



1 **Rapid decline of Arctic sea ice volume: Causes and consequences**

2 Jean-Claude Gascard (1), Jinlun Zhang (2) and Mehrad Rafizadeh (1)

3 (1) LOCEAN, Sorbonne Université, Paris, France

4 (2) Polar Science Center, Applied Physics Lab, University of Washington, Seattle, USA

5

6 **Abstract.**

7 The drastic reduction of the Arctic sea ice over the past 40 years is the most glaring evidence of
8 climate change on Planet Earth. Among all the variables characterizing sea ice, the sea ice volume is
9 by far the most sensitive one for climate change since it is decaying at the highest rate compared to
10 sea ice extent and sea ice thickness. In 40 years the Arctic Ocean has lost about 3/4 of its sea ice
11 volume at the end of the summer season corresponding to a reduction of both sea ice extent and sea
12 ice thickness by half on average. From more than 16000 km³, 40 years ago, the Arctic sea ice summer
13 minimum dropped down to less than 4000 km³ during the most recent summers. Being a
14 combination of Arctic sea ice extent and sea ice thickness, the Arctic sea ice volume is difficult to
15 observe directly and accurately. We estimated cumulative Freezing-Degree Days (FDD) over a 9
16 month freezing time period (September to May each year) based on ERA Interim surface air
17 temperature reanalysis over the whole Arctic Ocean and for the past 38 years. Then we compared
18 the Arctic sea ice volume based on sea ice thickness deduced from cumulative FDD with Arctic sea ice
19 volume estimated from PIOMAS (Pan Arctic Ice Ocean Modeling and Assimilation System) and from
20 the ESA CRYOSAT-2 satellite. The results are strikingly similar. The warming of the atmosphere is
21 playing an important role in contributing to the Arctic sea ice volume decrease during the whole
22 freezing season (September to May). In addition, the FDD spatial distribution exhibiting a sharp
23 double peak-like feature is reflecting the Multi Year Ice (MYI) versus First Year Ice (FYI) dual
24 disposition typical of the Arctic sea ice cover. This is indicative of a significant contribution from the
25 vertical ocean heat fluxes throughout the ice depending on MYI versus FYI distribution and the snow
26 layer on top of it influencing the surface air temperature accordingly. In 2018 the Arctic MYI vanished
27 almost completely for the first time ever over the past 40 years. The quasi complete disappearance
28 of the Arctic sea ice is more likely to happen in summer within the next 15 years with broad
29 consequences for Arctic marine and terrestrial ecosystems, climate and weather patterns on a
30 planetary scale and globally on human activities.

31

32 **1/ Introduction**

33 It is well recognized that the Arctic Sea Ice extent and thickness decreased drastically over the past
34 40 years as shown by Earth observing satellites and as reported extensively by many scientists. Over
35 the past 20 years the amount of scientific publications regarding Arctic sea ice evolution and
36 behavior over hours to decades at local, regional, and pan-Arctic scales, is exceptional. This is so
37 because among several major elements of the Earth climate system, the actual Arctic sea ice decline
38 is one of the most representative characteristics of climate change. In the past, the main aspect



39 concerned Arctic sea ice extent largely based on space observations. For instance **Serreze et al.**
40 [2003] reported a “record minimum” for sea ice extent in 2002 followed by **Stroeve et al.** [2005] who
41 reported “another extreme minimum” in 2004. **Comiso** [2006] described “an abrupt decline in the
42 Arctic winter sea ice cover in 2005 and 2006 and **Kwok** [2007] “a near zero replenishment of the MYI
43 at the end of the 2005 summer”. Then came the exceptional summer of 2007 during the 4th
44 International Polar Year (IPY, 2007-2008) characterized by a phenomenal Arctic sea ice extent
45 reduction never observed before during the satellite era. Thanks to the IPY stimulating a major effort
46 from the scientific community, the first decade of the 21st century ended with an unprecedented
47 amount of new results regarding the Arctic sea ice (**Giles et al.** [2008], **Zhang et al.** [2008], **Perovich**
48 **et al.** [2008], **Kauker et al.** [2009] to name a few). Since then, 10 years have passed and sea ice extent
49 and thickness have further decreased. **Zhao et al.** (2018) described a strong decrease of sea ice
50 concentration in the entire central Arctic in 2010. The whole time record for summer sea ice extent
51 minimum was reached in September 2012 ($3.4 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) and sea ice volume (3800 km^3). More
52 recently **Stroeve et al.** (2018) stressed our attention about a sharp drop of sea ice thickness occurring
53 in 2015-2016. This continuous chain of events maintained a strong motivation among scientists for
54 Arctic sea ice research both from a modeling and experimental point of view taking advantage of
55 new technologies for observations and more sophisticated models. In addition there is now a great
56 interest expressed by meteorologists due to very peculiar and intriguing winters occurring in the
57 northern hemisphere since 2015 (**Moore** [2016], **Cullather et al.** [2016], **Binder et al.** [2017]). This
58 “peculiarity” is mainly characterized by a large scale atmospheric circulation and extra-tropical
59 cyclones bringing warm air masses to the North Pole and cold air outbreaks impacting mid latitudes
60 regions all related to large scale Arctic sea ice variability (**Overland and Wang** [2010], **Tang et al.**
61 [2013], **Rinke et al.** [2017], **Kim et al.** [2017], **Graham et al.** [2017]).

62 Most of the results obtained so far concerned Arctic sea ice extent and Arctic sea ice thickness taken
63 separately. In order to better analyze and understand Arctic sea ice evolution, an important step was
64 accomplished by introducing Arctic sea ice volume. Sea Ice volume is an important parameter
65 although very challenging to estimate precisely since it is a combination of sea ice area and sea ice
66 thickness. Sea ice volume is decreasing at a much higher rate than sea ice extent and sea ice
67 thickness which explains the greater sensitivity of sea ice volume to characterize climate change. As
68 shown in the following, Arctic sea ice volume has decreased by as much as 75% at the end of the
69 summer season if compared with the situation 40 years ago (from more than 16000 km^3 in the late
70 70s it was less than 4000 km^3 in September 2012). In contrast Arctic sea ice extent and thickness
71 have both decreased by half during the same time period accordingly.

72 In this paper we will revisit the whole time period extending from 1979 until now by estimating and
73 comparing Arctic sea ice volume deduced from the Pan-Arctic Ice Ocean Modeling and Assimilating
74 System (PIOMAS, **Zhang and Rothrock** [2003]) and the Freezing-Degree Days (FDD) based on ERA
75 Interim surface air temperature reanalysis. In addition we will extend the inter-comparison to the
76 ESA Cryosat-2 satellite measuring sea ice freeboard in order to infer sea ice thickness at the pan-
77 Arctic scale for the past 10 years (since the launch of Cryosat-2).

78 Based on the ERA Interim air temperature reanalysis at 2m altitude over the Arctic Ocean since 1979,
79 we calculated the number of cumulative FDD each year from September to May the following year.
80 From cumulative FDD we estimated sea ice growth (thickness) during the whole freezing season
81 based on empirical (**Anderson** [1961]) and theoretical (**Maykut** [1986]) formulations. Then from FDD



82 distribution both in time and space we deduced the new sea ice volume formed month after month,
83 year by year over the whole Arctic Ocean. We also compared Arctic sea ice volume estimates based
84 on FDD with PIOMAS and also with recent estimations based on ESA Cryosat-2 satellite (Tilling et al.
85 [2017]) for the freezing time period extending from September to May each year during the past 10
86 years. Since FDD is exclusively dedicated to the freezing season extending from September in the Fall
87 to May the following Spring and since Cryosat-2 sea ice thickness estimations are also limited to the
88 same time frame, the inter-comparison will be limited to the Arctic sea ice growth time period
89 starting in September-October and reaching a maximum in April-May each year.

90 Arctic sea ice volume estimates over the past 40 years based on PIOMAS estimations

91 In this introduction let us first concentrate on Arctic sea ice volume deduced from PIOMAS. PIOMAS
92 is a numerical model with components for sea ice and ocean and the capacity for assimilating data
93 from observations (sea ice concentration and sea surface temperature, SST). For the ice volume
94 simulations shown here, sea ice concentration information from NSIDC near-real time product are
95 assimilated into the model to improve ice thickness estimates and SST data from the NCEP/NCAR
96 reanalysis are assimilated in the ice-free areas. NCEP/NCAR reanalysis SST data are based on the
97 global daily high-resolution SST analyses using satellite and in situ observations (Reynolds et al.
98 2007). Atmospheric information to drive the model, specifically wind, surface air temperature and
99 cloud cover to compute solar and long wave radiation, are based on the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis. The
100 Pan-Arctic Ocean model is forced with input from a global ocean model at its open boundaries
101 located at 45 degrees North. PIOMAS has been extensively calibrated and validated through
102 comparisons with observations from US-Navy submarines, buoys, and satellites (Schweiger et al.
103 [2011]).

104 A range of observations and approaches, including in situ ice thickness measurements, ICESat
105 retrieved ice thickness and PIOMAS model sensitivity studies, yields an uncertainty of the Arctic sea
106 ice volume trend of $1.0 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3/\text{decade}$ over the 1979-2010 period and a conservative estimate of
107 the trend over this period is $-2.8 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3$ per decade (equivalent to about 11000 km^3 in 39 years)
108 according to Schweiger et al. (2011). Figure 1 shows Arctic sea ice volume estimated from PIOMAS
109 over the past 40 years. It is important to notice that the volume decrease in winter (11000 km^3) is
110 almost similar to the drop in summer (12000 km^3) over the past 40 years. So the problem regarding
111 sea ice decline is not only related to summer melt but also to sea ice production during the freezing
112 time period.

113 An important aspect concerns the net sea ice production that is the balance between the sea ice
114 production during the freezing period (the black curve on Figure 1) and the sea ice ablation during
115 the melting season (the green curve on Figure 1).

116 It is interesting to compare the net ice production from year to year that we estimated (Figure 2a) by
117 considering sea ice growth during the freezing period extending for about 9 months (from September
118 to May) overlapping with sea ice melting from May to September for about 5 months. This is
119 equivalent to the sea ice maximum reached each year in April-May minus the sea ice maximum
120 reached in April-May the previous year (Figure 2a) and/or to the sea ice minimum reached in
121 September each year minus the sea ice minimum reached in September the previous year (Figure
122 2b). The main result is that even if winter sea ice production and summer sea ice melting are both
123 slightly increasing (black and green curves on Figure 1), the mean difference (that is the net



124 production) is negative most of the time for the past 40 years (5-year running mean (cyan curve) on
125 Figure 2a and 2b). Summing up over the past 40 years, the net sea ice loss in winter was -10703 km^3
126 corresponding to a mean value of -274 km^3 per year according to PIOMAS (Figure 2a). Equivalently
127 the net sea ice loss in summer was -11821 km^3 with a mean value of -303 km^3 per year (Figure 2b). In
128 addition to the long-term trend, the net sea ice volume production, Figure 2a and 2b revealed a
129 strong inter-annual variability, an order of magnitude higher than the long-term trend.

130 Interestingly, Figure 2a and 2b further indicated a 7-year oscillation characterizing the Arctic sea ice
131 volume internal variability. Although it is not in the scope of this paper to discuss this point, it is
132 relevant to mention a recent study by **Swart et al.** [2015] who looked specifically at trends in Arctic
133 sea ice extent for all-7 year periods between 1979 and 2013 in the observations and in 102
134 realizations from 31 CMIP5 models. **Swart et al.** [2015] concluded that pauses in sea ice loss such as
135 the one observed between 2007 and 2013 and lasting for 7 years, are fully expected to occur from
136 time to time. The 2007-2013 pause was following a 7-year period of intense sea ice loss from 2001 to
137 2007 during which **Kwok et al.** [2009] reported a total sea ice loss of 6300 km^3 in four years since
138 2005. This huge sea ice loss occurring during the 2000s, included a massive amount of MYI attributed
139 to several summers characterized by no replenishment of MYI by FYI (**Kwok** [2007])

140 Ed Hawkins (a co-author of **Swart et al.** [2015]) suggested an analogy between Arctic sea ice behavior
141 and a “ball bouncing down a bumpy hill” ([http://www.climate-lab-book.ac.uk/2015/arctic-erratic-as-
142 expected/](http://www.climate-lab-book.ac.uk/2015/arctic-erratic-as-expected/)) in order to explain the combination (interaction) between “the hill” (the long-term
143 downward trend) and “the bumps” the internal (natural) variability of Arctic sea ice over the past 35
144 years. PIOMAS estimations related to sea ice volume (rather than sea ice extent) are highlighting this
145 important aspect of a strong natural (internal) variability with a 7-year periodicity superimposed on a
146 smooth long-term trend due to increasing global temperatures of anthropogenic origin (**Gillett et al.**
147 [2008]).

148 Averaged projection from 30 CMIP5 models that can better reflect the observed sea ice volume
149 climatology and variability indicated that the September sea ice volume minimum will decrease to
150 3000 km^3 in the early 2060s based on a medium GHG emission scenario according to **Shu et al.**
151 [2015] and **Mi-Rong Song** [2016]. But this will drop to the same value (3000 km^3) in the early 2040s
152 under a high GHG emission scenario like it is today and then reach a near zero ice volume in the mid
153 2070s. Actually in September 2012 the Arctic sea ice volume reached an extreme low value of 3800
154 km^3 according to PIOMAS, close to the 3000 km^3 value predicted by CMIP5 models but at a much
155 earlier time (2012 for PIOMAS instead of 2040 for CMIP5). We will come back to future predictions
156 regarding Arctic sea ice in the discussion section.

157 A validation of the PIOMAS estimations for Arctic sea ice volume was provided by **Schweiger et al.**
158 (2011). It is relevant to compare PIOMAS sea ice volume estimations with other estimations such as
159 those deduced from cumulative FDD during the entire freezing season. The **cumulative** FDD is an old
160 concept similar to the ice mass budget concept used for estimating ice accumulation on glaciers and
161 inlandsis. The main difference comes from the snow precipitations accumulating over land for
162 glaciers during the entire fall-winter-spring season in contrast with the cumulative FDD in case of sea
163 ice over the same time period. The cumulative aspect for a long period of time (several months) in
164 both cases is the major factor related to new ice formation occurring during the whole freezing
165 season. The ice mass balance involves ablation (melting) in addition to accretion (freezing) happening



166 during the entire seasonal cycle. In this paper we will concentrate on the sea ice accumulation
167 deduced from cumulative FDD over the whole Arctic Ocean and during the entire freezing time
168 period from 1979 until 2018.

169 **2/ Methodology and data set**

170 We first calculated the number of freezing-degree days (FDD) based on air temperature at 2m
171 altitude all over the Arctic Ocean and sub-Arctic regions deduced from ERA interim reanalysis for the
172 period starting in 1979 until today (2018) and during the freezing time period lasting for 9 months
173 (September to May) each year.

174 **ERA Interim**

175 ERA-Interim is a data set based on a global climate reanalysis from 1979 to date. ERA stands for
176 “European Reanalysis” and refers to a series of research projects at ECMWF which produced various
177 datasets (including ERA-Interim, ERA-40 etc...). ERA-Interim uses a fixed version of a numerical
178 weather prediction (NWP) system based on a data assimilation Integrated Forecast System (IFS-
179 Cy31r2) to produce reanalyzed data. The system includes a 4-dimensional variational analysis (4D-
180 Var) with a 12-hour analysis window (Simmons et al. [2004] and Berrisford et al. [2011]).

181 We took advantage of the 2m air temperature produced by ERA-Interim at a spatial resolution of
182 0.75 degree and a temporal resolution of 6 hours from which we calculated the daily average. Then
183 we eliminated all the data South of 60°N and all the data on land (i.e. equal and above 0 m altitude)
184 using ETOPO2v2c_f4 topography. Furthermore we only considered data between September and
185 May the next year for the entire period extending from 1979 until 2018.

186 **FDD and ERA Interim**

187 We calculated the number of cumulative FDD for each ERA-interim grid cell over the whole Arctic
188 Ocean down to 60°N and during 39 years from 1979 until 2018. Cumulative FDD are progressively
189 increasing days after days and month by month from September to May each year.

$$190 \quad FDD = \int_0^t (T_f - T_a) dt \quad \text{Eq.(1)}$$

191 The air temperature T_a at 2m altitude is provided by ERA Interim every 6 hours for each ERA interim
192 grid cell. We calculated T_a daily average and then we estimated the cumulative FDD for each ERA
193 interim grid cell by integrating the difference between sea water freezing temperature $T_f = -1.7^\circ\text{C}$
194 and T_a from September 1 to September 30 (1 month), then from September 1 to October 31 (2
195 months), then from September 1 to November 30 (3 months) etc.... until we covered the whole
196 freezing time period lasting for 9 months from September to May each year.

197 We also calculated the surface (km^2) for each individual grid cell from the ERA-Interim data file using
198 the following formula $[0.75 \cdot 110]^2 \cdot \cos[\text{lat } x]$ x being the latitude.

199 **FDD and sea ice thickness**

200 Then we estimated the sea ice growth (accumulation at the bottom of sea ice) during the freezing
201 period extending from the Fall (September) to the following Spring (May) each year based on the
202 cumulative FDD over this time period based on Eq.(1).



203 The conductive heat flux F_c throughout the ice of thickness H is $F_c = k_i/H (T_0 - T_f)$ Eq.(2)

204 T_0 being sea ice temperature at surface and T_f being sea ice temperature at bottom (i.e. sea water
205 freezing temperature T_f). k_i is the sea ice thermal conductivity.

206 The growth rate at the base of sea ice is $-\rho_i L dH/dt$ with ρ_i the sea ice density and L the latent heat
207 of freezing for sea water. Considering F_w being the ocean heat flux at the base of sea ice

$$208 \quad -\rho_i L dH/dt = F_c + F_w \quad \text{Eq.(3)}$$

209 F_c is in equilibrium with $F_a = C_a (T_a - T_0)$ the heat exchange between the ice and the atmosphere at
210 surface, C_a being an average transfer coefficient taking into account the sensible, latent and net long
211 wave heat exchange but neglecting the solar short wave radiation (negligible during the polar night).

212 Solving for T_0 and assuming the ocean heat flux at the base of the ice $F_w \ll F_c$ the integration over
213 time with $H = 0$ at time $t = 0$ will give $H^2 + 2k_i H/C_a = 2k_i/\rho_i L \cdot \text{FDD}$ Eq.(4)

214 Including a snow layer of thickness h_s leads to the relationship suggested by **Maykut** [1986]

$$215 \quad H^2 + (13.1 h_s + 16.8) H = 12.9 \text{ FDD} \quad \text{Eq.(5)}$$

216 Equation (5) was also used by **Harpaintner et al.** [2001] for estimating ice production in Storfjorden,
217 Svalbard.

218 **3/ Results**

219 **FDD and Sea Ice thickness**

220 Figure 4a shows monthly cumulative FDD spatial distribution as a function of FDD for the period
221 extending from September 2016 until May 2017 and the same on Figure 4b for the period extending
222 from September 2017 until May 2018.

223 The comparison between the 2 periods is highlighting the strong inter-annual variability
224 characterizing Arctic sea ice. Another important aspect concerns a sharp double peak FDD spatial
225 distribution that we had not anticipated initially (Figure 4a). We will see in the following that the
226 double peak-like FDD distribution is reflecting very closely the well-known sea ice thickness
227 distribution typical of FYI and MYI in the Arctic Ocean. 2017 (Figure 4a) appears like a very abnormal
228 year characterized by the lowest cumulative FDD over the past 40 years (Figure 5). 2018 also appears
229 like a very abnormal year characterized by a single peak FDD spatial distribution (Figure 4b). The
230 second peak vanished in 2018 and as we will see later on, it corresponds to the MYI extinction all
231 over the Arctic Ocean.

232 Figure 5 illustrates the drastic 9 month cumulative FDD decrease when comparing the 1980s and the
233 1990s with more recent years (2000s and 2010s). The 9 month cumulative FDD reduction during the
234 past 40 years amounted to about 2000 FDD at the peak values extending over more than 1.2×10^6
235 km^2 in the Arctic Ocean.



236 As shown on Figure 6, the coldest region characterized by the highest 9 month cumulative FDD
237 values, is clearly located north of the Canadian Archipelago and Greenland and corresponding to the
238 Western Arctic North of the American Continent.

239

240 In contrast the Eastern Arctic (North of Eurasia) is the region experiencing the warmest temperature
241 increase characterized by the strongest reduction of cumulative FDD distribution over the past 40
242 years and in particular during the most recent 10 to 20 years (Figure 7). During the past 10 years the
243 warming of the entire Eastern Arctic is spectacular, which explains the new and strong interest for
244 exploiting the Northern Sea Route for shipping activities (Gascard et al. [2017]) where sea ice
245 conditions were less severe than during the last part of the 20th century.

246 Figure 8 represents Sea Ice thickness distribution for the period 2010 until 2018 deduced from
247 cumulative FDD and based on the Maykut [1986] formulation (Equation 5) for $h_s = 0$. There are
248 important and interesting aspects we would like to comment on Figure 8.

249 1/A double peak sea ice thickness distribution typical of the Arctic Ocean and related to FYI and MYI
250 is clearly visible on Figure 8 except for 2018 when the second peak corresponding to the MYI,
251 disappeared. During the past decades, it was quite often reported in several publications (Kwok et al.
252 [2009]) that MYI was vanishing but 2018 appeared as a very abnormal year characterized by a
253 complete MYI extinction for the first time ever over the past 40 years according to FDD sea ice
254 thickness distribution.

255 2/ 2017 looked like quite an abnormal year too, characterized by a significant FYI thinning of about
256 15cms at the peak compared to the previous (and to the following) years. The first peak
257 corresponding to FYI (2.04m thick ice in 2017 and 2.19m thick in 2018) extending over $1.2 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$
258 approximately, is quite sharp for both years. Stroeve et al. [2018] described a broad region of
259 anomalously thin ice in April 2017 relative to the 2011-2017 mean thickness values. Based on Los
260 Alamos sea ice model simulations (CICE), Stroeve et al. [2018] estimated a thinning of about 11 to 13
261 cm in 2017, very similar to the 15cm based on cumulative FDD sea ice thickness for the same time
262 period.

263 Figure 9 illustrates the sea ice thinning over the whole Arctic Ocean during the past 40 years and in
264 particular within the Arctic peripheral shallow seas (Chukchi, East Siberian, Laptev and Kara Seas) but
265 also within the central Arctic Ocean and the Beaufort Sea. The thicker ice is still located North of
266 Greenland and the Canadian Archipelago, and the thinner ice is located North of Eurasia. MYI
267 disappeared almost entirely except for the few remnants located in the Lincoln Sea.

268 **FDD and sea ice volume**

269 Having estimated sea ice thickness distribution in space and time, we can now estimate Arctic sea ice
270 volume month by month from September to May each year starting in September 1979 and ending
271 in May 2018. The results are presented on Figure 10a.

272 We have estimated the error for sea ice volume based on FDD and attributed to an initial error of
273 0.6°C in the ERA-Interim 2m air temperature data file. Considering a 1% error in sea ice extent (i.e.
274 about $100\,000 \text{ km}^2$) we came about a 4% error in sea ice volume (equivalent to 1000 km^3). This is



275 quite comparable to the Arctic sea ice volume error estimated by **Schweiger et al.** [2011] for
276 PIOMAS.

277 It is interesting to note that both 2017 and 2018 are the years characterized by the lowest sea ice
278 winter production when compared to the previous 38 years. Based on FDD estimations the sea ice
279 volume decreased by about 5000 km³ in 40 years (Figure 10a) and this is about half of the PIOMAS
280 sea ice decrease estimations (Figure 10b). The difference is mainly explained by the fact that sea ice
281 thickness based on a cumulative FDD is assuming $H = 0$ at $t = 0$. Consequently FDD cannot explicitly
282 account for MYI. The fit between FDD and PIOMAS improved in recent years due to a quasi
283 disappearance of MYI.

284 It is remarkable to note (Figure 10a and 10b) that in February 2018 the Arctic sea ice volumes
285 estimated both from PIOMAS and FDD were exactly the same (18500 km³). Another interesting
286 comparison between FDD and PIOMAS sea ice volume estimates concerns the maximum sea ice
287 volume value that is reached in April for PIOMAS and in May for FDD. This is quite logical since in
288 addition to the freezing still active in May as indicated by FDD, PIOMAS is also taking care of the sea
289 ice melting that already started in May and overlapping with some active freezing. FDD is only
290 accounting for the freezing and not for the sea ice melting. In another paper we will introduce
291 melting-degree days (MDD) overlapping FDD during the Fall and Spring seasons.

292 It should also be mentioned that a thin layer of snow on top of sea ice is reducing the difference
293 between FDD and PIOMAS sea ice volume estimates as shown on Figure 11. A 5cm snow layer is
294 increasing very significantly the importance of the linear term in Equation (5) and is producing less
295 sea ice volumes quite comparable to those obtained from the linear relationship previously
296 introduced (Figure 3) and shown on Figure 11. It is remarkable to note the excellent fit between the
297 PIOMAS and the FDD linear relationship for estimating sea ice volume for recent years involving not
298 only the long-term trend but also the strong inter-annual variability component. On Figure 11 we
299 also represented an FDD based relationship including a 10cm deep snow layer on top of sea ice. In
300 that case, the sea ice volume, very sensitive to the snow layer depth, was leading to an excessive
301 reduction of the sea ice volume. Regarding the Anderson's experimental relationship introduced on
302 Figure 3, it was based on a limited time period (1 month) for cumulative FDD limited to a maximum
303 range of 2000 FDD. Clearly the Anderson's experimental relationship is not appropriate for a much
304 longer time frame as the one we considered in this paper (up to 9 months) and corresponding to
305 much higher cumulative FDD values (6000 FDD range).

306 The so called "snow ice" process was recently observed in the Arctic Ocean. It resulted from a
307 refrozen thick snow layer flooded by sea water on top of sea ice. Due to an excessive snow load on
308 top of ice floes, a thick snow layer following abundant snow precipitation in a wetter Arctic is
309 reducing the freeboard of ice floes to zero and/or even to negative values. This process is only
310 affecting certain regions of the Arctic but not the whole Arctic Ocean. In this paper we are
311 considering the large scale effect of a thin snow layer on top of sea ice involving a positive freeboard
312 and no "snow ice" effect.

313 **PIOMAS, FDD and Cryosat-2 sea ice volume intercomparison**

314 Finally we compared PIOMAS and FDD sea ice volume estimates together with Cryosat-2 (Figure 12)
315 based on results published by **Tilling et al.** [2017]. In fact FDD based sea ice volume maximum are



316 surprisingly similar to Cryosat-2 estimates and at the same time very consistent with PIOMAS
317 estimates as previously described. However we observed a few differences. As mentioned before,
318 FDD sea ice volume starts from 0 each year since ice thickness $H = 0$ at $t = 0$ in contrast with Cryosat-
319 2 and PIOMAS taking into account the old ice (MYI) remaining at the end of each summer season (or
320 early fall) in the Arctic Ocean. But due to MYI's recent collapse, Arctic sea ice volume estimations
321 based on FDD, PIOMAS and Cryosat-2 are now converging. We previously mentioned that the sea ice
322 volume maximum is reached in May for FDD based sea ice volume estimations compared to April for
323 both PIOMAS and Cryosat-2 due to some sea ice melting overlapping with sea ice freezing still active
324 in May. But overall the three approaches are giving remarkably similar results. As already mentioned,
325 due to melt ponds on the ice in the melt season which confuses the sea ice thickness retrieval,
326 Cryosat-2 is not able to reliably estimate sea ice thickness (and volume) during the melting season.

327 **4/ Discussion**

328 First of all, it should be clearly stated that our choices for ERA interim (surface air temperature) and
329 PIOMAS (Arctic sea ice volume estimations) are purely arbitrary. There are other potential choices of
330 course and a useful and interesting additional work would be to evaluate and to inter-compare
331 several other options since they are all affected by some intrinsic biases and errors (Jakobson et al.
332 [2012]). For simplicity we did not want to open a new section by inter-comparing different data set
333 and co-evaluating various models. We cited references providing indications about the relevance of
334 the data set (ERA Interim) we chose and the numerical model (PIOMAS) we selected. The novelty of
335 this paper is the application of the old FDD concept to an up to date data set (ERA Interim) and an
336 inter-comparison with a well known numerical model (PIOMAS) and modern technologies (altimeter
337 on board the ESA Cryosat-2 satellite). All the numbers presented in this work are considered relevant
338 in a relative rather than absolute sense.

339 In this paper we applied the cumulative FDD concept to ERA interim air temperature at 2m altitude
340 above sea ice, in order to evaluate Arctic sea ice volume formed during the freezing season at a pan-
341 Arctic scale and over the past 40 years. The important point concerns the cumulative aspect applied
342 to FDD calculations over a long period of time (up to 9 months). The cumulative concept is also used
343 for estimating ice accretion on top of glaciers or ice caps located on a continent based on snow
344 accumulation over the Fall-Winter-Spring season at surface. In case of sea ice, the cumulative FDD
345 are responsible for sea ice formed at the base of the ice instead of snow accumulation on top of a
346 glacier for ice over land. In contrast it is well recognized that the snow accumulating on top of sea ice
347 is slowing down the formation of ice at the base of sea ice rather than contributing to ice growth in
348 case of glaciers and inlandis.

349 The Arctic sea ice thickness distribution in space and time directly inferred from the FDD reveals the
350 typical double peak distribution characterizing the Arctic FYI versus MYI disposition. However, to our
351 biggest surprise, a single peak sea ice thickness distribution appeared in 2018 for the first time ever
352 over the past 40 years. The second peak disappeared in 2018 and this can be interpreted as a
353 manifestation of a quasi extinction of the Arctic MYI in 2018. According to PIOMAS, the Arctic sea ice
354 loss in winter amounted to more than 10000 km³ over the past 40 years (Figure 1 and Figure 10b).
355 This is twice as large as the sea ice loss deduced from FDD (Figure 10a) over the same time period.
356 The difference is mainly due to the Arctic MYI not explicitly included in FDD estimations. Since Arctic
357 MYI vanished recently, the sea ice volume deduced from PIOMAS and FDD are now remarkably



358 similar. In February 2018 the sea ice volume deduced from FDD and PIOMAS were identical (18500
359 km³) and the lowest over the past 40 years. It is now dangerously approaching the amount of sea ice
360 volume melting every year. For the past 10 years, it appeared like the PIOMAS Arctic sea ice volume
361 decayed at a lower rate than during the previous 10 years (2000-2010) and followed closely the
362 Arctic sea ice volume maximum deduced from FDD estimations either based on a linear relationship
363 relating FDD and sea ice thickness or a quadratic relationship with a 5cm layer of snow on top of sea
364 ice. Not only is the trend similar but also the inter-annual variability between the FDD and PIOMAS
365 sea ice volume estimations is remarkably similar.

366 Almost every year since the late 70s, we were able to identify an “abnormal” situation in the Arctic
367 characterized by some extreme conditions related to sea ice extent, thickness and/or volume. The
368 most recent years (2017-2018) are no exception. Both years were also characterized by remarkable
369 “anomalies” in particular concerning Arctic sea ice volume reaching an extreme minimum in 2017
370 closely followed in 2018 compared to the previous 40 years for both FDD and PIOMAS sea ice volume
371 estimates. **Perovich et al. [2017]** mentioned “the lowest winter maximum ice extent in the satellite
372 record (1979-2017) which occurred on 7 March 2017. The extent was 14.42 million km², 8% below
373 the 1981-2010 average”. In March 2017 Arctic sea ice volume estimations were 15% less than the
374 1981-2010 average according to FDD-based estimations (Figure 10a) and 20% less according to
375 PIOMAS (Figure 10b).

376 The strong inter-annual variability superimposed to the long-term trend is remarkably similar
377 between cumulative FDD-based sea ice volume estimates and PIOMAS in particular for the most
378 recent years. Pan-Arctic sea ice volume inferred from cumulative FDD is quite comparable to Arctic
379 sea ice volume estimated from PIOMAS and also from Cryosat-2 for the past 7 years when the
380 amount of MYI was particularly low. A remarkable 7-year oscillation appeared in the 40 years
381 PIOMAS sea ice volume time series. According to **Swart et al. [2015]**, this oscillation could be
382 interpreted as an analogy to a “ball bouncing down a bumpy hill.” The “hill” would represent the
383 long-term decline of Arctic sea ice and the “bumps” the natural internal variability of Arctic sea ice.
384 This 7-year oscillation still needs further investigation.

385 It is clear that the long-term Arctic sea ice volume decrease revealed by PIOMAS, is due to an
386 asymmetry between sea ice formation (accretion) during the freezing period and sea ice ablation
387 during the melting period. Over the past 40 years, the annual mean net ice production was negative
388 (-300 km³ per year), accounting for a total loss of more than 10000 km³ of Arctic sea ice for the past
389 40 years. According to FDD based sea ice volume estimations, half of the total sea ice loss concerns
390 FYI and the other half concerns MYI according to PIOMAS.

391 An asymmetry was also identified by **Bathiany et al. [2016]** “On the potential for abrupt Arctic winter
392 sea ice loss”. Estimating sea ice formation during the freezing season starting in September and
393 lasting for about 9 months until April-May the following year, is as important as estimating Arctic sea
394 ice melting from May to September every year. The long-term decrease of Arctic sea ice is not only
395 due to a warmer and longer summer season but also to a milder and shorter freezing time period.
396 The new sea ice formed every year during the freezing time period has slightly increased, but not as
397 much as the sea ice that has melted away during the melting season. This is compatible with milder
398 (warmer) winters producing more FYI mainly due to more open water and thinner ice after a steeper
399 ice decrease in summer. Figure 10a indicates the sea ice loss was much larger during the winter



400 months than during the fall. In other words the overall decrease of the Arctic surface air temperature
401 during the freezing period is the dominant factor to explain the Arctic sea ice loss during winter
402 rather than a shortening of the freezing period. Winter temperature rise is the dominant factor
403 compared to winter time reduction for attributing the main part of the Arctic sea ice losses.

404 During the past 3 winters, meteorologists reported about major disturbances of the weather
405 patterns occurring in the northern hemisphere such as atmospheric blocking over Scandinavia, cold
406 air outbreaks over western Europe and North America, subtropical warm air invasion up to the North
407 Pole by cyclones, split polar vortex and jet stream instabilities all related to Arctic sea ice drastic
408 changes and extreme Arctic temperatures (**Overland and Wang** [2010], **Tang et al.** [2013], **Moore et**
409 **al.** [2018]). It seems quite clear that warm air masses carried on by extra-tropical cyclones (**Moore**
410 [2016], **Kim et al.** [2017]) have an increased tendency to invade the whole Arctic Ocean in winter
411 time strongly impacting Arctic sea ice everywhere from Eurasia to North America and from the Fram
412 Strait on the Atlantic side to the Bering Strait on the Pacific side.

413 The cumulative FDD distribution in space and time revealed an asymmetry between the Western
414 Arctic (North of Greenland and Canada) being the coldest Arctic region and the Eastern Arctic (North
415 of Eurasia) experiencing the strongest warming. This will have important consequences for human
416 activities such as shipping and navigation in polar regions (**Gascard et al.** [2017]). We can seriously
417 predict a quasi disappearance of the Arctic sea ice in summer during the coming decades.
418 Undoubtedly this is a major event that will deeply affect marine and terrestrial ecosystems
419 (Lawrence et al. 2008), weather conditions in the northern hemisphere (**Overland and Wang** [2010])
420 and strongly impacting human activities globally (**Crepin et al.** [2017]).

421 In light of our findings regarding cumulative FDD and related Arctic sea ice volume estimates mainly
422 based on ERA interim surface air temperature, it is relevant to mention a study by **Pithan and**
423 **Mauritsen** [2014] notably Arctic amplification dominated by temperature feedbacks in contemporary
424 climate models. Albedo feedbacks (often cited as the main contributor by **Serreze and Francis** [2006]
425 and many others) are of a secondary importance during the freezing season for which we neglected
426 the short wave incoming radiation. This is another justification for applying the FDD concept to
427 estimate Arctic sea ice volume in winter not directly involving the albedo effect.

428 Over the past 40 years, Arctic sea ice volume has been reduced by 75% in summer. Today the Arctic
429 sea ice volume maximum in April-May (about 22000km³) is getting close to the Arctic sea ice volume
430 minimum in September (16000 km³), 40 years ago. Based on a steady loss of -300km³ of sea ice per
431 year and a Pan Arctic sea ice volume minimum estimated to be about 4000 km³ at the end of the
432 summer by now, it should take no more than 12 to 15 years to melt away the remaining 25% of sea
433 ice still resisting the summer melt. Accordingly a blue Arctic should appear in summer 2030-2035
434 much sooner than predicted from CMIP5. The IPCC AR5 concluded that it is likely the Arctic would be
435 reliably ice-free in September by 2050 assuming high future GHG emission scenarios. Here “reliably
436 ice free” meant five consecutive years with less than 10⁶ km² of sea ice extent. The expected
437 outcome is that the long-term decline in Arctic sea ice extent, thickness and volume will continue as
438 global temperatures increase. There will be a further “ball bouncing down the hill” effect (both up
439 and down) and consequently there will be few years becoming ice-free in summer during the 2020s,
440 2030s or 2040s depending on future GHG emissions impacting on the Arctic sea ice long-term trend
441 and on the natural (inter-annual) variability as well.



442 **5/ Summary**

443 During the past 40 years, the drastic reduction of Arctic sea ice captured scientific headlines, media
444 attention and large public audience as the most glaring evidence of climate change on planet Earth.
445 Concerning Arctic sea ice, it is worthwhile to note that the first parameter identified as an indicator
446 of climate change concerned sea ice thickness resulting from US submarines upward looking sonar
447 measurements during the 1990s. This was followed by Arctic sea ice extent in the 2000s highlighted
448 by the 4th IPY (2007-2008) and the spectacular sea ice extent reduction occurring during the 2007
449 summer. This led to the so-called Sea Ice (extent) Outlook initiative largely based on satellite
450 observations and numerical models for short-term Arctic sea ice prediction. Arctic sea ice volume is a
451 more recent challenge mainly due to the difficulty in measuring and/or estimating sea ice volume
452 with a decent accuracy (i.e. $\pm 1000\text{km}^3$). Arctic sea ice volume evolution over the past 40 years was
453 characterized by a long-term trend superimposed on a strong inter-annual variability highlighting a 7-
454 year oscillation that still needs to be analyzed in order to identify its origin and its cause. Since IPY, 10
455 years ago, the on-going processes affecting/impacting Arctic sea ice have continued, amplified and
456 accelerated. In 2018 we were witnessing for the first time a quasi disappearance of the Arctic Multi
457 Year Ice (MYI).

458 Here are some of the main outcomes resulting from this study:

459 1/ Arctic sea ice volume is a main parameter related to climate change. It is more sensitive than
460 Arctic sea ice extent or Arctic sea ice thickness taken separately. Compared to the situation 40 years
461 ago, the Arctic sea ice volume minimum has decreased by 75% in summer (from about 16000 km^3
462 down to 4000 km^3) compared to a 50% decrease for both the Arctic sea ice extent and Arctic sea ice
463 thickness. The absolute Arctic sea ice minimum was reached in September 2012 ($3.4 \cdot 10^6\text{ km}^2$ in
464 extent and 3800 km^3 in volume).

465 2/ Based on PIOMAS sea ice volume estimations, we confirmed the prediction of **Wang and Overland**
466 [2009] for a blue (summer ice-free) Arctic Ocean by 2037 or even earlier (2030-2035). Considering
467 that today 75% of the Arctic sea ice volume melted during summer, it would not take long to melt
468 away the remaining 25% of Arctic sea ice in summer.

469 3/ IPCC models dealing with Arctic sea ice have significantly improved from AR4 to AR5 IPCC reports
470 but they are still lagging behind reality by 10 to 20 years based on Arctic sea ice volume best
471 estimations.

472 4/ Due to a strong Arctic sea ice volume natural inter-annual variability superimposed with a
473 smoother long-term trend of anthropogenic origin (which is an order of magnitude smaller than the
474 inter-annual variability), it is likely there would be an ice free Arctic Ocean in summer one year or
475 another during the 2020s, 2030s and 2040s.

476 5/ A 7-year oscillation appeared clearly in the net ice production estimated from PIOMAS. This
477 oscillation could very well be the expression of a natural internal variability in response to a global
478 warming of anthropogenic origin. A precise attribution to the origin and cause of this oscillation
479 would improve Arctic sea ice prediction.

480 6/ The sharp double peak spatial distribution of cumulative FDD over time is also indicative of a
481 significant contribution from Ocean fluxes at the bottom of the Arctic sea ice (**Fan et al. [2017]**).



482 Ocean fluxes should be included in the Arctic sea ice budget as well as cumulative Melting-Degree
483 Days (MDD) to complete the sea ice seasonal cycle. Both aspects will be the topic of another
484 publication.

485 7/ The cumulative FDD sea ice thickness-based estimations revealed a quasi disappearance of the
486 MYI for 2018. This is the first time ever this remarkable event did occur over the past 40 years. That
487 also explains the reason why PIOMAS sea ice volume estimations are fitting much better FDD sea ice
488 volume estimations for recent years since FDD can only take into account the new ice (FYI) formed
489 each year. Arctic sea ice volume maximum differences of about 5000 km³ between PIOMAS and FDD
490 based estimations in the past (1980s and 1990s) were mainly due to the abundant Arctic MYI that
491 has vanished by now.

492 8/ A thin snow layer (few centimeters) on top of sea ice is a very sensitive parameter to better
493 estimate the contribution from cumulative FDD for sea ice formation and sea ice volume estimations.

494 9/ The similarities between sea ice volume based on FDD and PIOMAS confirms the temperature
495 feedback is a primary contributor to the Arctic sea ice growth in winter rather than the albedo
496 feedback more efficient during the summer season.

497 10/ There is a large asymmetry between winter freezing and summer melting in the Arctic but also
498 between the Western Arctic and the Eastern Arctic. The Western Arctic is significantly colder than
499 the Eastern Arctic with the later is experiencing the strongest warming. That will have important
500 impacts on the development of human activities such as polar shipping and resource extraction in
501 the Arctic (**Crepin et al.** [2017]).

502 11/ The primary importance of surface air temperature is highlighted by FDD sea ice volume
503 estimations for the Arctic Ocean. This is also supporting recent studies led by meteorologists
504 (**Overland et al.** [2016], **Binder et al.** [2017] regarding increasing Arctic air temperatures related to
505 large scale atmospheric circulation (atmospheric blocking, cold air outbreaks, split polar vortex,
506 cyclonic activity) strongly impacting mid latitude weather systems (snow precipitations, floods and
507 drought etc..) in the Northern hemisphere (**Cullather et al.** [2016]).

508 12/ The three most recent winters 2015-2016, 2016-2017 and 2017-2018 produced the smallest
509 amount of sea ice over the past 40-year winter time period according to both FDD and PIOMAS Arctic
510 sea ice volume estimations.

511 One of the main objectives of this paper dealt with an Arctic sea ice volume inter-comparison
512 involving PIOMAS, FDD and Cryosat-2 in order to make progress towards more accurate and reliable
513 Arctic sea ice characteristics estimations and predictions. Sea ice volume is a challenging and
514 extremely important element of the Earth's climate system due to its greater sensitivity to climate
515 change compared to sea ice extent and sea ice thickness taken separately. Accordingly sea ice
516 volume deserves much more attention for future Arctic studies. We would like to suggest using more
517 extensively Arctic sea ice volume deduced from cumulative FDD in particular to evaluate the impact
518 of climate change on Planet Earth in the future.

519 **Acknowledgments**



- 520 We would like to thank the EU projects ACCESS (EU Grant Agreement N°265863) and ICE-ARC (EU
521 Grant Agreement N°603887) and the Pan Arctic Options Belmont Forum project (ANR-14-AORS-003-
522 01). ERA Interim data set can be found at
523 ftp://ftp.climserv.ipsl.polytechnique.fr/era/GLOBAL_075/4xdaily/AN_SF/
- 524 JZ is supported by the NASA Cryosphere program (NNX17AD27G). The PIOMAS sea ice volume data
525 we used are available at <http://psc.apl.uw.edu/research/projects/arctic-sea-ice-volume-anomaly/>.
526 Regarding sea ice thickness PIOMAS data are available at
527 http://psc.apl.washington.edu/zhang/IDAO/data_piomas.html.
- 528 We also would like to thank R. Tilling and A. Ridout (UK Centre for Polar Observation and Modelling)
529 for allowing us to make use of the Cryosat-2 data available at
530 <http://www.cpom.ucl.ac.uk/csopr/seaice.html>.
- 531 **References**
- 532 Anderson, D.L.: Growth rate of sea ice. *J. Glaciol.*, 3, 1170-1172, 1961.
- 533 Bathiany S., D. Notz, T. Mauritsen, G. Raedel and Brovkin V. :On the potential for abrupt Arctic winter
534 sea ice loss. *J. Climate*, 29, 2703-2718, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-15-0466.s1>, 2016.
- 535 Berrisford, P., Källberg, P., Kobayashi, S., Dee, D., Uppala, S., Simmons, A.J., Poli, P., and Sato H.:
536 Atmospheric conservation properties in ERA-Interim. *Q.J.R. Meteorol. Soc.*, 137, 1381-1399,
537 doi:10.1002/qj.864, 2011.
- 538 Binder H., M. Boettcher, C.M. Grams, H. Joos, S. Pfahl and Wernli H.: Exceptional air mass transport
539 and dynamical drivers of an extreme wintertime Arctic warm event. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 44, 12028-
540 12036, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL075841>, 2017.
- 541 Comiso J.C.: Abrupt decline in the Arctic winter sea ice cover. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, Vol.33, L18504,
542 doi:10.1029/2006GL027341, 2006.
- 543 Crepin A-S., Karcher M. and Gascard J-C.: Arctic Climate Change, Economy and Society (ACCESS).
544 Integrated perspectives. *Ambio*, 46 (Suppl. 3):S341-S354, doi:10.1007/s13280-017-0953-3, 2017.
- 545 Cullather R.I., Lim Y.K., Boisvert L.N. Brucker L., Lee J.N. and Nowicki S.M.J. : Analysis of the warmest
546 Arctic winter 2015-2016, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 43 (20), 10808-10816,
547 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2016GL071228>, 2016.
- 548 Fan X., H. Bi, Y. Wang, M.Fu, X.Zhou, X.Xu and Huang H.: Increasing winter conductive heat transfer in
549 the Arctic sea ice covered areas: 1979-2014. *J. Ocean. Univ. China*, doi: 10.1007/s11802-017-3359-8,
550 2017.
- 551 Gascard J-C., Riemann-Campe K., Gerdes R., Schyberg H., Randriamampinina R., Karcher M, Zhang J.
552 and Rafizadeh M.: Future sea ice conditions and weather forecasts in the Arctic : Implications for
553 Arctic shipping. *Ambio*, 46 (Suppl.3): S355-S367, doi:10.1007/s13280-017-0951-5, 2017.
- 554 Giles K.A., Laxon S.W. and Ridout A.L.: Circumpolar thinning of Arctic sea ice following the 2007
555 record ice extent minimum. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* Vol. 35, L22502, doi:10.1029/2008GL035710, 2008.



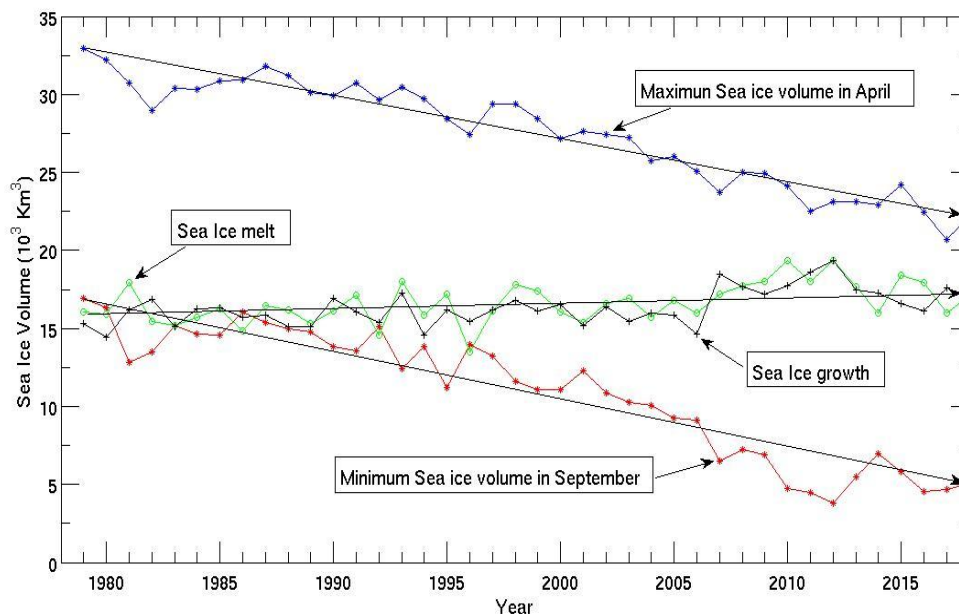
- 556 Gillett N.P., D.A. Stone, P. Scott, T. Nozawa, A. Yu. Karpechko, G.C. Hegerl, M.F. Wehner and Jones
557 P.D.: Attribution of polar warming to human influence. *Nature Geoscience*, doi:10.1038/ngeo338,
558 2008.
- 559 Graham R.M., Cohen L., Petty A.A., Boisvert L.N., Rinke A., Hudson S.R. and Granskog M.A.: Increasing
560 frequency and duration of Arctic warming events. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 44, 6974-983,
561 <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL073395>, 2017.
- 562 Harpaintner J., J-C. Gascard and Haugan P.H.: Ice production and brine formation in Storfjorden,
563 Svalbard. *J. Geophys. Res.*, Vol.106, NO. C7, 14001-14013, July 15, 2001.
- 564 Jakobson E., Vihma T., Palo T., Jakobson L., Keernik H. and Jaagus J.: Validation of atmospheric
565 reanalyses over the central Arctic ocean. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 39, L10802,
566 doi:10.1029/2012GL051591, 2012.
- 567 Kauker F., T.Kaminski, M. Karcher, R. Giering, R. Gerdes and Vosbeck M.: Adjoint analysis of the 2007
568 all time Arctic sea-ice minimum. *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36, L03707, doi: 10.1029/2008GL036323, 2009.
- 569 Kim B.M., Hong J.Y., Jun S.Y., Zhang X., Kwon H., Kim S.J., Kim J.H., Kim S.W. and Kim H.K. : Major
570 cause of unprecedented Arctic warming in January 2016: critical role of an Atlantic windstorm. *Sci.*
571 *Rep.*, 7, 40051, doi:10.1038/srep40051, 2017.
- 572 Kwok R.: Near zero replenishment of the Arctic multiyear sea ice cover at the end of 2005 summer,
573 *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 34, L05501, doi:10.1029.2006GL028737, 2007.
- 574 Kwok, R., G.F. Cunningham, M. Wensnahan, I. Rigor, H.J. Zwally and Yi D.: Thinning and volume loss
575 of the Arctic Ocean sea ice cover: 2003-2008. *J. Geophys. Res.*, 114, C07005,
576 doi:10.1029/2009JC005312, 2009.
- 577 Lawrence D.M., Slater A.G., Tomas R., Holland M.M. and Desre C. : Accelerated Arctic land warming
578 and permafrost degradation during rapid sea ice loss. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 35 L11506,
579 doi:10.1029/2008GL033985, 2008.
- 580 Maykut G.A. : *The Geophysics of sea ice. NATO ASI Series B: Physics Vol.146, 395-461,1986.*
- 581 Mi-Rong Song : Change of Arctic sea-ice volume and its relationship with sea-ice extension CMIP5
582 simulations, *Atmospheric and Oceanic Science Letters*, 9:1, 22-30, doi:10.1080/16742834, 2015,
583 1126153, 2016.
- 584 Moore G.W.K.: The December 2015 North Pole warming event and the increasing occurrence of such
585 events? *Sci. Rep.* 6(1). 39084, doi:10.1038/srep 39084, 2016.
- 586 Moore G.W.K., Schweiger A., Zhang J. and Steele M.: Collapse of the 2017 winter Beaufort High: a
587 response to thinning sea ice? *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 45, <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017GL076446>, 2018.
- 588 Overland J.E. and Wang H. : Large scale atmospheric circulation changes are associated with the
589 recent loss of Arctic sea ice. *Tellus A*, 62(1), 1-9, 2010.
- 590 Overland J.E. and Wang M. : Recent extreme Arctic temperatures are due to a split Polar Vortex. *J.*
591 *Clim.*, 29, 5609-5616, doi:10.1175/JCLI-D-16-0320.1, 2016.



- 592 Perovich D.K., J.A. Richter-Menge, K.F. Jones and Light B.: Sunlight, water and ice: extreme Arctic sea
593 ice melt during the summer of 2007, *Geophys.Res.Lett.*,35, L11501, doi:10.1029/2008GL034007,
594 2008.
- 595 Perovich D.K., W. Meier, M. Tschudi, S. Farrell, S. Hendricks, S. Gerland, C. Haas, T. Krumpen, C.
596 Polashenski, R. Ricker and Webster M.: Sea Ice (in Arctic Report card 2017),
597 <http://www.arctic.noaa.gov/Report-Card>.
- 598 Pithan F. and Mauritsen T.: Arctic amplification dominated by temperature feedbacks in
599 contemporary climate models. *Nature Geoscience*, doi:10.1038/NGEO2071, 2014.
- 600 Reynolds, R. W., T. M. Smith, C. Liu, D. B. Chelton, K. S. Casey, and Schlax M.G.: Daily high-resolution-
601 blended analyses for sea surface temperature, *J. Clim.*, 20(22), 5473-5496, 2007.
- 602 Rinke A., Maturilli M., Graham R.M., Matthes H., Handorf D., Cohen L. and Moore J.: Extreme cyclone
603 events in the Arctic: wintertime variability and trends. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 12(9), 094006, 2017.
- 604 Schweiger, A., R. Lindsay, J. Zhang, M. Steele, H. Stern and Kwok R.: Uncertainty in modeled Arctic
605 sea ice volume. *J. Geophys.Res.*, 116, C00D06, doi:10.1029/2011JC007084, 2011.
- 606 Serreze M.C., J.A. Maslanik, T.A. Scambos, F. Fetterer, J. Stroeve, K. Knowles, C. Fowler, S. Drobot,
607 R.G. Barry and Haran T.M.: A record minimum Arctic sea ice extent an area in 2002. *Geophys. Res.*
608 *Lett.*, 30(3), 1110, doi:10.1029/2002GL016406, 2003.
- 609 Serreze M.C. and Francis J.A.: The Arctic on the fast track of change. *Weather*, 61(3),
610 doi:10.1256/wea.197.05, 2006.
- 611 Shu Q., Z. Song and Qiao F.: Assessment of sea ice simulations in the CMIP5 models, *The Cryosphere*,
612 9, 399- 409, doi:10.5194/tc-9-399-2015, 2015.
- 613 Simmons A.J., P.D. Jones, V. da Costa Bechtold, A.C.M Beljaars, P.W. Källberg, S. Saarinen, S.M.
614 Uppala, P. Viterbo and Wedi N.: Comparison of trends and variability in CRU, ERA-40 and NCEP/NCAR
615 analyses of monthly-mean surface air temperature, ECMWF ERA-40 Project Report Series No.18,
616 2004.
- 617 Stroeve J.C., Serreze M.C., Fetterer F., Arbetter T., Meier W., Maslanik J. and Knowles K.: Tracking the
618 Arctic's shrinking ice cover: another extreme September minimum in 2004. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 32,
619 L04501, doi:10.1029/2004 GL021810, 2005.
- 620 Stroeve J., Schroder D., Tsamados M., and Feltham D. : Warm winter, thin ice? *The Cryosphere*
621 *Discuss.*, <https://doi.org/10.519/tc-2017-287>, 2018.
- 622 Swart N.C., J.C. Fyfe, E. Hawkins, J.E. Kay and Jahn A.: Influence of internal variability on Arctic sea ice
623 trends. *Nature Clim. Change*, 5, 86-89, 2015.
- 624 Tang Q., Zhang X., Yang X. and Francis J.A.: Cold winter extremes in northern continents linked to
625 Arctic sea ice loss. *Environ. Res. Lett.*, 8, 014036, doi:10.1088/1748-9326/8/1/014036, 2013.
- 626 Tilling, R.L., A. Ridout and Shepherd A.: Estimating Arctic sea ice thickness and volume using Cryosat-
627 2 radar altimeter data. *Adv. Space Res.*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asr.2017.10.051>, 2017.



- 628 Wang M. and J.E. Overland J.E.: A sea ice free summer Arctic within 30 years? *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 36,
629 L07502, doi:10.1029/209GL037820, 2009.
- 630 Zhang, J.L. and D.A. Rothrock D.A.: Modeling global sea ice with a thickness and enthalpy distribution
631 model in generalized curvilinear coordinates, *Mon. Weather Rev.*, 131, 845-861, 2003.
- 632 Zhang J.L., R. Lindsay, M. Steele and Schweiger A.: What drove the dramatic retreat of Arctic sea ice
633 during summer 2007? *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 35, L11505, doi:10.1029/2008GL034005, 2008.
- 634 Zhao J., Barber D., Zhang S., Yang Q., Wang X. and Xie H.: Record low sea ice concentration in the
635 Central Arctic during summer 2010? *Adv. Atmos. Sci.*, 35(1), 106-115,
636 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00376-017-7066-6>, 2018.
- 637



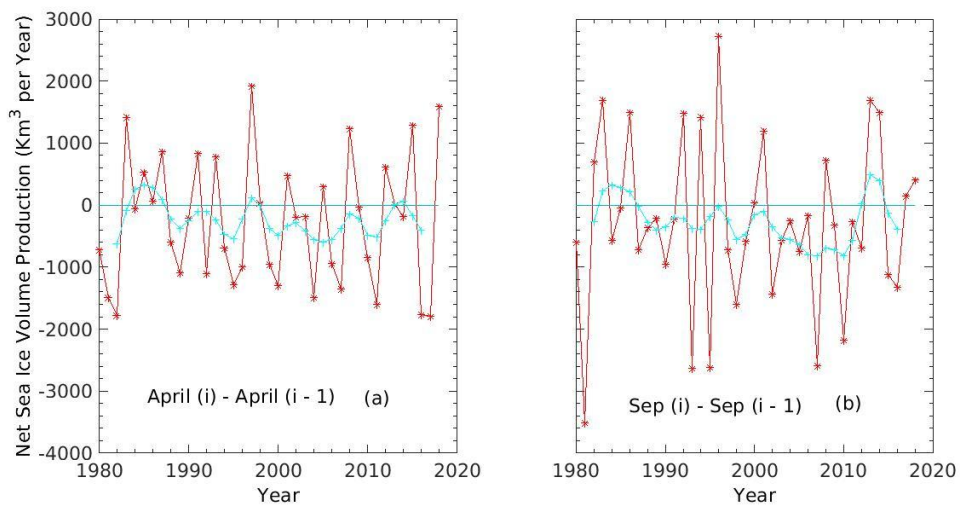
638

639 Figure 1. Arctic sea ice volume maximum in April (blue curve) and sea ice volume minimum in
640 September (red curve) each year according to PIOMAS from 1979 to 2018. The green curve
641 represents the sea ice volume melting from the maximum in April to the minimum in September
642 each year and the black curve represents the sea ice volume formed each year from the minimum in
643 September to the maximum in April the next year.

644



645



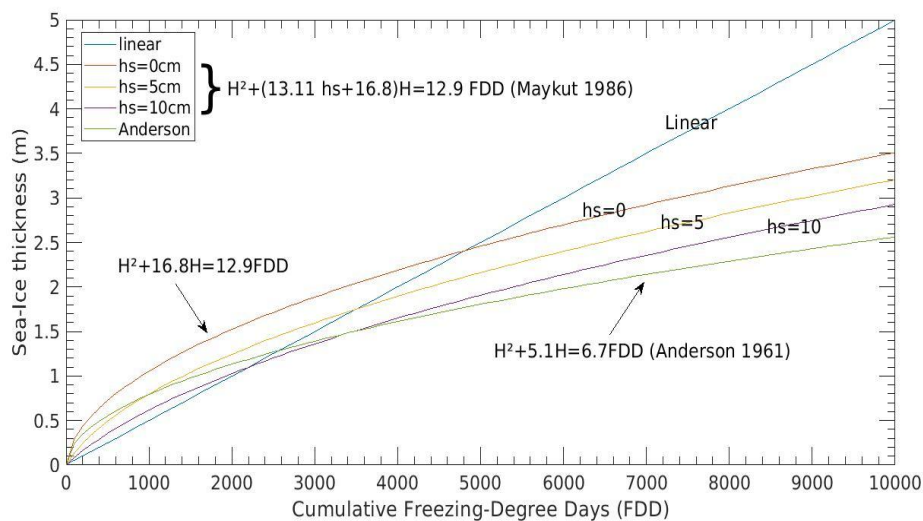
646

647 Figure 2a. Net Arctic sea ice volume production in April from 1979 to 2018 according to PIOMAS.

648 Figure 2b. Net Arctic sea ice volume production in September from 1979 to 2018 according to

649 PIOMAS. The cyan curve represents the 5 year running mean.

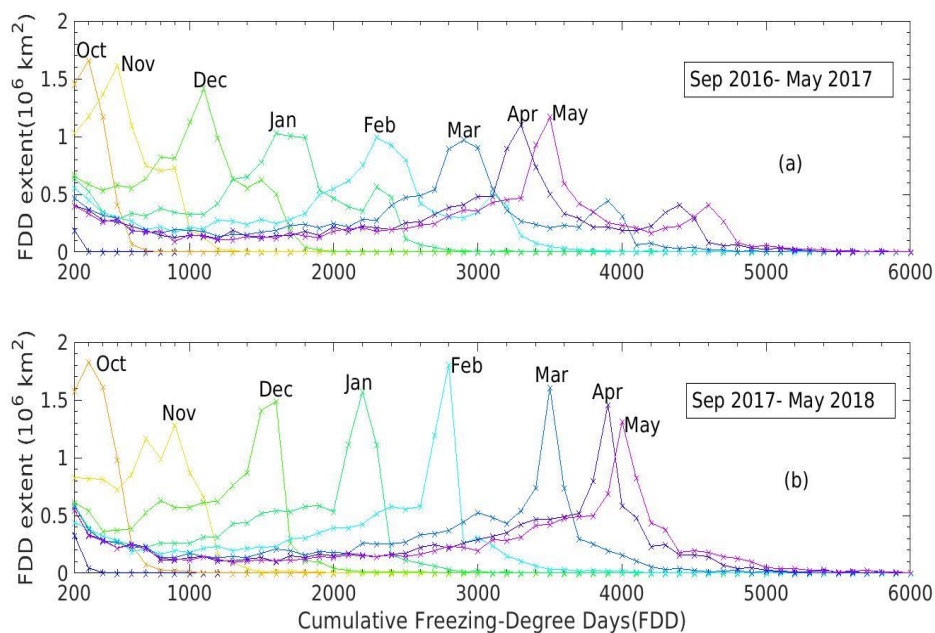
650



651

652 Figure 3. Sea ice thickness (H in meters) as a function of cumulative FDD based on 1/ a linear
 653 relationship, 2/ a theoretical relationship (Equation 5) proposed by Maykut (1986) considering a 0cm,
 654 5cm and 10cm snow layer thickness h_s on top of sea ice and 3/ an experimental formulation
 655 proposed by Anderson (1961).

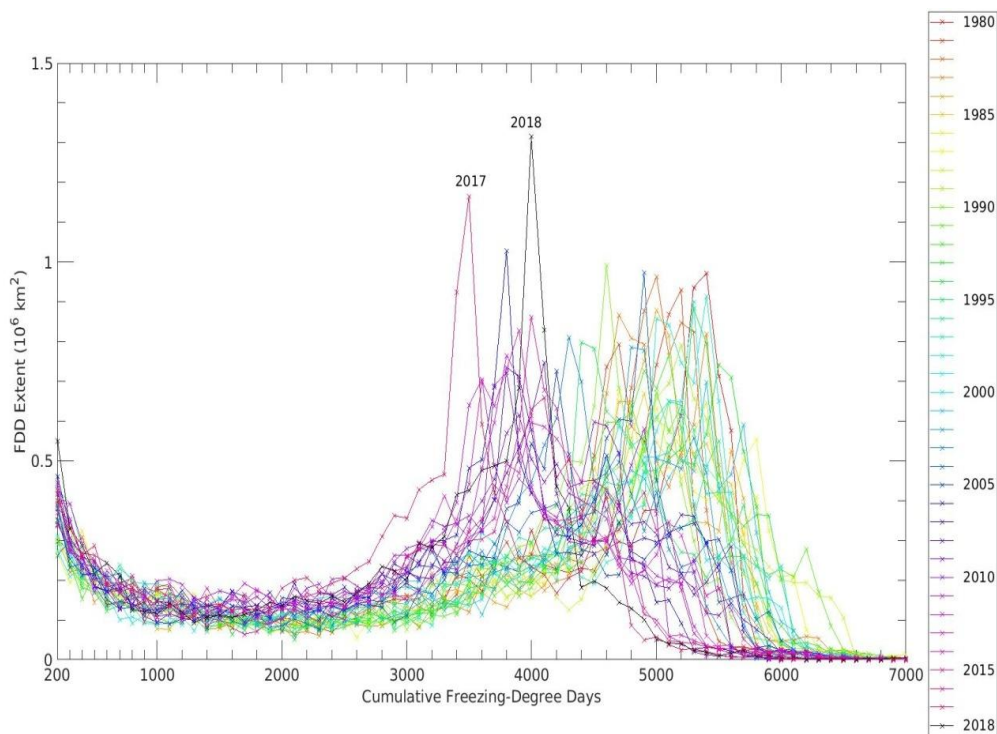
656



657

658 Figure 4a. Spatial distribution (extent) of cumulative FDD for 9 time range periods covering the
659 freezing season starting in September 2016 for the time range period 1 (30 days) and ending in May
660 2017 for the time range period 9 (270 days). Figure 4b. The same as figure 4a but for the time period
661 starting in September 2017 until May 2018.

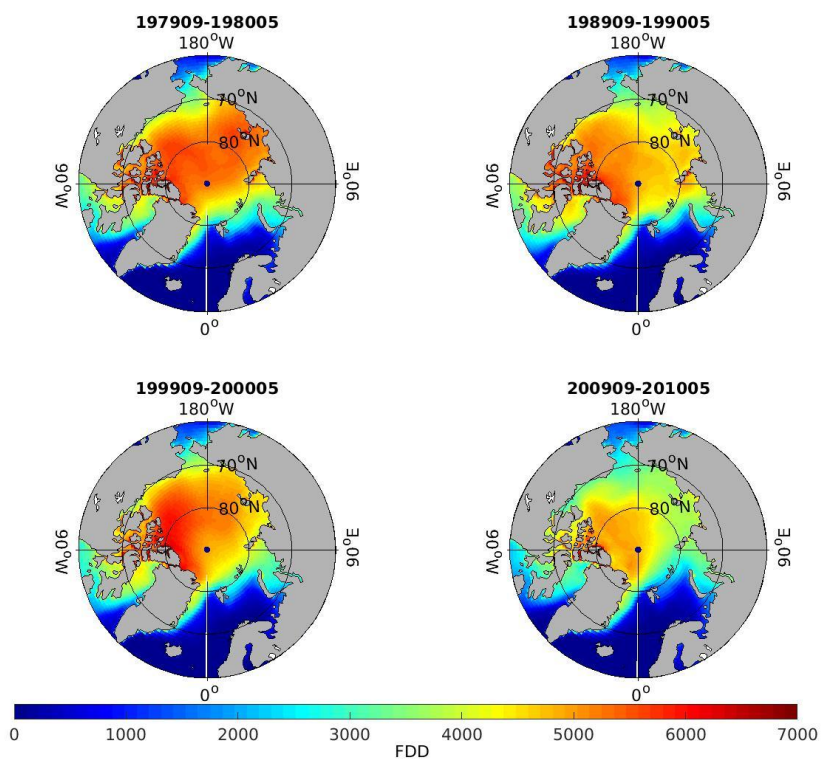
662



663

664 Figure 5. Spatial distribution (extent) in May of 9 month cumulative FDD (September until May) from
665 1980 until 2018 each year.

666

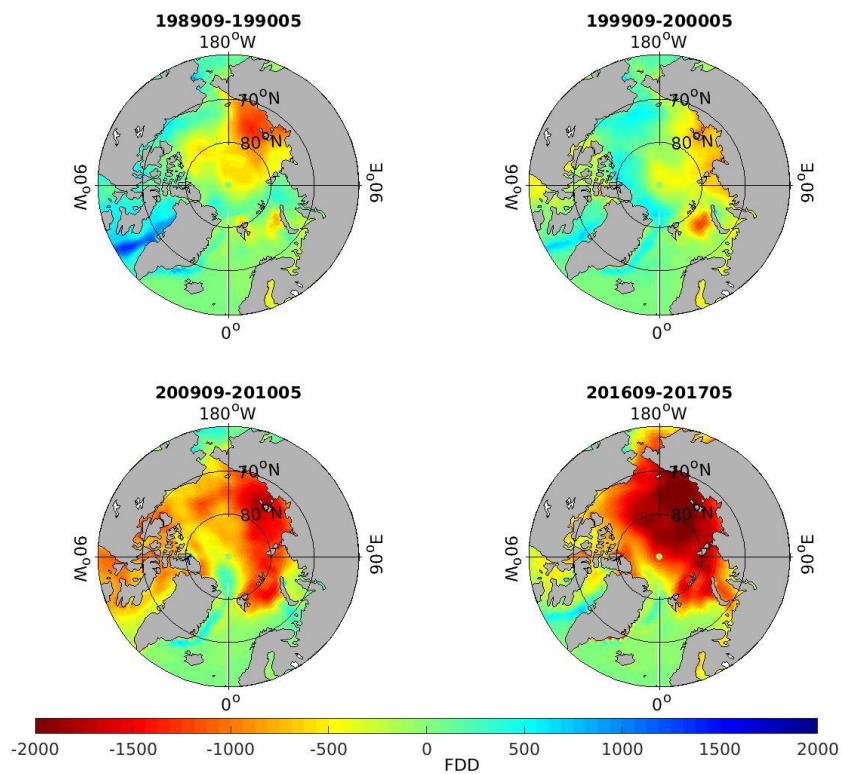


667

668 Figure 6. Maps representing the spatial distribution in May of 9 month cumulative FDD (September
669 to May) for 4 different years (1980, 1990, 2000, 2010) over the whole Arctic Ocean.

670

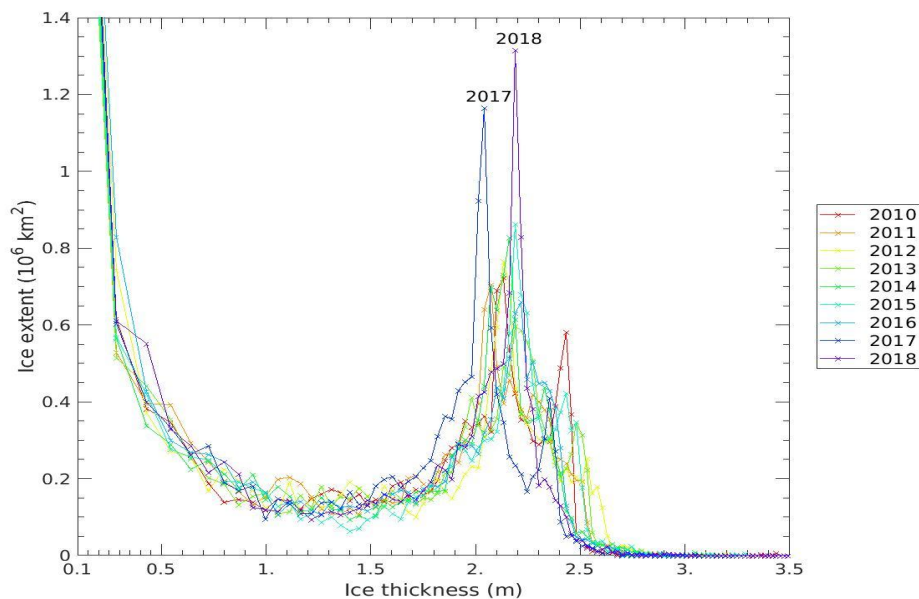
671



672

673 Figure 7. Maps representing the spatial distribution in May of cumulative FDD differences for a 9
674 month time range period (September to May) relative to 1980 used as a reference for 4 different
675 years (1990, 2000, 2010, 2017) over the whole Arctic Ocean.

676

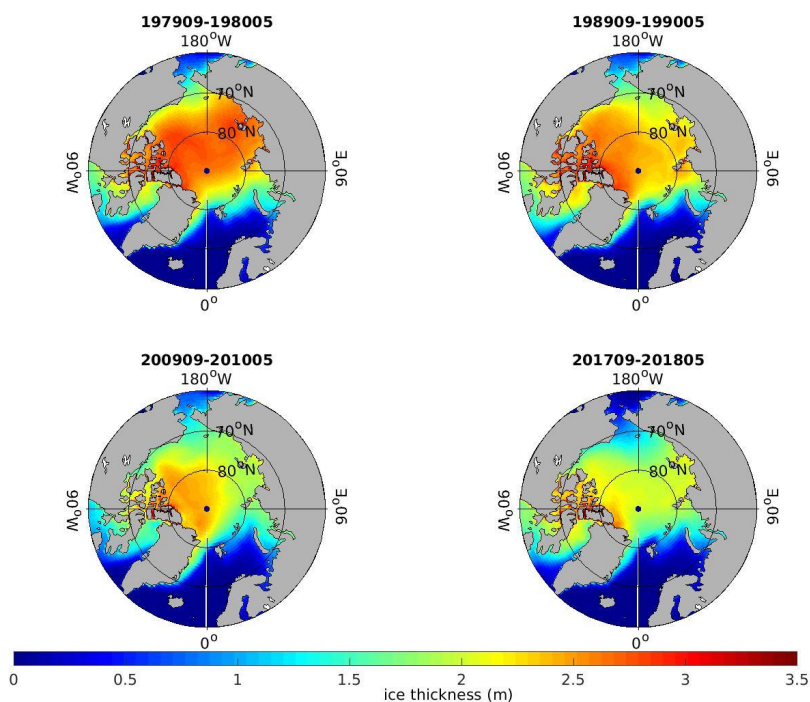


677

678 Figure 8. Sea ice thickness distribution in May deduced from 9 month cumulative FDD time range
679 period (September to May) from 2010 until 2018 and based on Equation 5 for a snow layer $h_s = 0$.

680

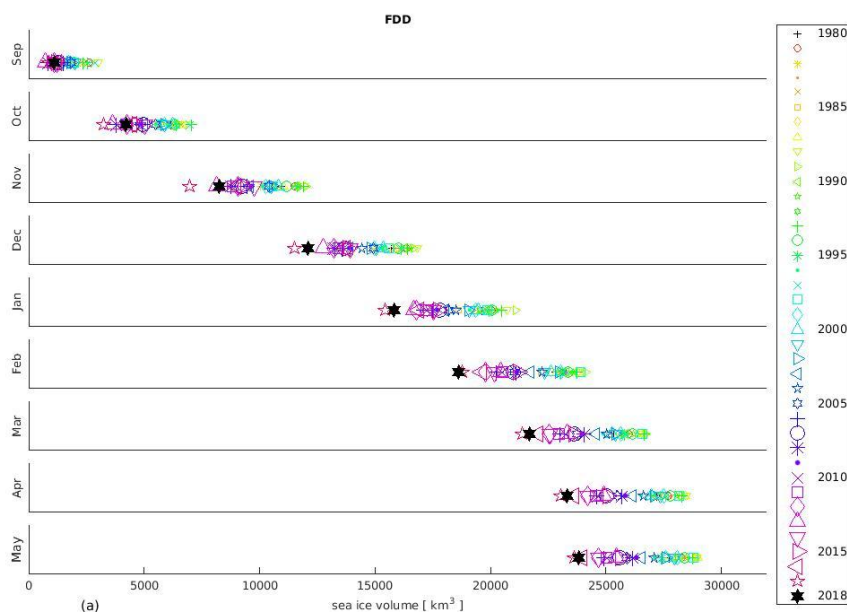
681



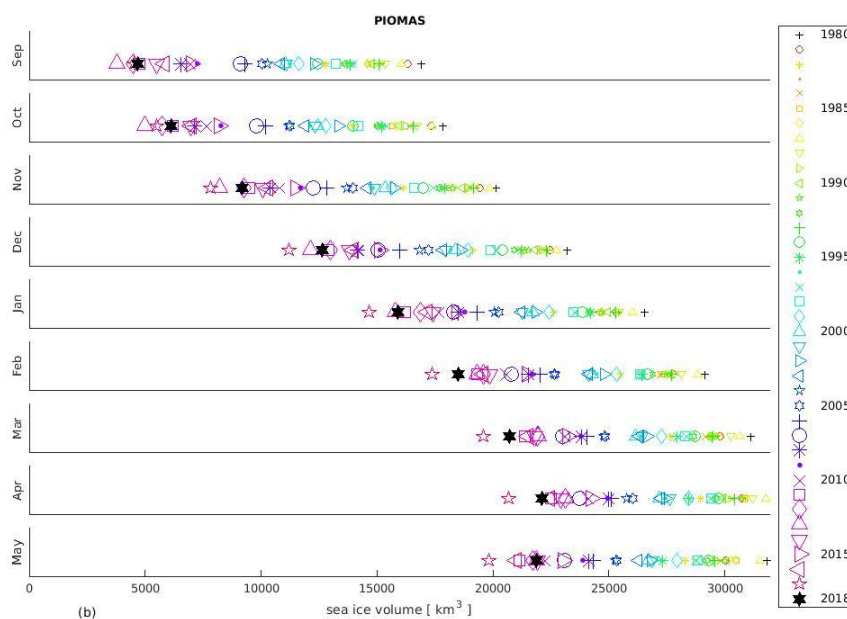
682

683 Figure 9. Maps representing Arctic sea ice thickness (m) spatial distribution in May based on 9 month
684 cumulative FDD time range period (September to May) and Equation 5 ($h_s = 0$) for 4 different years
685 (1980, 1990, 2010 and 2018).

686



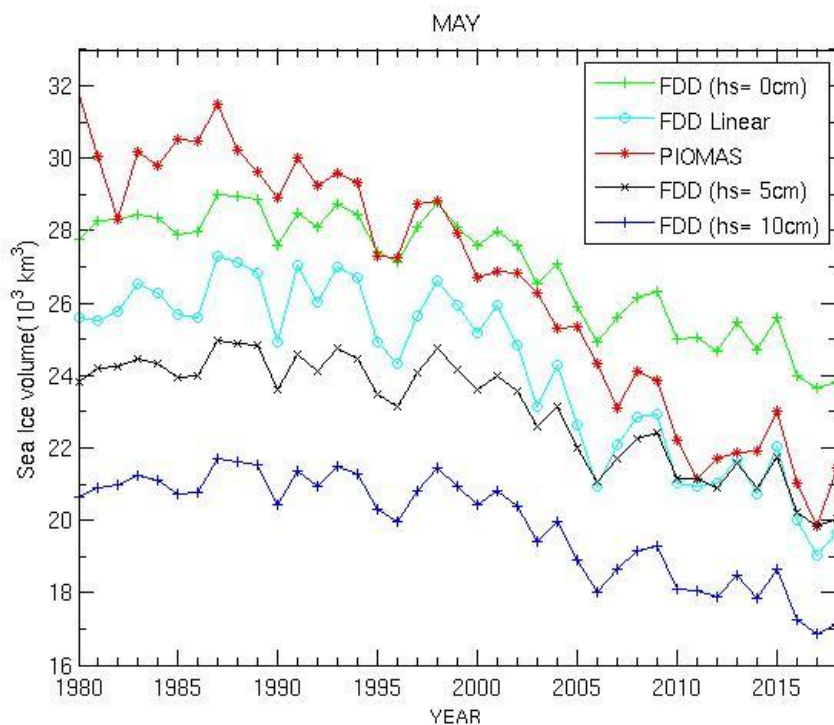
687



688

689 Figure 10a. Arctic sea ice volume maximum each month deduced from cumulative FDD and Equation
 690 (5) for $h_s = 0$ during the freezing season from September to May each year from 1980 until 2018.

691 Figure 10b. Same as figure 10a according to PIOMAS.



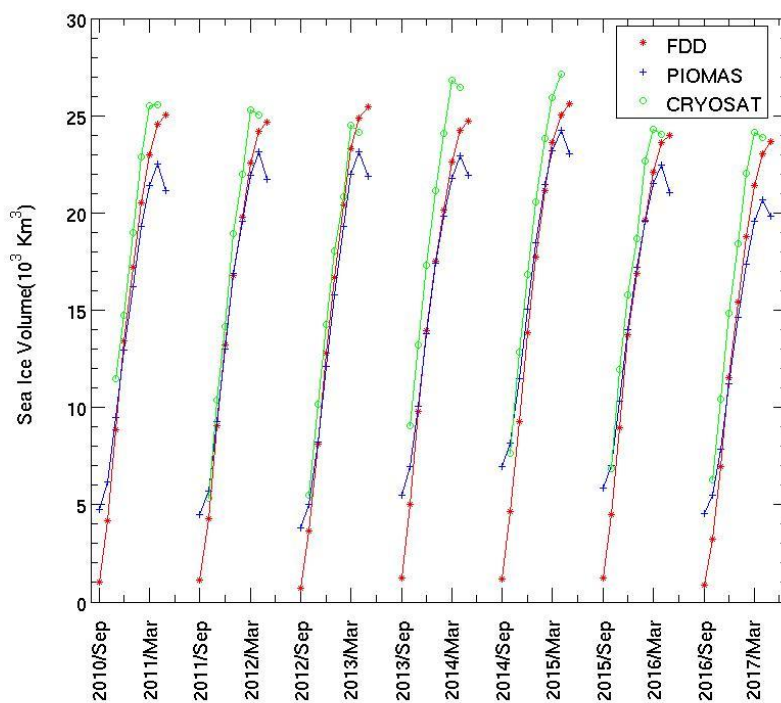
692

693 Figure 11. Arctic sea ice volume maximum in May each year from 1980 until 2018 deduced from a/
 694 PIOMAS (red curve), b/ the linear relationship (figure 3) relating a 9-month cumulative FDD and sea
 695 ice thickness (cyan curve), c/ the Maykut's relationship (equation 5 and Fig.3) relating a 9 month-
 696 cumulative FDD and sea ice thickness for $h_s = 0$ (green curve), for $h_s = 5$ cm (black curve) and for $h_s =$
 697 10 cm (blue curve). h_s is the snow layer thickness on top of sea ice.

698



699
700
701



702
703 Figure 12. Arctic sea ice volume inter-comparison between FDD (red), PIOMAS (blue) and CRYOSAT
704 (green) for the period 2010 until 2017. Sea ice volumes deduced from 9 month cumulative FDD are
705 based on Equation 5 for $h_s = 0$ (Figure 3).

706