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Geophysical Research Letters

Supporting Information for

Fate of warm Pacific water in the Arctic basin

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30 **Introduction**

31 We describe the details of the historical velocity dataset in Text S1, and show the data coverage
32 of the historical hydrography and velocity in space and time in Figure S1. In Text S2, we
33 demonstrate that the along-canyon wind from the meteorological station in Utqiagvik is
34 significantly correlated with that from the ERA5 reanalysis over a broad region of Barrow Canyon.
35 In Text S3 and Figure S2 we present the rationale for carrying out the water mass end-member
36 analysis in potential density/potential spicity (σ/π) space. Text S4 describes the results of an
37 empirical orthogonal function analysis demonstrating that the dominant flow variability in Barrow
38 Canyon is controlled by the local along-canyon wind. Text S5 provides the methods of gridding
39 and determining the lag time of velocity and hydrography with respect to the wind forcing.
40 Supplementary to the main text (Fig. 2), Text S6 and Figure S3 show the velocity and hydrographic
41 responses to the cross-canyon wind in Regime 3.

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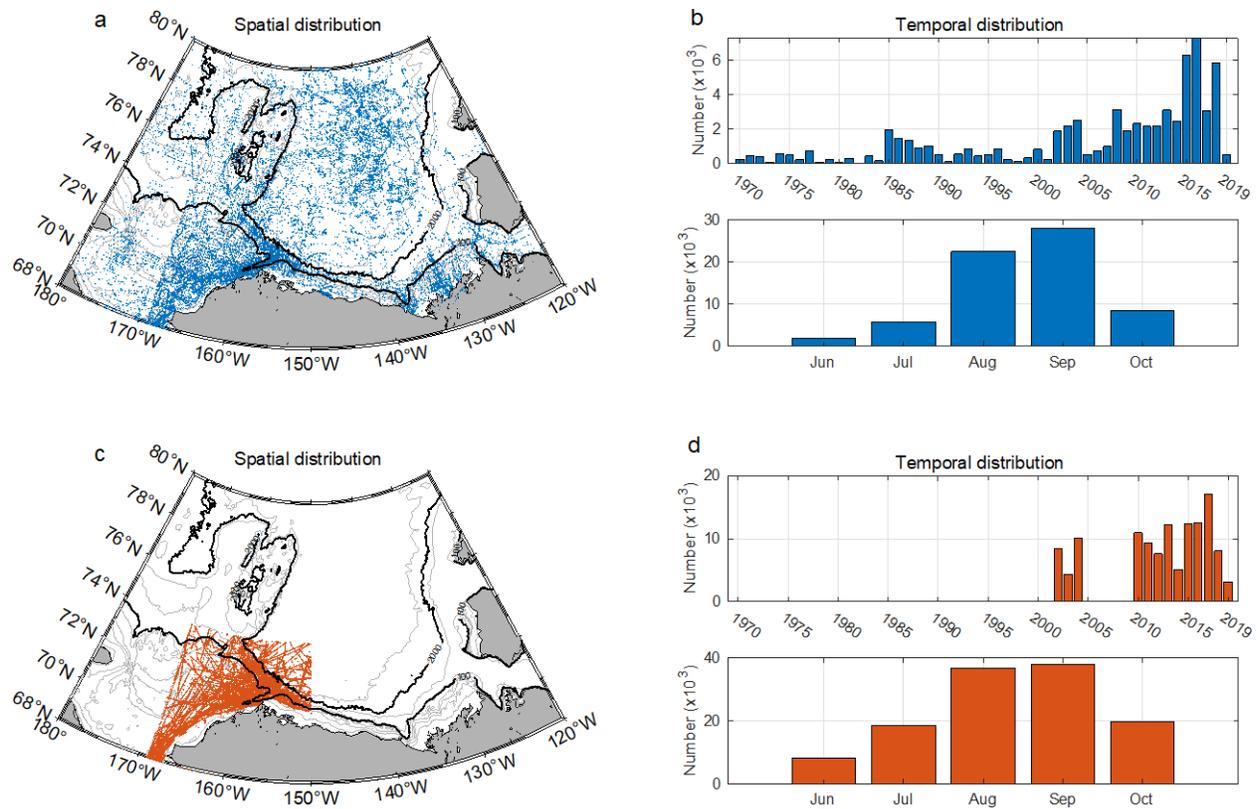
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54 **Text S1.**

55 The velocity dataset used in this study (Fig. S1c, d) was constructed using shipboard acoustic
56 Doppler current profiler (ADCP) data from 47 cruises from 2002 to 2018, including 33 USCGC
57 *Healy* cruises, 7 R/V *Sikuliaq* cruises, and 7 R/V *Mirai* cruises. The data were collected using the
58 University of Hawaii UHDAS software, except for the early cruises in 2002-04 collected with
59 VMDAS. Standard quality control procedures were applied to the dataset, including bottom- and
60 water-track calibrations, single-ping and ensemble-ping editing, and ship's heading checks. A
61 subset of these cruises had previously received additional post-cruise processing as part of other
62 research projects. The remainder was visually edited for standard issues such as bottom or ice
63 interference. Previously applied calibrations and heading corrections via secondary heading feeds
64 were checked and, in a few cases, mildly adjusted.

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Figure S1. Data coverage of the composite historical hydrography and velocity datasets in space and time. (a, b) historical hydrographic profiles, and (c, d) historical shipboard ADCP velocity data.

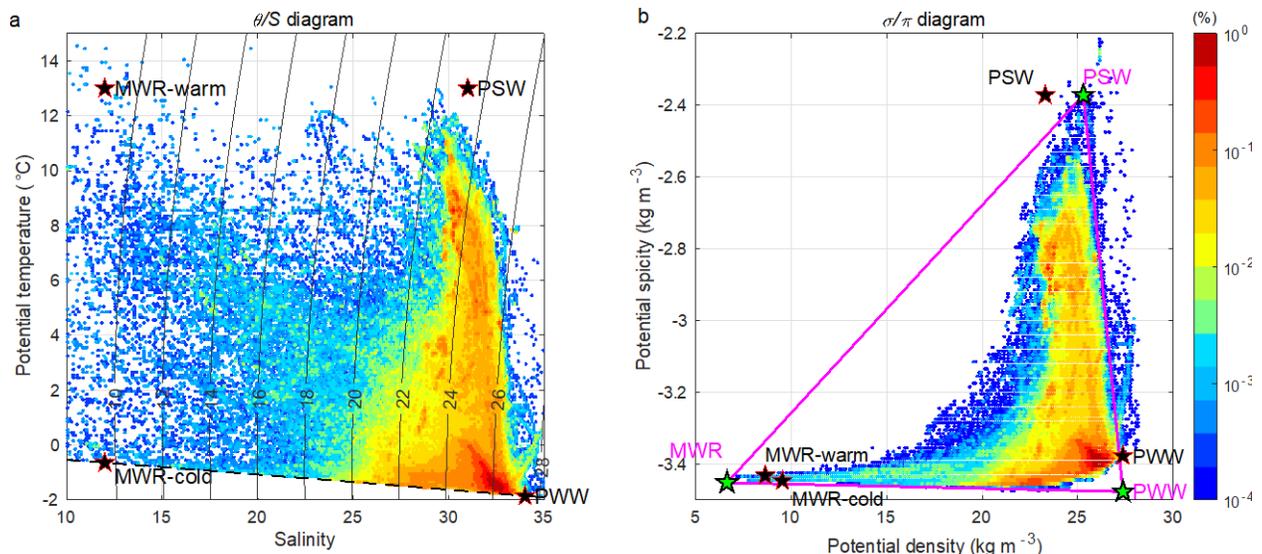
71 **Text S2.**

72 Within the domain of Fig. 2 we computed the correlation between the along-canyon wind from
 73 the Utqiagvik weather station and the ERA5 reanalysis wind (ERA5 is a reanalysis product from the
 74 European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts, Hersbach (2018)) over the period 1979-
 75 2020. The mean correlation coefficient is 0.85 ($p < 0.01$), with a maximum value of 0.95. This
 76 suggests that the wind data from the Utqiagvik weather station are representative of the vicinity
 77 of Barrow Canyon as a whole. It is consistent with many previous studies in this region which have
 78 widely used the weather station wind (Lin, Pickart, McRaven, et al., 2019; Pickart et al., 2019;
 79 Pisareva et al., 2019).

80

81 **Text S3.**

82 Previous studies have analyzed water mass distributions in the Chukchi and Beaufort Seas using
83 defined potential temperature/salinity (θ/S) boundaries (Lin et al., 2016; Pickart et al., 2019;
84 Pisareva et al., 2019), or using an end-member approach (Lin, Pickart, McRaven, et al., 2019). Using
85 the historical hydrographic data over the domain shown in Fig. S1a, we constructed a volumetric
86 θ/S diagram over the depth range 0-100 m (we do not consider the Atlantic Water at depth) (Fig.
87 S2a). On the diagram we have marked what could be considered end-members of PSW, PWW,
88 MWR-cold, and MWR-warm. Unfortunately, it is extremely difficult to classify a given parcel of
89 water in terms of four end-members; typically this is done using three end-members. This
90 motivated us to use potential density/potential spicity (σ/π) space (Fig. S2b), which has been used
91 effectively for water mass classification and analysis in the Nordic Seas (Huang et al., 2020) and in
92 the South China Sea (Gao et al., 2020).



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94 **Figure S2.** Definitions of water mass end-members. (a) Volumetric potential temperature/salinity
95 (θ/S) diagram using the historical hydrographic data in the upper 100 m. The three main water
96 masses are Pacific Summer Water (PSW), Pacific Winter Water (PWW), and two components of
97 sea-ice meltwater / river runoff water (MWR-cold and MWR-warm). The black dashed line is the
98 freezing point temperature. (b) Same as (a) except in the potential density/potential spicity (σ/π)
99 plane. The black stars and font denote the water mass end-members in (a). The magenta lines

100 denote the mixing triangle associated with the three σ/π end-members (green stars): PSW, PWW
101 and MWR.

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103 **Text S4.**

104 We quantified the contribution of the local along-canyon wind to the outflow through Barrow
105 Canyon as follows. Using the year-long ADCP data from a mooring situated near the head of the
106 Barrow Canyon in 2012-2013 (the BC2 mooring in Weingartner et al. (2017)), we applied an
107 empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis to the timeseries of the velocity profile. The dominant
108 EOF mode (EOF1) accounts for 79% of the variance. The principal component timeseries for EOF1
109 is significantly correlated with the local along-canyon wind speed ($R=0.61$, $P<0.01$). We also did
110 the same exercise for the velocity data (upper 100 m) from a mooring at the mouth of the canyon
111 in 2012-2013 (Itoh et al., 2015). This returned a similar result: EOF1 explains 90% of the variance,
112 correlated with the along-canyon wind ($R=0.65$, $P<0.01$). These results indicate that the variation
113 of the flow in Barrow canyon is significantly controlled by the local wind.

114

115 **Text S5.**

116 While the historical hydrographic data have been previously quality controlled, additional error
117 checking was nonetheless applied following previous methodology (Våge et al., 2013). Profiles
118 containing a density inversion greater than 0.05 kg m^{-3} were identified, and the data points in
119 question removed. To map the data in geographical space, we use an interpolation scheme where
120 the search radius has enhanced weighting along the isobaths (Davis, 1998) instead of an isotropic
121 weighting in all directions. The spatial resolution of the gridding varied depending on the size of
122 the domain in question, ranging from $0.2^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ (longitude, latitude) for the vicinity of Barrow
123 Canyon to $1^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$ for the full domain. The composite vertical section across the Chukchi slope
124 and Northwind Ridge was constructed using all profiles within a distance of 25 km from the line,
125 and was gridded using Laplacian-Spline interpolation (Smith & Wessel, 1990) with a grid spacing
126 of 20 km in the horizontal and 2 m in the vertical. For the along-isobath section, a coarser

127 resolution of 50 km × 5 m was used to include more data for each grid point. The gridded data
128 were further smoothed using a 3×3 window.

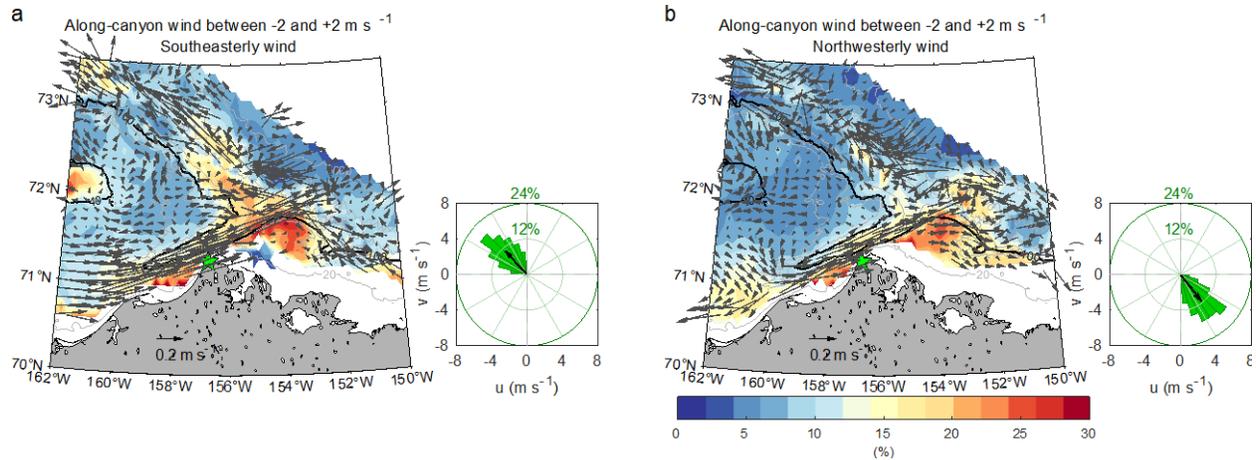
129 For the analysis of the Barrow Canyon region, we accounted for the delay time between the wind
130 forcing and velocity and density response by using the mooring data at the mouth of the Barrow
131 Canyon from 2012-13 (Itoh et al., 2015), published by Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and
132 Technology (JAMSTEC). We considered the along-canyon component of flow (56°T) (Pisareva et
133 al., 2019), and computed the lag correlation between the timeseries of velocity averaged over the
134 upper 100 m and the along-canyon wind (52°T) from the Utqiagvik wind product. This indicated
135 that the velocity response lagged the wind by 6 hrs. The same calculation for the average density
136 in the upper 100 m gives a lag of 15 hrs. These delay times are comparable to previous upwelling
137 studies in Barrow Canyon and on the Alaskan Beaufort slope (Pisareva et al., 2019; Schulze &
138 Pickart, 2012). While the lag time can change slightly with different wind speeds, our results were
139 not sensitive to this. A similar lag for velocity and density was computed for the Beaufort slope
140 using previously collected mooring data from 152°W (Lin, Pickart, Moore, et al., 2019).

141

142 **Text S6.**

143 For the case when the along-canyon wind speed in Barrow Canyon is negligible (-2 to 2 m s^{-1}), the
144 winds are mainly in the cross-canyon direction (along the slope); i.e., southeasterly and
145 northwesterly. We thus suspect that the cross-canyon wind predominantly dictates the velocity
146 structure and the PSW distribution. To demonstrate this, we applied the same technique for
147 constructing composite velocity and PSW percentage maps for each of the two cross-canyon wind
148 conditions (Fig. S3). For southeasterly wind, the westward-flowing slope current is intensified,
149 particularly in vicinity of the canyon mouth, which facilitates the transfer of PSW to the west. In
150 contrast, when the wind is northwesterly, the velocity vectors on the Chukchi slope become
151 disorganized while the Beaufort Shelfbreak Jet is well established. Accordingly, the PSW is mainly
152 found east of Barrow Canyon.

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 155 **Figure S3.** Composite velocity and PSW percentage maps for the two cross-canyon wind regimes.
 156 (a) Southeasterly wind and (b) northwesterly wind, when the along-canyon wind speed is from -2
 157 to 2 m s^{-1} (Fig. 2). The vectors are the vertically-averaged velocity in the upper 100 m and the
 158 colors denote the PSW percentage at 30 m. The 40 m and 100 m isobaths are highlighted by thick
 159 lines. The wind rose and mean wind vector for each scenario are computed using the data from
 160 Utqiagvik weather station (green star on the map).

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