall at all sites over the 50+ year record (Table 3; Figure 7). Significant warming is also
190 present at all sites in the summer except Resolute and at all sites during the winter except Eureka
191 (Table 3). Warming is highest during the fall, at $\sim 0.6^{\circ}\text{C decade}^{-1}$ at all sites (Table 3). The
192 detrended correlation between temperature (winter, spring, summer and autumn) and maximum
193 ice thickness is weak at all sites. For example, the strongest detrended correlation between
194 maximum ice thickness and temperature (winter and spring) is found at Cambridge Bay during
195 the winter and spring but is only ~ 0.4 .

196 Also of interest is that the observed temperature trends over this period differ
197 considerably from the earlier period investigated in BC92, in which they reported cooling at all
198 the sites, with a significant cooling trend at Eureka. It was noted that the general cooling over
199 their record coincided with the 1946-1986 cooling trend over much of the eastern Arctic and
200 northwest Atlantic reported by *Jones et al.* [1987]. This cooling trend halted during the 1980s
201 and the warming, seen in the current and longer record, has resumed [*Jones et al.*, 1999]. Arctic
202 land areas have experienced an overall warming of about $\sim 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ since the mid-1960s, with area-
203 wide positive temperature anomalies that show systematic changes since the end of the 20th
204 century, which continued through 2014 [*Jeffries and Richter-Menge*, 2015]. Recently, warming
205 in Canadian Arctic regions was found to be greater than the pan-Arctic trend by up to 0.2°C
206 decade^{-1} [*Tivy et al.*, 2011].

207

208 **4. Results and Discussion: Models**

209 **4.1. Climatology**

210 In order to compare seasonal cycles and trends in landfast ice thickness and snow depth
211 between models and observations, we limit our comparison to models with a reasonable
212 representation of the CAA, i.e. those with an open Parry Channel (i.e. bcc-csm-1-1, bcc-csm-1-
213 1m, CNRM-CM5, ACCESS1-0, ACCESS1-3, FIO-ESM, EC-EARTH, inmcm4, MIROC5, MPI-
214 ESM-LR, MPI-ESM-MR, MRI-CGCM3, CCSM4, NorESM1-M, NorESM1-ME, GFDL-CM3,
215 GFDL-ESM2G, GFL-ESM2M, CESM1-BCG, CESM1-CAM5, CESM-WACCM). In these
216 models, sufficient spatial resolution allows us to find sample points that are almost collocated to
217 *in situ* observation locations. The sample points were determined by finding the closest ocean
218 grid point where the sea ice is packed for a good portion of the year, but not all year. Grid points
219 with this characteristic therefore share the most important feature of the landfast ice at our
220 observations locations: it is not perennial. Mathematically, we sought sample points where the
221 sea ice concentration is on average above 85% for more than one month but less than 11 months
222 over the 1955-2014 period. The Eureka site is however particularly challenging for models
223 because it lies deep in a very narrow channel, which is only resolved by the MPI-ESM-MR in the
224 CMIP5. As a result, for most models, the sample point for Eureka is located on the western shore
225 of Ellesmere Island. This is a consequence of using samples as some models either do not
226 resolve some of the channels in the CAA or have too perennial packed ice cover (e.g. CESM1-
227 CAM5), then the sample points are further from the observational site than would be desired. We
228 chose to use sample points in our comparison to observations instead of using regional averages
229 for two main reasons. The first reason is that using regional averages would have lumped
230 together different ice dynamics regimes that should not necessarily be expected to compare well

231 to point observations on landfast ice. The second reason is that we are of the opinion that the
232 resolution in many of these models is sufficiently high to warrant such a direct comparison and
233 provides a better benchmark than regional averages for landfast ice modelling in the CAA.

234 The seasonal cycle (1955-2014) of median ice thickness from CMIP5 (black), ORA-IP
235 models CGLORS, ORAP5.0 and GLORYS2V3 (blue), ECCO-v4 (green) and UR025.4 (red) is
236 shown in Figure 8. ORA-IP models have been split into three groups based, respectively, on their
237 high, medium and low ice thicknesses at Alert. Ice thickness from CMIP5 is comparable to
238 observations (Figure 2) at Cambridge Bay and Resolute with maximum ice thickness reaching
239 200 cm. The ORA-IP models are less consistent. ECCO-v4 tends to have thicker sea ice than
240 observations at Cambridge Bay, Resolute and Eureka but thinner at Alert. CGLORS, ORAP5.0,
241 and GLORYS2V3, on the other hand, are comparable to observations at Cambridge Bay,
242 Resolute and Eureka but have extremely thick and perennial ice close to Alert.

243 The seasonal cycle (1955-2014) of median snow depth from CMIP5 is shown in Figure
244 9. CMIP5 models indicate a linear increase similar to observations reaching a maximum of ~20
245 cm in April or May. This is lower than the observed maximum at Resolute, Eureka and Alert but
246 is about twice as much as at Cambridge Bay. While the snow depth reaches zero during the
247 summer at Eureka and Alert in models, the sea ice thickness does not (Figure 8), unlike in
248 observations. This likely reflects the fact that the grid cell thickness in sea ice models with
249 thickness classes represents the average thickness over these classes. In August the thinner ice
250 classes might have melted but thicker ice classes can still be found, resulting in a substantial
251 average ice thickness over the grid cell. The seasonal cycle over packed ice in these models thus
252 gives a reasonable representation of the seasonal cycle over landfast ice in the CAA, especially
253 in the southern region of the CAA. Overall, this comparison shows how recent improvements in

254 sea ice model resolution allows comparisons with observations that required dynamical
255 downscaling techniques in the previous generation of sea ice models [i.e. *Dumas et al. 2005; Sou*
256 *and Flato, 2013*].

257 Despite relatively high spatial resolution, PIOMAS does not resolve seasonal ice
258 thickness along the coasts and within the very narrow channels within the CAA (not shown). As
259 a result, Cambridge Bay and Resolute Bay sites represent the only long-term monitoring sites
260 within the CAA suitable for comparison since PIOMAS. The monthly time series of PIOMAS
261 ice and snow thickness estimates at Cambridge Bay and Resolute is shown in Figure 10. The
262 seasonal cycle of ice growth at Cambridge Bay and Resolute is representative compared to
263 observations (Figure 2) but PIOMAS estimates retain more ice in August and September,
264 particularly at Resolute. Ice growth reaches a maximum in April at Cambridge and in May at
265 Resolute which is 1-month earlier compared to observations. Snow depth follows a linear
266 increase similar to observations (Figure 3) with good agreement at Cambridge Bay but
267 considerably underestimates snow depth at Resolute (Figure 10). *Schweiger et al. [2011]*
268 performed a detailed comparison of PIOMAS ice thickness values against *in situ* and Ice, Cloud,
269 and land Elevation Satellite (ICESat) ice thickness observations and found strong correlations.
270 They determined a root mean square error (RMSE) of ~0.76 m and noted that PIOMAS
271 generally overestimates thinner ice and underestimates thicker ice. At both sites within the CAA,
272 PIOMAS ice thickness data is in reasonably good agreement with *in situ* observations with
273 RMSE's of 0.29 cm at Cambridge Bay and 0.68 cm at Resolute (Figure 11). The systematic
274 overestimate of thinner ice reported by *Schweiger et al. [2011]* is more apparent at Resolute than
275 Cambridge Bay (Figure 11). The higher latitude regions of the CAA where there is an intricate

276 mix of seasonal first-year ice and multi-year ice is a problem for PIOMAS and thus contributes
277 to the larger discrepancy at Resolute compared to Cambridge Bay.

278

279 **4.2. Trends**

280 The spatial distribution of maximum sea ice thickness trends from ORA-IP and CMIP5 is
281 illustrated in Figures 12. The CMIP5 model-mean exhibit a fairly uniform trend pattern,
282 consistent with the different in situ observations (Figure 4) but with overestimated negative
283 thickness trends. Although, for individual models this pattern is far from uniform, the general
284 pattern and magnitude of thickness trends tend to be roughly in accordance with temperature
285 trends (not shown). A similar behavior is observed in the ORA-IP models, with the notable
286 exception of CGLORS, where positive thickness trends are found almost everywhere (Figure
287 12a). This is robust and it appears that the model is not completely equilibrated in the CAA and
288 exhibit large month-to-month adjustments. Model ORAP5.0 also is not completely equilibrated
289 in the region for years 1979-1984. During those years, it exhibits large inter annual changes in
290 thickness. For this reason, we are only considering years 1985-2013 for this model.

291 For PIOMAS, the North-South overestimated trend is also present (not shown) as with
292 CMIP5 and ORA-IP. Looking specifically at trends computed from 1979-2014 near the observed
293 sites indicates that the mean maximum ice thickness linear trend from at Cambridge Bay is -
294 13.4 ± 3.4 cm decade⁻¹ which is almost double the observational trend of 6.2 ± 2.4 cm decade⁻¹. At
295 Resolute, the PIOMAS linear trend is 24.0 ± 4.1 cm decade⁻¹ which is considerably stronger than
296 the observational trend of -4.9 ± 3.51 cm decade⁻¹.

297

298 **4.3. Ice thickness linkages with snow depth and temperature**

299 Even though ORA-IP models have unrealistically large thickness trends, the pattern of
300 inter annual correlation (detrended) between winter temperatures and thicknesses is roughly
301 consistent across models (Figure 13). Some ORA-IP models also experience positive correlations
302 (e.g. CGLORS, ORAP5.0, GLORYS2V3 and UR025.4) that are mostly located north of the
303 CAA or within the CAA in regions where multi-year ice is known to be present. It is possible
304 that warmer temperatures are associated with an increased flux of thicker multi-year ice into the
305 CAA which is known to occur [e.g. *Howell et al.*, 2013] but the driving processes responsible for
306 these positive correlations require more investigation. In CMIP5 models, no model exhibits
307 positive correlations with temperature that resemble ORA-IP models over the CAA. Although
308 the time series for the ORA-IP models is short and the positive correlations are only statistically
309 significant at a few grid points in CGLORS and UR025.4, this behavior is sufficiently
310 problematic to recommend that care should be taken when using these ORA-IP models to study
311 the interannual variability in the Canadian Arctic.

312 In the CMIP5 models, significant winter snow depth trends are more strongly negative in
313 the North than in the South (Figure 14). This is in disagreement with point observations
314 presented in the previous sections that showed no significant trends snow depth trends at Alert
315 but negative and significant trends at Cambridge Bay. Although only based on limited point *in*
316 *situ* observations, this suggests that over the last decades changes in winter precipitation at Alert
317 must have compensated the increased melting driven by increasing temperatures, a compensation
318 that is clearly not captured in CMIP5 models..

319

320 **5. Conclusions**

321 Over the 50+ year in situ observational record, statistically significant negative trends in
322 maximum (end-of-winter) ice thickness are present at Cambridge Bay, Eureka and Alert.
323 Significant negative trends in the day of maximum ice thickness are also present at Resolute,
324 Eureka and Alert. Together, these trends suggest thinning of landfast ice in the CAA, where little
325 evidence was found in the shorter record analyzed in an earlier study (BC92). The inter-annual
326 variability of air temperature is only weakly correlated to maximum ice thickness (i.e. maximum
327 correlation is ~0.4). Snow thickness plays the dominant role in controlling maximum ice
328 thickness variability given the high correlations at Resolute and Eureka and reasonably high
329 correlations at Alert and Cambridge Bay.

330 Comparison of CMIP5, ORA-IP and PIOMAS simulations with observations indicate a
331 reasonable representation of the landfast ice thickness monthly climatology within the CAA.
332 This is particularly apparent when seasonal first-year ice dominates the icescape (i.e. Cambridge
333 Bay). Despite improvements in spatial resolution, mixed ice types (i.e. seasonal and multi-year)
334 present at the sub-grid cell resolution are likely problems for model estimates within the CAA.
335 The overall thickness of ice within the CAA in the current generation of models is too high. As a
336 result, trends are unrealistic and far exceed observations (by upwards of $-50 \text{ cm decade}^{-1}$) in part
337 because the initial ice thickness is too large. The problem is particularly acute in the ORA-IP
338 models where large and unrealistic inter annual changes in thickness suggest that the models are
339 not fully equilibrated.

340 While the impact of the snow cover on ice thickness is well known, the significant
341 correlations at Resolute, Eureka and Alert suggest that the higher sensitivity to changes in snow
342 depth could potentially mask the warming signal on both fast and offshore ice. Thus, even in this
343 limited data set, we can see the dominant role played by snow depth in determining the

344 interannual variability of the maximum landfast ice thickness. This again highlights that the
345 primary factor is the amount and timing of snow accumulation, not air temperature. However, it
346 is worth noting that few of the current generation models show coherent relationships between
347 ice thickness, snow depth and temperature over the longer term record.

348

349 **Appendix**

350 The Monte-Carlo simulation used to combine trends and Pearson correlations is applied
351 at each grid point independently. Models that have a land mask at a grid point are discarded
352 before starting the procedure.

353 A noise model is created to ensure that internal variability is comparable for models with
354 different ensemble sizes, following Swart et al. [2014] and Laliberté et al. [2016]. To generate
355 the noise model, we discard models that have fewer than two realizations. From the remaining
356 models, we pick one and then one of its realizations. We then record to the noise model the
357 difference of this realization's trend from the mean trend of the model's realizations, multiplied
358 by $(n/(n-1))^{1/2}$, with n being the number of realizations, to account for the fact that some models
359 have such a small number of realizations that it cannot completely account for the internal
360 variability. We repeat this procedure 1000 times and compute the variance σ_n of the noise
361 model.

362 We then pick a model from which we select 1000 realizations, allowing repetitions. For
363 each one of these realizations, we select a random value from its trend t-distribution. If the inter-
364 realization trend variance σ_m is smaller than the variance of the noise model σ_n , we then draw a
365 random value from the noise model, multiply it by $(1-\sigma_m/\sigma_n)^{1/2}$ and add it to the random value
366 from the trend t-distribution.

367 We repeat this procedure with the remaining models. We then average the 1000 values
368 across models, creating a distribution for the multi-model mean trend with 1000 values. The
369 mean of this distribution gives our multi-model mean and its two-sided p-value is given by twice
370 its survival function or cumulative distribution function at 0, whichever is smallest.

371 The Pearson correlations are analyzed in the same way except that a Fisher transform
372 (obtained by the hyperbolic arctangent of the correlation) is applied first and random values are
373 drawn from a normal distribution (instead of the t-distribution) with variance $1/(T-3)$, with T the
374 number of years used for the correlation. The multi-model mean Pearson correlation is then
375 given by the inverse Fisher transform (obtained by the hyperbolic tangent of the mean) of the
376 distribution mean.

377

378 **Authors Contributions**

379 S.E.L.H, F.L and R.K designed the study, performed the analysis and wrote the manuscript with
380 input from C.D. and J.K.

381

382 **Acknowledgements**

383 The authors wish to thank all the individuals responsible for collecting landfast ice and snow
384 thickness measurements in the Canadian Arctic over the past 50+ years.

385

386

387 **References**

388

389 Alt, B., K. Wilson, and T. Carrieres (2006), A case study of old ice import and export through
390 Peary and Sverdrup channels in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago: 1998-2004, *Ann. Glaciol.*, 44,
391 329–338, doi:10.3189/172756406781811321.

392

393 M.A. Balmaseda , F. Hernandez , A. Storto , M.D. Palmer , O. Alves , L. Shi , G.C. Smith , T.
394 Toyoda , M. Valdivieso , B. Barnier , D. Behringer , T. Boyer , Y-S. Chang , G.A. Chepurin , N.

395 Ferry , G. Forget , Y. Fujii , S. Good , S. Guinehut , K. Haines , Y. Ishikawa , S. Keeley , A.
396 Köhl , T. Lee , M.J. Martin , S. Masina , S. Masuda , B. Meyssignac , K. Mogensen , L. Parent ,
397 K.A. Peterson , Y.M. Tang , Y. Yin , G. Vernieres , X. Wang , J. Waters , R. Wedd , O. Wang ,
398 Y. Xue , M. Chevallier , J-F. Lemieux , F. Dupont , T. Kuragano , M. Kamachi , T. Awaji , A.
399 Caltabiano , K. Wilmer-Becker , F. Gaillard, The Ocean Reanalyses Intercomparison Project
400 (ORA-IP), *Journal of Operational Oceanography*, Vol. 8, Iss. sup1, 2015,
401 DOI:10.1080/1755876X.2015.1022329
402

403 Brown, R., and P. Cote (1992), Interannual variability of landfast ice thickness in the Canadian
404 high arctic, 1950–89. *Arctic*, 45, 273–284.
405

406 Bromwich, D. H., A. B. Wilson, L. Bai, G. W. K. Moore, and P. Bauer, 2015: A comparison of
407 the regional Arctic System Reanalysis and the global ERA-Interim Reanalysis for the Arctic. *Q.*
408 *J. R. Meteorol. Soc.*, doi: 10.1002/qj.2527
409

410 Dee DP, co-authors (2011), The ERA-Interim reanalysis: configuration and performance of the
411 data assimilation system. *Q J R Meteorol Soc.* 137: 553–597, doi:10.1002/qj.828.
412

413 Dumas, J. A., G. M. Flato, and R. D. Brown (2006), Future projections of landfast ice thickness
414 and duration in the Canadian Arctic. *J. Climate*, 19, 5175–5189.
415

416 Druckenmiller, M. L., H. Eicken, M. A. Johnson, D. J. Pringle, and C. C. Williams (2009),
417 Toward an integrated coastal sea-ice observatory: System components and a case study at
418 Barrow, Alaska. *Cold Reg.Sci.Tech.*, 56, 61-72.
419

420 Flato, G. M., and R. D. Brown (1996), Variability and climate sensitivity of landfast Arctic sea
421 ice. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 101 (C10), 25 767–25 777.
422

423 Forget, G., Campin, J.-M., Heimbach, P., Hill, C. N., Ponte, R. M., and Wunsch, C. (2015),
424 ECCO version 4: an integrated framework for non-linear inverse modeling and global ocean
425 state estimation, *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 8, 3071-3104, doi:10.5194/gmd-8-3071-2015/
426

427 Gerland, S., A. H. H. Renner, F. Godtlielsen, D. Divine, and T. B. Loynning (2008), Decrease of
428 sea ice thickness at Hopen, Barents Sea, during 1966-2007. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 35, L06501.
429

430 Gough, W., A.S. Gagnon and H.P Lau (2004), Interannual variability of Hudson Bay Ice
431 Thickness, *Polar Geography*, 28(3), 222-238.
432

433 Haines K, M. Valdivieso, H. Zuo, and V.N. Stepanov (2012), Transports and budgets in a 1/4 °
434 global ocean reanalysis 1989–2010. *Ocean Sci.* 8(3): 333–344, doi:10.5194/os-8-333-
435 2012.002/qj.2063.
436

437 Haas, C., and S. E. L. Howell (2015), Ice thickness in the Northwest Passage, *Geophys. Res.*
438 *Lett.*, 42, doi:10.1002/2015GL065704
439

440 Howell, S. E. L., C. R. Duguay, and T. Markus (2009), Sea ice conditions and melt season
441 duration variability within the Canadian Arctic Archipelago: 1979–2008, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*,
442 36, L10502, doi:10.1029/2009GL037681.

443 Howell, S. E. L., T. Wohlleben, M. Dabboor, C. Derksen, A. Komarov, and L. Pizzolato (2013),
444 Recent changes in the exchange of sea ice between the Arctic Ocean and the Canadian Arctic
445 Archipelago, *J. Geophys. Res. Oceans*, 118, 3595–3607, doi:10.1002/jgrc.20265.

446 Jeffers, S., T. Agnew, B. Alt, R. De Abreu, and S. McCourt (2001), Investigating the anomalous
447 sea ice conditions in the Canadian High Arctic (Queen Elizabeth Islands) during the summer of
448 1998, *Ann. Glaciol.*, 33, 507– 612.

449
450 Jeffries, M. O. and J. Richter-Menge, Eds. (2015), The Arctic [in State of the Climate in 2014],
451 *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, 96, ES1–ES32.
452 doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/2015BAMSStateoftheClimate.1>
453

454 Jones, P.D., T.M.L. Wigley, C.K. Folland and D.E. Parker (1987), Spatial patterns in recent
455 worldwide temperature trends. *Climate Monitor*, 16(5): 175-185.

456
457 Jones, P.D., M. New, D.E. Parker, S. Martin, and I.G. Rigor (1999), Surface air temperature and
458 its changes over the past 150 years, *Rev. Geophys.*, 37(2),173–200.

459
460 Kwok, R., and D. A. Rothrock (2009), Decline in Arctic sea ice thickness from submarine and
461 ICESat records: 1958 – 2008, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, L15501, doi:10.1029/2009GL039035.

462
463 Laliberté, F., S. E. L. Howell, and P. J. Kushner (2016), Regional variability of a projected sea
464 ice-free Arctic during the summer months, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43, 256–263,
465 doi:10.1002/2015GL066855.

466
467 Laxon S. W., K. A. Giles, A. L. Ridout, D. J. Wingham, R. Willatt, R. Cullen, R. Kwok, A.
468 Schweiger, J. Zhang, C. Haas, S. Hendricks, R. Krishfield, N. Kurtz, S. Farrell and M. Davidson
469 (2013), CryoSat-2 estimates of Arctic sea ice thickness and volume, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 40,
470 732–737, doi:10.1002/grl.50193.

471
472 Masina, S. et al. (2015), An ensemble of eddy-permitting global ocean reanalyses from the
473 MyOcean project. *Clim. Dynam.* 1–29, doi:10.1007/s00382-015-2728-5
474

475 Mahoney, A., H. Eicken, and L. Shapiro (2007), How fast is landfast sea ice? A study of the
476 attachment and detachment of nearshore ice at Barrow, Alaska. *Cold Reg.Sci.Tech.*, 47, 233-255.
477

478 Mahoney, A. R., H. Eicken, A. G. Gaylord, and R. Gens (2014), Landfast sea ice extent in the
479 Chukchi and Beaufort seas: The annual cycle and decadal variability, *Cold Reg. Sci. Technol.* ,
480 103, 41–56, doi:10.1016/j.coldregions.2014.03.003.

481 Melling, H. (2002), Sea ice of the northern Canadian Arctic Archipelago, *J. Geophys. Res.*,
482 107(C11), 3181, doi:10.1029/2001JC001102.

483

484 Melling, H., C. Haas, and E. Brossier (2015), Invisible polynyas: Modulation of fast ice
485 thickness by ocean heat flux on the Canadian polar shelf, *J. Geophys. Res. Oceans*, 120, 777–
486 795, doi:10.1002/2014JC010404.

487 Ólason, E. Ö. (2012), Dynamical modeling of Kara Sea land-fast ice, PhD thesis, Univ. of
488 Hamburg, Hamburg, Germany.

489

490 Polyakov, I. V., et al. (2010), Arctic Ocean Warming Contributes to Reduced Polar Ice Cap.
491 *Journal of Physical Oceanography*, 40, 2743-2756

492

493 Schweiger, A., R. Lindsay, J. Zhang, M. Steele, H. Stern, and R. Kwok (2011), Uncertainty in
494 modeled Arctic sea ice volume, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 116, C00D06, doi:10.1029/2011JC007084.

495

496 Serson, H.V. (1972), Investigations of a plug of multiyear old sea ice in the mouth of Nansen
497 Sound. Ottawa, Ont., Department of National Defence, Canada. Defence Research Establishment
498 Ottawa. (DREO Tech. Note 72-6.)

499

500 Serson, H.V. (1974), Sverdrup Channel. Ottawa, Ont., Department of National Defence, Canada.
501 Defence Research Establishment Ottawa. (DREO Tech. Note 74-10.)

502

503 Sou, T., and G. Flato (2009), Sea ice in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago: Modeling the past
504 (1950-2004) and the future (2041-60), *J. Clim.*, 22, 2181–2198, doi:10.1175/2008JCLI2335.1

505 Stroeve, J. C., M. C. Serreze, M. M. Holland, J. E. Kay, J. Malanik, and A. P. Barrett (2011),
506 The Arctic’s rapidly shrinking sea ice cover: A research synthesis, *Clim. Change*, 110(3-4),
507 1005–1027.

508

509 Storto A, S. Dobricic S, S. Masina and D. Di Pietro (2011), Assimilating along-track altimetric
510 observations through local hydrostatic adjustments in a global ocean reanalysis system. *Mon*
511 *Wea Rev.* 139: 738–754.

512

513 Stroeve, J. C., M. C. Serreze, M. M. Holland, J. E. Kay, J. Maslanik, and A. P. Barrett (2012),
514 The Arctic’s rapidly shrinking sea ice cover: A research synthesis, *Clim. Change*, 110(3-4),
515 1005–1027

516

517 Swart, N. C., J. C. Fyfe, E. Hawkins, J. E. Kay, and A. Jahn (2015), Influence of internal
518 variability on Arctic sea-ice trends, *Nat. Clim. Change*, 5, 86–89, doi:10.1038/nclimate2483.

519

519 Taylor, K. E., R. J. Stouffer, and G. A. Meehl (2012), An overview of CMIP5 and the
520 experiment design, *Bull. Am. Meteorol. Soc.*, 93, 485–498, doi:10.1175/BAMS-D-11-00094.1.

521

522 Tivy, A., S. E. L. Howell, B. Alt, S. McCourt, R. Chagnon, G. Crocker, T. Carrieres, and J. J.
523 Yackel (2011), Trends and variability in summer sea ice cover in the Canadian Arctic based on
524 the Canadian Ice Service Digital Archive, 1960–2008 and 1968–2008, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 116,
525 C03007, doi:10.1029/2009JC005855.

526

527 Vincent, L., X. Wang, E. Milewska, Hui Wan, F. Yang, and V. Swail (2012), A second
528 generation of homogenized Canadian monthly surface air temperature for climate trend analysis.
529 *Journal of Geophysical Research*, D18110, doi:10.1029/2012JD017859
530

531 Warren, S. G., I. G. Rigor, N. Untersteiner, V. F. Radionov, N. N. Bryazgin, Y. I. Aleksandrov,
532 and R. Colony (1999), Snow depth on Arctic sea ice, *J. Clim.*, 12, 1814– 1829.
533

534 Wilks, D. S. (2006). On “field significance” and the false discovery rate. *J. Appl. Meteor.*
535 *Climatol.*, 45, 1181–1189. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JAM2404.1>
536

537 Woo, M-K., and R. Heron (1989), Freeze-up and break-up of ice cover on small arctic lakes. In:
538 Mackay, W.C., ed. Northern lakes and rivers. Edmonton: Boreal Institute for Northern Studies,
539 56-62.

540 Woo, M-K., R. Heron, P. Marsh, and P. Steer, (1983), Comparison of weather station snowfall
541 with winter snow accumulation in High Arctic basins, *Atmos.-Ocean*, 21(3):312-325.
542

543 World Meteorological Organization, (1970), WMO sea-ice nomenclature. Terminology, codes
544 and illustrated glossary. WMO/OMM.BMO No. 259, 145 pp, Geneva Secretariat of the World
545 Meteorological Organization
546

547 Yu, Y, H. Stern, C. Fowler, F. Fetterer, and J. Maslanik (2014), Interannual Variability of Arctic
548 Landfast Ice between 1976 and 2007. *J. Climate*, **27**, 227–243.
549 doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-13-00178.1>
550

551 Zhang, J.L. and D.A. Rothrock, (2003), Modeling global sea ice with a thickness and enthalpy
552 distribution model in generalized curvilinear coordinates, *Mon. Weather Rev.*, 131, 845-861.
553

554 Zuo, H., M.A. Balmaseda, and K. Mogensen (2015), The new eddy-permitting ORAP5 ocean
555 reanalysis: description, evaluation and uncertainties in climate signals. *Clim. Dynam.* 1–21.
556 doi:10.1007/s00382-015-2675-1.
557
558
559
560
561
562
563
564
565
566
567
568
569
570
571
572

573 Table 1. CMIP5 models used in this study, the number of realizations with ice data and the
 574 number of realizations with sea ice transport data

	w/ ice		w/ ice
bcc-csm1-1	1	MIROC-ESM-CHEM	1
bcc-csm1-1-m	1	MIROC5	3
BNU-ESM	1	HadGEM2-CC	1
CanESM2	5	HadGEM2-ES	4
CMCC-CESM	1	MPI-ESM-LR	3
CMCC-CM	1	MPI-ESM-MR	1
CMCC-CMS	1	MRI-CGCM3	1
CNRM-CM5	5	CCSM4	6
ACCESS1.0	1	NorESM1-M	1
ACCESS1.3	1	NorESM1-ME	1
CSIRO-Mk3.6.0	10	GFDL-CM3	1
FIO-ESM	1	GFDL-ESM2G	1
EC-EARTH	6	GFDL-ESM2M	1
inmcm4	1	CESM1(BGC)	1
FGOALS-g2	1	CESM1(CAM5)	3
MIROC-ESM	1	CESM1(WACCM)	3

575
 576
 577
 578
 579
 580
 581
 582
 583
 584
 585
 586
 587
 588
 589
 590
 591
 592
 593

594 Table 2. Summary of ORA-IP models characteristics

Model Name	CGLORS	ECCO-v4	GLORYS2V3	ORAP5.0	UR025.4	PIOMAS
Institute	CMCC	JPL-NASA-MIT-AER	Mercator Océan	ECMWF	University of Reading	APL/PSC
Resolution	ORCA0.25°	~40km in the Arctic	ORCA0.25°	ORCA0.25°	ORCA0.25°	~22km in the Arctic
Ocean Model	NEMO 3.2.1	MITgcm	NEMO 3.1	NEMO3.4	NEMO 3.2	POP
Sea ice Model	LIM2	MITgcm	LIM2 (with EVP rheology)	LIM2	LIM2	TED
Time period considered	1982-2012	1991-2011	1993-2013	1985-2013	1993-2010	1958-2015
Atmospheric forcing	ERA-Interim	ERA-Interim	ERA-Interim	ERA-Interim	ERA-Interim	NCEP/NCAR
Sea ice product assimilated	NSIDC NASA-Team Daily	NSIDC Bootstrap Monthly	IFREMER/CERSAT	NOAA / OSTIA combination	EUMETSAT OSI-SAF	NSIDC near-real time Daily

595
596
597
598
599
600
601
602
603
604
605
606
607
608
609
610
611
612
613
614
615
616
617
618

619 Table 3. Observed maximum ice thickness, snow depth, and surface air temperature at four
 620 landfast ice sites in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. The bold text indicates statistical
 621 significance of the linear trend at 95% or greater.

	Cambridge Bay	Resolute	Eureka	Alert
Period	1960-2014	1957-2014	1957-2014	1957-2014
Ice Thickness, h_{ice}				
Mean of $max h_{ice}$ (m)	2.11±0.19	2.02±0.19	2.27±0.23	1.98±0.22
Trend of $max h_{ice}$ (cm decade ⁻¹)	-4.31±1.4	-0.5±1.6	-4.65±1.7	-4.44±1.6
Day of $max h_{ice}$	24 May±17	25 May±21	26 May±12	27 May±16
Trend of day of $max h_{ice}$ (days decade ⁻¹)	-0.87±1.5	-6.2±1.5	-2.0±0.1	-3.0±1.2
Snow depth (h_{snow})				
Mean Oct-May h_{snow} (cm)	8.4±4.2	22.6±10	17.6±5.8	18.4±6.2
Trend of Oct-May h_{snow} (cm decade ⁻¹)	-0.8±0.4	-0.75±0.8	0.54±0.5	0.26±0.5
Temperature				
Winter (Dec-Feb) Mean (°C)	-31.3±2.0	-30.8±1.9	-36.0±2.0	-31.2±1.6
Winter (Dec-Feb) (°C/decade)	0.59±0.2	0.35±0.1	0.23±0.2	0.38±0.1
Spring (Mar-May) Mean (°C)	-20.0±1.8	-21.1±1.8	-24.9±2.0	-22.8±1.8
Spring (Mar-May) (°C/decade)	0.47±0.1	0.57±0.1	0.44±0.1	0.32±0.1
Summer (Jun-Aug) Mean (°C)	5.9±1.4	2.3±1.3	3.9±1.2	1.3±0.8
Summer (Jun-Aug) (°C/decade)	0.30±0.1	0.17±0.2	0.21±0.1	0.1±0.1
Fall (Sep-Nov) Mean (°C)	-11.1±2.0	-13.8±2.0	-19.6±2.2	-18.0±1.7
Fall (Sep-Nov) (°C/decade)	0.60±0.2	0.67±0.1	0.68±0.2	0.56±0.1

622
 623
 624
 625
 626
 627

628 **List of Figures**

629

630 Figure 1. Map of the central Canadian Arctic Archipelago showing the location of the landfast
631 snow and thickness observations.

632

633 Figure 2. Seasonal cycle of observed mean ice thickness at the four sites (1960-2014).

634

635 Figure 3. Seasonal cycle of observed mean snow depth at the four sites (1960-2014).

636

637 Figure 4. Time series and trend of observed maximum ice thickness at the four sites.

638

639 Figure 5. Time series and trend of observed mean October through May snow depth at the four
640 sites.

641

642 Figure 6. Weekly time series of ice thickness and snow depth at Eureka and Alert for (a) low
643 snow years and (b) high snow years.

644

645 Figure 7. Time series observed mean air temperature by Environment Canada during winter
646 (DJF), spring, (MAM), summer (JJA) and autumn (SON) at the Cambridge Bay, Resolute,
647 Eureka and Alert.

648

649 Figure 8. CMIP5 median sea ice thickness seasonal cycle (1955-2014) at stations (grey).
650 Observations from 2 (black). Median of ORA-IP models CGLORS, ORAP5.0, GLORYS2V3
651 (blue), ECCO-v4 (green) and UR025.4 (red). Whiskers indicate the 5th and 95th percentiles.

652

653 Figure 9. Same as Figure 8 for snow depth and only for CMIP5 models (grey) and observations
654 (black).

655

656 Figure 10. Seasonal cycle of observed mean ice thickness (left) and snow depth (right) from
657 PIOMAS at Cambridge Bay and Resolute (1979-2014).

658

659 Figure 11. Comparison of PIOMAS ice thickness with ice thickness observations from
660 Environment Canada's ice thickness monitoring sites at Cambridge Bay and Resolute. The data
661 covers the period 1979-2014.

662

663 Figure 12. **a-e:** Maximum sea ice thickness trends in ORA-IP simulations. **f:** Same for CMIP5
664 MODEL-MEAN. From South to North, o's indicate Cambridge Bay (green), Resolute (blue),
665 Eureka (white) and Alert (black) and x's indicate the corresponding measurement stations. In **f**,
666 one o per model is shown." The stippling indicates p-values less than 0.05, corrected using the
667 False Discovery Rate (FDR) method with a global pFDR-values less than 0.10 [Wilks, 2006].
668 The colorbar is linear from -10 cm dec-1 to 10 cm dec-1 and symmetric logarithmic beyond
669 these values.

670

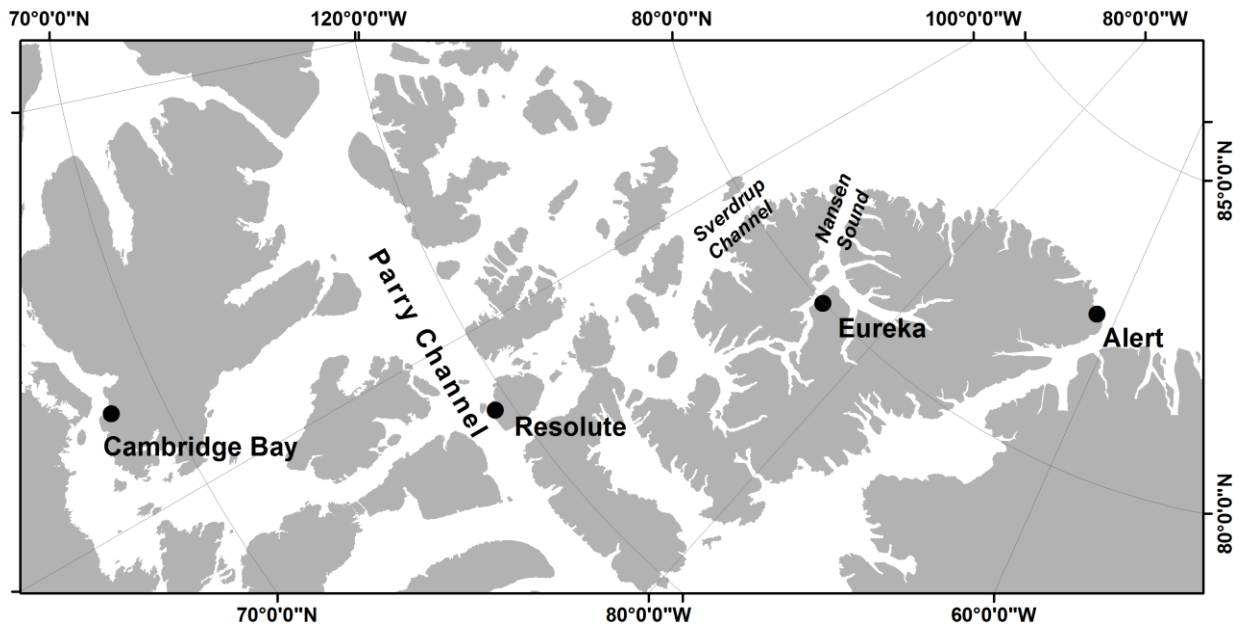
671

672

673 Figure 13. **a-e**: Pearson correlation of detrended maximum sea ice thickness in ORA-IP with
674 detrended ONDJFMAM ERA-INTERIM 2m temperature. **f**: Same but for CMIP5 MODEL-
675 MEAN. The stippling indicates p-values less than 0.05, corrected using the False Discovery Rate
676 (FDR) method with a global pFDR-values less than 0.10 [Wilks, 2006].

677
678 Figure 14. Same as Figure 12f but for snow depth trends (ONDJFMAM).

679
680
681
682
683
684
685
686
687
688
689
690
691
692
693
694
695
696
697
698
699
700
701
702
703
704
705
706
707
708
709
710
711
712
713
714
715
716
717



718
719
720
721
722
723
724
725

Figure 1. Map of the central Canadian Arctic Archipelago showing the location of the landfast snow and thickness observations.

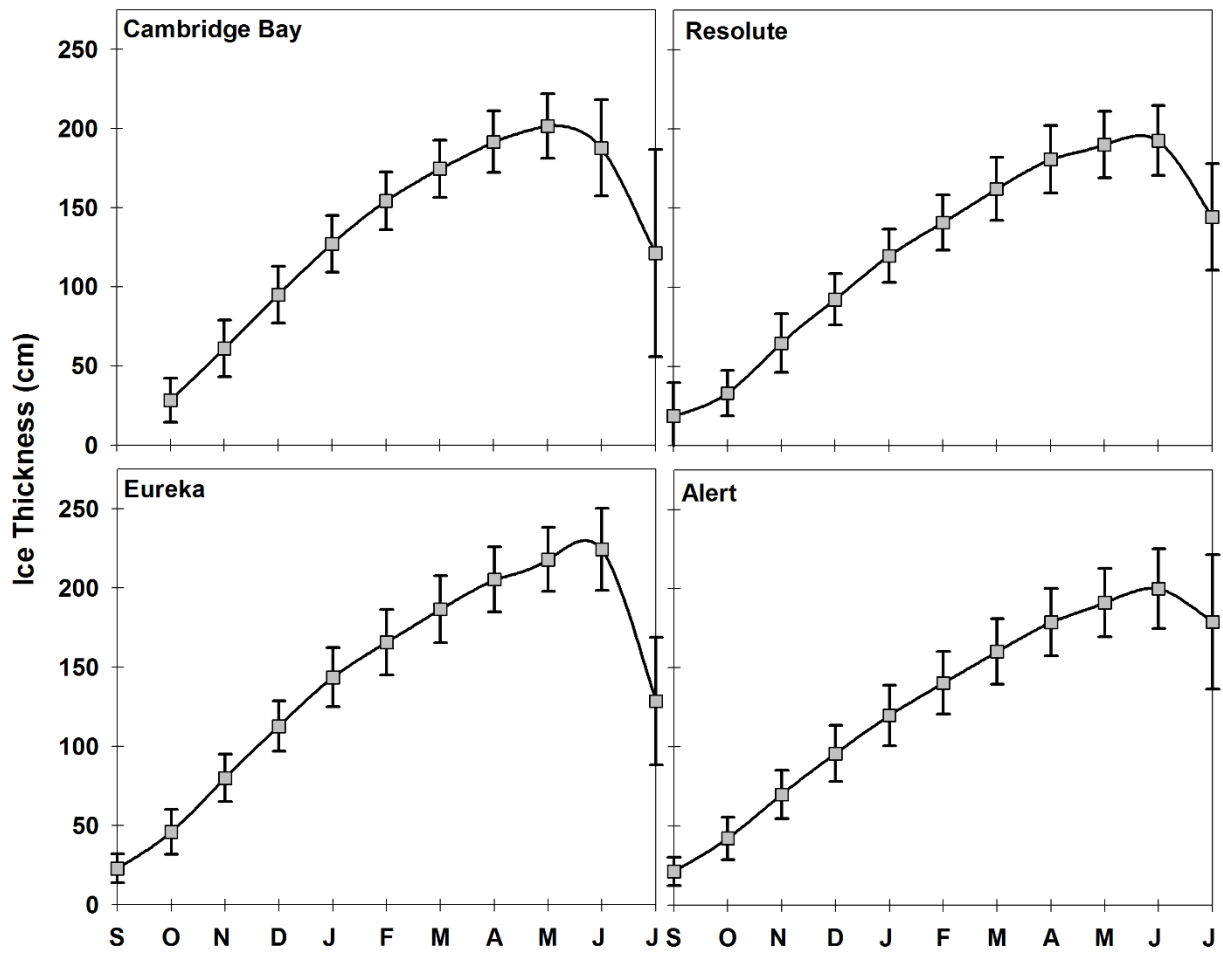


Figure 2. Seasonal cycle of observed mean ice thickness at the four sites (1960-2014).

726
 727
 728
 729
 730
 731
 732
 733
 734
 735
 736

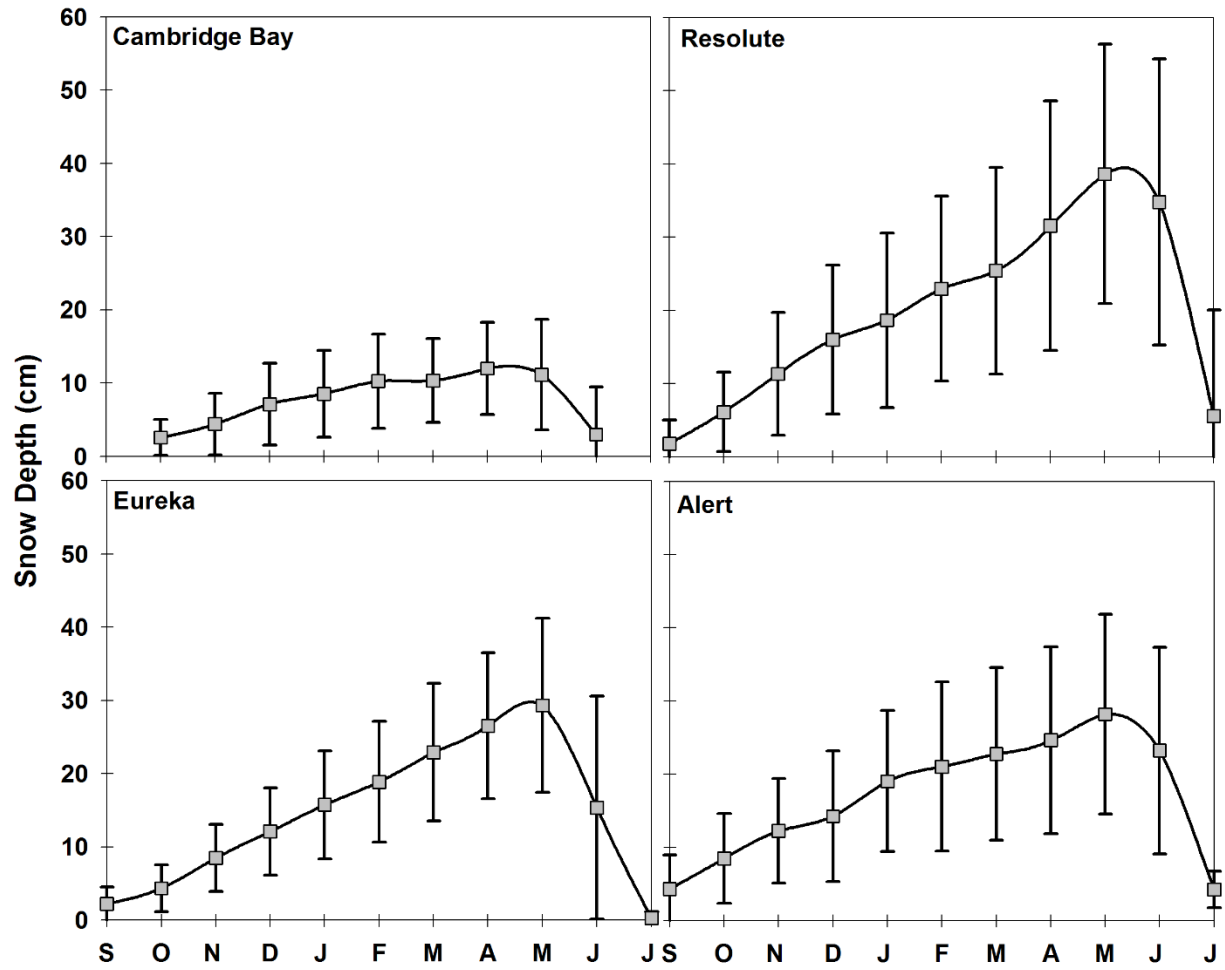


Figure 3. Seasonal cycle of observed mean snow depth at the four sites (1960-2014).

737
 738
 739
 740
 741
 742
 743

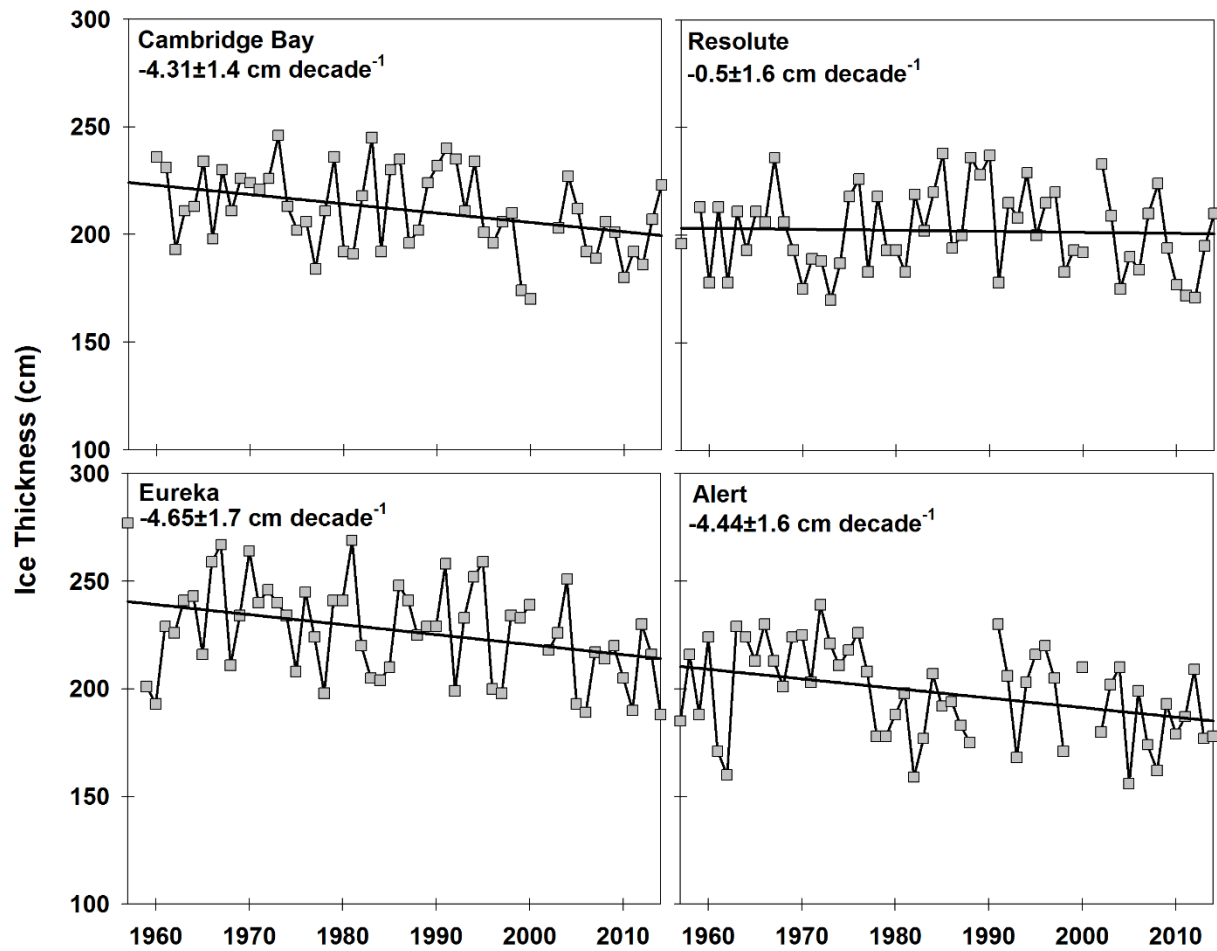
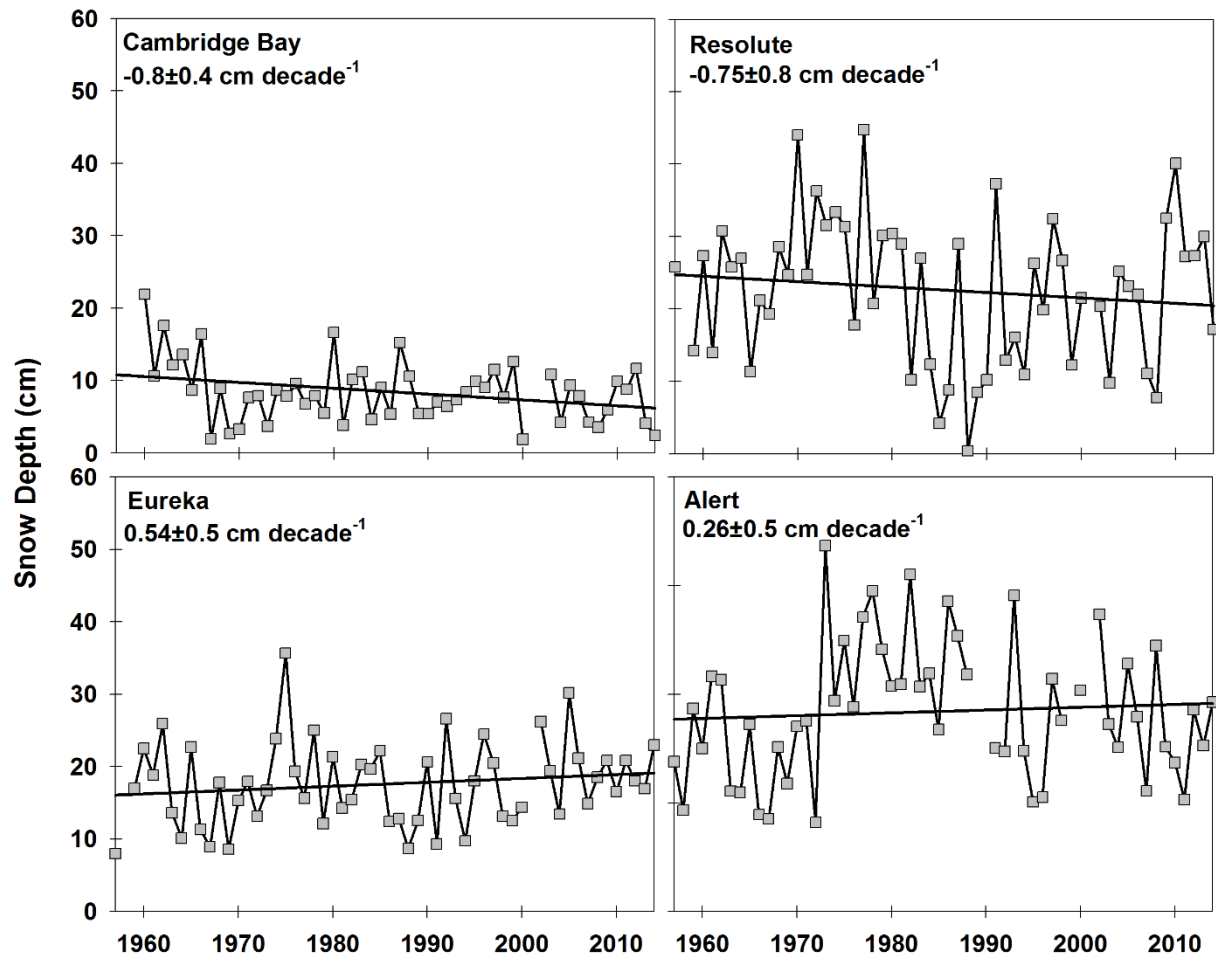


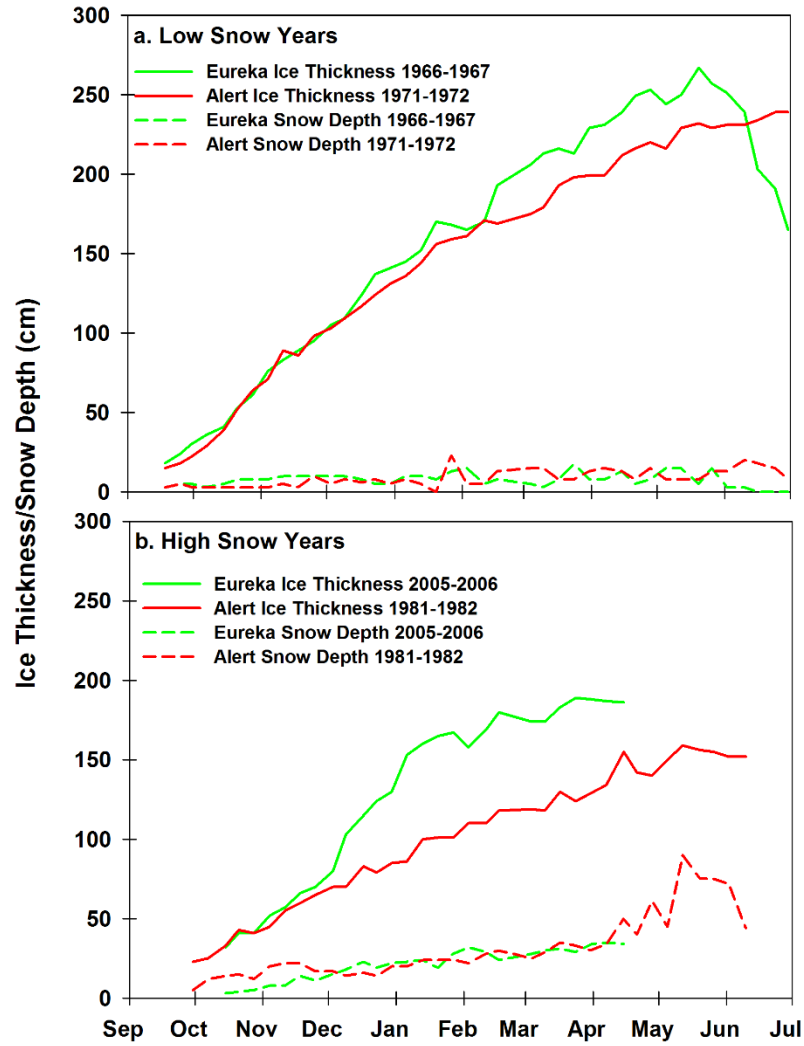
Figure 4. Time series and trend of observed maximum ice thickness at the four sites.

744
 745
 746
 747
 748
 749
 750
 751
 752
 753



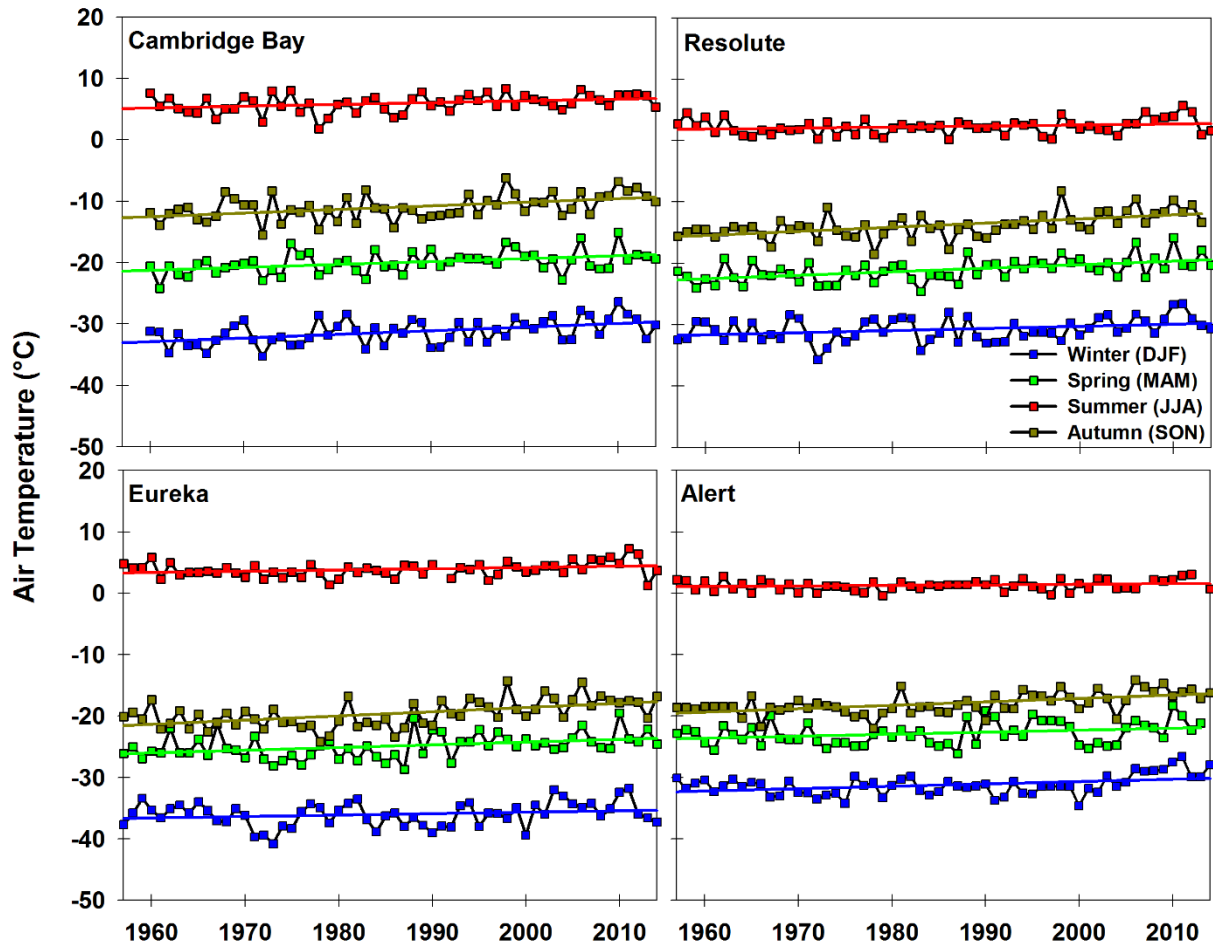
754
 755
 756
 757
 758
 759
 760
 761
 762

Figure 5. Time series and trend of observed mean October through May snow depth at the four sites.



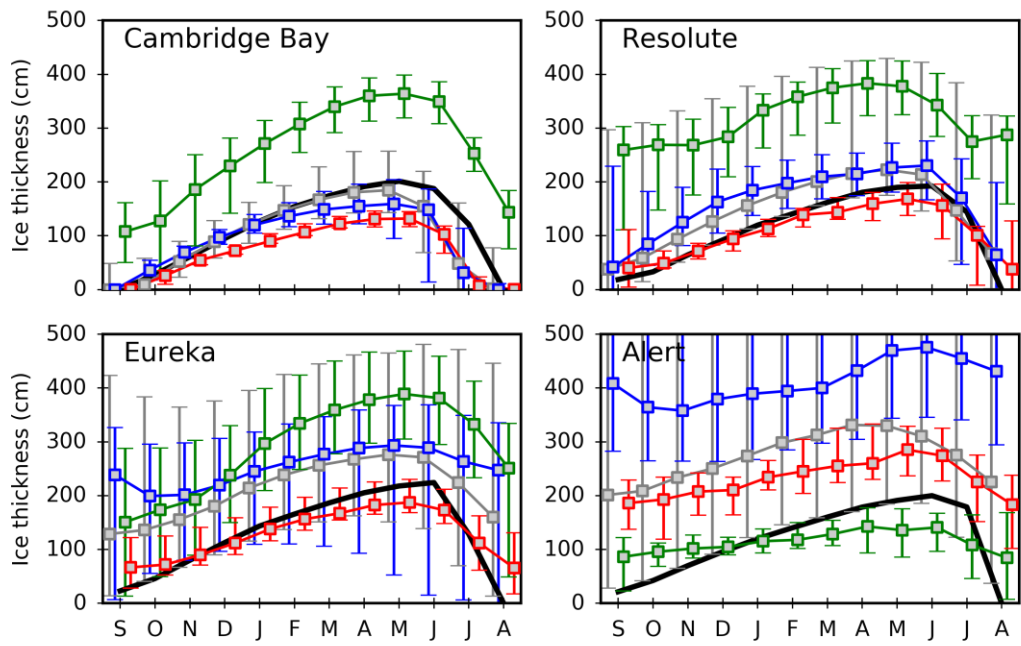
763 Figure 6. Weekly time series of ice thickness and snow depth at Eureka and Alert for (a) low
 764 snow years and (b) high snow years.
 765
 766

767
 768
 769

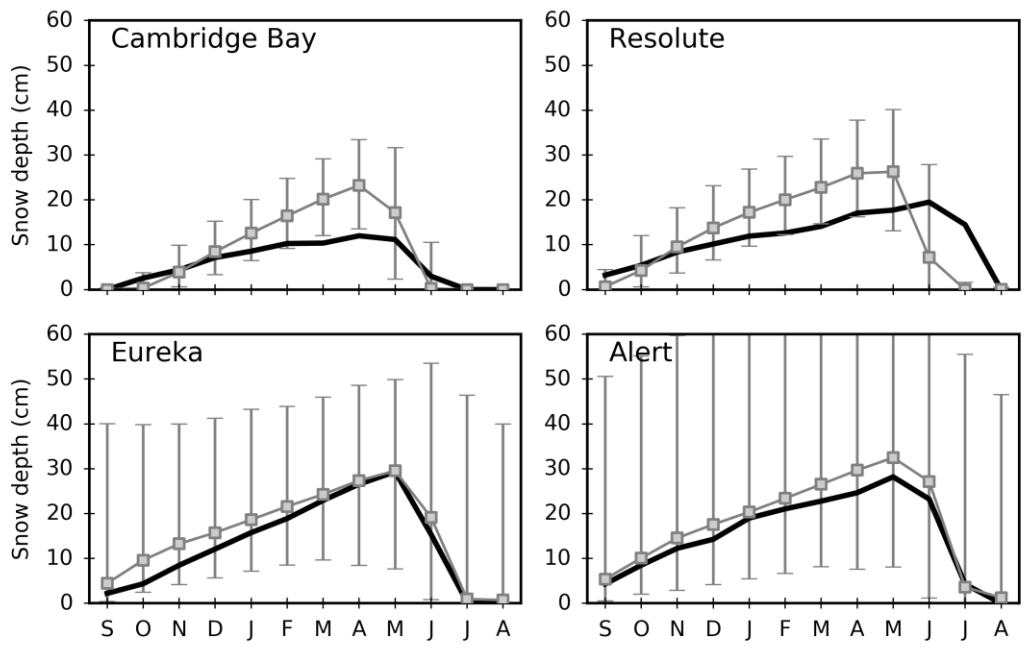


770
 771 Figure 7. Time series observed mean air temperature by Environment Canada during winter
 772 (DJF), spring, (MAM), summer (JJA) and autumn (SON) at the Cambridge Bay, Resolute,
 773 Eureka and Alert.

774
 775
 776
 777
 778



779
 780 Figure 8. CMIP5 median sea ice thickness seasonal cycle (1955-2014) at stations (grey).
 781 Observations from 2 (black). Median of ORA-IP models CGLORS, ORAP5.0, GLORYS2V3
 782 (blue), ECCO-v4 (green) and UR025.4 (red). Whiskers indicate the 5th and 95th percentiles.
 783
 784
 785
 786
 787



788
 789
 790
 791
 792
 793
 794
 795
 796
 797
 798
 799
 800
 801
 802
 803
 804
 805
 806
 807
 808
 809
 810
 811
 812
 813
 814

Figure 9. Same as Figure 8 for snow depth and only for CMIP5 models (grey) and observations (black).

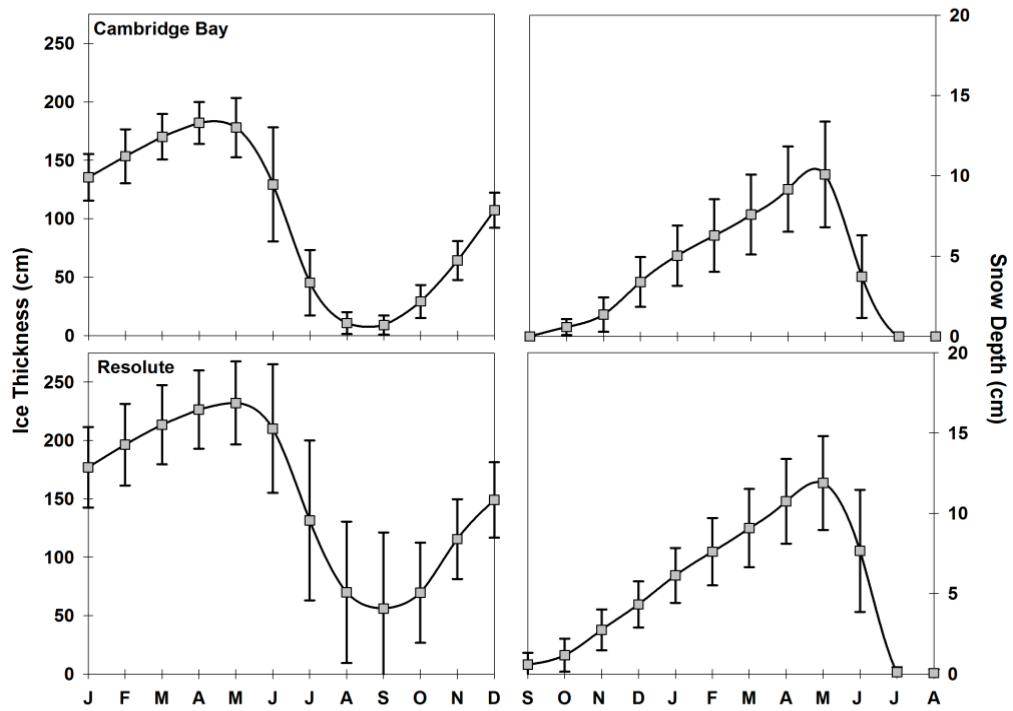
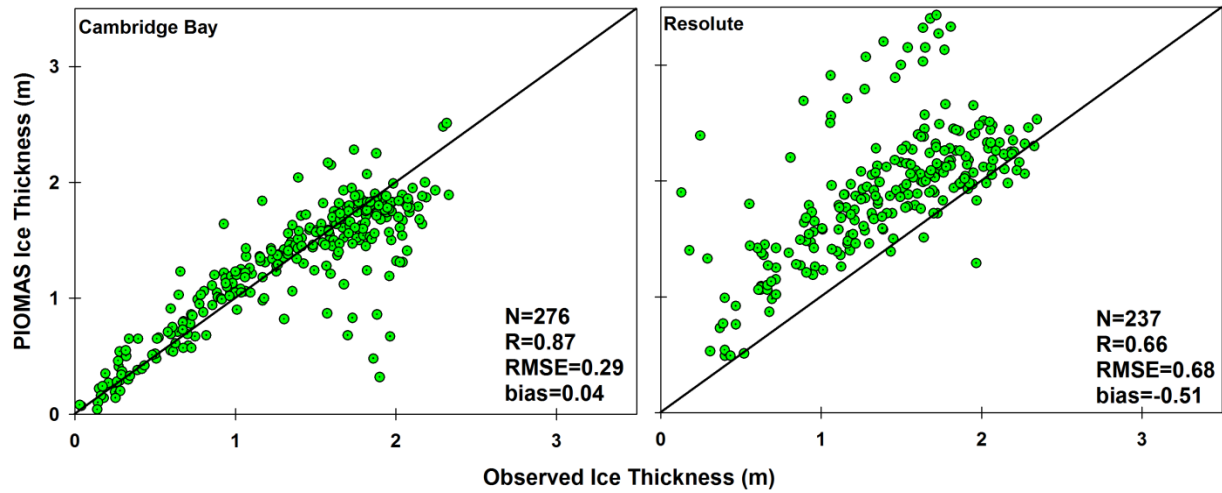
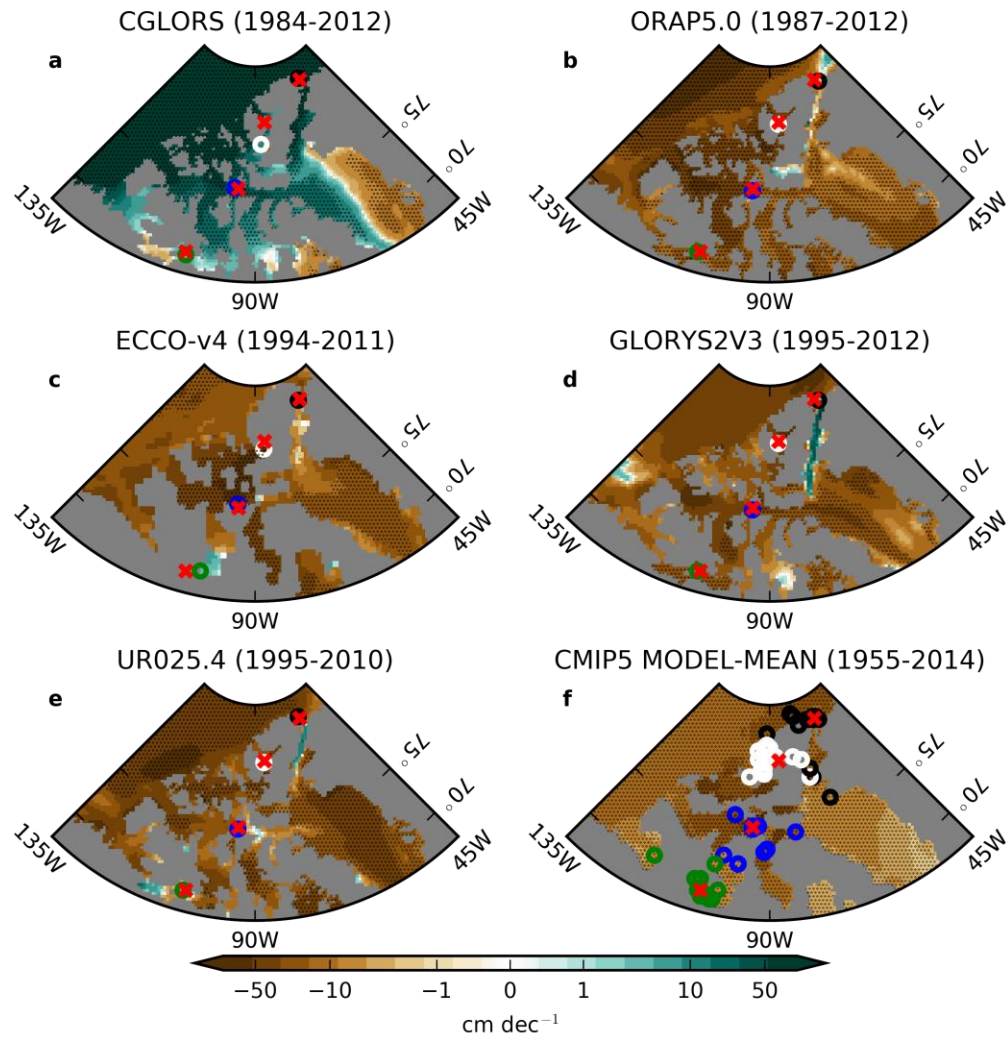


Figure 10. Seasonal cycle of observed mean ice thickness (left) and snow depth (right) from PIOMAS at Cambridge Bay and Resolute (1979-2014).

815
 816
 817
 818
 819
 820
 821
 822
 823
 824
 825
 826
 827
 828
 829
 830
 831
 832
 833
 834
 835
 836
 837
 838
 839
 840

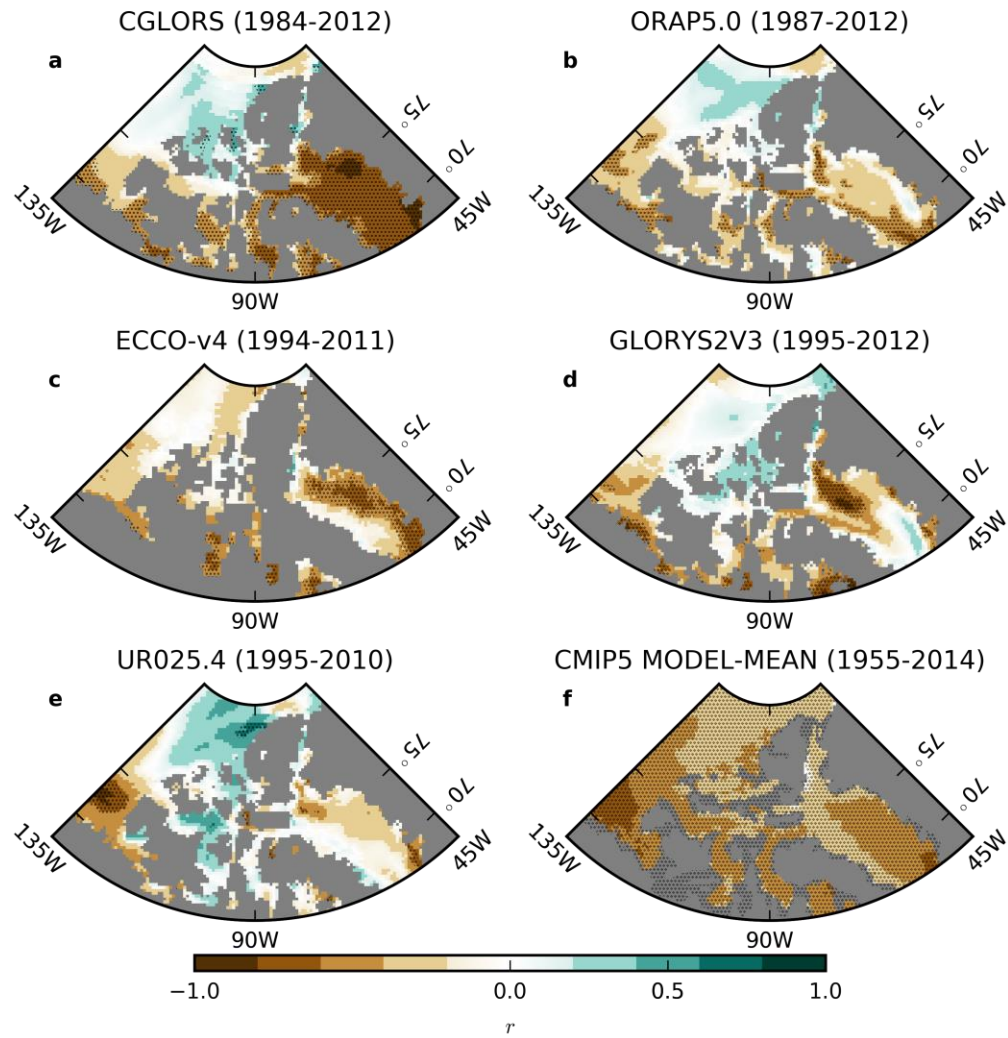


841
 842 Figure 11. Comparison of PIOMAS ice thickness with ice thickness observations from
 843 Environment Canada's ice thickness monitoring sites at Cambridge Bay and Resolute. The data
 844 covers the period 1979-2014.
 845
 846

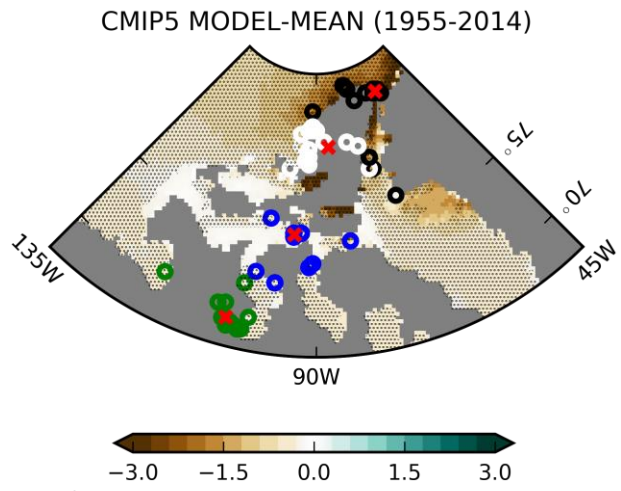


847
 848 Figure 12. **a-e**: Maximum sea ice thickness trends in ORA-IP simulations. **f**: Same for CMIP5
 849 MODEL-MEAN. From South to North, o's indicate Cambridge Bay (green), Resolute (blue),
 850 Eureka (white) and Alert (black) and x's indicate the corresponding measurement stations. In f,
 851 one o per model is shown." The stippling indicates p-values less than 0.05, corrected using the
 852 False Discovery Rate (FDR) method with a global pFDR-values less than 0.10 [Wilks, 2006].
 853 The colorbar is linear from -10 cm dec⁻¹ to 10 cm dec⁻¹ and symmetric logarithmic beyond these
 854 values.

855
 856
 857
 858
 859
 860
 861
 862
 863



864
 865 Figure 13. **a-e**: Pearson correlation of detrended maximum sea ice thickness in ORA-IP with
 866 detrended ONDJFMAM ERA-INTERIM 2m temperature. **f**: Same but for CMIP5 MODEL-
 867 MEAN. The stippling indicates p-values less than 0.05, corrected using the False Discovery Rate
 868 (FDR) method with a global pFDR-values less than 0.10 [Wilks, 2006].
 869
 870
 871
 872
 873
 874



875
876 Figure 14. Same as Figure 12f but for snow depth trends (ONDJMAM).