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Initial assessment of all-season Arctic sea ice thickness from ICESat-2

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ABSTRACT. We present an initial assessment of all-season Arctic sea ice 9 thickness estimates from ICESat-2 by combining freeboard retrievals with 10 all-season SnowModel-LG snow loading. ICESat-2 captures the key regional 11 and seasonal patterns of Arctic sea ice variability and shows good agreement 12 with CryoSat-2 all-season estimates, including regional patterns of inter-annual 13 variability in summer ice thickness. ICESat-2 shows consistently thicker ice 14 compared to CryoSat-2 across the western coastal Arctic, while CryoSat-2 15 shows some periods of thicker ice across the Central Arctic, largely consistent 16 with winter thickness biases. Validation against upward-looking sonar moor-17 ings, IceBird-2019 airborne observations, and MOSAiC buoy data highlights 18 generally strong performance across a range of conditions, although seasonal 19 biases linked to snow loading, freeboard differences, and ice density assump-20 tions persist. The SnowModel-LG and NESOSIM snow accumulation models 21 perform well across the validation datasets, but do not consistently add skill 22 beyond the modified Warren climatology. Experimental ICESat-2/CryoSat-2 23 dual altimetry winter snow depths show strong performance relative to ex-24 isting products and future work should extend these into summer for fur-25 ther assessments. Overall, our analysis supports the viability of an all-season 26 ICESat-2-derived thickness record. 27

1 INTRODUCTION

²⁹ Monitoring Arctic sea ice from space is crucial for understanding our rapidly changing polar regions. ³⁰ Satellite observations provide arguably the best means to consistently track variability and trends in sea ³¹ ice conditions due to their combination of reliability, basin-scale coverage and multi-year mission duration ³² (Meier and others, 2014; Kwok, 2018; Stroeve and Notz, 2018). Satellite-derived sea ice observations are ³³ routinely used to assess and calibrate climate models (Notz and Stroeve, 2016; Massonnet and others, ³⁴ 2018), and understand the impacts of sea ice loss on global weather patterns (Cohen and others, 2014), ³⁵ ocean circulation (Polyakov and others, 2023) and Arctic ecosystems (Post and others, 2013).

NASA's ICESat-2 mission has significantly enhanced our ability to routinely monitor sea ice conditions 36 at high resolution across the polar oceans (Markus and others, 2017). The data obtained from ICESat-2's 37 Advanced Topographic Laser Altimeter System (ATLAS) over sea ice include estimates of height and total 38 freeboard, the vertical extension of sea ice and its overlying snow cover above local sea level. The official 39 ICESat-2 sea ice data products include along-track height (ATL07) and total freeboard (ATL10) for each 40 of the six laser beams, as well as monthly gridded estimates of total freeboard (ATL20) and sea surface 41 height anomalies (ATL21). These data are routinely updated and made available through the National 42 Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC). ICESat-2's vear-round data acquisition has provided a continuous 43 record to monitor total freeboard variability since its launch in fall 2018 (Kwok and others, 2019b; Petty 44 and others, 2023a,b). The along-track sea ice height and total freeboards have demonstrated high precision 45 and accuracy compared to coincident airborne data collected in spring 2019 (Kwok and others, 2019a), with 46 further validation across seasons and regions still on-going. ICESat-2 extends the laser altimetry record 47 of sea ice obtained by the original ICES mission (2003–2009) (Kwok and Cunningham, 2008; Petty and 48 others, 2020) and provides a crucial complement to radar altimetry data obtained by the European Space 49 Agency's (ESA) CryoSat-2 mission, which has been operational since its launch in 2010 (Kwok, 2018; 50 Tilling and others, 2018: Ricker and others, 2017; Landy and others, 2022). 51

Estimates of winter Arctic sea ice thickness have been produced from ICESat-2 total freeboards using the traditional approach of assuming hydrostatic equilibrium and prescribing snow loading and ice density (Petty and others, 2023c). Both along-track (IS2SITDAT4 v1, Petty and others (2022)) and monthly gridded (IS2SITMOGR4 currently at v3, Petty and others (2023c)) datasets are made available through the NSIDC, with the monthly gridded dataset updated annually. These winter Arctic sea ice thickness

estimates have primarily utilized snow loading estimates from the NASA Eulerian Snow on Sea Ice Model 57 (NESOSIM) (Petty and others, 2018) to-date. Updates to NESOSIM (now at Version 1.1) and, more 58 significantly, updates to the underlying ICESat-2 freeboards (Release 006 at the time of writing) have 59 improved agreement with various CryoSat-2 winter Arctic sea ice thickness estimates (Kwok and others, 60 2021; Petty and others, 2023b). The thickness estimates are currently produced for the Arctic winter 61 months only (September through April) due to the unavailability of NESOSIM snow loading in summer 62 (no inclusion of summer melt processes to-date) and concerns around freeboard data reliability in summer. 63 when melt ponds add uncertainty to the ICESat-2 surface classification and freeboard retrievals (Tilling 64 and others, 2020). A summer airborne ICESat-2 cal/val campaign was undertaken in 2022, which included 65 data collected by both the Land, Vegetation, and Ice Sensor (LVIS) and Leica Chiroptera-4x (CHIR) lidar 66 systems (Saylam and others, 2025) as well as coincident georeferenced imagery (Blair and others, 2023). 67 Preliminary results indicate encouraging performance of the summer ICESat2- height retrievals (Saylam 68 and others, 2025), but no comprehensive evaluation of summer total freeboard has been undertaken to-date. 69 In contrast, recent advances in data processing techniques have enabled new all-season ice freeboard 70 estimates from ESA's CryoSat-2 (Dawson and others, 2022), which have been combined with all-season 71 Arctic snow loading estimates from the SnowModel-LG Lagrangian accumulation model (Liston and others, 72 2020) to produce all-season estimates of Arctic sea ice thickness (Landy and others, 2022). These data have 73 provided crucial new insights into seasonal and regional thickness anomalies and forecast skill relevant to 74 various Arctic stakeholders. In addition, new methods to derive snow depth and sea ice thickness concur-75 rently by fusing altimetry data across missions/sensors, e.g. CryoSat-2's radar-derived ice freeboards and 76 ICES at-2's laser-derived total freeboard, and leveraging their contrasting profiling assumptions is an active 77 area of research focus and promise (Kwok and others, 2020; Kacimi and Kwok, 2022; Fredensborg Hansen 78 and others, 2024; Landy and others, 2024; Carret and others, 2025). 79

In this study, we seek to extend the winter (September to April) ICESat-2 derived sea ice thickness estimates into summer and provide a first assessment of these data relative to the existing CryoSat-2 all-season estimates. We utilize the all-season snow loading estimates from SnowModel-LG to ensure consistency with the all-season CryoSat-2 product (Landy and others, 2022) and to provide clearer insights into the impact of altimetry differences on resultant sea ice thickness. Although summer freeboard validation is lacking, we instead carry out indirect validation by comparing the new all-season ICESat-2-derived thickness estimates with a variety of independent datasets: (i) under-ice upward-looking sonar (ULS) mooring ice draft

data from the Beaufort Gyre Exploration Project (BGEP) (Krishfield and others, 2014), (ii) multisensor 87 airborne data collected during the 2019 AWI IceBird campaign (Jutila and others, 2024), (iii) snow and ice 88 thickness buoy observations collected during the MOSAiC expedition (Lei and others, 2022). The BGEP 89 dataset has a strong legacy of supporting altimetry-derived Arctic sea ice thickness validation (Landy and 90 others, 2022; Petty and others, 2023b) and provides consistent data across multiple years, however the 91 moorings are limited to a fixed Beaufort Sea region. The MOSAiC and IceBird datasets provide cru-92 cial additional data across other regions of the Arctic, albeit limited in time. We include the CryoSat-2 93 all-season dataset, an experimental CryoSat-2/ICESat-2 derived winter Arctic dual altimetry fusion snow 94 depth dataset (Landy and others, 2024) and additional input assumptions in our analysis and assessments 95 to provide context for our all-season ICESat-2 thickness assessments. The overall objectives of this study 96

- 97 are:
- Incorporate SnowModel-LG all-season snow depth and density estimates into ICESat-2 thickness
 retrievals, providing an initial estimate of all-season ICESat-2 Arctic sea ice thickness.
- Compare the new all-season ICESat-2 thickness results with the current state-of-the-art CryoSat-2
 derived all-season thickness estimates.
- 3. Assess the new summer and existing winter ICESat-2 and all-season CryoSat-2 thickness estimates
 with independent Arctic snow depth and thickness datasets, highlighting the seasonal and regional
 biases across datasets.
- 4. Provide new insights into the performance of altimetry-derived Arctic sea ice thickness estimates and
 help motivate future development efforts.

All of the analysis presented in this study is provided publicly in a series of online interactive notebooks (https://www.icesat-2-sea-ice-state.info), extending the analysis that supported our winter thickness assessments (Petty and others, 2023b). The notebooks provide transparency and guidance on how to implement similar comparisons, as well as enabling interested users to implement different filtering or masking options as desired.

112 2 DATA AND METHODS

113 2.1 ICESat-2

114 2.1.1 IS2SITMOGR4 v3 winter Arctic monthly gridded sea ice thickness

We use monthly gridded winter Arctic sea ice thickness estimates from ICESat-2 (IS2SITMOGR4, Version 115 3), described in Petty and others (2023b) and disseminated through the National Snow and Ice Data Center 116 (NSIDC) (Petty and others (2023c), https://nsidc.org/data/is2sitmogr4). These thickness estimates 117 are derived from ICESat-2 total freeboard measurements (Release 006 ATL10 data for IS2SITMOGR4 v3) 118 and the hydrostatic equilibrium assumption using snow loading estimates from the NASA Eulerian Snow 119 On Sea Ice Model (NESOSIM, Version 1.1) (Petty and others, 2018, 2023c), a constant bulk ice density 120 of 916 kg/m³ and seawater density of 1024 kg/m³. Sea ice thickness is first calculated along-track for 121 the three strong beams of ICESat-2, using an empirically-derived snow redistribution scheme described in 122 Petty and others (2020). The along-track thickness data from the three strong beams are binned monthly 123 to a 25 km x 25 km North Polar Stereographic grid across the entire Arctic. IS2SITMOGR4 v3 thickness 124 estimates are available from November 2018 onward, covering the Arctic Ocean between September and 125 April. The underlying ATL10 freeboards are limited to regions of ice concentration >50% based on daily 126 passive microwave observations. 127

IS2SITMOGR4 v3 includes estimates of winter Arctic sea ice thickness derived with different input 128 assumptions which we utilize here for basic insights into the impact and sensitivity of our comparisons to the 129 choice of input assumptions: (i) SM-LG: SnowModel-LG snow depth and density (Liston and others, 2020) 130 and the resultant winter sea ice thickness were included in the IS2SITMOGR4 v3 release. SnowModel-LG 131 integrates ERA5 snowfall data (MERRA-2 estimates also available) with a Lagrangian snow accumulation 132 scheme, accounting for blowing snow redistribution and wind-driven mass loss—processes that are not 133 explicitly represented in NESOSIM; (ii) MW99: the Warren snow depth/density climatology (Warren and 134 others, 1999), modified such that snow depth is halved over first-year ice (FYI). Although this climatology 135 was compiled from observations collected several decades ago, it provides a useful additional comparison to 136 the accumulation models, and in-situ surveys continue to suggest it can provide realistic snow distributions 137 over mature FYI and multiyear ice (MYI) (Haas and others, 2017); (iii) J22: the variable empirical bulk 138 ice density parameterization of, Jutila and others (2022), a function of the along-track ice freeboard (total 139 freeboard minus snow depth). 140

141 2.1.2 IS2SITMOGR4S summer Arctic monthly gridded sea ice thickness

To extend ice thickness retrievals across the summer months of May through August, we additionally 142 here derive year-round sea ice thickness estimates using the SnowModel-LG snow depth and density 143 (Liston and others, 2020) as in the winter data above. We use the exact same processing chain as in 144 IS2SITMOGR4 v3, using a constant bulk ice density of 916 kg/m³ and seawater density of 1024 kg/m³ 145 and the empirical snow redistribution scheme. The SnowModel-LG data are available publicly through 146 to July 2021, which limits our resultant thickness dataset to the November 2019 to July 2021 time-147 period. Between June 25th and July 9th, 2019 ICESat-2 entered safehold mode due to a spacecraft 148 anomaly, with no data collected during this period. After leaving safemode, the spacecraft was col-149 lecting data nominally, but had issues related to pointing, degrading the radiometry and lead finding 150 performance. No ATL10 freeboard data were generated until nominal pointing resumed around July 151 25th. 2019. This is the longest period of missing ATL10 data in the ICESat-2 sea ice data record 152 and is summarized in the ATL10 NSIDC Known Issues document (https://nsidc.org/sites/default/ 153 files/documents/technical-reference/icesat2_atl07_atl10_known_issues_v006.pdf). Consider-154 ing the significant missing data, July 2019 was not processed or included in this study. As June 2019 155 only included six days of missing data, we include that month in our analysis but note the slight skew of 156 representative date towards the start of the month. Preliminary browse images for June 2019 and 2020 are 157 included in the Supplementary Material (Figs. S1 and S2) highlighting the slight difference in mean date 158 of the gridded data. 159

In addition, we use monthly mean ice passive microwave-derived ice concentration from the NOAA/NSIDC Climate Data Record (CDR), version 4 (Meier and others, 2021), provided in both the IS2SITMOGR4 and IS2SITMOGR4S datasets.

For analysis of both the IS2SITMOGR4 and IS2SITMOGR4S data we use the provided interpolated/Gaussian smoothed variables as described in Petty and others (2023b), developed to reduce aliasing from uneven monthly sampling and to fill in gaps across small regions of missing data, including the 88 degrees North pole hole. For the interpolated/Gaussian smoothed variables not provided in either product, we apply the same interpolation processing in this analysis for consistency. A 50 % monthly sea ice concentration masking is still applied, as in the underlying freeboard data.



Fig. 1. Summer mean (May to August, 2019 to 2021) ICESat-2 sea ice thickness with SnowModel-LG snow loading, using the interpolated/smoothed data and filled in pole-hole. The red, blue and black circles show the location of the BGEP ULS moorings A, B and D respectively. The magenta contour shows the Arctic Ocean domain we use in our time-series analysis (Fig. 5).

¹⁶⁹ 2.2 CryoSat-2 all-season ice thickness

We use the University of Bristol (UBRIS) CryoSat-2 all-season sea ice thickness product, Version 1.0 170 (Landy and others, 2022) available from https://data.bas.ac.uk/full-record.php?id=GB/NERC/BAS/ 171 PDC/01613. This dataset provides biweekly gridded Arctic sea ice thickness estimates from October 2010 172 through to July 2021. The period of overlap, November 2018 to July 2021 permits multiple years of 173 comparison with our ICESat-2 derived thickness estimates. Key differences between the CryoSat-2 and 174 ICESat-2 thickness datasets include: (i) The UBRIS CryoSat-2 data have been generated with ice-age-175 dependent ice densities of 917 kg/m³ (FYI) and 881 kg/m³ (MYI). The NSIDC weekly 12.5-km sea ice 176 age product V4 (https://nsidc.org/data/nsidc-0611)) was used to differentiate between zones of FYI 177 and MYI. The differences in density for MYI between UBRIS and IS2SITMOGR4S could produce an 178 offset in derived sea ice thickness, ii) The UBRIS CryoSat-2 data are posted biweekly which we resample 179 here to monthly to be consistent with the monthly ICESat-2 data, iii) The UBRIS CryoSat-2 data are 180

provided at a 80 km spatial resolution on an EASE2.0 grid. We regrid/downsample these to the 25 km
Polar Stereographic grid of IS2SITMOGR4 to enable spatial comparison mapping, noting that the data
still represents coarser grid-scales.

For the time series analysis we mask all ICESat-2 and CryoSat-2 data outside of an Arctic Ocean domain 184 (includes the Central Arctic, Beaufort Sea, Chukchi Sea, E. Siberian Sea, Kara Sea) to avoid regions that 185 are generally considered more uncertain (wave contamination, snow/flooding etc) and focus on the region 186 where our input assumptions and validation data are more representative. The peripheral/masked regions 187 are predominantly sea ice free in late-summer so this masking is more relevant for our winter analysis. In 188 addition, when indicated we utilize a common masking approach, as in Petty and others (2023b), to ensure 189 we only analyze grid-cells where both the ICESat-2/SM-LG thickness and CryoSat-2/SM-LG thickness are 190 valid for the given month to mitigate against sampling differences between the products. Finally, in some 191 of our spatial comparisons (as indicated) we additionally utilize perennial masking where we only show 192 grid-cells that provide consistent data across all summer months in both IS-2 and CS-2 to further avoid 193 sampling biases. 194

¹⁹⁵ 2.3 ICESat-2/CryoSat-2 winter Arctic dual altimetry fusion snow depths

We use preliminary winter Arctic snow depth estimates produced through the fusion of ICESat-2 total 196 freeboards and CryoSat-2 ice freeboards, described in Landy and others (2024), with the data provided 197 on Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/records/13774843). Validating these new multi-sensor data are not 198 a primary focus of this study, but we incorporate these data here for added context regarding potential 199 biases in our model-based snow depths and their potential role in driving differences between ICESat-2 200 and CryoSat-2 derived thicknesses. These data were generated using rel004 ICESat-2 monthly gridded 201 ATL20 freeboards which use the same reloof along-track ATL10 freeboards as in IS2SITMOGR4 v3 and 202 IS2SITMOGR4S v1. 203

204 2.4 BGEP ULS ice drafts

The Beaufort Gyre Exploration Project (BGEP) provide upward-looking sonar (ULS) ice draft estimates from three moorings (A, B, and D, See Fig. 1) deployed across the Beaufort Sea (Krishfield and others, 207 2014). The data have been publicly available since the launch of ICESat-2 through currently to Au-208 gust/September 2023 (https://www2.whoi.edu/site/beaufortgyre/data/mooring-data/). Ice draft

typically composes a more significant fraction of the total ice thickness compared to the freeboard mea-209 sured by satellites, depending on the relative densities of ice, seawater and the overlying snow loading, 210 making it a desirable validation metric. Individual ULS draft measurements are assumed to have a con-211 stant uncertainty of 10 cm (Krishfield and others, 2014). To compare with the satellite products, we first 212 resample the provided ULS data to daily then monthly means. We then follow the approach of Petty 213 and others (2023b) and take the mean of all valid ICESat-2 grid-cells within a certain radius of a given 214 mooring, and compare this to the monthly mean ULS draft estimate. We use an averaging radius of 100 215 km in this study, as a compromise between the 50 km used in Petty and others (2023b) and the 150 km 216 used in Landy and others (2022). Petty and others (2023b) explored the impact of averaging radius on 217 BGEP/ULS comparisons and showed only minimal differences between 50 km and 150 km radii. 218

We calculate ice draft from the ICESat-2 data by simply adding snow depth to ice thickness and subtracting the total freeboard. The UBRIS CryoSat-2/SM-LG dataset does not include ice freeboard, so we instead estimate this using the hydrostatic equilibrium equation and the provided variables of bulk ice density, snow depth and density and seawater density.

223 2.5 MOSAiC buoy snow depths and ice thickness

The Multidisciplinary Drifting Observatory for the Study of Arctic Climate (MOSAiC) expedition (2019-224 2020) provided high-quality in-situ observations of Arctic sea ice (Nicolaus and others, 2022). We utilize 225 snow depth and sea ice thickness measurements obtained from 19 snow and ice mass balance array (SIMBA) 226 buoys deployed during the MOSAiC expedition (Lei and others, 2022) as independent validation data. 227 SIMBA buoys are thermistor-string-type buoys from which air-snow, snow-ice, and ice-water interfaces 228 may be detected, producing measurements of snow and sea ice thickness. The buoys were initially deployed 229 over unponded level ice, and 10 of the buoys collected data for the entire sea ice growth season, providing 230 overall observational coverage from October 2019 to July 2020 (Lei and others, 2022). The buoy tracks 231 drifted from the Eastern Arctic (in October 2019) through towards Fram Strait (spring 2020). Absolute 232 ice thickness and snow depth measurements from individual buoys are not necessarily representative of 233 the average conditions of ice floes in the surrounding area; however, here we are able to benefit from the 234 deployment of a dense network of buoys, which should improve the representation. 235

The buoy observations are highly localized in nature, so we bin them at daily timescales to a 100 km \times 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid. The daily-aggregated data are resampled to monthly gridded

means to compare with the monthly gridded satellite estimates. We coarsen the ICESat-2/CryoSat-2 data to the same 100-km resolution before undertaking our comparisons (we require at least four valid 25 km grid points for the 100 km coarsened mean to be used). 25 km gridded versions of the comparisons between buoys and satellite observations are included in the Supplementary Material as noted (generally showing worse statistical comparisons).

243 2.6 AWI IceBird-2019 snow depths and ice thickness

The Alfred Wegener Institute (AWI) IceBird campaign provides airborne measurements of sea ice thickness 244 and snow depth using combined radar, lidar and (electromagnetic) EM-bird data fusion. We utilize sea 245 ice thickness and snow depth estimates obtained from 5 single-day surveys in April 2019 (April 2, 4, 7, 8, 246 and 10) across the western Arctic Ocean/Beaufort Sea, spanning both first-year and multiyear ice regimes 247 (Jutila and others, 2024). We calculate sea ice thickness from the difference between the sea-ice-plus-snow 248 thickness from electromagnetic induction sensor measurements and coincident snow depth measurements 249 from snow radar data. We exclude measurements where data quality flags indicate negative freeboard, a 250 low number of snow depth estimates within the EM sensor footprint, and implausibly low total thickness 251 values (less than thickness uncertainty, snow depth, or snow freeboard). We bin these data daily to the 252 coarser 100 km \times 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid as discussed in the previous section, before 253 generating a single April 2019 monthly gridded mean dataset. 25 km gridded versions are again included 254 in the Supplementary Material as noted. 255

256 3 RESULTS

²⁵⁷ 3.1 All-season sea ice thickness estimates

Fig. 2 shows the new summer (May to August) monthly mean Arctic sea ice thickness estimates derived 258 from ICESat-2 total freeboards (rel006 ATL10) and SnowModel-LG snow loading (IS-2/SM-LG) for 2019, 259 2020, and 2021 using the interpolated/smoothed data on the 25 km x 25 km North Polar Stereographic 260 grid. The IS-2/SM-LG summer thicknesses show regional distributions largely consistent with the winter 261 freeboards and thickness, including thicker ice along the western Arctic coastline, but also localized re-262 gions of thicker ice within the eastern Arctic (Petty and others, 2023b). The expected seasonal decline 263 is clearly evident across all three summers and spatial coverage appears consistent across months. The 264 interpolated/smoothed data still show evidence of aliasing due to uneven monthly sampling, especially in 265



Fig. 2. Monthly mean summer (May through August, 2019 to 2021) ICESat-2 Arctic sea ice thickness estimates with SnowModel-LG snow loading, using the interpolated/smoothed gridded data. The cyan contour indicates the 50 % sea ice concentration from the monthly NSIDC CDR v4 dataset.

June when the sea ice conditions are changing most rapidly within the month. We discuss the need for enhanced gridding/interpolation in the discussion.

Fig. 3 shows spatial difference maps between the IS-2/SM-LG summer mean thickness estimates and the summer mean CryoSat-2/SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG, UBRIS) data. In these comparisons we use the perennial/common data masking introduced in Sect. 2.2 to only show grid-cells that provide consistent monthly coverage across both products to avoid monthly sampling biases contaminating the seasonal



Fig. 3. Summer mean (May through August) monthly gridded sea ice thickness from (top row) ICESat-2 and SnowModel-LG (IS-2/SM-LG), (middle row) CryoSat-2 and SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG) and (bottom row) differences between IS-2 and CS-2 for 2019 (left), 2020 (middle) and 2021 (right). The monthly data only include grid-cells where both datasets show consistent monthly data across both datasets (a perennial common mask) before averaging. The 2019 means do not include July (missing IS-2 freeboards), while 2021 means do not include August (missing SM-LG).



Fig. 4. Summer mean (May to August) sea ice thickness anomalies relative to the three year (2019 to 2021) summer means for (a - c) ICESat-2 and SnowModel-LG (IS-2/SM-LG) and (d - f) CryoSat-2 and SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG). The monthly data only include grid-cells where both datasets show consistent monthly data across both datasets (a perennial common mask) before averaging. The 2019 means do not include July (missing IS-2 freeboards), while 2021 means do not include August (missing SM-LG).

averaging (ICESat-2 applies a stricter 50 % sea ice concentration filter and also experiences more data drop-out in general). The use of seasonal means also reduces the aliasing issues discussed in the previous monthly analysis, with the monthly CS-2/SM-LG thickness and monthly difference maps provided in the Supplementary Material (Fig. S3 and S4). Overall, there is reasonable agreement between the IS-2 and CS-2-derived thickness estimates in terms of basin mean thickness but with significant regional differences of up to 1-2 m. IS-2/SM-LG shows consistently thicker ice compared to CS-2/SM-LG in all three summers across the western central Arctic, especially along the Greenland and Canadian Arctic coastline. However,

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IS-2 also shows some regions of thinner ice compared to CS-2 further to the North/East of the Arctic, 279 especially in 2021. The monthly difference maps (Supplementary Material, Fig. S4) also show significant 280 regions in May/June where IS-2 is 1-2 m thinner than CS-2 across the southern Beaufort/Chukchi seas, and 281 up to 2 m thicker than CS-2 in the northern Kara Sea region. While not the main focus of this study, we also 282 produced winter (January through April) IS-2 to CS-2 thickness differences, which show similar regional 283 thickness biases to summer (Supplementary Material Fig. S5). Similar regional winter IS-2/CS-2 thickness 284 biases were also present in comparisons with other CryoSat-2 derived thickness products, as featured in 285 the interactive analysis (https://www.icesat-2-sea-ice-state.info/content/3_comparisons_with_ 286 cryosat-2 and piomas.html) associated with recent IS-2 winter thickness assessments (Petty and others, 287 2023c). 288

Fig. 4 shows the summer thickness anomalies relative to the three-summer mean for IS-2/SM-LG and 289 CS-2/SM-LG. Both estimates show good agreement on the key inter-annual summer thickness anomaly 290 patterns, e.g. the broad negative anomaly in the 2020 summer and the broad regions of competing neg-291 ative/positive anomalies in 2019 and 2021, with some small differences at more local-scales. Despite the 292 use of a common 25 km grid size in this analysis, the native resolution of the CS-2/SM-LG data is 80 293 km, which is one likely reason why the CS-2 anomalies show less grid-scale variability than IS-2. The 294 strong consistency in inter-annual summer thickness anomalies, despite the short overlapping record, is 295 encouraging. 296

Fig. 5 shows the seasonal time-series comparison of Arctic sea ice thickness from both IS-2 and CS-2 297 SM-LG all-season thickness estimates, as well as the official winter (September to April) IS2SITMOGR4 298 v3 product based on NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading (IS-2/NSIM). In this analysis we use all data within 299 an Arctic Ocean region shown in Fig. 1 and a common (not perennial) masking to ensure each month we 300 only use data for all variables shown where both IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG provide data. Fig. 5b also 301 shows the monthly sea ice thickness anomalies of the two IS-2 thickness estimates relative to CS-2/SM-LG. 302 Associated metrics of monthly mean snow depth, snow density, bulk ice density and ice concentration from 303 various sources as noted are given in panels c to f. Overall, the IS2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG all-season 304 products show good agreement in terms of the seasonal cycle (r = 0.89), but with IS-2/SM-LG thicker than 305 CS-2/SM-LG for most of the common time-period shown (mean bias of 31 cm). Both products capture a 306 slight thinning between September and November as FYI begins to form and coverage expands across our 307 Arctic Ocean study region (note the concentration increase in panel f). They also both show consistent 308



Fig. 5. Three years (November 2018 to July 2021) of (a) monthly Arctic sea ice thickness from IS2SITMOGR4 v3 with NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading (IS-2/NSIM, winter), ICESat-2 with SnowModel-LG (IS-2/SM-LG, all-season) and CryoSat-2 with SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG, all-season), (b) thickness anomalies relative to CS-2/SM-LG, (c) snow depths from NSIM and SM-LG (sub-sampled/gridded by IS-2), dual altimetry fusion snow depths (IS-2/CS-2), the modified Warren snow climatology (MW99), (d) snow density from NSIM, SM-LG and MW99, (e) bulk ice density assumptions used in IS-2, CS-2 and the J22 parameterization using IS-2/SM-LG data, (e) ice concentration from passive microwave (monthly NSIDC CDR v4 data). All data are first masked outside of an Arctic Ocean region shown in Fig. 1, and an additional common masking is applied each month, with monthly grid-cells masked if not included in both IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG datasets for the given month. No July 2019 estimates are available from IS-2 as detailed in Sect. 2.1.

thickening between November and April/May and a thickness decline between May or June (depending 309 on the year and product) and August. IS-2/SM-LG generally exhibits a faster rate of summer thickness 310 decline between June and July than CS-2/SM-LG. The IS-2/NSIM winter thickness estimates generally fall 311 between the two SM-LG-derived thickness estimates, with all three products showing the best agreement 312 in the early part of the coincident time-period (2018-11 to 2019-04). The winter IS-2/NSIM thicknesses 313 are on average ~ 10 - 20 cm thicker than CS-2/SM-LG, especially earlier in the winter season, while the 314 all-season IS-2/SM-LG results are 31 cm thicker on average, but with strong seasonal variability. While 315 the focus of this study was incorporating the new summer (May through August) data, some of the biggest 316 monthly differences manifest during the fall freeze-up period and should be an area of future focus. 317

The strong agreement in the first winter season, and the middle of the second winter season (January 318 to March 2020), is noteworthy for being the periods when SM-LG snow depths show the best agreement 319 with NESOSIM and the two other provided snow depth estimates (IS-2/CS-2 and MW99). This provides 320 some qualitative evidence of consistency between the IS-2 and CS-2 freeboard retrievals in the absence of 321 significant snow biases. The SM-LG snow depths show a clear decrease in the subsequent two winters, 322 which is not observed in the NESOSIM, IS-2/CS-2 or MW99 snow depths. The strong consistency in these 323 three snow depth products provides some limited evidence of a potential negative bias in SM-LG in the later 324 part of this time-period, which coincides with months of more significant thickness disagreement. Errors 325 in snow depths contribute in an approximately opposing manner to laser vs radar freeboard-to-thickness 326 conversion, driving thickness differences even in the absence of any freeboard bias in either product. For 327 example, a low snow depth bias would produce a positive IS-2 thickness bias but a negative CS-2 thickness 328 bias, which we discuss more later. Significant thickness differences are also observed between the IS-2 and 329 CS-2 products using the same SM-LG snow loading during the non-winter months. Between May and 330 early-July there is still a significant snow load on the ice, so we can assume that any winter bias in the 331 snow loading (for any product) would extend into spring and summer. However, in the late summer the 332 lack of snow cannot help to explain the biases between IS-2 and CS-2 thickness estimates. 333

Another notable feature is the strength of the mid-summer snow/thickness decline, however the lack of July 2019 IS-2 data complicates this assessment. The SM-LG snow depths show rapid thinning between May and June across all three summers (e.g. \sim 22 cm in May 2019 to \sim 8 cm in June). In 2019 this contributes to high June IS-2/SM-LG thicknesses, but reduced CS-2/SM-LG thicknesses based on the contrasting impact of snow depth on freeboard-thickness conversion for total vs ice freeboard data. Subsequent years show more mixed impacts of this rapid snow decline, with additional analyses suggesting an overestimation of the seasonal cycle in the CS-2/SM-LG data (Song and others, 2024).

Snow density differences are clearly notable between SM-LG and NESOSIM/MW99, with SM-LG 341 showing lower densities in winter, but snow density increasing to $>360 \text{ kg/m}^3$ in May before declining 342 rapidly to $\sim 200 \text{ kg/m}^3$ in June through August. Snow density generally provides only a second order 343 impact on thickness and is thus not considered a major driver of the thickness differences observed, but is 344 worth considering in future development and inter-comparison efforts. Finally, Fig. 5e shows the different 345 bulk ice density assumptions used in IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG as well as a new bulk ice density 346 estimate based on the J22 parametrization and our IS-2 freeboards, as discussed in Sect. 2.1. The CS-2 347 ice type density assumption (a lower density for multiyear ice) results in mean densities of $\sim 900 \text{ kg/m}^3$ 348 compared to the constant value of 916 kg/m³ in IS-2, reducing further in summer when the ice is mostly 349 composed of remnant MYI. This density difference could also be driving a considerable fraction of the 350 IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG thickness differences, if either product adopted the alternative bulk ice 351 density assumption that would increase/decrease resultant ice thickness and reduce the overall bias by 352 20-30 cm on average. The J22/IS-2 bulk ice density parameterization output of \sim 920-940 kg/m³ provides 353 an alternative estimate of higher densities than the current assumptions used in either primary IS-2 or 354 CS-2 thickness products, which drive higher thicknesses across both datasets. However, this new bulk ice 355 density parameterization was developed with multi-sensing airborne data collected in spring within limited 356 campaigns across the Western Arctic only, and thus needs to be further validated across different regions 357 and time-periods. 358

359 3.2 Comparisons with independent data

We next provide a series of independent data assessments to add insight into the accuracy of the various satellite-dervied products, including data from Upward Looking Sonar (ULS) mooring ice draft observations from the Beaufort Gyre Exploration Project (BGEP), snow and ice thickness buoy observations deployed during the 2019-2020 MOSAiC expedition, and snow and ice thickness airborne observations from the 2019 AWI IceBird campaign.



Fig. 6. Three year time-series comparison between Beaufort Gyre Exploration Project (BGEP), Upward Looking Sonar (ULS) ice draft measurements (daily and monthly means) and coincident ICESat-2/SnowModel-LG (IS-2/SM-LG) and CryoSat-2/SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG) derived ice draft at the three different BGEP mooring locations shown in Fig. 1.

365 3.2.1 BGEP ULS

Fig. 6 shows a comparison of monthly mean BGEP ULS ice drafts with our satellite-derived ice draft estimates for both IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG all-season data. Some months in Fig. 6 are missing satellite-derived data due primarily to reduced summer ice coverage (the moorings are located close to the summer ice edge, IS-2 and CS-2 processing filters data with ice concentration below 50% and 30%

respectively). Both IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG capture the overall seasonal cycle of ice draft and the 370 broad regional differences across the three moorings (all still within the Beaufort Sea). However, higher 371 IS-2/CS-2-derived ice drafts are clearly evident during late-summer/early months over ULS mooring B 372 and high CS-2/SM-LG-derived ice drafts are observed in some winter months, also over ULS mooring B. 373 2021 winter/spring is also notable for showing high biases in IS-2/SM-LG vs low biases in CS-2/SM-LG 374 compared to mooring D and A to a lesser extent, the period when SM-LG was highlighted previously 375 as showing a negative snow depth bias compared to the other snow products. This again alludes to the 376 possible role of biases in snow depth driving the biases between the satellite-derived ice drafts with the 377 moorings, since snow depth is the only variable of the hydrostatic equation that impacts ice thickness in 378 contrasting directions for ICESat-2 and CryoSat-2 as discussed earlier. 379



Fig. 7. Scatter plot comparisons of monthly mean Beaufort Gyre Exploration Project (BGEP), Upward Looking Sonar (ULS) ice draft measurements and coincident (a) ICESat-2/SnowModel-LG (IS-2/SM-LG) and (b) CryoSat-2/SnowModel-LG (CS-2/SM-LG) ice draft for the three different BGEP mooring locations from the time-series shown in Fig. 1. Panels (c) and (d) show data for the May to August summer months only. Statistics show the coefficient of determination r², mean bias (MB), standard deviation of differences (SD), root mean squared error (RMSE).

To better highlight the differences between the satellite-derived ice drafts and ULS ice drafts, Fig. 7a and b 380 represents the same data as scatter plots with relevant statistical metrics included. The agreement with 381 ULS is generally stronger for IS-2/SM-LG compared to CS-2/SM-LG, with lower root mean squared errors 382 (RMSEs) for IS-2/SM-LG (0.32 m) compared to CS-2/SM-LG (0.39 m) and higher IS-2/SM-LG correla-383 tions ($r^2 = 0.76$) compared to CS-2/SM-LG ($r^2 = 0.56$). The mean bias (MB) is higher for IS-2/SM-LG 384 (0.16 m) compared to CS-2/SM-LG (0.07 m), however, and these biases appear to manifest at both the 385 high and low end of the distribution. CS-2/SM-LG features stronger spread across the distribution, hence 386 the larger standard deviation of differences (0.39 m compared to 0.28 m). The high correlations primarily 387 reflect the ability of IS-2/CS-2 to capture the significant seasonal cycle in thickness/draft, as this is the 388 largest signal in these data. Note that similar comparisons for CS-2/SM-LG over the longer 2010 to 2021 389 period were provided in (Landy and others, 2022), with the longer time period enabling an increased focus 390 on sub-seasonal thickness skill. Additional years of IS-2 data will help enable similar sub-seasonal skill 391 assessments. 392

In Fig. 7c and d we show the same ULS comparisons for summer months only (May through August). 393 The correlations decrease slightly for both products, although not significantly ($r^2 = 0.67$ for IS-2/SM-LG 394 and 0.42 for CS-2/SM-LG). The RMSE increases to 0.38 m (IS-2/SM-LG) and 0.51 m (CS-2/SM-LG) and 395 mean bias shows a slight reduction for IS-2/SM-LG (0.12 m), and small increase for CS-2/SM-LG (-0.14 396 m) relative to the all-season comparisons. The IS-2/SM-LG summer metrics are encouraging and suggests 397 positive skill in IS-2 for sub-seasonal/inter-annual summer sea ice thickness assessments. The more limited 398 summer data availability and the presence of these moorings near to the summer ice edge means we advise 399 caution when interpreting these results. 400

To provide additional insight into the existing winter ICESat-2 thickness estimates (IS2SITMOGR4 401 v3) and their sensitivity to our chosen input assumptions, Fig. 8 shows winter comparisons using IS-2 402 thickness derived with different input assumptions, including MW99 snow loading and J22 ice density 403 (with the NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading). We provide these to give more context to our assessments and to 404 highlight the sensitivity of our results to plausible input assumptions. Currently, the MW99 and NSIM/J22 405 derived thicknesses are only available in the winter IS2SITMOGR4 v3 product, hence the more limited 406 focus of this comparison. Note that while we call this winter, it includes data from September to April 407 which still includes a significant seasonal cycle, driving much of the expected skill (Nab and others, 2024). 408 The RMSE values range from 0.19 m (IS-2/MW99) to 0.33 m (CS-2/SM-LG), with the IS-2/MW99 409



Fig. 8. As in Fig. 7 but showing winter data (September through April) for ICESat-2 with four different input assumptions, (a) NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading as in IS2SITMOGR4 v3 (b) SnowModel-LG (SM-LG) snow loading, (c) MW99 snow loading (d) NSIM snow loading and J22 bulk ice density, and (e) CryoSat-2/SM-LG data.

performance notably strong (also a 0.03 mean bias). The correlations are highest for the IS-2 freeboards and 410 NESOSIM (0.88), MW99 (0.88) and NESOSIM combined with J22 ice density (0.91). The IS-2/NSIM/J22 411 comparisons, despite showing the highest correlations, also produce the highest mean bias (0.27 m) com-412 pared to the other comparisons. The comparisons with IS2 or CS2 and SM-LG show weaker correlations 413 than for NSIM or MW99 snow loading. The CS-2/SM-LG comparisons are slightly weaker than IS-2/SM-414 LG, with a slightly larger mean bias (0.16 m) and RMSE (0.33 m), driven in-part by a few anomalously 415 high ice drafts over the northernmost Mooring B. All the satellite-derived ice draft estimates struggle to 416 capture the thin ice drafts, especially the IS-2/SM-LG and IS-2/NSIM data, suggesting possible issues with 417 positive snow depths biases over thinner ice in the fall freeze-up period, as was also shown in Fig. 6. 418



Fig. 9. Comparison of IceBird airborne ice thickness estimates in April 2019 (binned to a 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean 100 km coarsened ice thickness from ICESat-2 with four different input assumptions (a) NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading as in IS2SITMOGR4 v3 (b) SnowModel-LG snow loading (SM-LG), (d) modified Warren snow loading (MW99), (e) NSIM snow loading and J22 bulk ice densities and (f) CryoSat-2/SM-LG data. Panel (f) shows the IceBird 2019 flight-lines color-coded by longitude, which are used in the colors across all scatter plots.

419 3.2.2 AWI IceBird-2019

In Fig. 9 we compare April 2019 IceBird thickness estimates with coincident monthly mean thickness from ICESat-2 using four different input assumptions as well as CryoSat-2/SM-LG. In this analysis the data are binned or coarsened to the 100 km x 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid as discussed in Sect. 2, resulting in only 13 grid-cells for comparison. 25 km versions are available in the Supplementary Material (Figs. S6 and S7), showing similar/worse comparison metrics. All products reproduce the large-scale spatial gradients observed by IceBird-2019, with correlations high across all products ($r^2 \sim 0.89$). IS-2/NSIM/J22 results in the lowest mean bias (-0.02 m) and RMSE (0.49 m) of all thickness estimates, however this is ⁴²⁷ not a truly independent validation as the density parameterization was developed in-part using the same ⁴²⁸ IceBird data presented here. The CS-2/SM-LG product shows good agreement over the thicker ice north ⁴²⁹ of Greenland/Canadian Arctic, but a negative bias over the thinner ice profiled over the Beaufort Sea. ⁴³⁰ The IS-2 products tend to exhibit positive thickness bias in the thicker ice north of Greenland/Canadian ⁴³¹ Arctic, but show better agreement in the thinner ice of the Beaufort Sea.



Fig. 10. Comparison of IceBird airborne snow depth estimates in April 2019 (binned to a 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean coarsened snow depths (sub-sampled by ICESat-2) from (a) NE-SOSIM v1.1 snow loading (NSIM) (b) SnowModel-LG snow loading (SM-LG), and (c) modified Warren snow loading (MW99) and (d) dual altimetry fusion snow depths (IS-2/CS-2). Scatter colors are based on the flight locations shown in Fig. 9.

In Fig. 10 we compare the IceBird-2019 derived snow depths and four snow products, NSIM, SM-LG, MW99 and also the preliminary IS-2/CS-2 dual altimetry fusion estimates. The correlations are again very high ($r^2>0.88$), with mean biases ranging from 0.01 (MW99) to 0.07 (IS-2/CS-2) and RMSE values ranging from 0.04 m (MW99) to 0.10 m (IS-2/CS-2). The performance of the MW99 snow depths (and

resultant sea ice thickness shown in Fig. 9c) is notably high, however the snow depths do not capture the 436 full-range of snow conditions observed by IceBird-2019 (\sim 14 to 32 cm for MW99 compared to \sim 4 to 40 cm 437 for IceBird) which we might expect from a climatology product. The IceBird-2019 flights cover regions 438 expected to be broadly representative of the MW99 regional distribution based on the original station 439 locations (Warren and others, 1999). While SM-LG and NSIM were able to simulate higher snow depths 440 north of the Canadian Arctic, only SM-LG simulated the lower snow depths observed by IceBird-2019 over 441 the Beaufort Sea. The IS-2/CS-2 dual altimetry fusion snow depths show encouraging performance overall, 442 especially at the lower end of the distribution, but include a few abnormally high snow depths in the region 443 north of Greenland/Canadian Arctic which reduce overall performance. This could be caused by biases in 444 either or both the IS-2 and CS-2 freeboard observations; however, the results do not point towards partial 445 penetration of the CS-2 Ku-band radar signal into the snow, which would lead to underestimated satellite 446 snow depths. 447

448 3.2.3 MOSAiC SIMBA buoys

In Fig. 11 we compare the MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy-derived thicknesses with coincident monthly mean 449 thicknesses from ICESat-2 using four different input assumptions as well as CryoSat-2/SM-LG. The data 450 are again binned or coarsened to the 100 km x 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid. 25 km versions 451 are available in the Supplementary material (Fig. S8 and S9), showing similar/worse comparison metrics. 452 Here the data are also delineated into October to April 'apr' comparisons based on availability of auxiliary 453 data with different input assumptions, and the full October to June 'all' MOSAiC/SIMBA data range 454 (for both SM-LG-based thickness estimates), resulting in 35 and 46 grid-cells for comparison respectively. 455 Overall, all products show good skill in capturing the combined seasonal and regional variability in ice 456 thickness along the MOSAiC/SIMBA track, with correlations generally strong across all products ($r^2=0.67$ 457 to 0.80). The RMSEs are relatively low, ranging from 0.30 m (IS-2/NSIM) to 0.52 m (both longer period 458 SM-LG products), with mean biases of 0.12 m (IS-2/NSIM) to 0.43 m (IS-2/SM-LG through April). The 459 introduction of the May/June data does not cause any notable impact on the comparison metrics. Unlike 460 the previous analyses, the use of J22 densities does not result in improved agreement (the RMSE instead 461 increases from 0.30 m to 0.38 m). 462

In Fig. 12 we show comparisons between the MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy-derived snow depths and the four snow products, NESOSIM v1.1, MW99, IS-2/CS-2 and SnowModel-LG for both the same October to April



Fig. 11. Comparisons of October 2019 to July 2020 MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy ice thickness measurements (binned to a 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean coarsened ice thickness estimates from ICESat-2 with (a) NESOSIM v1.1 (NSIM) snow loading through to April 2020, (b) SnowModel-LG (SM-LG) snow loading through to April 2020, (c) modified Warren99 snow loading through to April 2020 (MW99), (d) NSIM snow loading and J22 bulk ice density through to April 2020, (e) CryoSat-2/SM-LG data through to April 2020, (f) ICESat-2 and SM-LG snow loading through to June 2020, (g) CryoSat-2/SM-LG data through to June 2020. Panel (h) shows the MOSAiC/SIMBA track color-coded by date, which are used in the colors across all scatter plots.



Fig. 12. Comparisons of October 2019 to June 2020 MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy snow depth measurements (binned to a 100 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean coarsened snow depths (sub-sampled by ICESat-2) from (a) NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading (NSIM) through to April 2020, (b) SnowModel-LG (SM-LG) snow loading through to April 2020, (c) modified Warren 99 snow loading (MW99) through April 2020, (d) SM-LG snow loading through to June 2020. Scatter colors based on the track data shown in Fig. 11.

time-period and the full October to June overlapping period. For the October to April comparisons, the 465 four products show broadly similar results, with moderate correlations ($r^2=0.32$, MW99 to 0.51, SM-LG), 466 and very low mean biases (0.01 m to 0.02 m) and RMSEs (0.04 m to 0.06 m). The strong performance of 467 the MW99 climatology is again notable, especially as the MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy track includes more of the 468 Eastern/North Atlantic Arctic sector, further outside the focal region of the station data used to compile the 469 climatology. The IS-2/CS-2 dual altimetry fusion product also performs well, featuring the lowest RMSE 470 of all four products. The NSIM, IS-2/CS-2 and SM-LG products show higher snow depths in April (>30 471 cm) compared to MOSAiC/SIMBA (~ 20 cm), which appears to dominate the reduction in correlation. 472 The representativeness of the MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy data and their utility for characterizing biases is 473

still questionable, which we discuss more later. The earlier time series analysis (Fig. 5) also highlighted 474 the strong consistency between NSIM, MW99 and the IS-2/CS-2 snow depth estimates in the October 475 2019 to March 2020 period, but with MW99 declining in April 2020 and NSIM/IS-2/CS-2 increasing. 476 Finally, the thinner snow depths in May/June appear well-represented in the SM-LG data (albeit with a 477 slight negative bias), resulting in a significant increase in correlation ($r^2=0.79$) while other metrics remain 478 constant, providing some good, albeit limited, evidence of SM-LG simulating the summer snow depth 479 decline. It is again important to recognize that buoy-derived snow depths are prone to representation 480 issues and are particularly uncertain during the summer melt season. 481

482 4 DISCUSSION

Our new ICESat-2 all-season thickness estimates perform well overall, showing good agreement with the 483 CryoSat-2/SM-LG all-season product and strong performance across the three independent validation 484 data assessments. Snow depth biases are likely contributing to a significant fraction of the thickness biases 485 observed between our IS-2 and CS-2 thickness estimates. The BGEP ULS comparisons, for example, 486 produced periods of contrasting bias across the IS-2 and CS-2 datasets, which are expected because a snow 487 depth bias will theoretically impact the estimated thickness obtained from CryoSat-2 radar freeboard and 488 ICESat-2 total freeboard observations in opposing directions. For radar and ice freeboard to thickness 489 calculations, the snow depth bias has a strong inverse linear relation to resultant ice thickness bias. For 490 laser and total freeboard to thickness calculations, the impact of a snow depth bias is more complex, as a 491 snow depth bias features in the hydrostatic equilibrium equation in both the freeboard and snow loading 492 component, generally resulting in a thickness bias in an opposite direction, although this depends on the 493 magnitude of the underlying snow density. This is the only variable that results in this contrasting input 494 data bias response. The strong agreement between NESOSIM, MW99 and IS-2/CS-2 altimetry fusion 495 snow depths are suggestive of a potential low bias in the SM-LG snow depths in 2020 and especially 2021. 496 However, quantifying the relative impacts of snow biases is challenging, and it is still possible that the 497 three former products are all biased thick. The use of different bulk ice density estimates between the 498 IS-2 and CS-2 processing also contribute up to 20-30 cm of the 40 cm mean thickness difference between 499 IS-2/SM-LG and CS-2/SM-LG, and while not necessarily producing more accurate absolute results, would 500 help isolate and diagnose remaining sources of bias. 501

⁵⁰² The snow depths from the new preliminary winter Arctic IS-2/CS-2 altimetry fusion dataset (Landy and

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others, 2024) performed well in our independent validation and showed strong consistency with NESOSIM 503 and MW99 across the three winter periods of overlap. The strong performance of this winter dual altimetry 504 fused snow depth estimate provides further indirect evidence of the reliability of the underlying IS-2 and 505 CS-2 freeboards and the potential to infer snow depth and thickness concurrently (Kacimi and Kwok, 2022; 506 Fredensborg Hansen and others, 2024; Landy and others, 2024; Carret and others, 2025). No clear bias 507 could be detected in the dual-altimetry snow depths that would point to systematic biases in either IS-2 or 508 CS-2 freeboards. A slight thick bias versus the IceBird observations suggests that CS-2 returns are not, at 509 least, scattering from a mean height within the snowpack, although there was only 1 cm bias recorded at the 510 MOSAiC/SIMBAs. It should, in theory, be possible to expand these approaches to summer, leveraging the 511 vear-round ICESat-2 freeboards and recent summer CrvoSat-2 ice freeboard profiling advances (Dawson 512 and others, 2022). 513

The MW99 snow climatology still performs surprisingly well, showing the lowest RMSEs in BGEP ULS 514 ice drafts when combined with IS-2 freeboards and high skill in capturing the regional distribution in snow 515 depths observed during IceBird-2019 and MOSAiC/SIMBA (to a lesser degree). The MOSAiC/SIMBA 516 buoys are known to have a low snow thickness bias relative to nearby magnaprobe measurements, possibly 517 as a consequence of the deployment over level ice being more conducive to snow drifting (Lei and others, 518 2022). Snow conditions in the Central Arctic/Beaufort Sea appear to remain closely linked to variability in 519 ice type (first-year or multiyear ice), which the ice type modified climatology is still principally constrained 520 by. Furthermore, this suggests that large-scale regional and interannual variations in satellite-observed 521 laser or radar freeboard, rather than snow loading, are more important for accurate detection of the same 522 variations in sea ice thickness. The snow accumulation models (NESOSIM v1.1 and SM-LG) and resultant 523 sea ice thicknesses perform well across all validation datasets and better capture the full range in observed 524 snow conditions, but struggle to show consistently more reliable snow depths than MW99 between regions 525 or years. More validation data is needed across different time-periods and especially within the eastern 526 Arctic, where the accumulation models are expected to provide more benefits over MW99 for multiple 527 reasons: (i) these regions provided significantly less input data to MW99, (ii) they have undergone the 528 largest transitions in sea ice and likely snow conditions in recent decades (Stroeve and Notz, 2018; Petty 529 and others, 2018; Cabaj and others, 2024), and (iii) these regions are more susceptible to synoptic-scale 530 snowfall variability, especially in summer (Webster and others, 2019; Lim and others, 2022). Regardless, 531 there is a clear need for further snow model development and calibration efforts. 532

A notable feature still underexplored in our study is the timing and magnitude of spring/summer 533 snow loss and impacts on thickness. The missing IS-2 in July 2019 prevented a more detailed interannual 534 assessment of this decline, but should form the basis of future work. In May and June the snow still tends 535 to be relatively thick across available datasets, reflecting winter accumulation patterns. SM-LG, however, 536 shows drastic declines in snow depth between June and July across our three-year study period. While 537 mid-late summer snow is generally thin, it can still be highly variable based on synoptic-scale variability 538 (Webster and others, 2019; Lim and others, 2022), and even small differences in snow depth can have a 539 disproportionately large impact on thin ice freeboard and thickness retrievals. July also generally coincides 540 with the period of peak melt pond coverage, depending on region (Niehaus and others, 2024), so issues 541 with miss-classified surfaces in ICES at-2 sea ice data (Tilling and others, 2020) and resultant biases in 542 ice freeboard will also be contributing to anomalous freeboard and thickness reduction and is worth more 543 consideration. The role of potential biases in spring/summer snow melt, melt water load and impacts on 544 CryoSat-2 derived freeboard and thickness estimates was recently discussed in Salganik and others (2025). 545 In addition, there is an urgent need for expanded year-round validation efforts, particularly a greater 546 number of mooring deployments across the Arctic to complement the limited existing datasets, and espe-547 cially in the eastern and more peripheral regions of the Arctic. As well as more validation data, we also 548 promote more consideration of spatial and temporal sampling/representativeness to more effectively com-549 pare localized validation data against the 25-100 km scales and longer aggregation timescales represented 550 by the satellite products. We also hope to leverage external datasets in future work to better understand 551 surface melt conditions and associated freeboard and thickness retrieval performance in more detail, e.g. 552 isolating periods and regions of maximum/minimum melt pond coverage (Niehaus and others, 2024). 553

Our focus in this initial all-season assessment was on monthly to inter-annual thickness skill, but 554 future work could explore daily to weekly skill, which should again include deeper consideration of optimal 555 spatial and temporal sampling of the variable IS-2/CS-2 orbit cycles. Orbit aliasing was still present 556 in our interpolated/smoothed IS-2 June gridded thickness estimates, motivating the need for improved 557 interpolation routines. Along-track IS-2 thickness data are available (Petty and others, 2022) that can 558 enable more direct comparisons with CS-2 and reducing gridding/resampling error, especially leveraging 559 the increased orbit alignments generated through the Cryo2Ice initiative (Fredensborg Hansen and others, 560 2024). In addition, more sophisticated altimetry interpolation routines have been proposed that could be 561 better leveraged to enhance grid-cell representativeness across scales (Gregory and others, 2021). 562

563 5 CONCLUSION

We have presented an initial analysis of all-season ICESat-2 Arctic sea ice thickness by combining ICESat-2 564 freeboards with all-season SnowModel-LG snow loading. Our assessments show that the ICESat-2 thick-565 ness retrievals capture key regional and seasonal patterns of Arctic sea ice variability and agree well with 566 recently published CryoSat-2 all-season estimates. Regional differences remain, with IS-2 generally show-567 ing thicker ice north of Greenland and the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, which was highlighted in the 568 original development studies (Dawson and others, 2022; Landy and others, 2022) as an uncertain region 569 for CryoSat-2 summer observations. However, these summer differences are largely consistent with the 570 winter differences, suggesting only secondary impacts of summer conditions impacting the biases between 571 the two products. Validation against three different independent datasets, including BGEP ULS moorings, 572 IceBird-2019 airborne surveys, and MOSAiC/SIMBA buoy observations, highlights generally good skill 573 across a range of ice conditions, although some regional and seasonal biases remain. 574

The choice of snow model inputs and ice density assumptions continues to have a strong influence on absolute thickness estimates. Differences between ICESat-2 and CryoSat-2 thicknesses are consistent with expected sensitivities to snow depth biases, freeboard retrieval differences, and the underlying treatment of multi-year versus first-year ice and resultant density estimates. Some additional concerns relating to the timing and magnitude of the spring/summer snow depth decline and expected impact on thickness decline require further investigation.

While our results are encouraging, they also emphasize the need for further work to better constrain 581 summer snow conditions, refine the freeboard-to-thickness input assumptions, and expand independent 582 evaluation datasets and analysis across Arctic regions and time-periods. Continued development of snow 583 accumulation models, new density parameterizations, and data fusion approaches will be key to improving 584 all-season Arctic sea ice thickness retrievals. Importantly, if satellite-derived thickness estimates are to 585 enhance or benchmark state-of-the-art seasonal-to-climate prediction systems, they need to accurately 586 capture inter-annual variability at regional scales of interest. While our results are promising, a longer 587 record and further evaluation against independent observations are needed to better characterize and 588 reduce potential biases through the freeboard-to-thickness processing chain. 589

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599 7 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

⁶⁰⁰ Supplementary Material for this paper can be found at [provide link on publication]

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1	Supplementary Material for "Initial assessment of
2	all-season Arctic sea ice thickness from ICESat-2"
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Fig. S1. IS2SITMOGR4S browse image for June 2019.



Fig. S2. IS2SITMOGR4S browse image for June 2020.



Fig. S3. Monthly mean summer (May through August, 2019 to 2021) Arctic sea ice thickness estimates from the UBRIS CryoSat-2/SnowModel-LG all-season thickness dataset.



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Fig. S6. Comparison of AWI IceBird ice thickness observations in April 2019 (binned to a 25 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean 100 km coarsened ice thickness from ICESat-2 with four different input assumptions (a) NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading as in IS2SITMOGR4 (b) SM-LG snow loading, (d) mW99 snow loading, (e) J22 ice density and also (f) winter CryoSat-2/SM-LG data. Panel (c) shows the IceBird 2019 flight-lines color-coded by longitude, which are used in the colors across all scatter plots.



Fig. S7. Comparison of AWI IceBird snow depth observations in April 2019 (binned to a 25 km North Polar Stereographic grid) and coincident monthly mean coarsened snow depths (sub-sampled by ICESat-2) from (a) NESOSIM v1.1 snow loading (NSIM) as in IS2SITMOGR4 (b) SM-LG snow loading (SM-LG), and (c) modified Warren 99 (MW99) snow loading. Scatter colors are based on the locations shown in Fig. S6.



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