

1 Mean Circulation in the Coastal Ocean off Northeastern North America from 2 a Regional-Scale Ocean Model

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11 Abstract

12 A regional-scale ocean model was used to hindcast the coastal circulation over the Middle
13 Atlantic Bight (MAB) and Gulf of Maine (GOM) from 2004 to 2013. The model was nested
14 inside a data assimilative global ocean model that provided initial and open boundary conditions.
15 Realistic atmospheric forcing, tides and observed river runoff were also used to drive the model.
16 Hindcast solutions were compared against observations, which included coastal sea levels,
17 satellite altimetry sea surface height, in situ temperature and salinity measurements in the GOM,
18 and observed mean depth-averaged velocities. Good agreements with observations suggest that
19 the hindcast model is capable of capturing the major circulation variability in the MAB and
20 GOM. Time- and space-continuous hindcast fields were used to depict the mean circulation,
21 along- and cross-shelf transport and the associated momentum balances. The hindcast confirms
22 the presence of the equatorward mean shelf circulation, which varies from 2.33 Sv over the
23 Scotian Shelf to 0.22 Sv near Cape Hatteras. Using the 200 m isobath as the shelf/slope
24 boundary, the mean cross-shelf transport calculations indicate that the shelfbreak segments off
25 the Gulf of Maine (including the southern flank of Georges Bank and the Northeast Channel) and
26 Cape Hatteras are the major sites for shelf water export. The momentum analysis reveals that the
27 along-shelf sea level difference from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras is about 0.36 m. The

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satellite altimetry sea surface height,
temperature and salinity time series in the
GOM, glider transects in the MAB, and
observed mean depth-averaged velocities by
Lentz (2008a)

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35 nonlinear advection, stress, and horizontal viscosity terms all contribute to the ageostrophic
36 circulation in the along-isobath direction, whereas the nonlinear advection plays a dominant role
37 in determining the ageostrophic current in the cross-isobath direction.

38

39 **1. Introduction**

40 The northeastern coast of North America borders the Atlantic Ocean, with a continental shelf
41 extending over 5000 km. For our purpose, we focus on the coastal segment between Cape
42 Hatteras in the southwest and Nova Scotia in the northeast (**Figure 1**). The shelf width and depth
43 here are typically 100-200 km and 100-200 m, respectively, but there are significant regional
44 variations associated with coastline indentations by gulfs and with submarine banks and basins.
45 From a North Atlantic basin-scale circulation point of view, this segment lies in the western
46 boundary confluence zone, with the subpolar gyre and the Labrador Current/Scotian Shelf waters
47 moving south and the subtropical gyre and the Gulf Stream moving north, constituting a unique
48 setting for a wide range of important interdisciplinary oceanographic and environmental
49 management issues.

50 Isotope analyses indicate that the equatorward flow of subpolar water has a major influence on
51 this coastal region (Chapman and Beardsley, 1989). The annual mean shelf water transport
52 estimated by Loder et al. (1998) shows that there is a systematic reduction in shelfbreak
53 transport, varying roughly from 7.5 Sv in the Labrador Sea to 0.7 Sv off Nova Scotia. There are
54 further reductions in net transport as Scotian shelf and slope waters enter the Gulf of Maine
55 (GOM) and subsequently move into the Middle Atlantic Bight (MAB). The circulation in the
56 GOM is strongly steered by the bottom topography, with a cyclonic flow around the Gulf's inner
57 basins and an anticyclonic flow around its outer bank (e.g., Brooks, 1985). The circulation
58 becomes more uniform in the MAB, with southwestward flow on the inner shelf (e.g., Beardsley
59 and Boicourt, 1981). Further downstream, the mean equatorward transport continues decreasing
60 as it approaches Cape Hatteras (Loder et al., 1998).

61 Such equatorward transport is accompanied by important yet highly complex cross-shelf
62 transport between the shelf sea and the Slope Sea. The latter is an admixture of waters of
63 subpolar and subtropical origins, forming a buffer zone between the Gulf Stream and the near

64 shore coastal ocean. Several processes have been identified as important contributors to the
65 cross-shelf exchange, the most dramatic being Gulf Stream ring interactions with the shelf/slope
66 front. For example, Joyce et al. (1992) indicated a single ring acting over a short time span (a
67 couple of months) can account for the entire annual shelf-ocean transport and flux exchange.
68 Shelfbreak frontal eddies associated with rings (e.g., Houghton et al., 1986), baroclinic instability
69 and frontal meandering (Garvine et al., 1988; Gawarkiewicz et al., 2004) and topography and
70 channels (e.g., Churchill et al., 1986; Ramp et al., 1985) also significantly affect the shelf-ocean
71 exchange.

72 Quantifying along-shelf transport and cross-shelf exchange and their seasonal variations in this
73 area is the key to understanding and quantifying the distribution of material properties, such as
74 heat, salt, nutrient and carbon fluxes, that are vital to MAB-GOM coastal ecosystem dynamics
75 (e.g., Walsh et al., 1988). Although several long-term records of coastal current measurements
76 have been obtained over the study area, the different conditions during the observational periods
77 made it difficult to reach a consistent conclusion on spatial and temporal variations of shelf
78 circulation. For instance, the seasonal reversal of the slope current observed in the Nantucket
79 Shoals Flux Experiment (NSFE79) (Beardsley et al., 1985) was not apparent in the Shelf Edge
80 Exchange Processes (SEEP-I) experiment (Aikman et al., 1988). Those one- or two-year long
81 records are too short to compute an accurate annual mean and seasonal cycle, or to study the
82 interannual variations. In this regard, an important step forward was made recently by Lentz
83 (2008a). Utilizing 27 historical velocity time series from the MAB, each being longer than 200
84 days, this study confirmed a consistent equatorward mean circulation over the MAB continental
85 shelf. The mean cross-shelf flow is typically offshore near the surface and onshore at depth. Near
86 the bottom, the cross-shelf flow increases with increasing water depth from coast to shelf slope,
87 with the change in direction at the 50 m isobath. Furthermore, Lentz (2008b) studied the shelf
88 circulation seasonal variation using a subset of the same velocity data, and identified significant
89 variations in the along-shelf circulation, which is related to seasonal variations in the wind stress
90 and the cross-shelf density gradient. Although observations presented in these two recent studies
91 provide a remarkably consistent picture of MAB circulation, Lentz (2008a) also noted that the
92 spatial coverage of the current observations is still very sparse and uneven. While the results
93 suggest the important roles of along-shelf pressure gradient and bottom stress, direct
94 measurements are very difficult to achieve due to large observational uncertainties. In an effort

95 to understand the origin of the along-shelf pressure gradient (ASPG) in the MAB, Xu and Oey
96 (2011) estimated the mean ASPG is about $5-8 \times 10^{-8}$ in the MAB. They also suggested that river
97 and coastal Labrador sea waters transport contribute to the positive mean along-shelf pressure
98 gradient (ASPG, tilting up northward), whereas wind and Gulf ~~Stream~~ tend to produce a negative
99 mean ASPG. Seasonal and interannual variation of ASPG correlate with the Gulf Stream shift
100 and eddy kinetic energy (EKE) north of the Gulf Stream due to Warm Core Rings. While
101 providing important insights to the ASPG, their conclusion was primarily based on a set of
102 idealized numerical experiments. These studies call for a more complete shelf-wide, nested,
103 primitive equation numerical modeling study to provide insight into shelf circulation dynamics,
104 the objective of our present work.

105 We begin in Section 2 with a description of the regional-scale, nested circulation model used in
106 this study. Section 3 provides model ~~skill assessments~~ by gauging simulations against various in
107 situ and satellite observations. Based on these comparisons, we provide more detailed analysis of
108 MAB-GOM shelf circulation, alongshore and cross-shelf transport estimates in Section 4,
109 followed by the discussion and summary in Section 5.

110

111 2. Model

112 Our coastal circulation simulation was performed with the Regional Ocean Modeling System
113 (ROMS), a free-surface, hydrostatic, primitive-equation model in widespread use for estuarine,
114 coastal and basin-scale ocean applications (www.myroms.org/papers). ROMS is formulated in
115 vertically stretched, terrain-following coordinates using algorithms described in detail by
116 (Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2003, 1998, 2005). Its computational kernel includes high-order
117 advection and time-stepping schemes, weighted temporal averaging of the barotropic mode to
118 reduce aliasing into the slow baroclinic motions, and conservative parabolic splines for vertical
119 discretization. A redefinition of the barotropic pressure-gradient term is also applied in ROMS to
120 reduce the pressure-gradient truncation error, which has previously limited the accuracy of
121 terrain-following coordinate models. The model domain encompasses both the Middle Atlantic
122 Bight and Gulf of Maine (hereinafter, MABGOM), bounded by Cape Hatteras in the southwest
123 and Nova Scotia in the northeast. The horizontal resolution varies from 6 km to 10 km. There are

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126 36 terrain-following vertical levels, with higher resolution near the surface and bottom in order
127 to better resolve ocean boundary layers.

128 2.1. Open boundary and Initial Conditions

129 To specify the open boundary conditions for the MABGOM model, we nested it inside the global
130 ocean simulation provided by HYCOM/NCODA [Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model /NRL
131 Coupled Ocean Data Assimilation: <http://HYCOM.org>]. NCODA is a multivariate optimal
132 interpolation technique that assimilates surface observations from satellites, including altimeter
133 and multi-channel sea surface temperature, and also profile data such as expendable
134 bathythermographs (XBTs), conductivity-temperature-depth (CTDs) and ARGO floats
135 (Chassignet et al., 2006). As a part of the Global Ocean Data Assimilation Experiment
136 (GODAE), HYCOM/NCODA provides daily three-dimensional ocean state estimates at 1/12-
137 degree resolution. Because the domain of MABGOM model covers a significant portion of the
138 Slope Sea, where active Gulf Stream meanders and slope water eddies often occur,
139 HYCOM/NCODA fields are very appealing for our regional-scale coastal circulation simulation
140 in that the timing and extent of such open ocean processes can be well represented through data
141 assimilation.

142 A one-way nesting approach was used to downscale HYCOM/NCODA ('parent model') to the
143 regional-scale MABGOM model ('child model'). Specifically, open boundary conditions
144 (OBCs) were applied to ROMS tracers and baroclinic velocity following the method of
145 Marchesiello et al. (2001), whereby Orlanski-type radiation conditions were used in conjunction
146 with relaxation (with timescale of 0.5 days on inflow and 10 days on outflow) to
147 HYCOM/NCODA solutions. The free surface and depth-averaged velocity boundary conditions
148 were specified using the method of Flather (1976) with the external values defined by
149 HYCOM/NCODA plus M_2 tidal harmonics from an ADCIRC simulation of the western Atlantic
150 (Luettich et al., 1992). The latter M_2 information provides needed tidal mixing, which is an
151 important element of the regional circulation, particularly in the GOM. We applied the method
152 of Mellor and Yamada (1982) to compute vertical turbulent mixing. Harmonic horizontal
153 diffusion/viscosity for tracer/momentum with a constant value of $20/100 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, and the quadratic
154 drag formulation for the bottom friction specification with a drag coefficient of 3×10^{-3} were
155 adopted.

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One caveat we identified during the course of MABGOM model implementation is coastal hydrography biases in the HYCOM solution. When compared with 0.25° x 0.25° HydroBase Hydrographic climatology (Curry, 2001), HYCOM/NCODA fields were found to overestimate the coastal salinity field due to the lack of a riverine fresh water input. For instance, HYCOM surface (the 36th layer) mean (averaged between 2004/1/1 and 2013/12/31) salinity is up to 1 (6) unit higher on the shelf (at major river mouths) than the corresponding HydroBase salinity values (**Figure 2**). Surface temperature differences between the HYCOM and HydroBase are seen as well. Comparing to HydroBase, HYCOM mean overestimates surface temperature, and the misfits vary from ~0 to 4 °C. Some discrepancies between the two may be due to the different averaging period, and also be due to the difference in their spatial resolution. Together, biases in salinity and temperature fields lead to a bias in the density field, which in turn results in biases in the alongshore and cross-shelf pressure gradients. To correct for such mean biases, we replaced the HYCOM three-dimensional annual mean salinity and temperature fields with the corresponding HydroBase annual means. That is:

$$\begin{aligned} T_{correction} &= T_{hycom} - \bar{T}_{hycom} + \bar{T}_{hydrobase} \\ S_{correction} &= S_{hycom} - \bar{S}_{hycom} + \bar{S}_{hydrobase} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

Our premise is that while the annual means of HYCOM state variables may be biased, their daily, small spatial scale variations of temperature and salinity are still important values to account for the coastal circulation variability that we are interested in. Because both ocean sea surface height and transport respond to changes in the density fields, the HydroBase annual mean salinity ($\bar{S}_{hydrobase}$) and temperature ($\bar{T}_{hydrobase}$) fields were also used to compute the mean dynamic height (DH) and its associated geostrophic transport in the MABGOM model domain. Specifically, DH was obtained by integrating dynamic anomaly relative to the offshore starting point of each cross-shelf section of the model (**Figure 1**). Following the method of Csanady (1976) and Loder et al. (1997), the geostrophic velocity was then computed to balance the local depth-varying pressure gradient that gives zero pressure gradient at the seafloor. Mean DH and geostrophic transport values resulting from this procedure were sampled along the three open boundaries of MABGOM model and subsequently used to correct HYCOM/NCODA mean sea level and transport values in the same manner as (1). Finally, the resulting adjusted boundary sea level and transport values were applied in MABGOM model simulation through the Flather

187 (1976) boundary condition described above. This procedure effectively removed biases in
188 HYCOM/ NCODA mean salinity, temperature, sea level and transport fields, while preserving
189 important high-frequency variability in these state variables.

190 **2.2. Surface Forcing**

191 We utilized surface atmospheric conditions from North America Regional Reanalysis (NARR)
192 provided by NOAA NCEP. The spatial and temporal resolutions of NARR are 35 km and 3
193 hourly, respectively. Air-sea fluxes of momentum and buoyancy were computed by applying the
194 standard bulk formulae (Fairall et al., 2003) to NARR marine boundary layer winds, air
195 temperature, relative humidity, and air pressure, along with ROMS-generated surface currents.
196 To further constrain the net surface heat flux, we implemented a thermal relaxation term
197 following He and Weisberg (2002), such that

$$198 \quad K_H \frac{\partial T}{\partial Z} = \frac{Q}{\rho C_p} + c(T_{obs} - T_{mod}) \quad (2)$$

199 where $c = 0.5 \text{ day}^{-1}$, and T_{obs} is the daily 0.1° resolution blended cloud-free surface temperature
200 field generated by NOAA Coast Watch.

201 In addition, fresh water (salinity = 0 unit) outflow from nine major rivers in the MABGOM area
202 was considered (**Figure 1**). These include the St. Johns, Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin,
203 Merrimack, Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, and Potomac Rivers. For each, the transport was
204 specified using the volume time series measured by a river gauge from United State Geological
205 Survey (USGS).

206 We started the MABGOM model hindcast on November 1, 2003 and ran the simulation
207 continuously until December 31, 2013. Initial hydrodynamic conditions for the hindcast were
208 taken from bias-adjusted HYCOM/NCODA fields on November 1, 2003.

209

210 **3. Results**

211 Standard circulation state variables (sea level, currents, temperature, and salinity) were archived
212 daily. Animations of modeled sea level, surface current, surface temperature and salinity fields
213 display complex spatial and temporal variability, highlighting the synergy of using realistic

214 model simulations in conjunction with in situ observations to study coastal ocean processes. For
215 model skill assessments and analyses described below, we concentrated on the ten full years of
216 model hindcast solutions spanning from January 1, 2004 to December 31, 2013.

217 **3.1. Model Skill Assessment**

218 **3.1.1. Coastal Sea level**

219 Because the material property transport in the coastal region is largely determined by sub-tidal
220 circulation, we focus on examining the model's fidelity in reproducing sub-tidal variability.
221 Point-by-point sea-level comparisons were made at five coastal tide gauges that can be resolved
222 by MABGOM model grid resolution (**Figure 3**). For clarity, the high-frequency variability was
223 removed from both modeled and observed 10 year long sea level time series with a 10-day low-
224 pass filter. Direct comparisons show the model is able to resolve sea level variations reasonably
225 well through the course of simulation. At the 95% confidence level, the correlation coefficients
226 between the two are above 0.40 at all these stations. Both wind-driven Ekman dynamics (Gill,
227 1990) and continental shelf wave dynamics (Brink, 1991) dominate coastal sea level variations.
228 The model-data agreements in coastal sea levels suggest the model is faithfully capturing these
229 dynamics.

230 **3.1.2. Satellite Altimeter Data**

231 The model skill in reproducing the shelf-wide sea surface height (SSH) distribution can be
232 examined by comparing to satellite altimeter data. Although altimetry observations have large
233 uncertainties nearshore due to problems such as tidal aliasing, they constitute extremely valuable
234 observations of sea level for the outer shelf and deep-sea regions. We downloaded $1/3^\circ \times 1/3^\circ$
235 absolute SSH product from the French Archiving, Validation and Interpolation of Satellite
236 Oceanographic Data [AVISO] (Rio and Hernandez, 2004) and mapped them for the MABGOM
237 region. Because the temporal interval of AVISO data is one day, MABGOM model SSH
238 solutions (averaged over M2 tidal cycle, ~ 12.42 hour) were sampled at the times when Altimeter
239 data were available. The respective SSH standard deviations (STD) were then computed to
240 quantify their corresponding sea level variability. SSH STD comparisons (**Figure 4**) reveal that
241 the MABGOM model underestimates the magnitude of observed sea level variations, but
242 captures its spatial distribution very well. Both AVISO and ROMS indicate that large SSH STDs
243 with a magnitude of up to about 0.4 m are present in the Slope Sea. This is the region where

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energetic meanders and eddies often occur, exerting a strong offshore influence on the MABGOM shelf circulation (Joyce et al., 1992).

3.1.3. Mooring Data

We next examined the model with hydrographic data observed by moorings of the Northeastern Regional Association of Coastal Ocean Observing System (NERACOOS, <http://www.neracoos.org>). Most of the NERACOOS mooring data cover the period from July 2001 to present, providing a valuable time series for assessing the model's skill in reproducing hydrographic variability. We have compared the model solutions against temperature and salinity recorded at multiple buoys. Figure 5 and 6 for example show the results at NERACOOS buoy B, which is located in the western GoM. Temperature comparisons between the simulation and in situ measurements at -2 m, -20m and -50 m (Figure 5) show agreement, with correlation coefficients being > 0.9 at all three depths. Similar model/data agreement was also seen at NERACOOS buoy A and other available stations. Admittedly, the surface heat flux relaxation scheme described in section 2.2 largely constrains surface temperature (-2 m). But the temperature evolution at deeper depths (i.e., -20 and -50 m) are controlled by the vertical mixing and advection. The fact that the model generally tracks subsurface temperature series suggests that the turbulence and advection processes are realistically simulated by the model. Several sources may contribute to the larger misfit in model simulated subsurface temperature field. These include the model's spatial resolution, the sensitivity of turbulence closure schemes (we used Mellor-Yamada scheme in this study), and water mass biases inherited from the global model. It is our intention to further improve this model and make the model output available to the community at large.

Modeled salinity time series were also compared with buoy observations (Figure 6 for Buoy B). While the model generally captures the observed salinity variations over the ten year period, the misfits between simulated and observed values are noted. The largest surface salinity difference is seen in spring 2013, with a discrepancy of 3 units. In other periods, the misfits between model and observation are around 1 unit. Such differences in salinity are likely related to the model resolution. Early studies (e.g., Fong and Geyer, 2002) show the characteristic length scale associated with river plumes is typically $O(1\text{ km})$, suggesting a more accurate salinity simulation requires a finer model resolution than what was used in this study. This caveat is left for future

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278 improvement with nested sub-regional high-resolution models, such as the high resolution model
279 studies reported by He et al. (2008) and Chen and He (2010).

280 3.1.4. Long-term mean depth-averaged shelf-current

281 Lentz (2008a) investigated depth-averaged shelf currents at 14 historical mooring sites cross the
282 MAB. Mean velocity vectors were computed by time averaging over > 200 days of data. As
283 Lentz (2008a) indicated, setting 200 days as the minimum duration for such averaging allows the
284 mean current estimates to have an accuracy of 1 cm s^{-1} . The resulting depth-average mean
285 velocities at all sites are equatorward and approximately along-isobath. For a direct comparison,
286 we used detided output of the MABGOM model, sampled the simulated depth-average currents
287 at the same 14 mooring locations and averaged them over the 10-year simulation duration. This
288 comparison (**Figure 7**) shows the MABGOM model captures the uniformly southwestward
289 motions at all 14 mooring sites. Both the observation and model show that the largest mean
290 current is off Georges Bank, moving at 0.1 m s^{-1} . The smallest current is nearshore by Delaware
291 Bay, moving at about 0.03 m s^{-1} . Differences in speed and direction are present for each pair of
292 velocity comparisons. This is in part due to the model resolution. Overall, it is encouraging to see
293 that the model is capable of reproducing the mean shelf circulation structure correctly.

294 3.2. Mean circulation

295 Given that the MABGOM model hindcast can produce a credible shelf circulation hindcast, we
296 next use the space- and time-continuous model solutions to depict the domain-wide mean
297 circulation fields. As discussed earlier, model-simulated state variables were temporally
298 averaged from January 1, 2004 to December 31, 2013 to calculate the mean circulation.

299 3.2.1 Mean circulation fields

300 The temporal means and standard deviations of near surface (vertical layer 36), near bottom
301 (vertical layer 2), mid-depth (vertical layer 18) and depth-averaged velocity fields, along with
302 their respective standard deviations, highlight the spatial complexity of MABGOM shelf
303 circulation (**Figure 8**). Three-dimensionality arises from geographic factors such as blocking by
304 capes, coastal changes, and nearshore penetration of deep isobaths, as well as from the effects of
305 baroclinicity and surface and bottom Ekman layers. The mid-depth and depth-averaged velocity

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309 fields are similar, showing the general nature of the mean currents exclusive of the Ekman layer
310 effects.

311 MABGOM model-simulated mean surface currents (**Figure 8a**) are consistent with the present
312 knowledge of regional oceanography. Known circulation features are well represented, including
313 inflow from the Scotian Shelf, cyclonic circulation in the GOM, anticyclonic circulation on
314 Georges Bank, and equatorward (southwestward) mean shelf flow over the MAB. Also visible is
315 the region near Cape Hatteras where southwestward-moving MAB shelf waters converge with
316 northward moving South Atlantic Bight (SAB) and Gulf Stream (GS) waters. While there is a
317 clear GS flow axis, abundant meso-scale eddy fields strongly perturb its mean velocity state. The
318 standard deviations of the velocity field are greatest in the GS/Slope Sea and shelf break area,
319 where meanders, eddies, and cross-shelf exchanges cause 20 – 50% fluctuations in speed.

320 The mean bottom current map (**Figure 8b**) shows that velocities are much weaker than surface
321 velocities, which is probably due to bottom friction. Additionally, in contrast to the northward-
322 moving GS surface flow, the bottom flow beneath the GS is moving equatorward. This is part of
323 the deep western boundary current that constitutes the lower limb of the Atlantic Meridional
324 Overturning Circulation (e.g., Hogg, 1983; Pickart and Smethie, 1993).

325 The depth-averaged current field (**Figure 8d**) is similar to the mid-depth (layer 18) current filed
326 (**Figure 8c**), and shows a clear cyclonic gyre in the Slope Sea between the shelfbreak and the
327 GS. This circulation feature is consistent with the concept of a “slope water gyre”, which was
328 first proposed by Csanady and Hamilton (1988) based on observational analyses.

329 **3.2.2 Mean velocity and thermohaline structure**

330 Mean shelf temperature, salinity, and velocity were sampled along five cross-shelf transects
331 (**Figure 9**) off Cape Cod, Long Island, New Jersey, Maryland and Cape Hatteras/North Carolina
332 (see locations in **Figure 1**). For illustration purposes, the mean velocity fields were rotated into
333 the normal and tangential directions of each transect, precisely reproducing alongshore and
334 cross-shelf velocity components.

335 Mean temperature transects (**Figure 9**, 1st column) show increasing temperature from north to
336 south. The mean surface temperature difference between North Carolina and Cape Cod transects
337 is ~ 8-10°C. Stronger tidal mixing off Cape Cod significantly reduces thermal stratification in the

338 area (He and Wilkin, 2006) as opposed to other transects, where the thermocline can be
339 identified at ~ 20 m below the surface. One distinctive temperature feature is the near-bottom
340 “cold pool” extending from the Cape Cod transect to the Maryland transect, the formation of
341 which is largely due to the persistence of winter water as the upper water column undergoes
342 seasonal heating and re-stratification (e.g., Houghton et al., 1982).

343 Large (up to 5 unit) cross-shelf salinity contrasts are evident along the entire shelf (**Figure 9**, 2nd
344 column). River plumes along the coast can extend to the mid-shelf and even the shelfbreak area,
345 where they are mixed with the saltier slope water. The tilted salinity front is a common feature at
346 the MAB shelf break, with the upper (lower) layer of the front moving offshore (onshore). The
347 subsurface salinity onshore intrusion has been examined by Lentz (2003), which suggested
348 multiple potential contributors, including processes of wind forcing, eddy activity, and double
349 diffusion.

350 Along-shelf velocity (**Figure 9**, 3rd column) shows a consistent southwestward (equatorward)
351 flow throughout the entire MAB shelf. Northward flows are seen only in the offshore area of the
352 southernmost section (i.e., the North Carolina transect). At all five transects, the maximum
353 alongshore flow is seen at the shelfbreak, with the highest speed of 0.25 m s^{-1} . This is the shelf
354 break jet, documented by earlier studies (e.g., Chen and He, 2010; Gawarkiewicz et al., 2001;
355 Gawarkiewicz et al., 2004; Linder and Gawarkiewicz, 1998). Mean cross-shelf velocity maps
356 (**Figure 9**, 4th column) offer further insights on the spatial extent of onshore and offshore flow
357 and how the shelf waters interact with the deep ocean. Compared to the along-shore flow, the
358 magnitude of cross-shelf flow is much weaker and exhibits more complex spatial patterns.
359 Multiple onshore and offshore flow segments are seen at all transects, especially near the bottom.
360 For example, it was found that the cross-shelf current along the Long Island transect is moving
361 shoreward (seaward) at depths shallower (deeper) than 50 m. The resulting bottom divergence is
362 consistent with both theoretical model results of (Lentz, 2008a) and drifter trajectory
363 observations of Bumpus (1965). We also note that near the shelf break there is a convergence of
364 seaward shelf flow and shoreward deep ocean flow. A similar bottom divergence pattern is also
365 seen off New Jersey and Maryland transects at ~ 50 m isobath, albeit with much weaker
366 magnitude. Interested readers are referred to (Lentz, 2008a) for the theoretical reasoning on why
367 the bottom divergence occurs.

368

369 4. Discussion

370 4.1. Mean Mixed Layer Depth

371 The ocean mixed layer depth (MLD) is an important parameter that accounts for upper ocean
372 physical and biological properties, air-sea interaction, and long-term climate change. Given that
373 the MABGOM is a coastal region supporting many important bio-geochemical processes and
374 experiencing climate regime shifts (Greene and Pershing, 2007), we used the model hindcast
375 fields to estimate the mean MLD for the region. We followed the approach of Monterey and
376 Levitus (1997) and defined the MDL as the physical depth at which the ambient temperature
377 within a profile is within 0.5°C of the sea surface temperature (**Figure 10**). It is noted that MLD
378 cannot be identified in regions with strong tidal mixing, such as Georges Bank, Nantucket
379 Shoals, and some shallow estuaries. For most coastal areas, the long-term mean MLDs are 10-15
380 m. Embedded in this long-term mean are strong seasonal variations in the MLD fields. In winter,
381 water column over most coastal region is well mixed except some deep basins in the GoM and
382 shelf edge in the MAB. The intrusion of warm slope water onto the MAB shelf may restratify the
383 shelf water in winter. During spring and summer, seasonal stratification develops, and the MLDs
384 are 5-15m over the entire shelf region. In fall, increased storm events break down the seasonal
385 thermocline and the MLDs start deepening. Strong tidal mixing in the GoM in combination of
386 atmospheric forcing can deepen the MLD up to 100m. We note that the MLD depends on the
387 method of calculation, and it is anticipated that these values will change using different
388 definition of MLD (Kara et al., 2000).

389 4.2. Mean Transport

390 Quantifying the alongshore transport between different coastal segment and the cross-shelf
391 exchange between the shelf sea and the Slope Sea have been long-term objectives of regional
392 circulation studies (e.g., Beardsley and Boicourt, 1981; Fratantoni et al., 2001; Loder et al., 1998;
393 Lozier and Gawarkiewicz, 2001). With space- and time-continuous circulation hindcast fields,
394 we can explore this problem from a numerical modeling perspective. We first divided the 200 m
395 isobath that defines the shelf-slope boundary into seven segments from North Carolina to Nova
396 Scotia. Transports cross this isobaths were used to assess water exchange between the MAB-
397 GOM coastal sea and the Slope Sea. Every segment is 200 km long except the Georges Bank to

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Deleted: MLDs are deeper in the GS and offshore basins of the Gulf of Maine, with typical values of 30-50 m. The mean MLD distribution exhibits some high-resolution details, but the overall features are largely consistent with the coarse resolution (1° x 1°) World Ocean Atlas (not shown).

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409 Scotian Shelf Segment, which is 600 km long to include the entire seaward perimeter. We then
 410 selected in the model domain from north to south seven cross-shelf transects, extending from the
 411 coast to the 200 m isobaths, to calculate the along-shelf transport.

412 Simulated 3-d velocity fields were rotated into the normal and tangential components based on
 413 the local orientations of each transect and segment. The normal component of velocity U_N was
 414 then integrated with local depth Z and local transect/segment length S to compute the volume
 415 transport according to:

$$416 \quad Q = \int_0^s \int_{-H}^{\eta} u_N(s, z) ds dz \quad (3)$$

417 We calculated both mean transport values and their standard deviations (STD) over the 10-year
 418 simulation. Together these values constitute a mean volume budget estimate for the MABGOM
 419 coastal ocean (**Figure 11**).

420 In the along-shelf direction, the mean transport values experience a gradual downstream
 421 reduction, decreasing from 2.33 Sv along the Nova Scotia transect to 0.52 Sv along the Cape
 422 Cod transect, and further to 0.22 Sv along the North Carolina transect. The results here are
 423 largely consistent with volume estimates by Lentz (2008a) and the “leaking” shelf concept
 424 proposed by Lozier and Gawarkiewicz (2001). STDs of these along-shelf mean transport values
 425 are of the same order of magnitude, implying along-shelf flow reversals are possible subject to
 426 different local (e.g., wind) and open ocean forcing scenarios. For instance, both satellite
 427 observations and MABGOM model simulations (not shown) indicate a large warm-core eddy
 428 impinged upon the MAB shelfbreak in summer 2006, resulting in strong northeastward shelf
 429 current during that period (Chen et al., 2014).

430 Volume variations of the along-shelf transport are balanced by cross-shelf water mass
 431 exchanges. Over the 10-year analysis period, the mean cross-shelf transports across the 200 m
 432 isobath were seaward. In particular, the mean cross-shelf transports off Cape Hatteras and the
 433 Gulf of Maine are much larger than others, signifying they are important sites for shelf water
 434 export. In the MAB, the cross-shelf transports are smaller, but exports at the southern New
 435 England and New Jersey/Delaware shelf break are larger. On average, a total of 3.03 Sv of
 436 coastal water is transported from the shelf to the open ocean.

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It is worth noting that these cross-shelf transports are characterized by very small means and significantly larger STDs. These STDs are at least an order of magnitude larger than the means, suggesting highly variable shelf/deep ocean exchange processes are at work. Presumably, such exchanges are closely related to eddy activities that often occur in these areas. The meandering of the shelfbreak front and resultant shelfbreak eddies, and the impingement of Gulf Stream Warm Core Rings (WCRs) all contribute to the highly variable shelf-slope exchange process. Using a high-resolution nested model based on current model, we have focused on the shelfbreak frontal system and discussed the cross-shelf process (Chen and He, 2010). The variability appeared in the second mode of EOF analysis of cross-shelf velocity is more likely related to eddy activities. In another study on a large WCR in 2006, we found that over a time scale of one week, the WCR can significantly change the cross-shelf exchange of water mass, heat and salt (Chen et al., 2014). Other work also reported the significant role of eddy activities in the cross-shelf exchange (e.g., Gawarkiewicz et al., 2001; Gawarkiewicz et al., 2004; Joyce et al., 1992). Measuring the cross-shelf transport at these locations will therefore be very challenging. A carefully designed observational array is needed to resolve circulation variability in order to achieve statistically robust in situ transport measurements.

4.3. Mean dynamical balances along the 200 m isobath

To further understand the circulation dynamics associated with transport across the 200 m isobath, we performed term-by-term depth-averaged momentum balance analysis. Each momentum term was averaged over the entire 10-year model analysis period. They were interpolated onto the 200 m isobath, and then rotated into the along- and cross-isobath directions according to local bathymetric orientation.

One immediate estimate this allowed us to make is the mean sea level gradient along the 200 m isobath, which can be computed according to:

$$\frac{\Delta\eta}{\Delta L} = -\frac{1}{gS} \int_0^S \left(-\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial P}{\partial l}\right) dl = 2.24 \times 10^{-7} \quad (4)$$

where $\partial P / \partial l$ is the temporal mean pressure gradient from the model, and S is the along-isobath distance of the 200 m isobath in the domain. This sea level gradient is consistent with the value estimated by Xu and Oey (2011), which reported a slope of 4.8×10^{-8} with a range of 10^{-7} , and is also consistent with the estimate by Zhang et al. (2011), which is $0.2\text{-}2.5 \times 10^{-7}$. It is equivalent to

467 a 0.36 m mean sea level difference over the 1600 km distance from the Nova Scotia shelf to the
468 North Carolina shelf, arguably contributing to the equatorward mean shelf circulation.

469 As expected, geostrophy dominates the dynamical balance in both the along- and cross- isobath
470 directions. The residue of the pressure gradient term plus the Coriolis term constitutes the
471 ageostrophic component, which is responsible for smaller-scale circulation variability in the
472 study domain. Contributions to the ageostrophic component come from the nonlinear advection
473 term, surface and bottom stress terms, and horizontal viscosity term, as presented together in
474 **Figure 12.** In both the along- and cross- 200 m isobath directions, the ageostrophic term is
475 largely balanced by nonlinear advection. This is especially the case off Cape Hatteras and
476 Georges Bank, where currents are very energetic. Compared to advection, the combined
477 contribution of horizontal viscosity and stress (the sum of surface and bottom stress) to the
478 ageostrophic term are, in general, an order of magnitude smaller.

479

480 5. Summary

481 A nested regional ocean model was developed to hindcast coastal circulation over the Middle
482 Atlantic Bight and Gulf of Maine (MABGOM) shelf from 2004 to 2013. This hindcast model
483 was nested inside the data assimilative global HYCOM/NCODA circulation analysis. At its
484 surface and lateral boundaries, it was driven by realistic atmospheric forcing, tidal harmonics and
485 observed river runoff. Our goal for MABGOM is to produce a more accurate model
486 representation of regional circulation by adding more complete coastal dynamics (i.e., river
487 discharge and tidal forcing, which are absent in the global model) to the regional model and
488 correcting biases in the global model. Such a regional model can then provide dynamically
489 consistent open boundary conditions (OBCs) for higher resolution nested models to investigate
490 more specific research questions in each sub-regions. For example, the MABGOM model had
491 provided OBCs for a Gulf of Maine coupled biophysical model (He et al., 2008; Li et al., 2009),
492 and a high-resolution circulation model focusing on the shelfbreak processes in the Middle
493 Atlantic Bight (Chen and He, 2010).

494 Extensive model/data comparisons indicate this MABGOM model model is capable of
495 reproducing the temporal and spatial variability of regional circulation. We also examined
496 comparisons between observations and HYCOM results to highlight the benefits of our own

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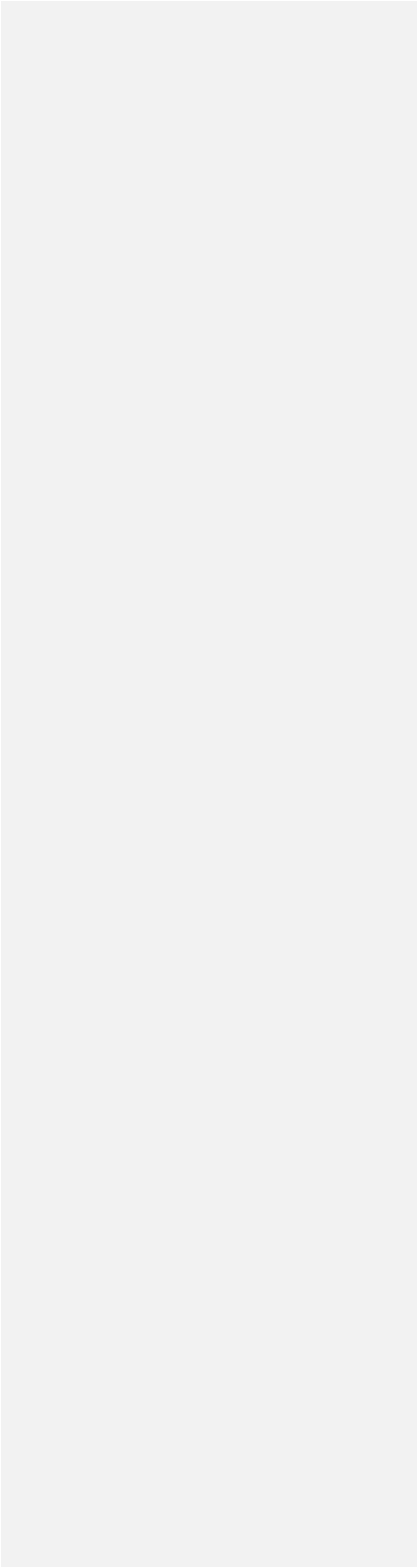
497 modeling approach. While surface temperature comparisons are very reasonable, we found clear
498 mismatch in the subsurface thermal structures generated by HYCOM/NCODA's surface
499 performance. HYCOM/NCODA also failed to resolve the surface variability due to the missing
500 of fresh water discharge from the coast (not shown). The comparison of depth-averaged current
501 further reveals the problem of this global model (not shown). HYCOM/NCODA systematically
502 underestimates the mean velocity vectors, and at many places fails to reproduce the equatorward
503 along-shelf flow. Using the time- and space-continuous circulation hindcast fields from January
504 2004 to December 2013, we further described the mean coastal circulation and its three-
505 dimensional structures. The along-shelf and cross-shelf transports were quantified. In the latter
506 case, the 200 m isobath was used as the boundary between the shelf sea and the deep ocean. Our
507 calculations confirmed the presence of the equatorward alongshore current. The alongshore
508 transport values gradually decrease from north to south, supporting the "leaky shelf" concept
509 proposed by earlier observational studies. The shelfbreak segments offshore of the Gulf of Maine
510 and Cape Hatteras appear to be the major sites of shelfwater export. Other segments along the
511 200 m isobath are characterized by significantly large cross-shelf transport variability, with
512 standard deviations up to an order of magnitude larger than the means. The momentum analysis
513 further indicates that the along-shelf sea level gradient from Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras is
514 about 0.36 m. Although measuring such a sea level gradient would be technically challenging,
515 such a pressure gradient can play an important role in driving the equatorward mean shelf
516 current. The nonlinear advection dominates the ageostrophic circulation in the cross-isobath
517 direction, whereas the advection, stress and horizontal viscosity terms all contribute ageostrophic
518 circulation in the along-isobath direction.

519 While the mean shelf circulation is the focus of this study, we note that the hindcast solutions
520 reveal that significant interannual variations are present in the MABGOM shelf circulation. We
521 leave the discussion of those to a future study. Admittedly, this MABGOM model model is still
522 of coarse resolution, so our discussions on the shelf water transport have emphasized the mean
523 flow advection. This is not to say that transport associated with smaller-scale wave, turbulence,
524 and transitory events such as the shelfbreak secondary circulation (e.g., Linder et al., 2004) are
525 not important. Deterministic predictions of circulation and transport in this area will clearly
526 require advanced observational infrastructure and a higher-resolution circulation model together
527 with sophisticated techniques for data assimilation.

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531 **Acknowledgement**

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537

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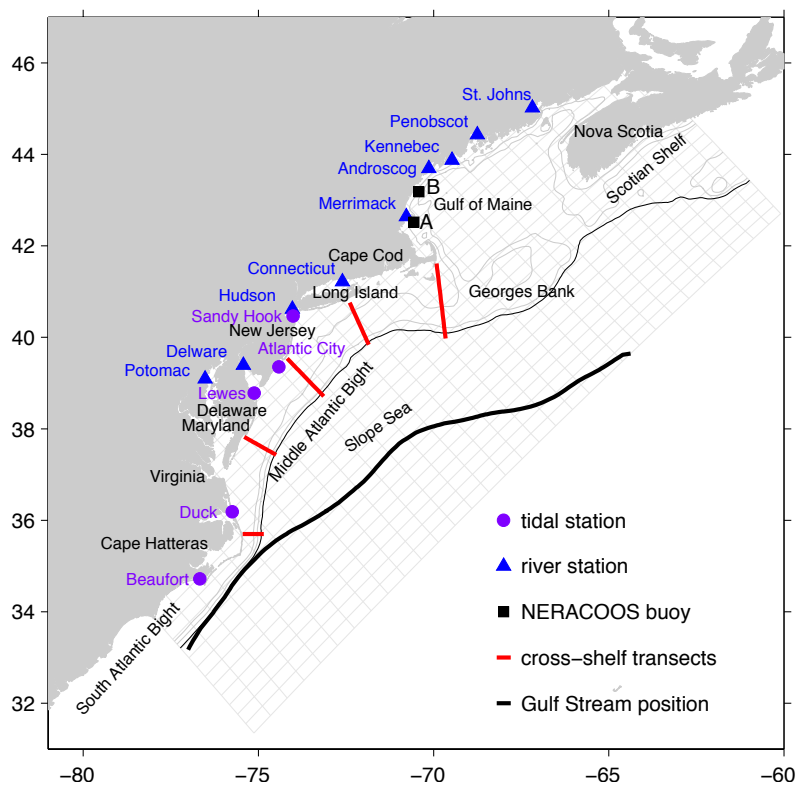
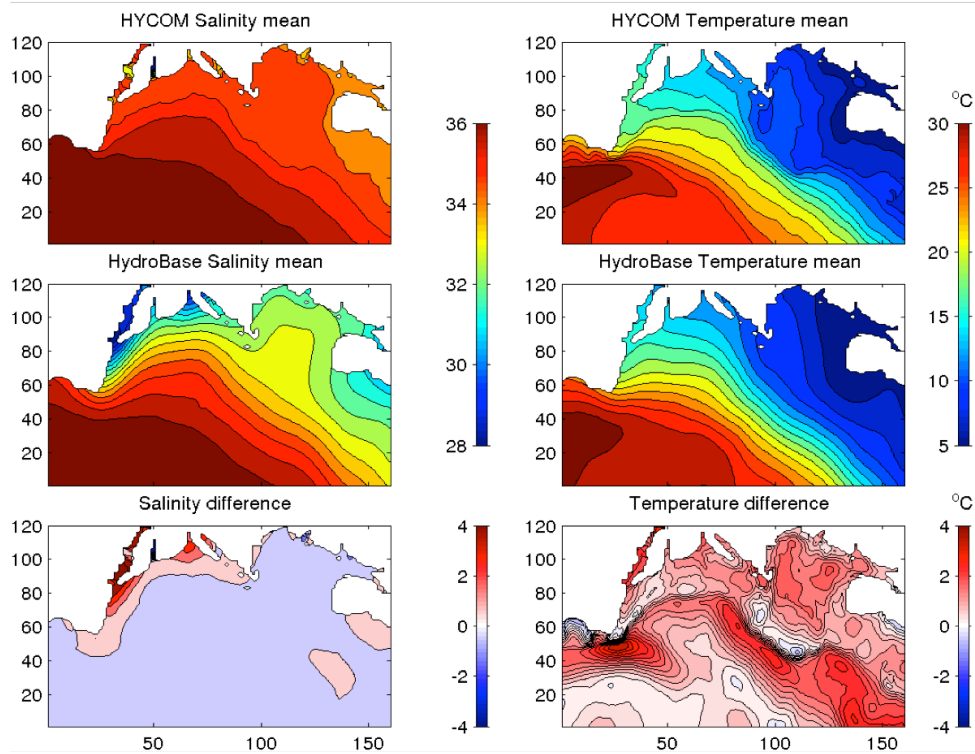


Figure 1. The MABGOM model grid (light gray, plot every five grid points) and locations of coastal sea level stations (purple circle), USGS river gauges (blue triangle), NERACOOS buoys (black square), and cross-shelf transects (red line) where the circulation was sampled, as discussed in section 3.2.2. The black dashed line denotes the mean path of Gulf Stream, determined by the 15 °C isotherm at 200 m (Joyce et al., 2000). The 50 and 100 m isobaths are shown in light gray, and the 200 m isobath is plotted in black. Geographic locations discussed in the text are also shown.



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Figure 2. Comparisons of surface (layer 36) salinity and temperature fields between HYCOM/NCODA (top panels) and HydroBase (mid-panels), and their misfits (bottom panels). X and Y axes denote grid numbers of the model.

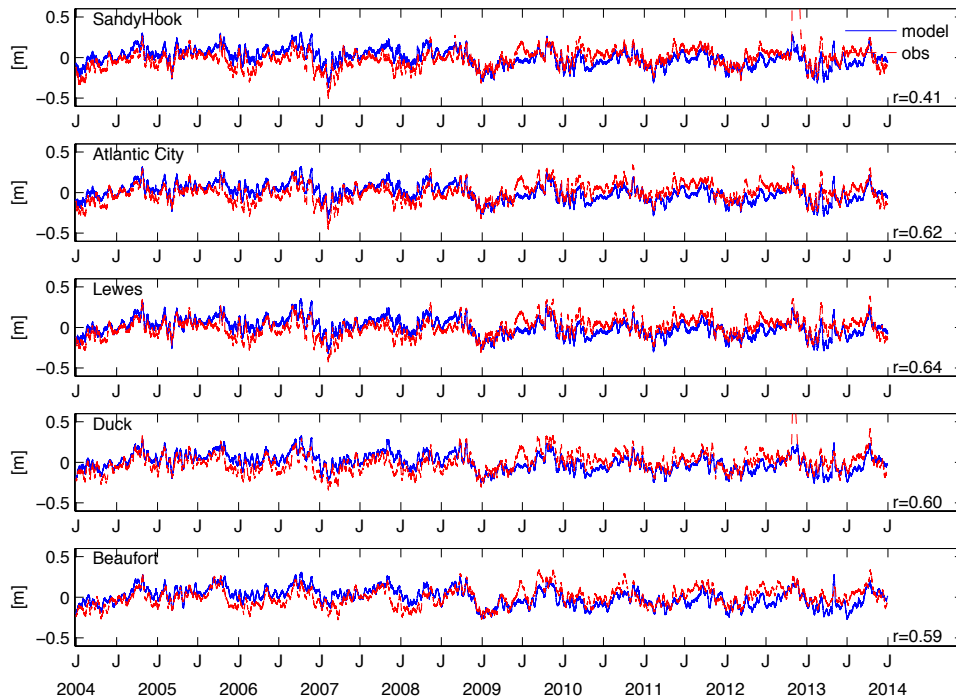
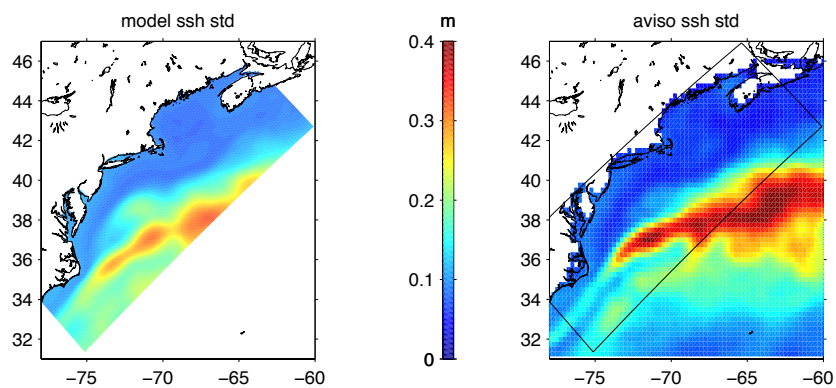
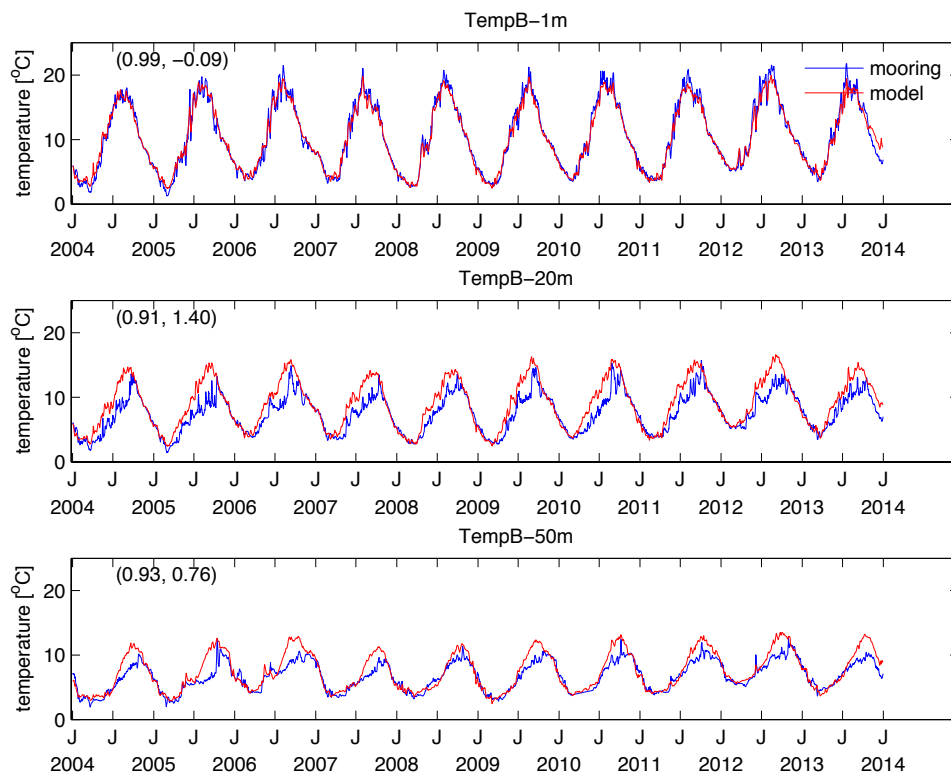


Figure 3. Comparisons of modeled and observed coastal sea levels. Time series are all 10 day low-pass filtered. The correlation coefficient (r , above with 95% confidence level) is also included for each comparison.



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688 Figure 4. Comparison of altimeter-observed and model-simulated sea surface height
689 standard deviation for the period from January 2004 to December 2013. Spatial correlation
690 between the results of model and AVISO is 0.89.
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Figure 5. Comparison of observed (mooring) and simulated temperature time series at NERACOOS mooring B. Linear correlation coefficients (r) and mean bias (b) are shown in parentheses (r, b) respectively in each panel.

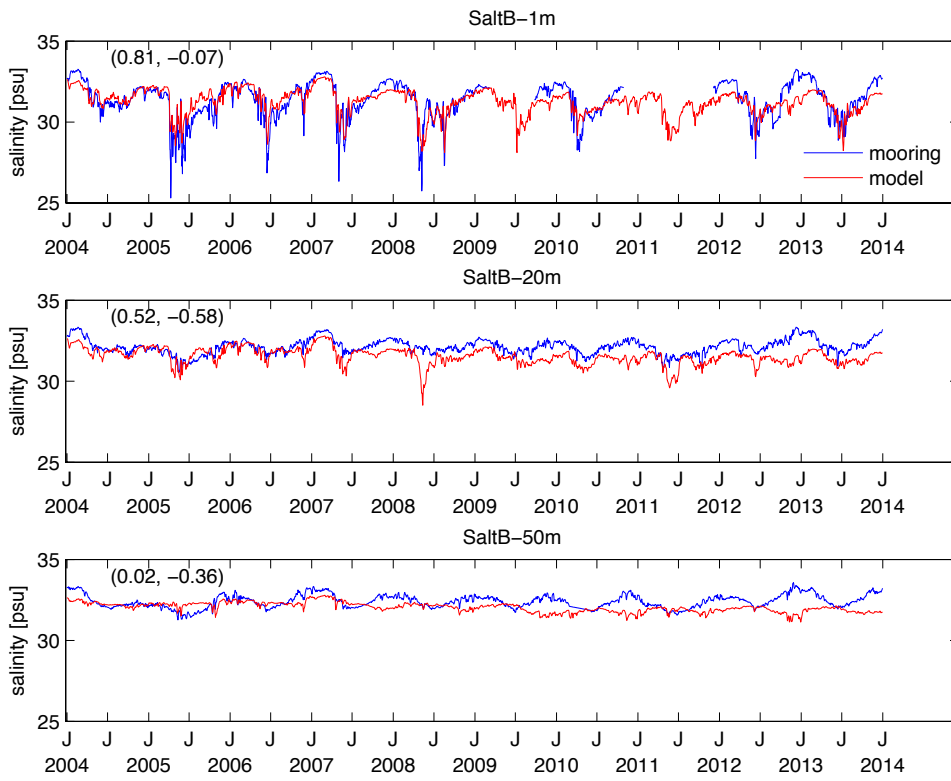


Figure 6. Comparison of observed (mooring) and simulated salinity time series at NERACOOS mooring B. Linear correlation coefficients (r) and mean bias (b) are shown in parentheses (r, b) respectively in each panel.

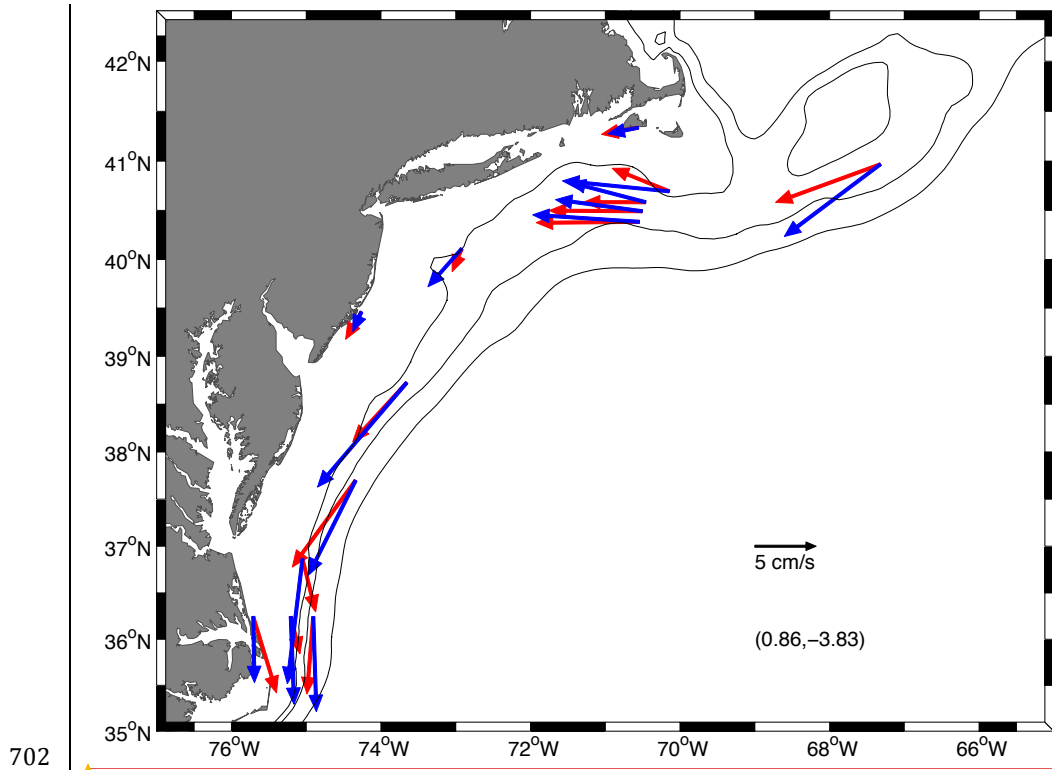
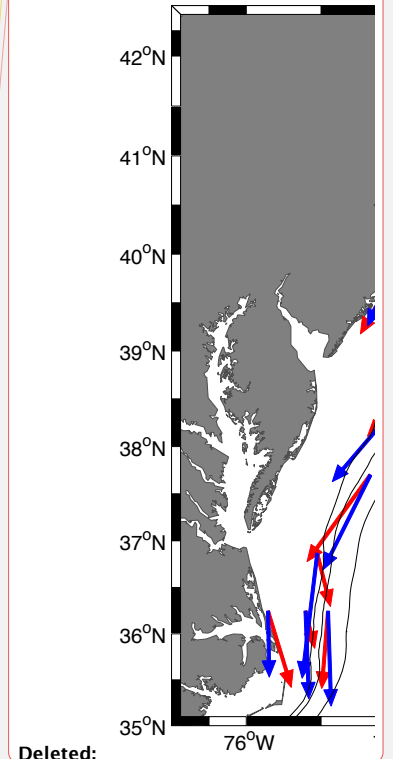


Figure 7. The comparison between observed (red,(Lentz, 2008a)) and MABGOM simulated (blue) mean along-shelf, depth-averaged currents. Amplitude and angle of complex correlation between the model and observation are shown in the parenthesis (amplitude, angle).

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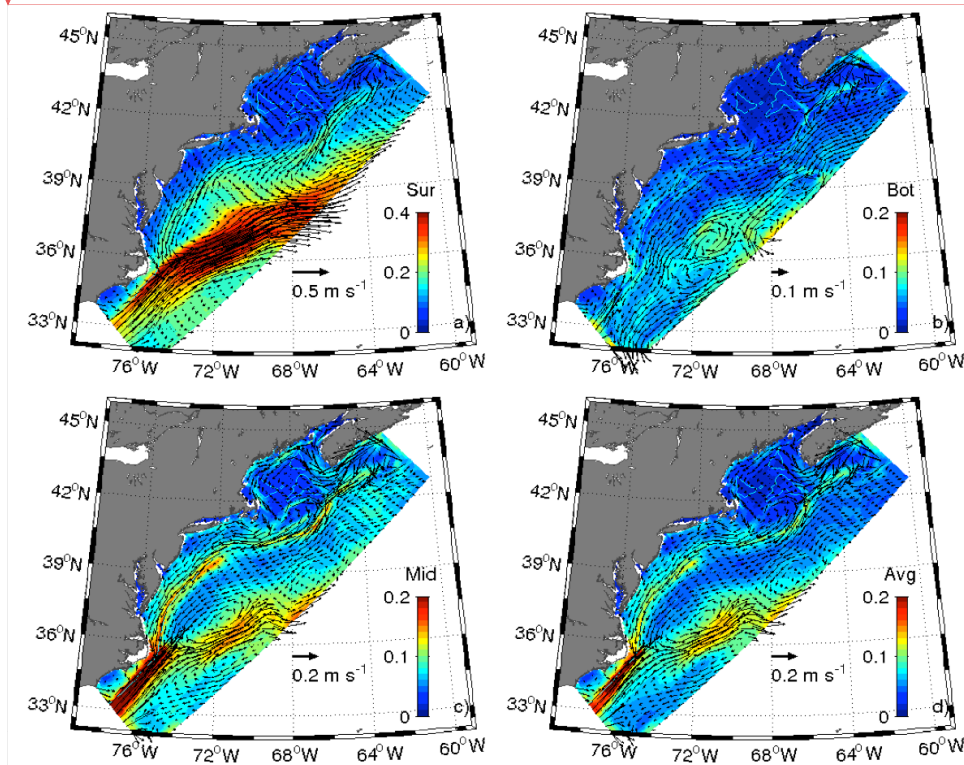
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712 Figure 8. Domain-wide mean velocity fields (vectors) and their associated speed
 713 deviations (color contour) at: surface (panel a), bottom (panel b), and mid-depth (panel c).
 714 Depth-averaged velocity field is shown in panel d. Near-surface currents are larger than
 715 those near the bottom; note scale changes.

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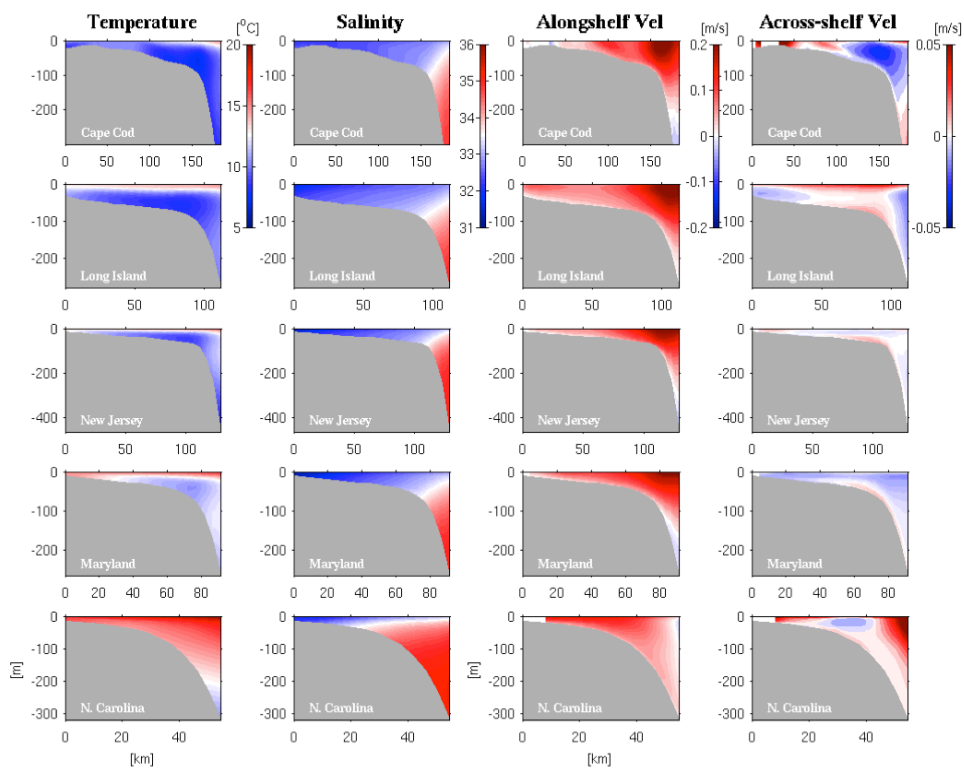


Figure 9. Mean cross-shelf transects (top transect to bottom transect is north to south) of temperature, salinity, alongshore and cross-shelf velocity. For velocity components, positive (red color) indicates equatorward and offshore, and negative (blue color) indicates pole-ward and onshore.

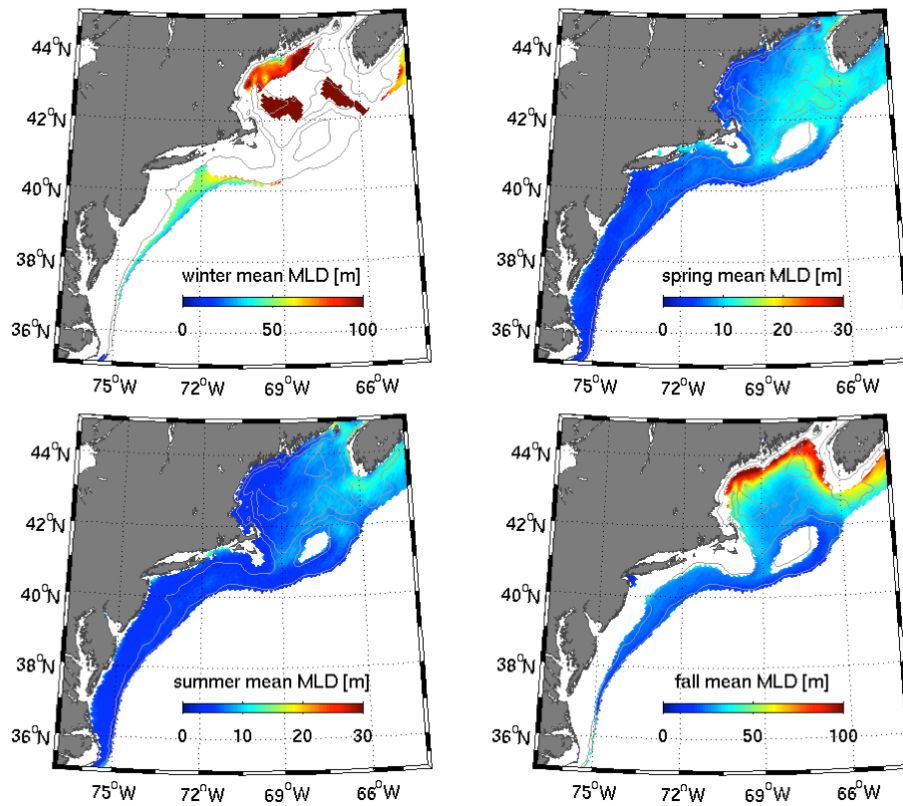
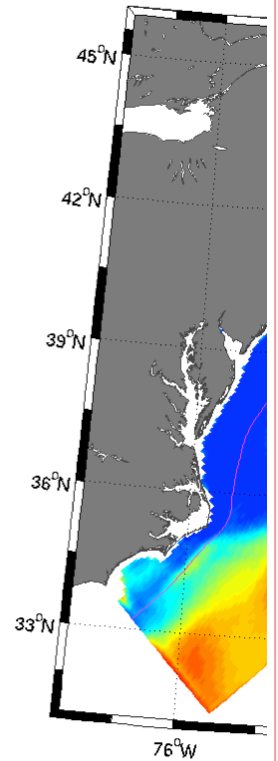


Figure 10. Simulated seasonal mean mixed layer depth (m) over the continental shelf (<200m) in the MABGOM domain. Four seasons are defined as follows: Jan-Mar (winter), Apr-Jun (spring), Jul-Sep (summer), Oct-Dec (fall). 50m, 100m, and 200m isobaths are shown.

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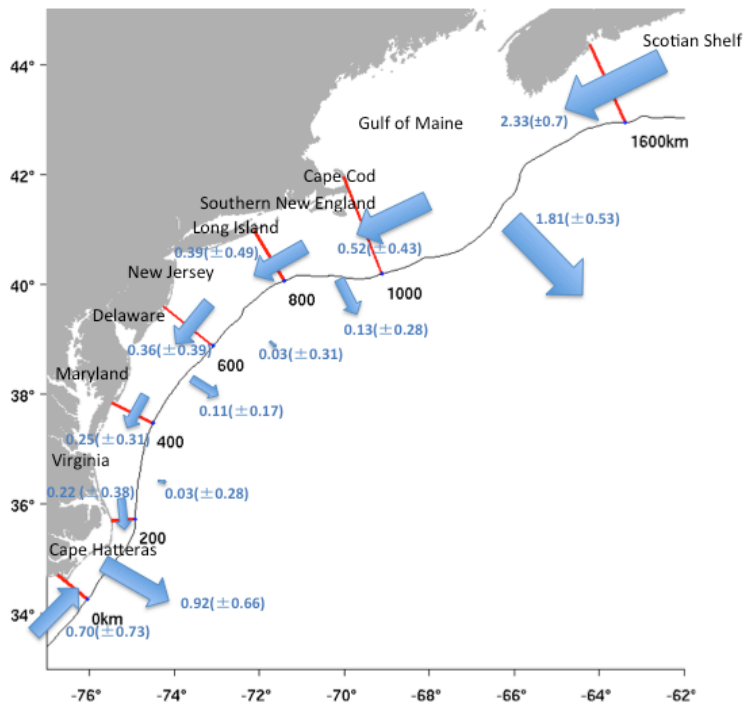
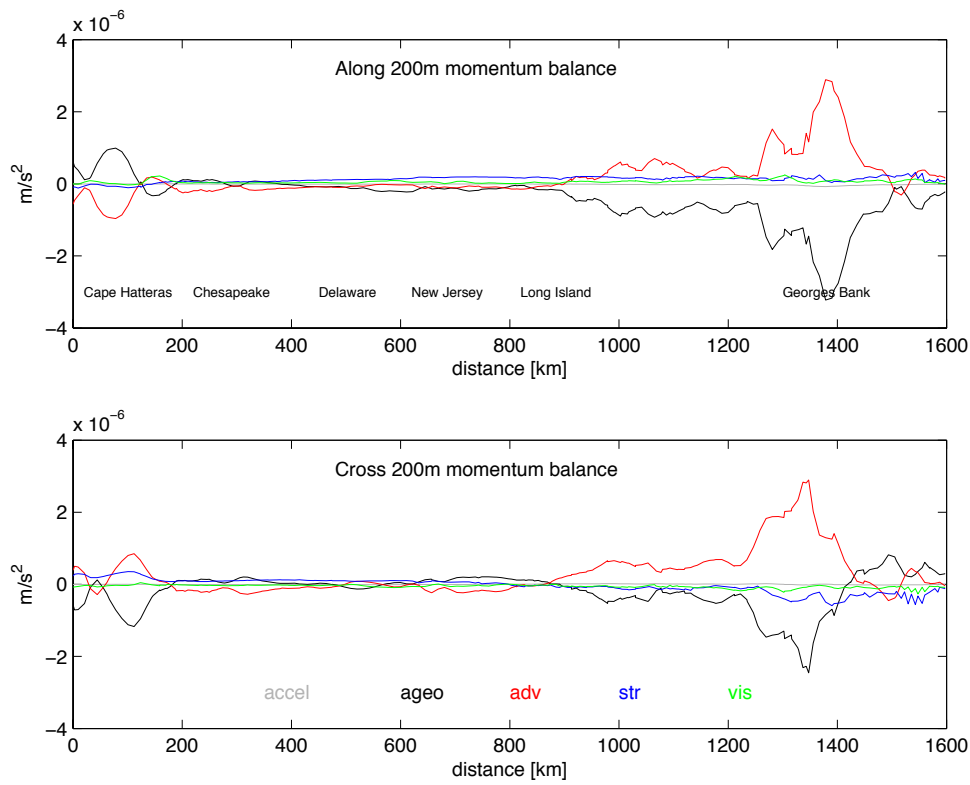


Figure 11. A schematic showing the mean circulation pattern in the MAB and GoM. The means (in Sv) and STDs (in parentheses) of transports (blue arrows) across transects in the model domain are shown.



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739 | Figure 12. Mean momentum term-by-term balances in along (upper) and across (lower)

740 | the 200 m isobath directions. Momentum terms in the figure represent time rate of change

741 | (accel), ageostrophic circulation (ageo), advection (adv), surface and bottom stress (str),

742 | and horizontal viscosity (vis).