

Surprising, but not unexpected, multi-decadal pause in Arctic sea ice loss

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Abstract

Over the past two decades, Arctic sea ice loss has slowed considerably, with no statistically significant decline in September sea ice area since 2005. This pause is robust across observational datasets, metrics, and seasons. Large-ensemble CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations reveal that such periods with no sea ice decline under increasing greenhouse gas emissions are not unusual. Analysis of ensemble members that simulate analogues of the observed pause indicates that the current slowdown could plausibly persist another five to ten years. The modelling evidence suggests that internal variability has substantially offset anthropogenically forced sea ice loss in recent decades, although possible contributions from changes in the forced response remain uncertain. Overall, this observed pause in Arctic sea ice decline is consistent with simulated internal variability superimposed on the long term trend according to the bulk of the climate modelling evidence.

1 **Surprising, but not unexpected, multi-decadal pause in**
2 **Arctic sea ice loss**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • The loss of Arctic sea ice cover has undergone a pronounced slowdown over the
9 past two decades, across all months of the year.
10 • Rather than being an unexpected rare event, comprehensive climate models from
11 CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulate such pauses relatively frequently.
12 • According to these climate model simulations, this pause in the loss of Arctic sea
13 ice could plausibly continue for the next 5-10 years.

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Abstract

Over the past two decades, Arctic sea ice loss has slowed considerably, with no statistically significant decline in September sea ice area since 2005. This pause is robust across observational datasets, metrics, and seasons. Large-ensemble CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations reveal that such periods with no sea ice decline under increasing greenhouse gas emissions are not unusual. Analysis of ensemble members that simulate analogues of the observed pause indicates that the current slowdown could plausibly persist another five to ten years. The modelling evidence suggests that internal variability has substantially offset anthropogenically forced sea ice loss in recent decades, although possible contributions from changes in the forced response remain uncertain. Overall, this observed pause in Arctic sea ice decline is consistent with simulated internal variability superimposed on the long term trend according to the bulk of the climate modelling evidence.

Plain Language Summary

Over the last 20 years, the decline of Arctic sea ice has slowed down substantially. Climate models (from CMIP5 and CMIP6) show that pauses in sea ice loss across multiple decades can happen, even as greenhouse gas emissions continue to rise. When we compare the current slowdown to similar pauses in model simulations, we see that this “hiatus” could plausibly continue for another five to ten years. Most of the evidence from these climate models suggests that natural climate variations have played a large part in slowing the human-driven loss of sea ice. However, it is not entirely certain whether changes in the human influence on climate (the “forced response”) have also contributed. Overall, while it may sound surprising that Arctic sea ice loss has slowed down even as global temperatures hit record highs, the climate modelling evidence suggests we should expect periods like this to occur somewhat frequently.

1 Introduction

The loss of Arctic sea ice over the past half century is one of the most clear and well-known indicators of human-induced climate change (IPCC, 2021; Copernicus, 2024). September sea ice area has nearly halved since the beginning of the satellite era in 1979 (Fetterer et al., 2017; Stroeve & Notz, 2018), and during the same period, estimated Arctic sea ice volume has decreased by over 10,000 km³ (Kwok, 2018). Record-breaking summer sea ice minimums in 2007 (Stroeve et al., 2011) and 2012 (Parkinson & Comiso, 2013; J. Zhang et al., 2013) fuelled predictions, which with hindsight look overly alarmist, that the Arctic would experience its first ice-free summer before 2020 (Maslowski et al., 2012; Wadhams, 2016). Adding to this, the Arctic has been warming up to four times faster than the global average (Rantanen et al., 2022). It has been further proposed that global warming might be accelerating, culminating in record breaking warmth in recent years (Samset et al., 2023; Hansen et al., 2025; Merchant et al., 2025). As Arctic sea ice cover is strongly tied to global temperatures (Notz & Stroeve, 2016), there would be little expectation of a multi-decadal *slowdown* in Arctic sea ice loss. And yet, as we will show, such a slowdown has been occurring in the last two decades.

Recall that, over the past century, periods of increasing anthropogenic greenhouse emissions without sustained sea ice loss - the mid-20th century (Walsh et al., 2017) - have already occurred. From the 1940s to the 1970s Arctic sea ice cover *expanded* (Gagne et al., 2017), with the largest increases in the Chukchi, East Siberian, Laptev, Kara and Barents Seas. However, anthropogenic forcing in the mid-20th century was very different compared to the one of the past two decades. Industrial aerosol emissions from Europe and North America contributed substantially to the positive multi-decadal trend in Arctic sea ice area and associated Arctic cooling in the mid-20th century (Fyfe et al., 2013; Nafaji et al., 2015; Gagne et al., 2017; England et al., 2021); but these aerosol sources are far smaller today (Szopa et al., 2013; Lund et al., 2019). However, when anthropogenic

64 aerosols are being discussed in the context of the recent past, it is with regards to the
65 phase out of aerosol emissions from ship tracks which have potentially contributed to en-
66 hanced global warming since 2020 (Manshausen et al., 2022; Yoshioka et al., 2024). In
67 fact, Yoshioka et al. (2024) find that the simulated warming response to these reduced
68 sulphur emissions is largest in the Arctic. So, the lessons of the past may not be a re-
69 liable guide for understanding current trends.

70 It is important to appreciate that the observed trend in Arctic sea ice cover over
71 a given period is composed of a contribution caused by anthropogenic emissions, denoted
72 the forced response, and a contribution from unforced fluctuations associated with in-
73 ternal climate variability (England et al., 2019; England, 2021; Dörr et al., 2023; Shen
74 et al., 2024). Anthropogenically-forced changes which may contribute to a reduction in
75 Arctic sea ice loss over the past two decades include a forced slowdown in the Atlantic
76 Meridional Overturning Circulation (Lee & Liu, 2023), and changes in the emissions from
77 biomass burning, both in the magnitude (Blanchard-Wrigglesworth et al., 2025), and the
78 variability (DeRepentigny et al., 2022). One would imagine, however, that the aforemen-
79 tioned reduction of sulphur emission from shiptracks (Yoshioka et al., 2024) would lead
80 to an acceleration rather than a deceleration of sea ice loss since 2020. Alternatively modes
81 of climate variability which act on multi-decadal timescales, such as the Atlantic Multi-
82 decadal Oscillation (Kerr, 2000; Deser & Phillips, 2021) and the Pacific Decadal Oscil-
83 lation (Mantua & Hare, 2002), have an important imprint on Arctic sea ice. For exam-
84 ple, variability emanating from the Pacific sector (Ding et al., 2018; Baxter et al., 2019)
85 or Atlantic sector (Meehl et al., 2018) has been suggested to have substantially contributed
86 to the rapid loss of Arctic sea ice during the 2000s (England et al., 2019). A number of
87 recent studies, using different methods including standard optimal detection method (Shen
88 et al., 2024), machine learning (Siew et al., 2024) and low-frequency component anal-
89 ysis (Dörr et al., 2023), conclude that internal variability is at least as important as an-
90 thropogenic forcing, perhaps more, for explaining the steep decline in that period. Need-
91 less to say, internal variability can damp sea ice loss trends as well as strengthen them.
92 For instance, Yeager et al. (2015) correctly predicted a slowdown of winter Atlantic sec-
93 tor sea ice loss for the past decade based on predictability from oceanic conditions linked
94 to the North Atlantic Oscillation.

95 In fact, it has been found in climate model simulations that internal climate vari-
96 ability can totally counteract the forced loss of Arctic sea ice, resulting in periods of sim-
97 ulated sea ice growth under increasing anthropogenic emissions. Kay et al. (2011) were
98 among the first to demonstrate, in a single climate model, that positive trends in Arc-
99 tic sea ice extent on multi-decadal timescales were possible until the middle of this cen-
100 tury. They found, using a limited ensemble size of six members, that two members ex-
101 hibited statistically insignificant trends in September for the period 1979-2005 due to a
102 cancellation between the forced response and internal climate variability. Motivated by
103 the as-of-then brief pause in September Arctic sea ice loss for the period 2007-2013, Swart
104 et al. (2015) analyzed the CMIP5 archive and showed that seven-year pauses occurred
105 frequently in model simulations, and concluded that such episodes are an expected fea-
106 ture of Arctic sea ice trajectory, even in a high emissions scenario. This study also demon-
107 strated that pauses in sea ice loss on multi-decadal timescales remain plausible, and rela-
108 tively frequent, over the coming century under a medium- or low-emissions scenario.
109 Looking back from the vantage point of 2025, the model-based studies of Kay et al. (2011)
110 and Swart et al. (2015) now appear remarkably prescient with regards to the plausibil-
111 ity of a sustained slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss.

112 In this paper we document the recent observed multi-decadal pause in Arctic sea
113 ice loss and address the following questions:

- 114 1. How extensive and robust is this pause in Arctic sea ice loss?

- 115 2. Are comprehensive climate models able to capture this observed phenomenon, and
 116 if so how likely is it suggested to be?
 117 3. How long could this observed pause plausibly persist for?
 118 4. What is the role of anthropogenic forcing versus internal climate variability in con-
 119 tributing to the slow rate of sea ice loss?

120 2 Data and Methods

121 To investigate the evolution in Arctic sea ice cover, we utilise both the NSIDC (Fetterer
 122 et al., 2017) and the OSISAF (OSI-420, 2023) sea ice indices. Both of these are contin-
 123 ually updated data records of the Arctic sea area and extent, for the period 1979 - present,
 124 derived from satellite measurements. We note that there are known systematic differ-
 125 ences in the mean state between the two products (Meier & Stewart, 2019) but their inter-
 126 annual variations and multi-decadal trends have strong similarities (Figures 1a,b and S1).
 127 For understanding changes in the simulated Arctic sea ice volume we utilise the Pan-Arctic
 128 Ice Ocean Modeling and Assimilation System (PIOMAS) product (Schweiger et al., 2011).

129 To investigate the frequency and length of pauses in Arctic sea ice loss in compre-
 130 hensive climate model simulations, we here analyze all available large ensemble simula-
 131 tions from the CMIP5 and CMIP6 archive. Any model with at least ten members is used,
 132 as summarised in Table S1. For the CMIP5 models, we use historical simulations which
 133 terminate at the year 2005, followed by the ScenarioMIP simulations with a range of Rep-
 134 resentative Concentration Pathways (RCPs). For the CMIP6 models, we use historical
 135 simulations up to the year 2014, followed by ScenarioMIP simulations with a range of
 136 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs).

137 The main approach for analysing simulated changes in Arctic sea ice cover is to com-
 138 pute the linear trend for the twenty-year period 2005-2024 for each individual member
 139 available for each model, as motivated by the observed changes (Section 3.1). This gives
 140 a range between 10 and 100 members to examine the spread of simulated trends for each
 141 model and scenario. To check for robustness by looking over a large sample size, we also
 142 expand the overall time period by ten years each side (1995-2034), or shorter if the en-
 143 semble mean has transitioned to ice-free conditions before 2035, and then calculate all
 144 of the possible 20-year trends during this period; this, however, does not substantially
 145 alter the results. The main definition of slowdown used in this study is motivated by the
 146 observed 2005-2024 September sea ice area trends (> -0.29 million km²/dec). We also
 147 use an alternative definition – trends which are not statistically significant at the 95%
 148 confidence level – to ensure that this specific observed threshold does not overly influ-
 149 ence the results. This secondary definition contains information about the signal to noise
 150 ratio, and so is complementary to the trend threshold definition. However, we find that
 151 both definitions produce consistent results.

152 When we report multi-model averages, we do so by using a square-root weighting
 153 scheme to take account of the number of members in each ensemble (models with more
 154 members are weighted higher because the larger sample size will provide a more robust
 155 estimate of the probability of a slowdown occurring) and the number of scenarios (mod-
 156 els with more scenarios are down-weighted because they are not independent of each other).
 157 Doing this ensures that models with multiple scenarios are treated as if they have more
 158 members of the same model scenario. The weighting for each model i and scenario j of
 159 a given selection, where the number of members for each model for a given scenario is
 160 n_{ij} and the number of scenarios for each model is given by s_i is calculated as:

$$w_{ij} = \frac{\sqrt{a_{ij}}/\sqrt{s_i}}{\sum_{i,j}[\sqrt{a_{ij}}/\sqrt{s_i}]} \quad (1)$$

161 However, we emphasize that this weighting scheme does not substantially alter the con-
 162 clusions compared to if all members were weighted equally (not shown).

3 Results

3.1 A robust and sustained pause in Arctic sea ice loss

We first investigate the recent observed trends in Arctic sea ice cover, focusing on the annual minimum, September. The trend of September Arctic sea ice area for the most recent two decades 2005-2024 is -0.30 and -0.29 million km² per decade according to the NSIDC and OSISAF sea ice indices respectively (Fig. 1a,b). The key point, we emphasize, is that these trends are not statistically significantly different from zero at a 95% confidence level. This is also seen in Figure 1c,d where 20-year trends are plotted versus the end year: note how trends ending in 2024 retreat inside the uncertainty envelope. According to the OSISAF record, the 2005-2024 trend is the slowest rate of sea ice area loss over any 20-year period since the start of the satellite record. For both datasets, this insignificant trend is approximately four-times smaller than the peak 20-year sea ice loss trend recorded (1993-2012). These results are robust to the choice of sea ice area or sea ice extent (Fig. S1). The slowdown in September sea ice loss mainly occurs in the Pacific and Eurasian sector, from the Beaufort Sea westward to the Barents Sea (not shown).

While sea ice loss in September is of particular interest because that month is the annual minimum, the current pause in Arctic sea ice loss is seen in every single month throughout the year, as shown in Figure 1e,f). This suggests that the underlying mechanism(s) must explain not just the summer trends (R. Zhang, 2015; Francis & Wu, 2020) or winter trends (Yeager et al., 2015), but sea ice trends throughout the entire year.

The same picture - indicating a severe slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss - also emerges when considering sea ice volume. The loss of Arctic sea ice volume has stalled for at least the past fifteen years (Fig. S2). For the period 2010-2024, the simulated annual mean Arctic sea ice volume has an approximately flat trend, decreasing by only 0.4 million km³ per decade, a value that is 7-times smaller than the long-term simulated loss for the period 1979-2024 of 2.9 million km³ per decade, and again is not statistically significant. This result, which is most evident in the Barents Sea (Onarheim et al., 2024), is consistent with a recent analysis suggesting a net build-up of sea ice volume since 2007 due to a decrease in ice export from the Arctic, in addition to the thinner ice cover exhibiting higher growth rates (J. Zhang, 2021).

Given the strong observational evidence for a sustained and pervasive pause in Arctic sea ice loss over the recent 15-20 years, highly robust to the choice of sea ice metric, observational product, and season, we are led to ask: is such a pause unexpected? To answer that question we turn to analyzing comprehensive climate model simulations. We seek to determine if they are able to capture pauses such as the observed one and, if so, to establish if such pauses are exceedingly rare or relatively frequent events.

3.2 Comprehensive climate models suggest 20-year pauses are not rare

To understand whether comprehensive climate models can simulate a multi-decadal pause of Arctic sea ice loss, we search through the CMIP5 and CMIP6 large ensemble archive to identify members which exhibit ice loss pauses. Consistent with previous studies (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; Lee & Liu, 2023), we find that nearly all models are able to simulate reductions in September Arctic sea ice area smaller than observed during the period 2005-2024. The two models which do not feature any such trends, UKESM1-0-LL and CanESM5-1, are both models with large climate sensitivities (Meehl et al., 2020), for which overly strong anthropogenically-forced sea ice loss does not allow for pauses such as the observed one.

Figure 2a shows the percentage of members with sea ice loss smaller than observed. The main result here is that the multi-model average suggests an approximately 20% chance of this pause in Arctic sea ice loss (Fig. 2a, column 1). However, we note a large spread

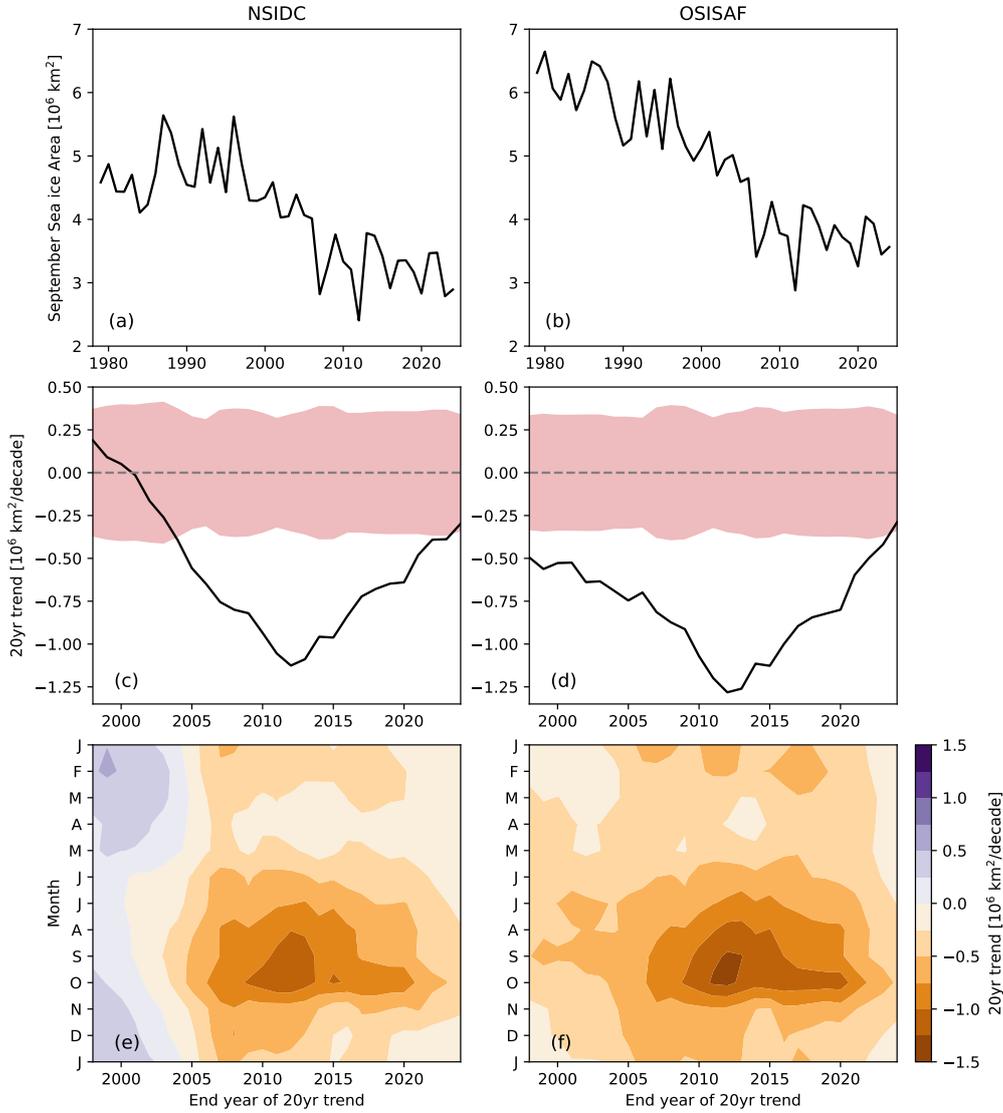


Figure 1. (a,b) Observed sea ice area [10^6 km^2] 1979–2024, (c,d) 20 year-trends of September sea ice area [$10^6 \text{ km}^2/\text{decade}$] with varying end year from 1998 to 2024, in which the red shaded envelope shows the bounds inside which a linear trend is not statistically significant according to a t-test at 95% confidence and (e,f) the 20 year-trends of sea ice area with varying end years but for each month of the year. The left column (a,c,e) shows the NSIDC sea index (Fetterer et al., 2017) and the right column (b,d,f) shows the OSISAF sea ice index (OSI-420, 2023).

212 across the CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, with the probability of a smaller-than-observed
213 2005-2024 trend varying from 0% and approximately 50%. Interestingly, the spread across
214 models for a given scenario is much larger than the spread across scenarios for a given
215 model. This is perhaps unsurprising because the scenarios diverge from each other later
216 than the 2020s (Notz & SIMIP Community, 2020), especially for the case of the CMIP6
217 forcing.

218 The central estimated value of approximately 20% doesn't change substantially if
219 models are selected following the criteria from Notz and SIMIP Community (2020), or
220 using models lying in the 66% range and 5-95% range estimates of the climate sensitiv-
221 ity (Sherwood et al., 2020), or using models according to their ability to simulate clima-
222 tological sea ice conditions for the period 1979-1998 (Fig. 2a, column 2-4). Nor is the
223 central estimate substantially impacted if we assess the probability of a non-statistically
224 significant trend (Figure S3): this value is only slightly higher at approximately 25%.
225 Therefore from the multi-model perspective, what we have observed in the Arctic over
226 the past two decades is not a rare event, but rather one that should be expected to hap-
227 pen with reasonable frequency. This result is insensitive to how models are sub-selected,
228 or to the metric of interest. This then raises the question of whether this pause in Arc-
229 tic sea ice loss could continue and for how long.

230 **3.3 The observed pause in sea ice loss could foreseeably continue for an-** 231 **other decade**

232 To investigate how much longer this current pause is likely to last into the future,
233 we now examine those large ensemble members which do exhibit muted sea ice loss in
234 the period from 2005-2024 (Fig. 2a), and quantify how long the simulated slowdowns
235 persist in the future (Fig. 2b). In essence this produces the conditional probability esti-
236 mate of the 20-year pause extending further for each model and scenario. The multi-
237 model average suggests that pauses in September sea ice loss for the period 2005-2024
238 have a 1 in 2 chance of persisting for a further five years, and a 1 in 3 chance of persist-
239 ing for a further ten years (note, however, the considerable intermodel spread of $\pm 25\%$).
240 On average, higher emissions scenarios tend to show slightly lower probabilities of sus-
241 taining the muted pace of Arctic sea ice loss in the future, although the impact of this
242 is subtle and not consistent for every model.

243 On average, the sea ice area in ensemble members which simulate pauses in sea ice
244 loss for the period 2005-2024 is 0.5 million km² larger in 2025 than in ensemble mem-
245 bers from the same models and scenarios in which there is no pause (Fig. 2c). This source
246 of predictability decays within a decade, and after that the September sea ice area in en-
247 semble members with and without pauses are indistinguishable from each other.

248 It is important to highlight that to produce these estimates, we have limited the
249 model selection to only those models with at least five members which feature sea ice
250 pauses in 2004-2025, because to compute these probabilities in a meaningful way requires
251 that the remaining ensemble size is large enough. This may however, bias the results to-
252 wards models with more ensemble members, which are more likely to include more mem-
253 bers with slowdowns due to better sampling, and towards models which simulate slow-
254 downs more frequently. The multi-model average of the probability of a sea ice loss pause
255 in this smaller subset of members is 28%, which is higher than the 20% estimated from
256 all models. If the observed slowdown is an inherently infrequent and rare event, then this
257 approach would overestimate the probability of it continuing, and underestimate how
258 anomalously high the Arctic sea ice cover is relative to the forced trend. However, of the
259 models which can reproduce the observed trends, over two-thirds of the available mod-
260 els are included in this estimate. Our results are broadly consistent with the findings of
261 Swart et al. (2015), which showed that multi-decadal pauses longer than 20-years were
262 possible in the late 21st century under a medium emissions scenario.

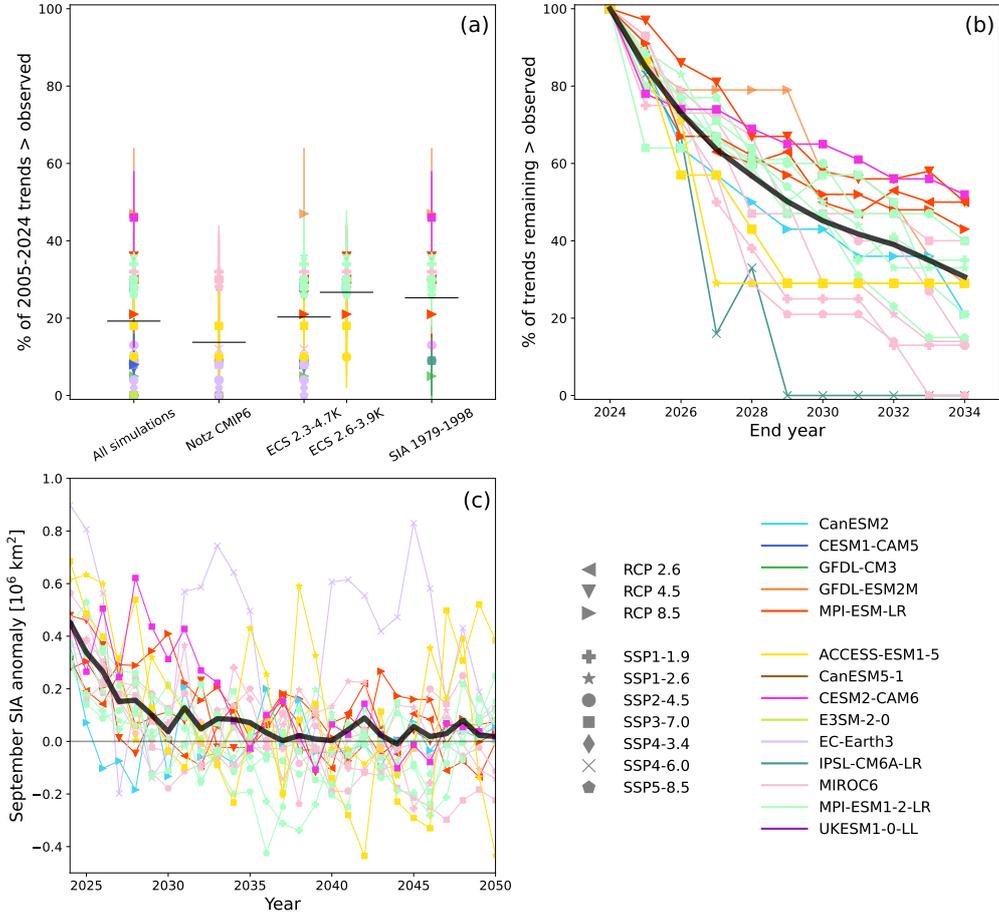


Figure 2. (a) The percentage of ensemble members [%] for each ensemble that have 2005-2024 September sea ice area loss trends less than the observed value. The uncertainty estimate is calculated by monte carlo simulation with replacement. All simulations are shown on the left, with different selection criteria (that outlined in Notz and SIMIP Community (2020), the 5-95% and 66% range of ECS (Sherwood et al., 2020), and the climatological sea ice area applied on the right. (b) The conditional probability across each ensemble for the trends starting in 2005 to continue to be above $-0.29 \text{ } 10^6 \text{ km}^2/\text{decade}$ for a given end year. (c) The ensemble-mean difference in September sea ice area [10^6 km^2] between ensemble members with and without ice loss pauses over 2005-2024 for the period 2025-2050. For panels (b) and (c) only models and scenarios with at least five members with 2005-2024 trends above observed were included, with the black line shows the weighted average according to Equation 1. In all panels, each colour represents a model and each symbol represents a different forcing scenario.

263 Taken together, the wealth of available CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations suggest it
 264 is possible, perhaps even likely, that the present slowdown in sea ice decline may con-
 265 tinue for a further 5-10 years. If that were the case it may then imply the occurrence of
 266 an early ice-free Arctic is less likely than raw model output would suggest (Jahn et al.,
 267 2016; Arthun et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; England & Polvani, 2023; Jahn et al., 2024).

268 3.4 Climate models suggest an important role for climate variability

269 Whether the present slowdown persists in the future or not, one final question re-
 270 mains to be answered: is the recent pause a response to anthropogenic forcings alone,
 271 or is there an important role for internal climate variability? When attempting to iso-
 272 late the forced component of any observed trend from internal variability, it is impor-
 273 tant to keep in mind that - assuming the model simulations faithfully capture a plau-
 274 sible reality - the observations are expected to have the same broad features as individ-
 275 ual ensemble members, i.e. that they are a combination of a forced trend plus one par-
 276 ticular realization of internal variability (although one doesn't expect the observations
 277 to precisely match any one member). Given the well-established importance of internal
 278 climate variability in Arctic sea ice trends (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; England
 279 et al., 2019; Dörr et al., 2023), we next assess whether a change in the forced response
 280 could also be substantially contributing to the observed slowdown in ice loss.

281 First, we show the forced September sea ice loss for the period 2005-2024 as esti-
 282 mated by the linear trend of the ensemble mean for each model and scenario (Fig. 3, hor-
 283 izontal axis). We find there are only two model/scenario combinations (GFDL-ESM2M
 284 RCP8.5 and CESM2 SSP3-7.0) for which the forced trend is estimated to entirely ex-
 285 plain observed trends in ice loss (shown in Fig. 3, as grey vertical lines) with minimal
 286 role for internal variability. Over 85% of the models we analyse here have a larger forced
 287 sea ice loss for this period than observed (as they lie to the left of the observed trends),
 288 implying that internal variability has acted to reduce the pace of ice loss.

289 Second, we ask: is there evidence that the forced response itself is slowing down
 290 relative to the previous two decades? On the vertical axis of Figure 3, therefore, we plot
 291 the ratio of the 2005-2024 forced trend to that of the preceding twenty years, 1986-2005,
 292 for each model and scenario combination: a ratio of 1.0 indicates no change in the pace
 293 of ice loss, > 1 indicates an acceleration and < 1 indicates a deceleration. Again we find
 294 that only GFDL-ESM2M RCP8.5 and CESM2 SSP3-7.0 suggest that the reduction in
 295 the forced trends accounts entirely for the observed slowdown. While the results from
 296 all the other models agree that this observed pause is not entirely a forced response, the
 297 remaining models are relatively evenly split (Fig. 3): roughly half the models suggest that
 298 the forced sea ice loss trend has modestly decelerated over the past two decades relative
 299 to the prior two decades, and roughly half suggest it has modestly accelerated (this is
 300 especially clear if we disregard the models which are unable to capture the observed re-
 301 cent trends).

302 In summary then: while the modelling evidence is uncertain as to whether anthro-
 303 pogenic forcings - even in part - for the recent slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss, it is very
 304 likely that internal climate variability is contributing to the slowdown in an important
 305 way.

306 4 Conclusion and Discussion

307 It is perhaps surprising that while global temperatures have risen rapidly, reach-
 308 ing record levels in the last few years, Arctic sea ice cover has shown no statistically sig-
 309 nificant decline over the past two decades. Nonetheless, analyzing two observational datasets
 310 and thousands of simulations from the CMIP5 and CMIP6 archives, we have established
 311 the following facts, which address the four questions raised in the introduction:

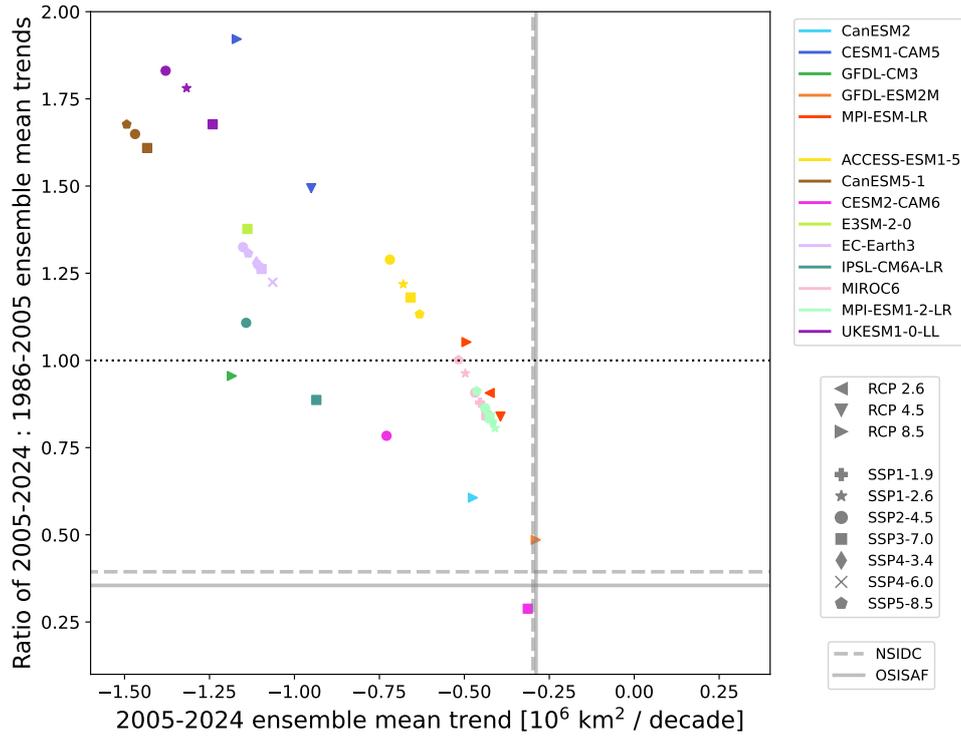


Figure 3. The ensemble mean trend in September sea ice area for the period 2005-2024 for each model and scenario (horizontal axis) versus the ratio of ensemble mean trends in September sea ice area for the periods 2005-2024 : 1986-2005 (vertical axis) with the black dotted line indicating a ratio of 1.0. Observational estimates of the 2005-2024 trend and the ratio of 2005-2024 : 1986-2005 trends are shown as grey lines (dashed line for NSIDC, solid line for OSISAF). Note that this does not imply that the observed trends are estimates of the forced response in the real climate system.

- 312 1. The pervasive slowdown of Arctic sea ice loss is robust across the choice of def-
 313 initions, observational dataset, and season.
- 314 2. This observed pause in ice loss is simulated relatively frequently (with a 20% chance)
 315 in climate models, and is thus to be expected even under high emission scenar-
 316 ios.
- 317 3. If model simulations are accurate, the recent pause may plausibly continue for an
 318 additional five to ten years
- 319 4. Nearly all models analysed suggest an important role for internal climate variabil-
 320 ity in slowing the anthropogenically-forced sea ice loss.

321 We now return to the question of the contribution of human influence versus in-
 322 ternal climate variability. If the slowdown is in fact a predominantly anthropogenically
 323 forced episode, our results suggest that there must be either some shared missing forc-
 324 ing or common model deficiency in response to the standard forcing among the major-
 325 ity of the models. While the latter part is difficult to assess, one culprit for a missing forc-
 326 ing could be the increase in boreal forest fires, not incorporated in standard scenarios.
 327 The recent study of Blanchard-Wrigglesworth et al. (2025) shows that incorporating re-
 328 cent biomass burning emissions into the CESM2 model leads to a rapid recovery of Septem-
 329 ber sea ice cover during the period of interest due to increased reflection in the North-
 330 ern Hemisphere of incoming shortwave radiation arising from the cloud response and aerosol
 331 cloud interactions. However, due to specifics of the simulation of polar clouds in CESM2
 332 (DeRepentigny et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2022; Davis & Medeiros, 2024; England & Feldl,
 333 2024), and a seemingly opposite result from similar experiments with a different climate
 334 model (Zhong et al., 2024), further experiments with a wider range of models are needed
 335 to understand the role changes in biomass burning have had on observed Arctic sea ice
 336 trends.

337 Going forward, how can we use what we have learned about the recent pause in
 338 Arctic sea ice loss? Firstly, if internal variability has played an important role then this
 339 could provide a source of future predictability of Arctic climate change in the same man-
 340 ner as Yeager et al. (2015). And second, this period could be used as an out of sample
 341 test in future climate model evaluation – similar to the early and middle periods of the
 342 20th century (Flynn et al., 2023; Bianco et al., 2024; Chen & Dai, 2024). However, over-
 343 all this study is a reminder that we should be humble about multi-decadal predictions
 344 of the climate system, especially in highly variable regions such as the Arctic. Standing
 345 in 2007 or 2012 after having experienced another year of record loss and listening to as-
 346 sessments that climate models are flawed in their ability to reproduce the rapid loss of
 347 Arctic sea ice (Stroeve et al., 2007), it would take a rather brave person to have predicted
 348 that a sustained slowdown in ice loss was around the corner, although, as we have shown,
 349 and many have found before (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; R. Zhang, 2015), this
 350 is entirely consistent with what climate models simulate.

351 **Open Research Section**

352 All CMIP5 and CMIP6 data analysed in this study is publicly available to down-
 353 load from the Earth System Federation Grid at <https://aims2.llnl.gov/search>.

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1 **Surprising, but not unexpected, multi-decadal pause in**
2 **Arctic sea ice loss**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • The loss of Arctic sea ice cover has undergone a pronounced slowdown over the
9 past two decades, across all months of the year.
10 • Rather than being an unexpected rare event, comprehensive climate models from
11 CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulate such pauses relatively frequently.
12 • According to these climate model simulations, this pause in the loss of Arctic sea
13 ice could plausibly continue for the next 5-10 years.

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Abstract

Over the past two decades, Arctic sea ice loss has slowed considerably, with no statistically significant decline in September sea ice area since 2005. This pause is robust across observational datasets, metrics, and seasons. Large-ensemble CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations reveal that such periods with no sea ice decline under increasing greenhouse gas emissions are not unusual. Analysis of ensemble members that simulate analogues of the observed pause indicates that the current slowdown could plausibly persist another five to ten years. The modelling evidence suggests that internal variability has substantially offset anthropogenically forced sea ice loss in recent decades, although possible contributions from changes in the forced response remain uncertain. Overall, this observed pause in Arctic sea ice decline is consistent with simulated internal variability superimposed on the long term trend according to the bulk of the climate modelling evidence.

Plain Language Summary

Over the last 20 years, the decline of Arctic sea ice has slowed down substantially. Climate models (from CMIP5 and CMIP6) show that pauses in sea ice loss across multiple decades can happen, even as greenhouse gas emissions continue to rise. When we compare the current slowdown to similar pauses in model simulations, we see that this “hiatus” could plausibly continue for another five to ten years. Most of the evidence from these climate models suggests that natural climate variations have played a large part in slowing the human-driven loss of sea ice. However, it is not entirely certain whether changes in the human influence on climate (the “forced response”) have also contributed. Overall, while it may sound surprising that Arctic sea ice loss has slowed down even as global temperatures hit record highs, the climate modelling evidence suggests we should expect periods like this to occur somewhat frequently.

1 Introduction

The loss of Arctic sea ice over the past half century is one of the most clear and well-known indicators of human-induced climate change (IPCC, 2021; Copernicus, 2024). September sea ice area has nearly halved since the beginning of the satellite era in 1979 (Fetterer et al., 2017; Stroeve & Notz, 2018), and during the same period, estimated Arctic sea ice volume has decreased by over 10,000 km³ (Kwok, 2018). Record-breaking summer sea ice minimums in 2007 (Stroeve et al., 2011) and 2012 (Parkinson & Comiso, 2013; J. Zhang et al., 2013) fuelled predictions, which with hindsight look overly alarmist, that the Arctic would experience its first ice-free summer before 2020 (Maslowski et al., 2012; Wadhams, 2016). Adding to this, the Arctic has been warming up to four times faster than the global average (Rantanen et al., 2022). It has been further proposed that global warming might be accelerating, culminating in record breaking warmth in recent years (Samset et al., 2023; Hansen et al., 2025; Merchant et al., 2025). As Arctic sea ice cover is strongly tied to global temperatures (Notz & Stroeve, 2016), there would be little expectation of a multi-decadal *slowdown* in Arctic sea ice loss. And yet, as we will show, such a slowdown has been occurring in the last two decades.

Recall that, over the past century, periods of increasing anthropogenic greenhouse emissions without sustained sea ice loss - the mid-20th century (Walsh et al., 2017) - have already occurred. From the 1940s to the 1970s Arctic sea ice cover *expanded* (Gagne et al., 2017), with the largest increases in the Chukchi, East Siberian, Laptev, Kara and Barents Seas. However, anthropogenic forcing in the mid-20th century was very different compared to the one of the past two decades. Industrial aerosol emissions from Europe and North America contributed substantially to the positive multi-decadal trend in Arctic sea ice area and associated Arctic cooling in the mid-20th century (Fyfe et al., 2013; Nafaji et al., 2015; Gagne et al., 2017; England et al., 2021); but these aerosol sources are far smaller today (Szopa et al., 2013; Lund et al., 2019). However, when anthropogenic

64 aerosols are being discussed in the context of the recent past, it is with regards to the
65 phase out of aerosol emissions from ship tracks which have potentially contributed to en-
66 hanced global warming since 2020 (Manshausen et al., 2022; Yoshioka et al., 2024). In
67 fact, Yoshioka et al. (2024) find that the simulated warming response to these reduced
68 sulphur emissions is largest in the Arctic. So, the lessons of the past may not be a re-
69 liable guide for understanding current trends.

70 It is important to appreciate that the observed trend in Arctic sea ice cover over
71 a given period is composed of a contribution caused by anthropogenic emissions, denoted
72 the forced response, and a contribution from unforced fluctuations associated with in-
73 ternal climate variability (England et al., 2019; England, 2021; Dörr et al., 2023; Shen
74 et al., 2024). Anthropogenically-forced changes which may contribute to a reduction in
75 Arctic sea ice loss over the past two decades include a forced slowdown in the Atlantic
76 Meridional Overturning Circulation (Lee & Liu, 2023), and changes in the emissions from
77 biomass burning, both in the magnitude (Blanchard-Wrigglesworth et al., 2025), and the
78 variability (DeRepentigny et al., 2022). One would imagine, however, that the aforemen-
79 tioned reduction of sulphur emission from shiptracks (Yoshioka et al., 2024) would lead
80 to an acceleration rather than a deceleration of sea ice loss since 2020. Alternatively modes
81 of climate variability which act on multi-decadal timescales, such as the Atlantic Multi-
82 decadal Oscillation (Kerr, 2000; Deser & Phillips, 2021) and the Pacific Decadal Oscil-
83 lation (Mantua & Hare, 2002), have an important imprint on Arctic sea ice. For exam-
84 ple, variability emanating from the Pacific sector (Ding et al., 2018; Baxter et al., 2019)
85 or Atlantic sector (Meehl et al., 2018) has been suggested to have substantially contributed
86 to the rapid loss of Arctic sea ice during the 2000s (England et al., 2019). A number of
87 recent studies, using different methods including standard optimal detection method (Shen
88 et al., 2024), machine learning (Siew et al., 2024) and low-frequency component anal-
89 ysis (Dörr et al., 2023), conclude that internal variability is at least as important as an-
90 thropogenic forcing, perhaps more, for explaining the steep decline in that period. Need-
91 less to say, internal variability can damp sea ice loss trends as well as strengthen them.
92 For instance, Yeager et al. (2015) correctly predicted a slowdown of winter Atlantic sec-
93 tor sea ice loss for the past decade based on predictability from oceanic conditions linked
94 to the North Atlantic Oscillation.

95 In fact, it has been found in climate model simulations that internal climate vari-
96 ability can totally counteract the forced loss of Arctic sea ice, resulting in periods of sim-
97 ulated sea ice growth under increasing anthropogenic emissions. Kay et al. (2011) were
98 among the first to demonstrate, in a single climate model, that positive trends in Arc-
99 tic sea ice extent on multi-decadal timescales were possible until the middle of this cen-
100 tury. They found, using a limited ensemble size of six members, that two members ex-
101 hibited statistically insignificant trends in September for the period 1979-2005 due to a
102 cancellation between the forced response and internal climate variability. Motivated by
103 the as-of-then brief pause in September Arctic sea ice loss for the period 2007-2013, Swart
104 et al. (2015) analyzed the CMIP5 archive and showed that seven-year pauses occurred
105 frequently in model simulations, and concluded that such episodes are an expected fea-
106 ture of Arctic sea ice trajectory, even in a high emissions scenario. This study also demon-
107 strated that pauses in sea ice loss on multi-decadal timescales remain plausible, and rela-
108 tively frequent, over the coming century under a medium- or low-emissions scenario.
109 Looking back from the vantage point of 2025, the model-based studies of Kay et al. (2011)
110 and Swart et al. (2015) now appear remarkably prescient with regards to the plausibil-
111 ity of a sustained slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss.

112 In this paper we document the recent observed multi-decadal pause in Arctic sea
113 ice loss and address the following questions:

- 114 1. How extensive and robust is this pause in Arctic sea ice loss?

- 115 2. Are comprehensive climate models able to capture this observed phenomenon, and
 116 if so how likely is it suggested to be?
 117 3. How long could this observed pause plausibly persist for?
 118 4. What is the role of anthropogenic forcing versus internal climate variability in con-
 119 tributing to the slow rate of sea ice loss?

120 2 Data and Methods

121 To investigate the evolution in Arctic sea ice cover, we utilise both the NSIDC (Fetterer
 122 et al., 2017) and the OSISAF (OSI-420, 2023) sea ice indices. Both of these are contin-
 123 ually updated data records of the Arctic sea area and extent, for the period 1979 - present,
 124 derived from satellite measurements. We note that there are known systematic differ-
 125 ences in the mean state between the two products (Meier & Stewart, 2019) but their inter-
 126 annual variations and multi-decadal trends have strong similarities (Figures 1a,b and S1).
 127 For understanding changes in the simulated Arctic sea ice volume we utilise the Pan-Arctic
 128 Ice Ocean Modeling and Assimilation System (PIOMAS) product (Schweiger et al., 2011).

129 To investigate the frequency and length of pauses in Arctic sea ice loss in compre-
 130 hensive climate model simulations, we here analyze all available large ensemble simula-
 131 tions from the CMIP5 and CMIP6 archive. Any model with at least ten members is used,
 132 as summarised in Table S1. For the CMIP5 models, we use historical simulations which
 133 terminate at the year 2005, followed by the ScenarioMIP simulations with a range of Rep-
 134 resentative Concentration Pathways (RCPs). For the CMIP6 models, we use historical
 135 simulations up to the year 2014, followed by ScenarioMIP simulations with a range of
 136 Shared Socioeconomic Pathways (SSPs).

137 The main approach for analysing simulated changes in Arctic sea ice cover is to com-
 138 pute the linear trend for the twenty-year period 2005-2024 for each individual member
 139 available for each model, as motivated by the observed changes (Section 3.1). This gives
 140 a range between 10 and 100 members to examine the spread of simulated trends for each
 141 model and scenario. To check for robustness by looking over a large sample size, we also
 142 expand the overall time period by ten years each side (1995-2034), or shorter if the en-
 143 semble mean has transitioned to ice-free conditions before 2035, and then calculate all
 144 of the possible 20-year trends during this period; this, however, does not substantially
 145 alter the results. The main definition of slowdown used in this study is motivated by the
 146 observed 2005-2024 September sea ice area trends (> -0.29 million km²/dec). We also
 147 use an alternative definition – trends which are not statistically significant at the 95%
 148 confidence level – to ensure that this specific observed threshold does not overly influ-
 149 ence the results. This secondary definition contains information about the signal to noise
 150 ratio, and so is complementary to the trend threshold definition. However, we find that
 151 both definitions produce consistent results.

152 When we report multi-model averages, we do so by using a square-root weighting
 153 scheme to take account of the number of members in each ensemble (models with more
 154 members are weighted higher because the larger sample size will provide a more robust
 155 estimate of the probability of a slowdown occurring) and the number of scenarios (mod-
 156 els with more scenarios are down-weighted because they are not independent of each other).
 157 Doing this ensures that models with multiple scenarios are treated as if they have more
 158 members of the same model scenario. The weighting for each model i and scenario j of
 159 a given selection, where the number of members for each model for a given scenario is
 160 n_{ij} and the number of scenarios for each model is given by s_i is calculated as:

$$w_{ij} = \frac{\sqrt{a_{ij}}/\sqrt{s_i}}{\sum_{i,j} [\sqrt{a_{ij}}/\sqrt{s_i}]} \quad (1)$$

161 However, we emphasize that this weighting scheme does not substantially alter the con-
 162 clusions compared to if all members were weighted equally (not shown).

3 Results

3.1 A robust and sustained pause in Arctic sea ice loss

We first investigate the recent observed trends in Arctic sea ice cover, focusing on the annual minimum, September. The trend of September Arctic sea ice area for the most recent two decades 2005-2024 is -0.30 and -0.29 million km² per decade according to the NSIDC and OSISAF sea ice indices respectively (Fig. 1a,b). The key point, we emphasize, is that these trends are not statistically significantly different from zero at a 95% confidence level. This is also seen in Figure 1c,d where 20-year trends are plotted versus the end year: note how trends ending in 2024 retreat inside the uncertainty envelope. According to the OSISAF record, the 2005-2024 trend is the slowest rate of sea ice area loss over any 20-year period since the start of the satellite record. For both datasets, this insignificant trend is approximately four-times smaller than the peak 20-year sea ice loss trend recorded (1993-2012). These results are robust to the choice of sea ice area or sea ice extent (Fig. S1). The slowdown in September sea ice loss mainly occurs in the Pacific and Eurasian sector, from the Beaufort Sea westward to the Barents Sea (not shown).

While sea ice loss in September is of particular interest because that month is the annual minimum, the current pause in Arctic sea ice loss is seen in every single month throughout the year, as shown in Figure 1e,f). This suggests that the underlying mechanism(s) must explain not just the summer trends (R. Zhang, 2015; Francis & Wu, 2020) or winter trends (Yeager et al., 2015), but sea ice trends throughout the entire year.

The same picture - indicating a severe slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss - also emerges when considering sea ice volume. The loss of Arctic sea ice volume has stalled for at least the past fifteen years (Fig. S2). For the period 2010-2024, the simulated annual mean Arctic sea ice volume has an approximately flat trend, decreasing by only 0.4 million km³ per decade, a value that is 7-times smaller than the long-term simulated loss for the period 1979-2024 of 2.9 million km³ per decade, and again is not statistically significant. This result, which is most evident in the Barents Sea (Onarheim et al., 2024), is consistent with a recent analysis suggesting a net build-up of sea ice volume since 2007 due to a decrease in ice export from the Arctic, in addition to the thinner ice cover exhibiting higher growth rates (J. Zhang, 2021).

Given the strong observational evidence for a sustained and pervasive pause in Arctic sea ice loss over the recent 15-20 years, highly robust to the choice of sea ice metric, observational product, and season, we are led to ask: is such a pause unexpected? To answer that question we turn to analyzing comprehensive climate model simulations. We seek to determine if they are able to capture pauses such as the observed one and, if so, to establish if such pauses are exceedingly rare or relatively frequent events.

3.2 Comprehensive climate models suggest 20-year pauses are not rare

To understand whether comprehensive climate models can simulate a multi-decadal pause of Arctic sea ice loss, we search through the CMIP5 and CMIP6 large ensemble archive to identify members which exhibit ice loss pauses. Consistent with previous studies (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; Lee & Liu, 2023), we find that nearly all models are able to simulate reductions in September Arctic sea ice area smaller than observed during the period 2005-2024. The two models which do not feature any such trends, UKESM1-0-LL and CanESM5-1, are both models with large climate sensitivities (Meehl et al., 2020), for which overly strong anthropogenically-forced sea ice loss does not allow for pauses such as the observed one.

Figure 2a shows the percentage of members with sea ice loss smaller than observed. The main result here is that the multi-model average suggests an approximately 20% chance of this pause in Arctic sea ice loss (Fig. 2a, column 1). However, we note a large spread

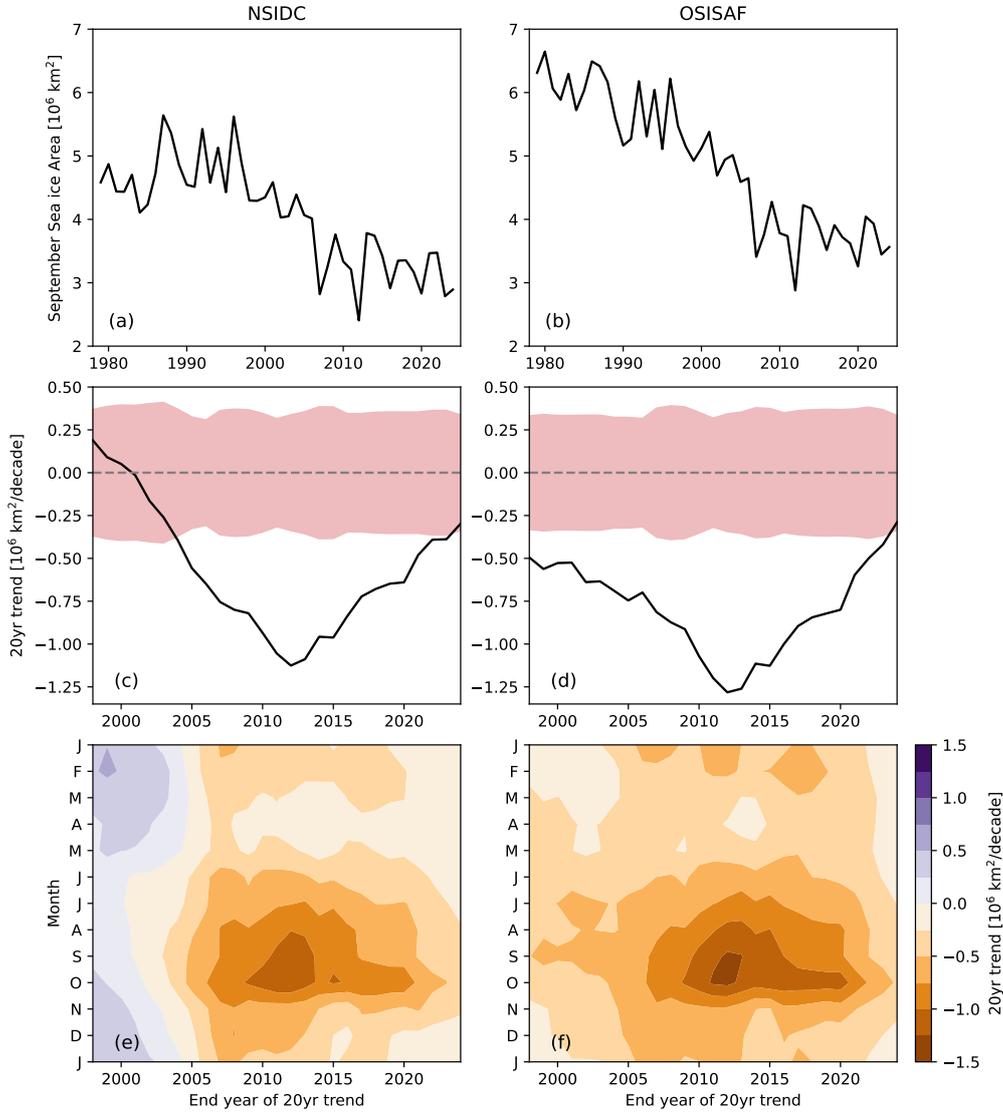


Figure 1. (a,b) Observed sea ice area [10^6 km^2] 1979–2024, (c,d) 20 year-trends of September sea ice area [$10^6 \text{ km}^2/\text{decade}$] with varying end year from 1998 to 2024, in which the red shaded envelope shows the bounds inside which a linear trend is not statistically significant according to a t-test at 95% confidence and (e,f) the 20 year-trends of sea ice area with varying end years but for each month of the year. The left column (a,c,e) shows the NSIDC sea index (Fetterer et al., 2017) and the right column (b,d,f) shows the OSISAF sea ice index (OSI-420, 2023).

212 across the CMIP5 and CMIP6 models, with the probability of a smaller-than-observed
213 2005-2024 trend varying from 0% and approximately 50%. Interestingly, the spread across
214 models for a given scenario is much larger than the spread across scenarios for a given
215 model. This is perhaps unsurprising because the scenarios diverge from each other later
216 than the 2020s (Notz & SIMIP Community, 2020), especially for the case of the CMIP6
217 forcing.

218 The central estimated value of approximately 20% doesn't change substantially if
219 models are selected following the criteria from Notz and SIMIP Community (2020), or
220 using models lying in the 66% range and 5-95% range estimates of the climate sensitiv-
221 ity (Sherwood et al., 2020), or using models according to their ability to simulate clima-
222 tological sea ice conditions for the period 1979-1998 (Fig. 2a, column 2-4). Nor is the
223 central estimate substantially impacted if we assess the probability of a non-statistically
224 significant trend (Figure S3): this value is only slightly higher at approximately 25%.
225 Therefore from the multi-model perspective, what we have observed in the Arctic over
226 the past two decades is not a rare event, but rather one that should be expected to hap-
227 pen with reasonable frequency. This result is insensitive to how models are sub-selected,
228 or to the metric of interest. This then raises the question of whether this pause in Arc-
229 tic sea ice loss could continue and for how long.

230 **3.3 The observed pause in sea ice loss could foreseeably continue for an-** 231 **other decade**

232 To investigate how much longer this current pause is likely to last into the future,
233 we now examine those large ensemble members which do exhibit muted sea ice loss in
234 the period from 2005-2024 (Fig. 2a), and quantify how long the simulated slowdowns
235 persist in the future (Fig. 2b). In essence this produces the conditional probability es-
236 timate of the 20-year pause extending further for each model and scenario. The multi-
237 model average suggests that pauses in September sea ice loss for the period 2005-2024
238 have a 1 in 2 chance of persisting for a further five years, and a 1 in 3 chance of persist-
239 ing for a further ten years (note, however, the considerable intermodel spread of $\pm 25\%$).
240 On average, higher emissions scenarios tend to show slightly lower probabilities of sus-
241 taining the muted pace of Arctic sea ice loss in the future, although the impact of this
242 is subtle and not consistent for every model.

243 On average, the sea ice area in ensemble members which simulate pauses in sea ice
244 loss for the period 2005-2024 is 0.5 million km² larger in 2025 than in ensemble mem-
245 bers from the same models and scenarios in which there is no pause (Fig. 2c). This source
246 of predictability decays within a decade, and after that the September sea ice area in en-
247 semble members with and without pauses are indistinguishable from each other.

248 It is important to highlight that to produce these estimates, we have limited the
249 model selection to only those models with at least five members which feature sea ice
250 pauses in 2004-2025, because to compute these probabilities in a meaningful way requires
251 that the remaining ensemble size is large enough. This may however, bias the results to-
252 wards models with more ensemble members, which are more likely to include more mem-
253 bers with slowdowns due to better sampling, and towards models which simulate slow-
254 downs more frequently. The multi-model average of the probability of a sea ice loss pause
255 in this smaller subset of members is 28%, which is higher than the 20% estimated from
256 all models. If the observed slowdown is an inherently infrequent and rare event, then this
257 approach would overestimate the probability of it continuing, and underestimate how
258 anomalously high the Arctic sea ice cover is relative to the forced trend. However, of the
259 models which can reproduce the observed trends, over two-thirds of the available mod-
260 els are included in this estimate. Our results are broadly consistent with the findings of
261 Swart et al. (2015), which showed that multi-decadal pauses longer than 20-years were
262 possible in the late 21st century under a medium emissions scenario.

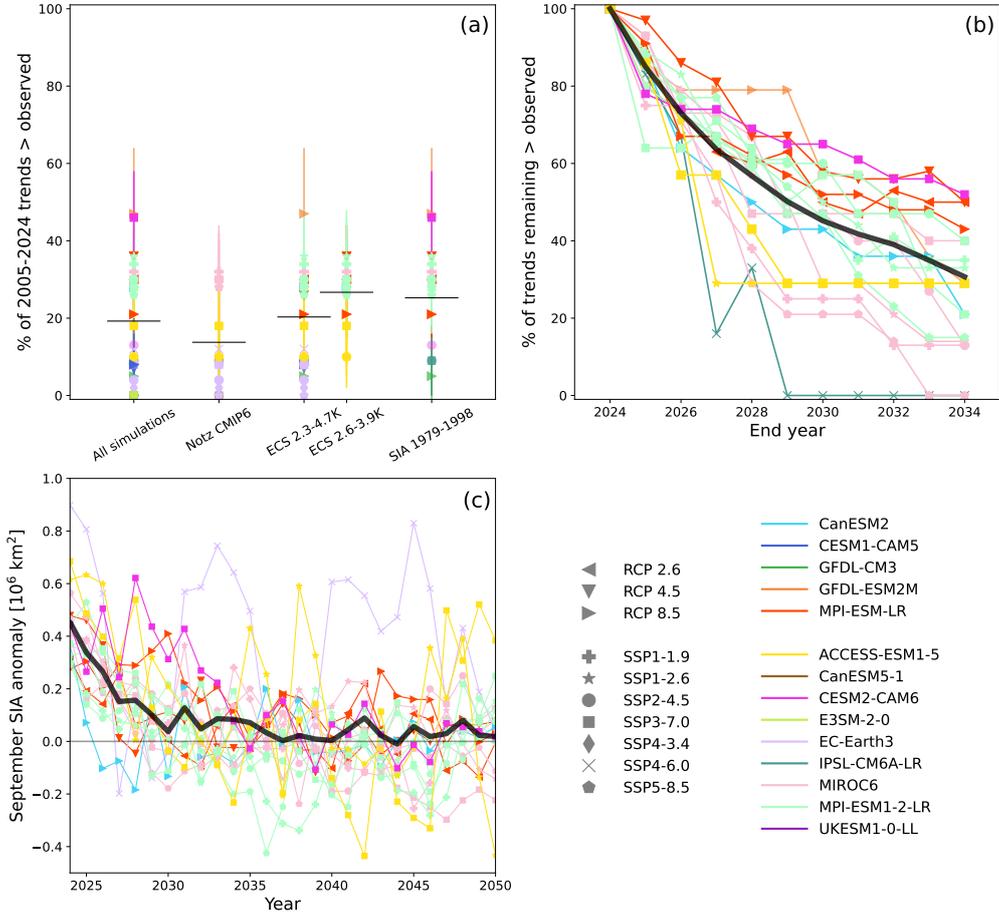


Figure 2. (a) The percentage of ensemble members [%] for each ensemble that have 2005-2024 September sea ice area loss trends less than the observed value. The uncertainty estimate is calculated by monte carlo simulation with replacement. All simulations are shown on the left, with different selection criteria (that outlined in Notz and SIMIP Community (2020), the 5-95% and 66% range of ECS (Sherwood et al., 2020), and the climatological sea ice area applied on the right. (b) The conditional probability across each ensemble for the trends starting in 2005 to continue to be above $-0.29 \text{ } 10^6 \text{ km}^2/\text{decade}$ for a given end year. (c) The ensemble-mean difference in September sea ice area [10^6 km^2] between ensemble members with and without ice loss pauses over 2005-2024 for the period 2025-2050. For panels (b) and (c) only models and scenarios with at least five members with 2005-2024 trends above observed were included, with the black line shows the weighted average according to Equation 1. In all panels, each colour represents a model and each symbol represents a different forcing scenario.

263 Taken together, the wealth of available CMIP5 and CMIP6 simulations suggest it
 264 is possible, perhaps even likely, that the present slowdown in sea ice decline may con-
 265 tinue for a further 5-10 years. If that were the case it may then imply the occurrence of
 266 an early ice-free Arctic is less likely than raw model output would suggest (Jahn et al.,
 267 2016; Arthun et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021; England & Polvani, 2023; Jahn et al., 2024).

268 3.4 Climate models suggest an important role for climate variability

269 Whether the present slowdown persists in the future or not, one final question re-
 270 mains to be answered: is the recent pause a response to anthropogenic forcings alone,
 271 or is there an important role for internal climate variability? When attempting to iso-
 272 late the forced component of any observed trend from internal variability, it is impor-
 273 tant to keep in mind that - assuming the model simulations faithfully capture a plau-
 274 sible reality - the observations are expected to have the same broad features as individ-
 275 ual ensemble members, i.e. that they are a combination of a forced trend plus one par-
 276 ticular realization of internal variability (although one doesn't expect the observations
 277 to precisely match any one member). Given the well-established importance of internal
 278 climate variability in Arctic sea ice trends (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; England
 279 et al., 2019; Dörr et al., 2023), we next assess whether a change in the forced response
 280 could also be substantially contributing to the observed slowdown in ice loss.

281 First, we show the forced September sea ice loss for the period 2005-2024 as esti-
 282 mated by the linear trend of the ensemble mean for each model and scenario (Fig. 3, hor-
 283 izontal axis). We find there are only two model/scenario combinations (GFDL-ESM2M
 284 RCP8.5 and CESM2 SSP3-7.0) for which the forced trend is estimated to entirely ex-
 285 plain observed trends in ice loss (shown in Fig. 3, as grey vertical lines) with minimal
 286 role for internal variability. Over 85% of the models we analyse here have a larger forced
 287 sea ice loss for this period than observed (as they lie to the left of the observed trends),
 288 implying that internal variability has acted to reduce the pace of ice loss.

289 Second, we ask: is there evidence that the forced response itself is slowing down
 290 relative to the previous two decades? On the vertical axis of Figure 3, therefore, we plot
 291 the ratio of the 2005-2024 forced trend to that of the preceding twenty years, 1986-2005,
 292 for each model and scenario combination: a ratio of 1.0 indicates no change in the pace
 293 of ice loss, > 1 indicates an acceleration and < 1 indicates a deceleration. Again we find
 294 that only GFDL-ESM2M RCP8.5 and CESM2 SSP3-7.0 suggest that the reduction in
 295 the forced trends accounts entirely for the observed slowdown. While the results from
 296 all the other models agree that this observed pause is not entirely a forced response, the
 297 remaining models are relatively evenly split (Fig. 3): roughly half the models suggest that
 298 the forced sea ice loss trend has modestly decelerated over the past two decades relative
 299 to the prior two decades, and roughly half suggest it has modestly accelerated (this is
 300 especially clear if we disregard the models which are unable to capture the observed re-
 301 cent trends).

302 In summary then: while the modelling evidence is uncertain as to whether anthro-
 303 pogenic forcings - even in part - for the recent slowdown in Arctic sea ice loss, it is very
 304 likely that internal climate variability is contributing to the slowdown in an important
 305 way.

306 4 Conclusion and Discussion

307 It is perhaps surprising that while global temperatures have risen rapidly, reach-
 308 ing record levels in the last few years, Arctic sea ice cover has shown no statistically sig-
 309 nificant decline over the past two decades. Nonetheless, analyzing two observational datasets
 310 and thousands of simulations from the CMIP5 and CMIP6 archives, we have established
 311 the following facts, which address the four questions raised in the introduction:

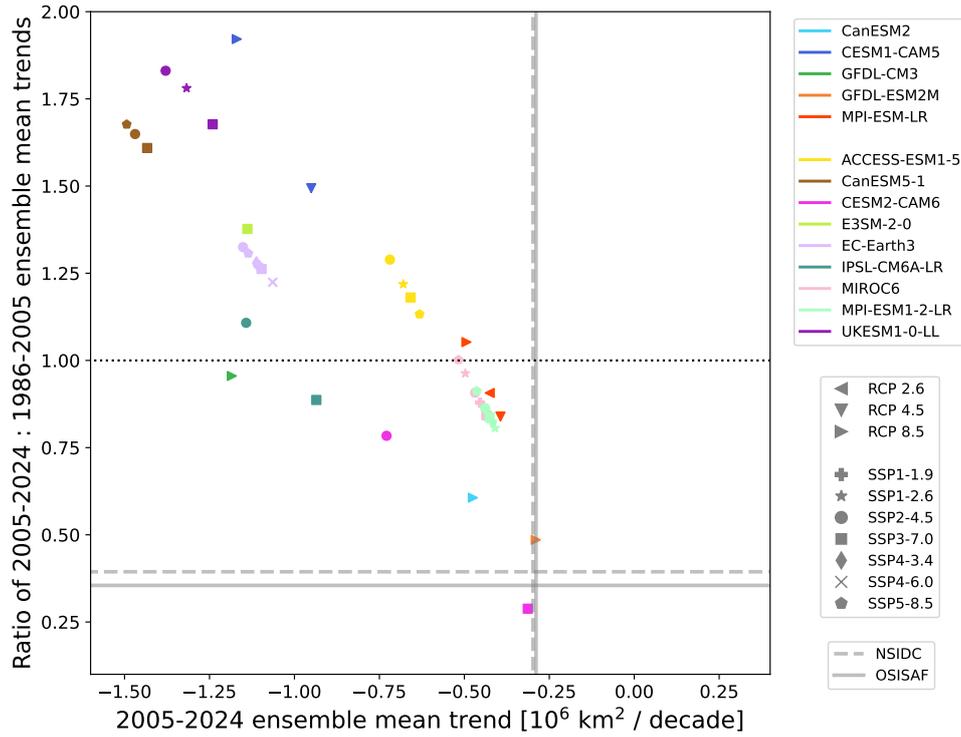


Figure 3. The ensemble mean trend in September sea ice area for the period 2005-2024 for each model and scenario (horizontal axis) versus the ratio of ensemble mean trends in September sea ice area for the periods 2005-2024 : 1986-2005 (vertical axis) with the black dotted line indicating a ratio of 1.0. Observational estimates of the 2005-2024 trend and the ratio of 2005-2024 : 1986-2005 trends are shown as grey lines (dashed line for NSIDC, solid line for OSISAF). Note that this does not imply that the observed trends are estimates of the forced response in the real climate system.

- 312 1. The pervasive slowdown of Arctic sea ice loss is robust across the choice of def-
 313 initions, observational dataset, and season.
- 314 2. This observed pause in ice loss is simulated relatively frequently (with a 20% chance)
 315 in climate models, and is thus to be expected even under high emission scenar-
 316 ios.
- 317 3. If model simulations are accurate, the recent pause may plausibly continue for an
 318 additional five to ten years
- 319 4. Nearly all models analysed suggest an important role for internal climate variabil-
 320 ity in slowing the anthropogenically-forced sea ice loss.

321 We now return to the question of the contribution of human influence versus in-
 322 ternal climate variability. If the slowdown is in fact a predominantly anthropogenically
 323 forced episode, our results suggest that there must be either some shared missing forc-
 324 ing or common model deficiency in response to the standard forcing among the major-
 325 ity of the models. While the latter part is difficult to assess, one culprit for a missing forc-
 326 ing could be the increase in boreal forest fires, not incorporated in standard scenarios.
 327 The recent study of Blanchard-Wrigglesworth et al. (2025) shows that incorporating re-
 328 cent biomass burning emissions into the CESM2 model leads to a rapid recovery of Septem-
 329 ber sea ice cover during the period of interest due to increased reflection in the North-
 330 ern Hemisphere of incoming shortwave radiation arising from the cloud response and aerosol
 331 cloud interactions. However, due to specifics of the simulation of polar clouds in CESM2
 332 (DeRepentigny et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 2022; Davis & Medeiros, 2024; England & Feldl,
 333 2024), and a seemingly opposite result from similar experiments with a different climate
 334 model (Zhong et al., 2024), further experiments with a wider range of models are needed
 335 to understand the role changes in biomass burning have had on observed Arctic sea ice
 336 trends.

337 Going forward, how can we use what we have learned about the recent pause in
 338 Arctic sea ice loss? Firstly, if internal variability has played an important role then this
 339 could provide a source of future predictability of Arctic climate change in the same man-
 340 ner as Yeager et al. (2015). And second, this period could be used as an out of sample
 341 test in future climate model evaluation – similar to the early and middle periods of the
 342 20th century (Flynn et al., 2023; Bianco et al., 2024; Chen & Dai, 2024). However, over-
 343 all this study is a reminder that we should be humble about multi-decadal predictions
 344 of the climate system, especially in highly variable regions such as the Arctic. Standing
 345 in 2007 or 2012 after having experienced another year of record loss and listening to as-
 346 sessments that climate models are flawed in their ability to reproduce the rapid loss of
 347 Arctic sea ice (Stroeve et al., 2007), it would take a rather brave person to have predicted
 348 that a sustained slowdown in ice loss was around the corner, although, as we have shown,
 349 and many have found before (Kay et al., 2011; Swart et al., 2015; R. Zhang, 2015), this
 350 is entirely consistent with what climate models simulate.

351 **Open Research Section**

352 All CMIP5 and CMIP6 data analysed in this study is publicly available to down-
 353 load from the Earth System Federation Grid at <https://aims2.llnl.gov/search>.

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Supporting Information for “Surprising, but not unexpected, multi-decadal pause in Arctic sea ice loss”

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2. Table S1

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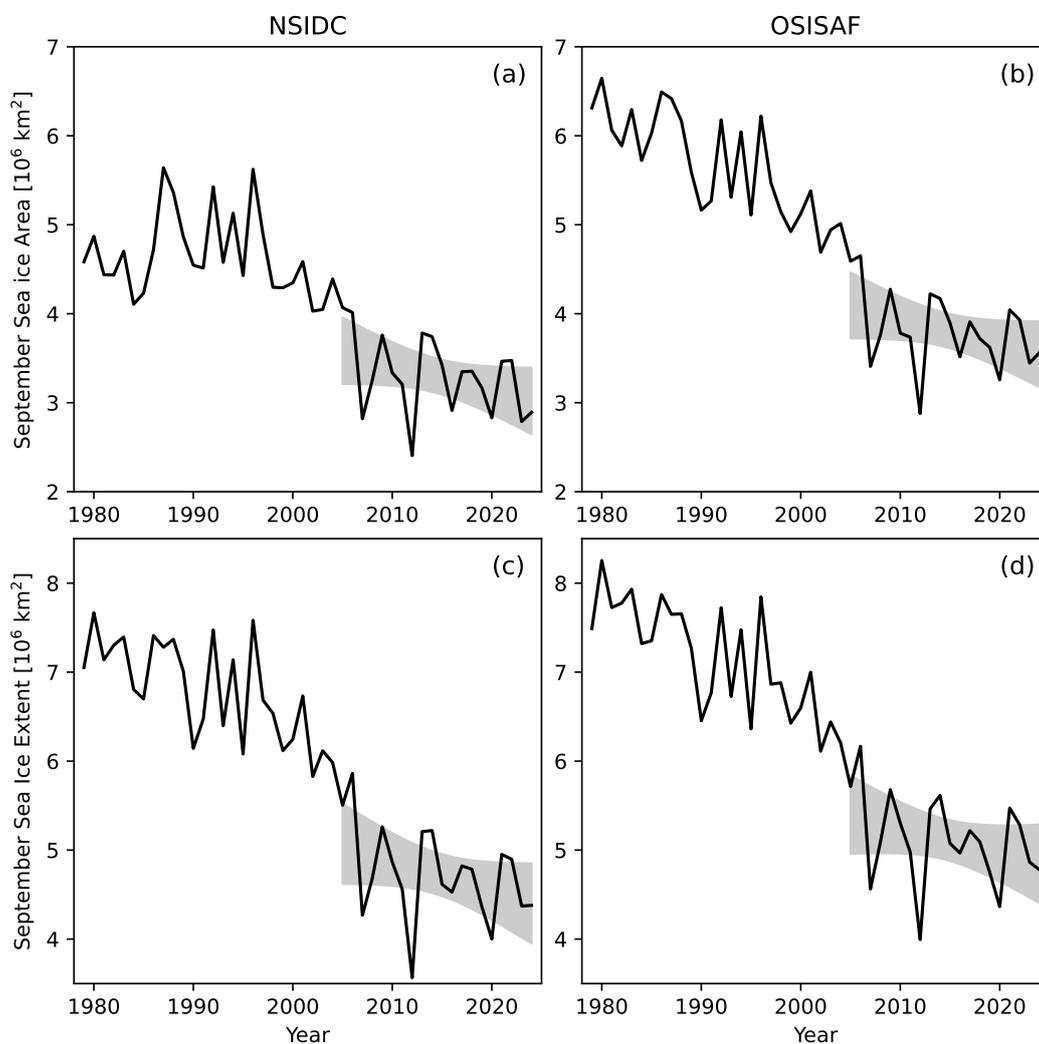


Figure S1. Timeseries of September sea ice area (top row) and sea ice extent (bottom row) for the NSIDC (left column) and OSISAF (right column) sea ice indices. The 95% confidence interval for the 20-year linear trend 2005-2024 is shown in the shading.

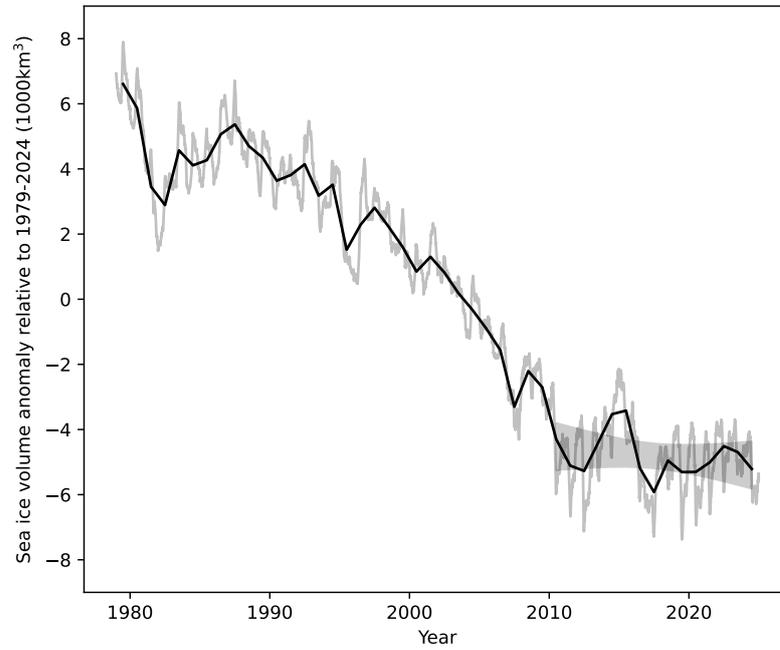


Figure S2. Timeseries of PIOMAS-simulated Arctic sea ice volume anomaly for the period 1979-2024. Anomalies are calculated as the departure from the long term 1979-2024 average, with daily anomalies shown in the grey and annual anomalies shown in the black. The 95% confidence interval for the 15-year linear trend 2010-2024 is shown in the shading.

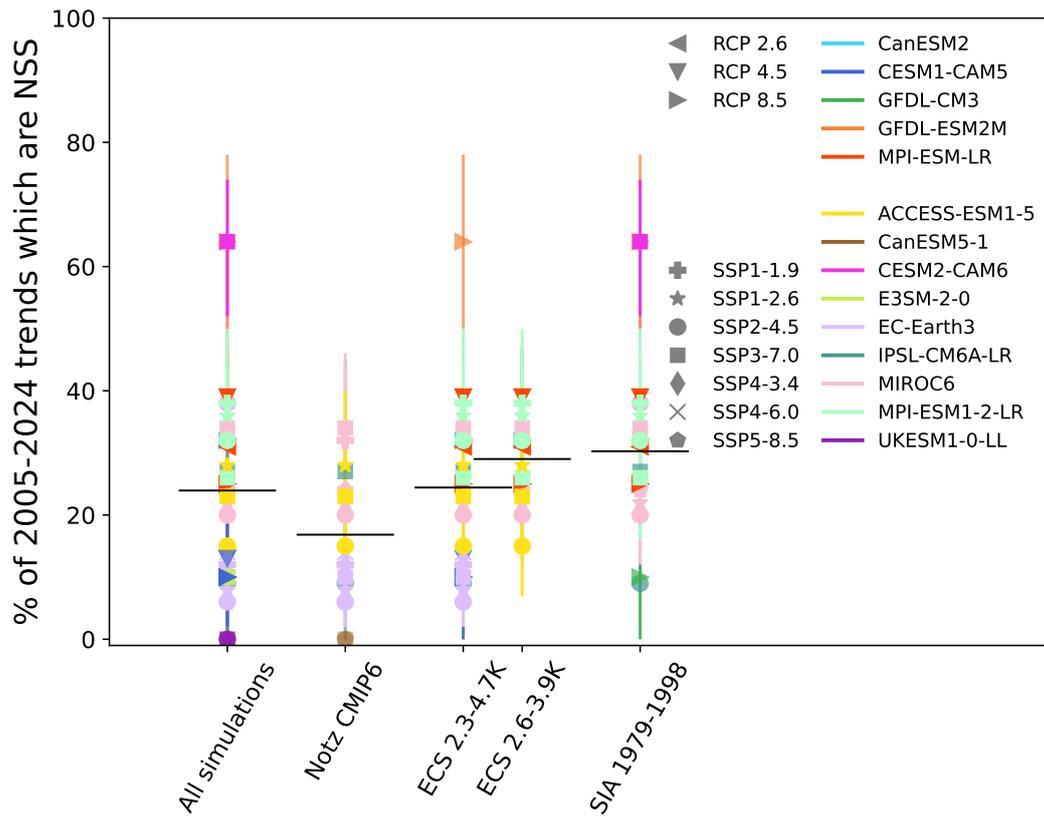


Figure S3. Same as in Figure 2 but for the percentage of members for which 2005-2024 September Arctic sea ice area trends are not statistically significant at 95% confidence.

Table S1. Details of the large ensemble simulations analysed in this study.

Model	Generation	Scenarios (members)	Reference
CESM1	CMIP5	RCP4.5 (15), RCP8.5 (40)	(Kay et al., 2015)
GFDL-CM3	CMIP5	RCP8.5 (20)	(Sun et al., 2018)
GFDL-ESM2M	CMIP5	RCP8.5 (30)	(Burger et al., 2022)
CanESM2	CMIP5	RCP8.5 (50)	(Kirchmeier-Young et al., 2017)
MPI-ESM-LR	CMIP5	RCP2.6, 4.5, and 8.5 (100)	(Maher et al., 2019)
ACCESS-ESM1-5	CMIP6	SSP1-2.6, 2-4.5, 3-7.0, and 5-8.5 (40)	(Ziehn et al., 2020)
CESM2	CMIP6	SSP2-4.5 (16), SSP3-7.0 (50 ^a)	(Rodgers et al., 2021)
CanESM5	CMIP6	SSP2-4.5, 3-7.0, and 5-8.5 (10)	(Swart et al., 2019)
EC-Earth 3	CMIP6	SSP1-1.9, 1-2.6, 2-4.5, 3-7.0, 4-3.4, 4-6.0, and 5-8.5 (50)	(Wyser et al., 2021)
IPSL CM6A	CMIP6	SSP2-4.5 and 3-7.0 (11)	(Boucher et al., 2020)
UKESM1-0-LL	CMIP6	SSP1-2.6 (16), SSP2-4.5 (15), SSP3-7.0 (16)	(Sellar et al., 2019)
MIROC6	CMIP6	SSP1-1.9, SSP1-2.6, 2-4.5, 3-7.0, and 5-8.5 (50)	(Tatebe et al., 2019)
MPI-ESM1.2	CMIP6	SSP1-1.9, 1-2.6, 2-4.5, 3-7.0, and 5-8.5 (50)	(Olonscheck et al., 2023)
E3SM-2-0	CMIP6	SSP3-7.0 (21)	(Fasullo et al., 2024)

^a This is the members with or without biomass.