1	Evaluating different geothermal heat flow maps as basal boundary conditions during
2	spinup of the Greenland ice sheet
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16	ABSTRACT
17	There is currently poor scientific agreement whether the ice-bed interface is frozen or
18	thawed beneath approximately one-third of the Greenland ice sheet. This disagreement in basal
19	thermal state results, at least partly, from a diversity of opinion in the subglacial geothermal heat
20	flow basal boundary condition usedemployed in different ice-flow models. Here, we employ
21	seven widely used Greenland geothermal heat flow maps in widespread use to in 10,000-year
22	spinups of the Community Ice Sheet Model (CISM). We perform two spin-ups: one nudged
23	toward thickness observations and the other unconstrained. both a fully unconstrained transient-
24	spin up, as well as a nudged spin up that conforms to Ice Sheet Model Intercomparison Project
25	for CMIP6 (ISMIP6) protocol. Across the seven heat flow maps, and regardless of
26	unconstrained or nudged spinup, the spread in basal ice temperatures exceeds 10°C over
27	large areas of the ice-bed interface. For a given heat flow map, the thawed-bedded ice-sheet
28	area is consistently larger under unconstrained spinups than nudged spin ups. Under the
29	unconstrained spinup, thawed-bedded area ranges from 33.5 to 60.0% across the seven heat
30	flow maps. Perhaps counterintuitively, the highest iceberg calving fluxes are associated with the
31	lowest heat flows (and vice versa) for both unconstrained and nudged spin ups. These resultsis
32	highlights the direct, and non-trivial, influence of choice of the heat flow boundary condition on
33	the simulated equilibrium thermal state of the ice sheet. We suggest that future ice-flow model

intercomparisons should employ a range of basal heat flow maps, and limit directintercomparisons to simulations employingusing a common heat flow map.

36

37 INTRODUCTION

There is presently a tremendous diversity of opinion regarding the geothermal heat flow beneath the Greenland ice sheet due to a paucity of direct heat-flow measurements in of geothermal heat flow beneath the ice-sheet interior. While many subaerial, submarine and shallow subglacial measurements have been made around the ice-sheet periphery, deep subglacial measurements have only been made at six deep ice coring sites within the ice-sheet a interior (Camp Century, DYE-3, GRIP, GISP2, NGRIP and NEEM). Consequently, the magnitude and spatial distribution of Greenland's subglacial geothermal heat flow remains poorly constrained across the seven unique Greenland heat flow models presently in kidespread use (Figure 1) [*Shapiro and Ritzwoller*, 2004; *Rezvanbehbahani et al.*, 2017; *Martos ret al.*, 2018; *Greve*, 2019; *Lucazeau*, 2019; *Artemieva*, 2019; *Colgan et al.*, 2022]. These individual geothermal heat flow models are derived from a variety of multiple techniques that pinterpret a variety of geophysical variables (Table 1). We briefly discuss broad differences in the methodology and geophysical input variables of these existing heat flow maps.

51 The Rezvanbehbahani et al. [2017], Lucazeau [2019] and Colgan et al. [2022] heat flow 52 maps are perhaps methodologically most similar. These three maps use machine learning or 53 geostatistics to predict heat flow as a function of diverse geophysical variables such as 54 topography, tectonic settingage, observed gravity, and magnetic field-ete. They differ not only in 55 the applied method but also in the utilized set of geophysical variables and their domains. 56 Whereas Rezvanbehbahani et al. [2017] and Lucazeau [2019] only used global data, Colgan et 57 al. [2022] substituted global datasets with Greenland--specific local data. In contrast, the 58 Shapiro and Ritzwoller [2004], Martos et al. [2018] and Artemieva [2019] heat flow maps all 59 employ lithospheric models of varying complexity and more specific geophysical variables to 60 infer heat flow. Shapiro and Ritzwoller [2004] correlate the seismic shear wave velocities of the 61 upper 300 km with heat flow observations and use this connection to predict heat flow from 62 tomography data in areas without heat flow observations. Martos et al. [2018] use magnetic 63 data to infer the Curie temperature depth. Artemieva [2019] assumes an isostatic equilibrium 64 and translates the corresponding topographic residuals to temperature anomalies which are 65 then converted to a lithosphere-asthenosphere boundary undulation. Both latter methods then 66 infer heat flow from the respective isotherms by applying a thermal model. Martos et al. [2018] 67 uses therefore the steady-state one-dimensional heat conduction equation and lateral constant

⁶⁸ values for thermal conductivity and radiogenic heat production. *Artemieva* [2019] uses
⁶⁹ individual reference geotherms for the different tectonic settings to derive the geothermal heat
⁷⁰ flux from LAB topography. The *Greve* [2019] heat flow map is rather-unique in using
⁷¹ paleoclimatic forcing of an ice-flow model to infer heat flow with a minimum of geophysical
⁷² variables.

In North Greenland, there is especially poor agreement among the present generation of geothermal heat flow models. Some models infer a widespread North Greenland high heat-flow anomaly (e.g. [*Greve*, 2019]), and some do not (e.g. [*Lucazeau*, 2019]). Other models offer products with and without this high heat-flow anomaly (e.g. [*Rezvanbehbahani et al.*, 2017]). There are numerous secondary disagreements as well, including whetherif a model (1) infers traces of the Iceland Hotspot Track transiting from West to East Greenland [*Martos et al.*, 2018], or if a model (2) infers elevated heat flow in East Greenland in closer proximity to the Mid-Atlantic Ridge [*Artemieva*, 2019], or if a model (3) infers a low heat-flow anomaly associated with the North Atlantic Craton in South Greenland [*Colgan et al.*, 2022].

Geothermal heat flow comprises a critical basal thermal boundary condition in Greenland ice sheet models. It can significantly influence basal ice temperature and rheology, which in turn influences basal meltwater production and friction [*Karlsson et al.*, 2021]. Given the nonlinear relation between ice temperature and rheology, and that most ice deformation coccurs in the deepest ice layers, relatively small changes in basal ice temperature can result in **relatively** large changes in ice velocity [*Hooke*, 2019]. In extreme cases, diminished geothermal heat flow along subglacial ridges may contribute to the formation of massive refrozen basal ice masses [*Colgan et al.*, 2021], or sharply enhanced geothermal heat flow may contribute to the onset of major ice-flow features [*Smith-Johnsen et al.*, 2020].

Despite the clear links between geothermal heat flow and ice dynamics, a standardized geothermal heat flow as the basal thermal boundary condition was not prescribed in the Ice Sheet Model Intercomparison Project for CMIP6 (ISMIP6) [*Goelzer et al.*, 2020]. Of the 21 aparticipating Greenland models submissions within ISMIP6, twelve prescribed geothermal heat flow according to *Shapiro and Ritzwoller* [2004], five prescribed it according to *Greve* [2019], two prescribed it as a hybrid assimilation of four older geothermal heat flow models [*Pollack et al.*, 1993; *Tarasov and Peltier*, 2003; *Fox Maule et al.*, 2009; *Rogozhina et al.*, 2016], and one prescribed a spatially uniform geothermal heat flow.

For Greenland, the ISMIP6 ensemble suggests that ~40% of the ice-sheet bed is frozen,
 meaning basal ice temperatures below the pressure-melting-point temperature, and ~33% of the
 ice-sheet bed is thawed, meaning basal ice temperatures at the pressure-melting-point

102 [MacGregor et al., 2022]. The ISMIP6 ensemble disagrees on whether the basal thermal state is 103 frozen or thawed beneath the remaining ~28% of the ice sheet. It is unclear what portion of this 104 disagreement is associated with the use of differing geothermal heat flow boundary conditions 105 across ISMIP6 ensemble members. The potential influence of geothermal heat flow boundary 106 condition can significantly influence theon basal ice temperature and thus may significantly 107 change the ice flow rheologyalso remains unclear. For example, basal ice that is 1°C below 108 pressure-melting-point temperature T_{pmp} deforms approximately ten times more than ice 10°C below T_{pmp} the pressure-melting-point temperature at the same driving stress [Hooke, 2019]. 109 In preparation for ISMIP7, there is a clear motivation to more fully explore the choice of 110 111 geothermal heat flow boundary condition on modeled basal ice temperatures. Here, we spin up 112 an ice-flow model with seven different geothermal heat flow boundary conditions. This allows us 113 to isolate the influence of choice of the geothermal heat flow boundary condition on the 114 simulated thermal state and ice flow. We also discuss the pros and cons of these seven 115 Greenland geothermal heat flow products in the specific context of potential utility for 116 futureISMIP7 Greenland ice flow simulations.

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118 METHODS

We use the Community Ice Sheet Model (CISM) [*Lipscomb et al.*, 2019] as configured to spin up the Greenland ice sheet for ISMIP6 simulations; [*Goelzer et al.*, 2020]. These imulations wereWe run CISM on a regular 4 km grid with ten vertical layers, using a *figher-order velocity solver with a depth-integrated viscosity approximation (DIVA)* based on *Goldberg* [2011]. There is no dependence of basal sliding on basal temperature or water *for solver and ice is assumed to calve immediately; thus we do not simulate Greenland's small floating ice shelves and ice tongues. For partly grounded cells at the marine margin, basal shear stress is weighted in proportion to the grounded fraction of the cell using a sub-grid grounding-line sub-grid-parameterization [Leguy et al., 2021 Seroussi et al., 2014*].

We perform two types of ice-sheet spin--ups that we denote Case 1 and Case 2-under the CISM DIVA (depth-integrated viscosity approximation) solver framework. The Case 1 spinup iteratively nudges the friction coefficients in the basal-sliding power law to minimize misfit against observed present-day ice thickness. The nudging method is similar to that of Pollard beConto [2012] and was applied to the Antarctic ice sheet by Lipscomb et al. [2021]. In this spin--up, we use a classic Weertman-type nonlinear basal friction law [*Weertman*, 1979]:

134
$$\tau_b = C |u_b|^{1/m-1} u_b^{-1}$$
, (1)

135 where τ_b is the basal traction, u_b is the basal velocity, and *m* is a dimensionless constant that we 136 set to 3. *C* is the spatially varying friction coefficient, in units of Pa yr m⁻¹, that is nudged during 137 spin-up at each basal velocity point. The nudged *C* is capped at a maximum value of 10⁵ 138 (implying high resistance to basal sliding) and a minimum of 10 (implying little resistance to 139 sliding). The Case 1 spin up directly conforms to ISMIP6 protocol [*Goelzer et al.*, 2020; *Nowicki*-140 *et al.*, 2020].

The spun-up ice thickness, by design, is close to observations. In most of the ice sheet,
the thickness and velocity fields are in approximate balance, and thus the spun-up ice velocity
also agrees well with observations, even though velocity is not a nudging target. (The
exceptions would be regions where the velocity has recently changed and the thickness has not
had time to adjust.) The main drawback of the Case 1 spin-up method is that there is no
dependence of basal sliding on basal temperature or water pressure. Thus the method is not
very physical and arguably overfits the thickness observations.

In contrast, the Case 2 spin up is unconstrained fully transient, meaning that basal friction coefficients are not nudged to match the it does not constrain or nudge the basal sliding parameters towards observed present-day ice thickness. In this spin up, wWe use a pseudo-plastic sliding law [*Aschwanden et al.*, 2016]:

153 where τ_c is the transient yield stress in Pa, q = 0.5 is a dimensionless pseudo-plastic 154 exponent that we adopt as 0.5, and $u_0 = 100$ m/a is a threshold speed that we adopt as 100 155 m/a. The yield stress is computed as $\tau_c = N \tan \phi$, where *N* is the effective pressure and ϕ is a 156 friction angle. The friction angle varies linearly as a function of bed elevation *b* between 40° at *b* 157 = 700 m and 5° at *b* = -700 m. The effective pressure is computed from a local till model [Bueler 158 and Van Pelt, 2015] and is sensitive to the thermal state of the bed; *N* is equal to the full 159 overburden pressure $\rho_i g H$ (where ρ_i is the ice density, *g* is gravitational acceleration, and *H* is 160 ice thickness) when the bed is frozen, but decreases to a small fraction (0.02) of overburden on 161 thawed beds as the basal water depth rises to a capped value of 2 m. Lipscomb et al. [2019] 162 provide more details.We assume a spatially and temporally constant friction coefficient, which-163 allows ice thickness to evolve away from present-day observations.

While the Case 1 spuin--up ice geometry closely matches present-day observations, there can be appreciable ice thickness biases for the non-nudged Case 2 spin--up. The Case 2the spin up does not conform to ISMIP6 protocol... For ISMIP6, most participating models used data

assimilation or nudged spin-ups to obtain a more accurate initial state. It is foreseeable,
however, that the forthcoming future ISMIP7 protocols will encourage unconstrained fullytransient-spin--ups as a complement to nudged spin-ups, especially for simulations over multiple
centuries during which basal conditions are likely to evolve. TransientUnconstrained spin--ups
are arguably-more physically-based than nudged spin--ups in that the basal shear stress is
closely tied to the modeled bed state (e.g., basal temperature, geology, and/or hydrology)., buttis more challenging, however, to reproduce a specific (present-day) ice-sheet configuration in
anwith unconstrained spin-upthem.

ForUnder both Case 1 and 2 spin-ups, the ice sheet was initialized with present-day 175 176 thickness and bed topography [Morlighem et al., 2017]. The surface mass balance (SMB) and 177 surface air temperature (T_{air}) are prescribed from a 1980–1999 climatology provided by the MAR 178 regional climate model [Fettweis et al., 2017]. The initial englacier temperature was initialized to 179 an-and an idealized vertical englacial temperature profile. Where the prescribed SMB is 180 negative, the initial temperature profile in each column is linear, with T = min(T_{air} , 0) at the 181 surface and T = T_{pmp} –5° at the bed. Where the SMB is positive, the temperature is initialized to 182 an analytic profile based on a balance between vertical conduction and cold advection [Cuffey 183 and Paterson, 2010, Sect. 9.5.1]. The ice sheet was then spun up for 10,000 years with a time 184 step of 1/6 year. under surface mass balance and surface temperature forcing from a 1980–1999 185 climatology provided by the MAR regional climate model [Fettweis et al., 2017]. The englacial 186 temperature evolves under vertical conduction, horizontal and vertical advection, and 187 deformational heating. Where the bed is frozen ($T_b < T_{omp}$), the basal temperature is computed 188 by prescribing a balance of geothermal heat flux, vertical conductive flux, and frictional fluxes at 189 the ice-bed interface. Where the resulting temperature would exceed T_{pmp} , we set $T_{b} = T_{pmp}$ and 190 use the excess energy to melt ice. By the end of the spin-up, the ice sheet is assumed to have-191 achieved a transient-close to equilibrium, with transient englacial ice temperatures no longer 192 influenced by the initial englacial temperature profileassumption. Here, we use the CISM bed-193 interface temperature field ('btemp') to represent the ice-bed temperature. We assume this field 194 is at transient equilibrium following both Case 1 and 2 spin ups (Figure 2).

We repeat the Case 1 and Case 2 spin-ups seven times each with the same out modification in their configuration and execution, only substitutvarying the prescribed geothermal heat flow serving as the basal boundary condition each time (Table 1, Fig. 1)-. Each the seven heat flow maps is re-gridded from itstheir native grid to the CISM grid using bilinear interpolation. For heat flow maps that are only available onshore, meaning they omit offshore, or submarine, areas of the CISM domain, we similarly infill fjord heat flow values using bilinear interpolation. These seven maps provide a diverse representation of the magnitude and spatial distribution of Greenland heat flow, with the mean heat flow within the CISM ice-sheet domain ranging from ~42 mW m⁻² in the *Colgan et al.* [2022] map to ~64 mW m⁻² in the *Lucazeau* [2019] map. For *Rezvanbehbahani et al.* [2017] we use the middle range scenario of NGRIP = 135 mW m⁻². For *Artemieva* [2019], we use the "model 1" scenario, which adopts a deeper continental Moho depth than the "model 2". For *Colgan et al.* [2022] we use their recommended "without NGRIP" scenario.

Of the seven heat flow maps that we consider, only two are global maps [*Shapiro and Ritzwoller*, 2004; *Lucazeau*, 2019]; the remaining five are Greenland-specific maps. Of these five Greenland-specific maps, all but *Colgan et al.* [2022] are limited to the onshore domain, excluding the offshore domain (Figure 1; Table 1). The seven heat flow maps are evaluated against differing numbers of in-situ heat flow observations within a Greenland domain defined as 500 km from Greenlandic shores. The *Rezvanbehbahani et al.* [2017], *Martos et al.* [2018], and *Greve* [2019] heat flow maps employed \leq 9 primarily subglacial in-situ observations from deep boreholes in the ice-sheet interior. The remaining four maps employedused significantly more in-situ heat flow observations (\geq 278), including more subaerial, submarine and shallow the International Heat Flow Database [*Jessop et al.*, 1976; *Fuchs et al.*, 2021].

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220 RESULTS

221 Case 1 spin-up

Figure 2 shows the ice-bed temperature T_b relative to T_{pmp} at the end of each Case 1 spin-up. The *Colgan et al.* [2022] heat flow map, which has the lowest mean geothermal heat flow of all seven products, yields the smallest area of thawed basal temperatures (21.8%) and the lowest basal temperature anomaly relative to the ensemble mean (Fig. 3; Table 2). Conversely, the relatively high *Martos et al.* [2018] heat flow map, which has the third highest mean heat flow of all seven products, yields twice the area of thawed basal temperatures (54.4%) and one of the warmesthighest basal temperature anomalies relative to the ensemble mean. Across the seven-member ensemble, however, there is considerable variation in the magnitude and spatial distribution of the ensemble spread in basal ice temperatures (Fig. 4). The seven heat flow maps yield broadly similar modeled basal ice temperatures RMSEs of between 1.0 and 2.8°C in comparison to observed basal ice temperatures at 27 Greenland ice sheet boreholes (Fig. 5) [*Løkkegaard et al.*, 2022]. Generally, the ensemble spread in modeled ice-bed temperature approaches zero in the ablation area, especially in Central West Greenland, where the basal thermal state is thawed regardless of choice of the heat flow map. The Eensemble spread is generally largest along the main flow divide of the ice sheet. At South Dome, the ensemble spread exceeds 10° C over an area of ~ 10^{5} km² area. This highlights that the choice of heat flow map has a substantial influence on the simulated basal thermal state over the North Atlantic Craton. While the Northeast Greenland Ice Stream is thawed regardless of choice of the heat flow map, there is also an area of ~ 10^{5} km² area in Central East Greenland where the ensemble spread exceeds 10° C. Finally, the choice of heat flow map appears to influence whether the North Greenland ablation area is thawed or frozen.

The Case 1 spin-up nudges the ice-flow model towards present-day ice thickness by iteratively adjusting basal friction coefficients *C* at each basal velocity point. The ensemble differences in *C* adjusted basal friction coefficient generally reaches a maximum where ice velocities reach a minimum (Fig.ure 6). Perhaps counterintuitively, the highest surface ice velocities are associated with the lowest geothermal heat flows (Fig.ure 7). For example, the high and low heat--flow end members of the *Lucazeau* [2019] and *Colgan et al.* [2022] maps yield, respectively, low and high ice-velocity end members. Similarly, within the *Rezvanbehbahani et al.* [2017] simulation, the low heat-flow anomaly in southeast Greenland yields a high ice-velocity anomaly. Accordingly, iceberg calving is highest in the lowest heat flow simulations (Figure 8). The relatively narrow ensemble spread in iceberg calving (~1%; 2 Gt yr⁻¹ ensemble range against 322 Gt yr⁻¹ ensemble mean) is ultimately constrained to by the surface mass balance forcing at transient equilibrium.

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257 Case 2 spin-up

Similar to the Case 1 spin--up, the Case 2 spin--up also yields the smallest area of thawed basal temperatures (33.5%) with the *Colgan et al.* [2022] lowest mean geothermal heat flow map and the largest area of thawed basal temperatures (60.0%) with the *Martos et al.* [2018] relatively high mean geothermal heat flow map (Fig.ure 9). Critically, the thawed-bedded area for a given heat flow map is consistently larger under the Case 2 (unconstrained transient) spin--up than the Case 1 (nudged) spin--up (Table 2). Basal ice temperatures are accordingly warmer under Case 2 spin up-than Case 1 spin up (Fig.ure 10). As ice-sheet sensitivity spin-eup than the thawed-bedded area over which basal movement and subglacial hydrology can occur, this may suggests that unconstrained transient ice-sheet spin ups aremayter regarded as more sensitive than nudged ones. The apparent ice-temperature warming effect of an unconstrained transient spin--up appears to increase with decreasing heat flow. The shift towards warmer basal temperatures under Case 2 spin-up-is most apparent form the *Colgan et al.* [2022] lowest mean geothermal heat flow map, where the temperature difference is >5 °C beneath a large portion of Central Greenland. All heat flow maps presentyield large differences in basal ice temperature between Case 1 and Case 2 spin-ups in regions of fast ice flow around the ice sheet periphery.

The spatial pattern of the Case 2 ensemble agreement broadly follows that of Case 1 274 275 (Fig. ure 4), although the Case 2 agreement is generally poorer. This is attributable to the 276 unconstrained nature of the Case 2 spin--up. The magnitude and spatial distribution of the 277 ensemble spread in basal ice temperatures under Case 2 spin up is largely similar toreflects 278 that of Case 1-spin up,. The Case 2 ensemble spread is smaller in Central East Greenland, and 279 larger for peripheral ice caps, especially Flade Isblink in Northeast Greenland (Fig. ure 4). The 280 Case 2 spin-up reproduces the observed basal ice temperatures at 27 Greenland ice sheet 281 boreholes with an RMSE of between 1.5 and 2.8 °C (Fig.ure 5) [Løkkegaard et al., 2022]. This is 282 not significantly different from the RMSE range of the Case 1 spin-up. Basal ice temperatures 283 are better resolved by the Case 1 spin--up for three heat flow maps (Colgan et al. [2022], Greve 284 [2019] and Rezvanbehbahani et al. [2017]), and better resolved by Case 2 spin up for two heat 285 flow-maps (,Artemieva [2019] and Lucazeau [2019]) with the remaining two heat flow-maps 286 yielding the same RMSE under both spin ups (Shapiro and Ritzwoller [2004] and Martos et al. 287 [2018]). Empirical temperature observations therefore justify neither the Case 1 nor Case 2 288 spin--up approach.

In comparison to the Case 1-spin ups, the Case 2 spin--ups generally result in thicker ice in East Greenland and thinner ice in West Greenland (Fig.ure 11). These substantial differences in ice thickness (i.e. ±100 m) are clearly attributable to the unconstrained fully transient nature of Case 2 spin- ups in comparison to the nudging of Case 1 spin- ups towards observed present day ice geometry. Specific Case 2 spin--ups with different heat flow maps can yield very different ice thicknesses. For example, the *Shapiro and Ritzwoller* [2004] and *Colgan et al.* [2022] heat flow maps yield substantially thicker than observed ice in North Greenland, wherewhile the *Greve* [2019] and *Lucazeau* [2019] heat flow maps yield substantially thinner than observed ice in North Greenland. Similarly, the ice thickness at South Dome (South Greenland) varies considerably across the seven heat flow map simulations. The magnitude of ice thickness differences associated with heat flow maps is non-trivial, and the spatial distribution is complex. There are considerable velocity differences across the seven Case 2 spin-up simulations. Generally, these velocity differences are negatively correlated with the ice thickness differences (Fig.ure 12). For example, the *Shapiro and Ritzwoller* [2004] and *Colgan et al.* [2022] heat flow maps that yield substantially thicker ice in North Greenland also yield lower ice substantially thinner ice in North Greenland also yield faster velocities there. While relative substantially thinner ice in North Greenland also yield faster velocities there. While relative velocity differences in the ice-sheet interior can appear striking in both magnitude and extent, there are also velocity differences around the ice-sheet periphery (Fig.ure 13), which strongly influences the iceberg calving from tidewater glaciers. Iceberg calving under Case 2 (transient)sie spin up-has a greater ensemble spread (~5%; 18 Gt yr⁻¹ ensemble range against 365 Gt yr⁻¹ there are also velocity differences a 1 (nudged) spin up (Fig.ure 8). Similar to the Case 1 -spin up, however, the *Colgan et al.* [2022] lowest heat flow map again has the highest iceberg calving the relatively high *Martos et al.* [2018] and *Greve* [2019] heat flow maps have substantially lower iceberg calving fluxes at equilibrium.

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316 DISCUSSION

The apparent association of higher ice velocities with lower geothermal heat flows under 317 318 Case 1 spin up outwardly appears to be a clear artifact of nudging the basal friction coefficient 319 during spin--up. This effect has previously been described as the surface velocity paradox, 320 whereby constraining an ice flow model to match observed ice thickness results in 321 underestimating deformational velocities where basal sliding is present, and overestimating 322 deformational velocities where basal sliding is absent [Ryser et al., 2014]. Avoiding this surface 323 velocity paradox is the main motivation for undertaking the Case 2 spin-up, in which basal 324 friction coefficients are not nudged. Under Case 2 spin up, during which ice thicknesses are not-325 constrained, there is clearly more variation in the geometry, velocity, and thermal state of the ice 326 sheet at the end of the 10,000-year fully transient spin-up. Perhaps counterintuitively, however, 327 the highest iceberg calving fluxes remain associated with the lowest heat flow maps (and vice 328 versa for lowest iceberg calving fluxes). In unconstrained fully transient Case 2 simulations, this 329 behavior cannot be attributed to a model artifact from the surface velocity paradox associated 330 with nudging in Case 1-spin up. We instead speculate that a substantial portion of this variability 331 simply reflects increased ice thicknesses under decreased heat flow.

The potential influence of anomalously high geothermal heat flow on contemporary local ice-sheet form and flow has been previously highlighted, with suggestions including: the onset for the Northeast Greenland ice stream may be associated with elevated geothermal heat flow

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[Fahnestock et al., 2001]; there may be a feedback between deeply -incised glaciers and
topographic enhancement of local geothermal heat flow [*van der Veen et al.*, 2007]; and that the
transit of the Iceland hotspot may have deposited anomalous heat into the subglacial
lithosphere that influences ice flow today [*Alley et al.*, 2019]. Our evaluation suggests that
knowledge of where anomalously low geothermal heat flow may be influencing contemporary
regional ice-sheet form and flow can help constrain the choice of heat flow map. For example,
the widespread presence of Last Glacial Period ice in the ablation area across North Greenland
suggests that heat flow must be sufficiently low to prevent basal melt across the region *[MacGregor et al.*, 2020]. This broad condition is only characteristic of a minority of the heat flow
maps we evaluate, specifically the *Shapiro and Ritzwoller* [2004], *Rezvanbehbahani et al.*[2017] and *Colgan et al.* [2022] maps.

South Dome appears to be the most sensitive portion of the ice sheet to the choice of 346 347 the geothermal heat flow basal boundary condition. There, the choice of heat flow map results in 348 an ensemble spread in ice-bed temperature of >10°C over an area the size of Iceland. There is 349 currently a poor level of scientific understanding whether South Dome persisted through the 350 Eemian interglacial, with some ice-sheet reconstructions suggesting persistence of the ice 351 sheet's southern lobe [Quiquet et al., 2013; Stone et al., 2013] and others suggesting local 352 deglaciation [Otto-Bliesner et al., 2006; Helsen et al., 2013]. Our evaluation specifically 353 highlights substantial disagreement over geothermal heat flow within the North Atlantic Craton 354 that underlies South Dome. Similar to the contemporary persistence of Last Glacial Period ice in 355 North Greenland, we speculate that paleo-ice-sheet simulations that adopt the low heat flow 356 beneath South Dome characteristic of the Rezvanbehbahani et al. [2017] map are more likely to 357 yield an Eemian-persistent South Dome than paleo-ice-sheet simulations that adopt the high 358 heat flow beneath South Dome-characteristic of the Lucazeau [2019] map. Simply put, choice-359 of the -heat flow map influences not only contemporary simulations of ice-sheet form and flow, 360 but also paleo-ice-sheet simulations-as well.

We should note that, despite basal heat flow being a key factor in controlling ice dynamics, some other important physical processes (e.g., subglacial hydrology) are not considered in this study. The influence of different basal heat flow models may not fully capture the role of enhanced basal meltwater in a warming climate. By holding basal friction coefficients fixed in time, Case 1 ignores the effects of evolving basal hydrology. Case 2 allows the thawed-bed area to change, but using a local till model that ignores subglacial water transport. Thus, Case 2 might be overly sensitive to local temperature changes, whereas more realistic hydrology changes would be spread over larger scales. Furthermore, some higher-order ice sheet models use data assimilation approaches (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2018) instead of spin-up, which may result in different model behaviors when applying different basal heat flow datasets during initialization. Alsodditionally, since our primarily focuses on the overall impacts of basal heat flow on Greenland ice sheet dynamics, a more detailed understanding of the relative importance of thermal model are components, such as ice frictional heating, heat advection and diffusion, is still required to improve the thermodynamic knowledge ofat the deep layers of the Greenland ice sheet. **f**

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378 SUMMARY REMARKS

Given the non-linear dependence of deformational velocity on ice temperature, properly Given the non-linear dependence of deformational velocity on ice temperature, properly Resolving the thermal state of the Greenland ice sheet is critical for generating reliable ice-flow Resolving the thermal state of the Greenland ice sheet is critical for generating reliable ice-flow Resolving the thermal state of the Greenland ice sheet is critical for generating reliable ice-flow Resolving the thermal state of the Greenland ice sheet is critical for generating reliable ice-flow Resolving the thermal state of the Greenland ice sheet and unconstrained, transient-ice-sheet spin-ups Resolving the thermal the thawed-bedded ice-sheet area ranges from 21.8 to 54.4% Resolved the spin-up, we find that the thawed-bedded ice-sheet area ranges from 21.8 to 54.4% Resolved the spin-up, we find that the thawed-bedded ice-sheet area ranges from 21.8 to 54.4% Resolved the spin-up, we find that the thawed-bedded ice-sheet area ranges from 33.5 to 60.0%. The Resolved the sheet area is consistently larger, ranging from 33.5 to 60.0%. The Resolved the the large in magnitude and extent. This ensemble of simulations highlights that Resolved that are large in magnitude and extent. This ensemble of simulations highlights that Resolved the choice of heat flow map.

The recent effort to compile all Greenland englacial temperature observations into a standardized database now permits the thermal state of ice-sheet simulations to be evaluated against all empirical data. Here, we evaluate simulated basal temperature against observed basal temperature at 27 selected Greenland boreholes. Despite the fact that the spatial ecompared to that of Several basal heat flow models are coarse and cannot be comparedean not flow map or spin--up approach is most locally suitable. Rather than quantitative comparisons against point temperature observations, however, there seems to be value in qualitative comparisons between heat flow map and large-scale ice sheet features, such as evaluating which heat flow map can yield a widespread frozen -bedded in North Greenland under contemporary conditions. Naturally, evaluation of these seven heat flow maps would be stengthened by using more than a single community-ice flow model, as we do here. Within our simulation ensemble, the unconstrained spin--ups may generally-possibly be regarded as simulating more sensitive ice sheets than the nudged spin--ups, as the unconstrained spin--ups yield greater thawed-bedded area and higher iceberg calving flux. While most recent ice-sheet simulations projecting Greenland's future sea-level contribution have largely-focused on nudged spin--ups, our simulation ensemble unsurprisingly suggests that unconstrained transient-spin--up is required to fully resolve the choice of geothermal heat flow boundary condition on ice-sheet geometry and velocity. Given the strong influence of ehoice of-geothermal heat flow on ice dynamics that we document, it seems prudent to limit the direct intercomparison of ice-sheet simulations to those using a common heat flow map. Similar to employing a range of commonly prescribed climate forcing scenarios, it would be ideal for full future ISMIP ensembles to employ a range of commonly prescribed basal forcing conditions.

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428 DATA AVAILABILITY

⁴²⁹ To help accelerate community efforts towards exploring the influence of geothermal heat flow on ⁴³⁰ ice-sheet simulations, we have deposited a copy of the seven geothermal heat flow maps that ⁴³¹ we evaluate here at Zenodo (<u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7891577</u>). Interpolated versions of ⁴³² these seven geothermal heat flow datasets are provided on a common coarse-resolution ⁴³³ netCDF.ne grid that conforms with CISM standards.

434

435 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

436 T.Z. and W.C. conceptualized this study and were responsible for formal analysis. A.L. and A.W.

437 provided data curation. T.Z., C.X., W.L. and G.L. provided funding, resources, and software. All

438 authors participated in interpretingation of the data and writing of the manuscript.

439

440 COMPETING INTERESTS

441 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

442

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599 TABLES

600

Table 1 - Characteristics of the seven geothermal heat flow models we explore as basal thermal boundary conditions: methodology used to derive each model, number of geophysical datasets employed by each model, number of in-situ heat flow observations considered by each model, average heat flow (± standard deviation) within a common CISM Greenland ice sheet area, and the domain coverage of each model. Adopted from Colgan et al. [2022] and arranged from lowest to highest average geothermal heat flow beneath the ice sheet.

607

Model	Methodology	Geophysical datasets [unitless]	Greenland observations [unitless]	Geothermal heat flow [mW m ⁻²]	Domain coverage
Colgan et al. [2022]	Machine learning model	12	419	41.8 ± 5.3	Greenland; oceanic and continental
Rezvanbehb ahani et al. [2017]	Machine learning model	20	9	54.1 ± 20.4	Greenland; continental only
Shapiro and Ritzwoller [2004]	Seismic similarity model	4	278	55.7 ± 9.4	Global; oceanic and continental
Artemieva [2019]	Thermal isostasy model	8	290	56.4 ± 12.6	Greenland; continental only
Martos et al. [2018]	Forward lithospheric model	5	8	60.1 ± 6.6	Greenland; continental only
Greve [2019]	Paleoclimate and ice flow model	3	8	63.3 ± 19.1	Greenland; continental only
Lucazeau [2019]	Geostatistical model	14	314	63.8 ± 7.1	Global; oceanic and continental

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Table 2 - Thawed-bedded ice-sheet area associated with Case 1 (nudged) and Case 2

612 (unconstrained) spin-ups of 10,000-years duration for the seven geothermal heat flow datasets.

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Model	Case 1	Case 2
Colgan et al. [2022]	21.8%	33.5%
Rezvanbehbahani et al. [2017]	43.0%	48.0%
Shapiro and Ritzwoller [2004]	35.5%	44.3%
Artemieva [2019]	50.2%	52.8%
Martos et al. [2018]	54.4%	60.0%
Greve [2019]	53.6%	57.4%
Lucazeau [2019]	52.5%	59.7%



619 Figure 1 - (a-g): The seven geothermal heat flow maps considered as basal thermal boundary 620 conditions, expressed as anomalies from their ensemble mean. Colorbars saturate about 10 621 and 100 mW m⁻². (hi): Ensemble mean. Units for all plots mW m⁻².

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624 Figure 2 - Case 1: (a-g) Ice-bed temperature relative to pressure melting point at transient

625 equilibrium using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. (i) Ensemble mean ice-bed

626 temperature. Units in all plots °C below pressure-melting-point temperature. (Compare against

627 Case 2 in Figure 9.)

The Cryosphere



631 Figure 3 - Case 1: (a-g) Relative anomaly from ensemble mean in ice-bed temperature at
632 transient equilibrium using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. (i) Ensemble mean ice-bed
633 temperature. Units in all plots °C below pressure-melting-point temperature. (Compare against
634 Case 2 in Figure 10.)

Figure 4 - (a) and (b): Ensemble agreement in basal thermal state (frozen or thawed) across the seven heat flow maps (a: Case 1, b: Case 2). Units are the fraction of simulations that suggest thawed bed. (c) and (d): Ensemble spread (the difference between maximum and minimum values for different experiments) in basal ice temperature across the seven heat flow e42 maps (c: Case 1, d: Case 2). Units are °C.

Figure 5 - Modeled ice-bed temperature across the seven heat flow maps versus observed
fice-bed temperature at 27 Greenland ice sheet boreholes where ice temperatures have been
observed. (a-g) Modeled versus observed comparison across the seven geothermal heat flow
maps. Case 1 spin ups shown in blue. Case 2 spin ups shown in red.

The Cryosphere

Figure 6 - Case 1: (a-g) The basal friction coefficient at transient equilibrium using the seven geothermal heat flow maps, expressed as anomalies from the ensemble mean. Units are % and colorbars saturate at $\pm 1500\%$. (hi) Ensemble mean basal friction coefficient at transient colorbars are Pa yr m⁻¹, with the colorbar saturating at 10⁶ Pa yr m⁻¹.

The Cryosphere

660 Figure 7 - Case 12: (a-g) Surface ice velocity at transient equilibrium using the seven
661 geothermal heat flow maps, expressed as anomalies from their ensemble mean. Units are %
662 and colorbars saturate at ±1500%. (hi) Ensemble mean surface ice velocity at transient
663 equilibrium. Units are m yr⁻¹.

Figure 8 - Total Greenland ice sheet calving flux over the 10,000-year spin up using the seven geothermal heat flow maps for Case 1 (a) and Case 2 (b). Units are Gt yr⁻¹. The first 500 years of the simulations are not shown due to artifacts associated with model initialization.

The Cryosphere

674

675 Figure 9 - Case 2: (a-g) Ice-bed temperature relative to pressure melting point at transient

676 equilibrium using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. (hi) Ensemble mean ice-bed

677 temperature. Units in all plots °C below pressure-melting-point temperature. (compare against 678 Case 1₽ in Figure 2).

The Cryosphere

Figure 10 - Case 2: (a-g) Relative anomaly from ensemble mean in ice-bed temperature at transient equilibrium using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. (hi) Ensemble mean ice-bed temperature. Units in all plots °C below pressure-melting-point temperature. (Compare against Case 1 in Figure 3.)

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The Cryosphere

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Figure 11 - Case 2: (a-g) Anomaly in ice thickness at Case 2 transient spin up, in comparison to
Case 1 nudged spin up, using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. Units in all plots m and
expressed as Case 2 minus Case 1. (h) Ensemble mean of ice thickness anomaly. The
colorbars saturate at ±150 m.

Figure 12 - Case 2: (a-g) Surface ice velocity at transient equilibrium using the seven
geothermal heat flow maps, expressed as anomalies from their ensemble mean. Units are %
and colorbars saturate at ±150%. (h) Ensemble mean surface ice velocity at transient
equilibrium. Units are m yr⁻¹.

Figure 13 - Case 2: (a-g) Anomaly in ice surface speed at Case 2 transient spin up, in ros comparison to Case 1 nudged spin up, using the seven geothermal heat flow maps. Units in all ro6 plots m and expressed as Case 2 minus Case 1. (h) Ensemble mean of ice surface speed ro7 anomaly. The colorbars saturate at $\pm 100 \text{ m yr}^{-1}$.