

# 1 Predicting tidal heights for extreme environments: From 25 hr 2 observations to accurate predictions at Jang Bogo Antarctic Research 3 Station, Ross Sea, Antarctica

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8 **Abstract.** Accurate tidal height data for the seas around Antarctica are much needed, given the crucial role of these tides in  
9 regional and global ocean, marine cryosphere, and climate processes. However obtaining long term sea level records for  
10 traditional tidal predictions is extremely difficult around ice affected coasts. This study evaluates the ability of a relatively  
11 new, tidal species based approach, the Complete Tidal Species Modulation with Tidal Constant Corrections (CTSM+TCC)  
12 method, to accurately predict tides for a temporary observation station in the Ross Sea, Antarctica, using records from a  
13 neighbouring reference station characterised by a similar tidal regime. Predictions for the ‘mixed, mainly diurnal’ regimes of  
14 Jang Bogo Antarctic Research Station (JBARS) were made and evaluated based on summertime (2017; and 2018 to 2019)  
15 short-term (25 hr) observations at this temporary station, along with tidal prediction data derived from year-long observations  
16 (2013) from the neighbouring ‘diurnal’ regime of Cape Roberts (ROBT). Results reveal the CTSM+TCC method can produce  
17 accurate (to within ~5 cm Root Mean Square Errors) tidal predictions for JBARS when using short-term (25 hr) tidal data from  
18 periods with higher than average tidal ranges (i.e. those at high lunar declinations). We demonstrate how to determine optimal  
19 short-term data collection periods based on the Moon’s declination and/or the modulated amplitude ratio and phase lag  
20 difference between the diurnal and semidiurnal species predicted from CTSM at ROBT (i.e. the reference tidal station). The  
21 importance of using long period tides to improve tidal prediction accuracy is also considered and, finally, the unique tidal  
22 regimes of the Ross Sea examined in this paper are situated within a wider Antarctic tidal context using FES2014 model data.

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## 24 **1 Introduction**

25 Conventionally, year-long sea level records are used to generate accurate tidal height predictions via harmonic methods (e.g.  
26 Codiga, 2011; Foreman, 1977; Pawlowicz et al., 2002). Obtaining long term records for such tidal analyses is extremely  
27 difficult for sea ice affected coasts like that surrounding Antarctica. As a compliment to in situ tidal records, recent work has  
28 significantly advanced our understanding of tide models for the shallow seas around Antarctica and Greenland via the  
29 assimilation of laser altimeter data and use of Differential Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (DInSAR) imagery,  
30 amongst other methods (Padman et al., 2008; 2018; King et al., 2011; Wild et al., 2019). However, Byun and Hart (2015)  
31 developed a new approach to successfully predict tidal heights based on as little as 25 hr of sea level records when combined  
32 with neighbouring reference site records, using their Complete Tidal Species Modulation with Tidal Constant Corrections  
33 (CTSM+TCC) method, on the coasts of Korea and New Zealand. Demonstrating the usefulness of this method for generating  
34 accurate tidal predictions for new sites on sea ice affected coasts is the motivation for this study. We focus on the Ross Sea,  
35 Antarctica, as our case study area.

36 Long-term, quality sea level records in the Ross Sea are few and far between, and include observations from gauges operated  
37 by New Zealand at Cape Roberts (ROBT); by the United States in McMurdo Sound (see reference to data in Padman et al.,

38 2003); and by Italy at Mario Zucchelli Station (Gandolfi, 1996), all in the eastern Ross Sea. Permanent sea level gauge  
39 installations in this extreme environment must accommodate or somehow avoid surface vents freezing over with sea ice, and  
40 damage to subsurface instruments from icebergs. There is also the challenge of securing and preventing damage to the cables  
41 that join the subsurface instruments to their onshore data loggers and power supplies, across the seasonally dynamic and harsh  
42 coastal and subaerial environments of Antarctic shorelines. At ROBT, these issues have been avoided by sheltering the sea  
43 level sensor towards the bottom of a 10 m long hole, drilled through a large, shoreline boulder, from its surface ~2 m above  
44 the sea and sea ice level, to ~6 m below sea level, below the base of the sea ice (Glen Rowe, Technical Leader Sea Level Data,  
45 New Zealand Hydrographic Authority, *pers. comm.* 13 Dec. 2019). In the absence of a suitable permanent gauge site,  
46 hydrographic surveys have been conducted at the Korean Jang Bogo Antarctic Research Station (JBARS). Such surveys are  
47 best conducted during the summertime predominantly sea ice free window around mid-January to mid-February. Even then,  
48 mobile ice (Fig. 1) and severe weather events frequently hinder surveys via instrument damage or loss, not to mention the  
49 logistical difficulties of instrument deployment and recovery (Rignot et al. 2000). Accurate tidal records from the Ross Sea  
50 and other areas around Antarctica are thus scarce compared to those available from other regions, although these data are much  
51 needed given the crucial role of tidal processes around this continent (Han et al., 2005; Jourdain et al., 2018; Padman et al.,  
52 2003; 2018).

53 Floating ice shelves occupy around 75% of Antarctica's perimeter (Padman et al., 2018). Tidal oscillations at the ice-ocean  
54 interface influence the location and extent of grounding zones (Padman et al., 2002; Rosier and Gudmundsson, 2018), and  
55 control heat transfer and ocean mixing in cavities beneath the marine cryosphere (Padman et al., 2018; Wild et al., 2019) and  
56 the calving and subsequent drift of icebergs (Rignot et al. 2000). Tides also affect variability in polynyas; patterns of seasonal  
57 sea ice; and thus the functioning of marine ecosystems. And tides affect the dynamics of landfast sea ice, which provides  
58 aircraft landing zones for Antarctic science operations (Han and Lee, 2018).

59 Accurate Antarctic region tidal input data are needed for models examining changes in global climate and ocean circulation,  
60 including for the generation of Antarctic bottom water (Han and Lee, 2018; Wild et al., 2019). Data on coastal tides are also  
61 essential for studies of ice mass balance and motion (Han and Lee, 2018; Padman et al., 2008; 2018; Rignot et al. 2000; Rosier  
62 and Gudmundsson, 2018; Wild et al., 2019). Ice thickness is typically measured via the subtraction of tidal height oscillations  
63 from highly accurate, but relatively low frequency, satellite based observations of ice surface elevation and/or from in situ  
64 Global Navigation Satellite System (GNSS) instrument observations (Padman et al., 2008). For floating ice, this procedure is  
65 relatively straightforward but where ice shelves and glacier tongues occur, the mechanics of grounding zones and ice flexure  
66 render the determination of ice thickness and motion challenging (Padman et al. 2018; Rosier and Gudmundsson, 2018),  
67 making the accuracy of tidal height inputs crucial for effective ice modelling (Wild et al. 2019).

68 In this study, we tested applicability of Byun and Hart's (2015) CTSM+TCC method in an extreme observation environment  
69 using 25 hr short-term records from JBARS, our temporary tidal observation station, and year-long data from ROBT, the  
70 neighbouring reference station. Sect. 2 of this paper details the JBARS and ROBT observation data sets used to generate  
71 harmonic tidal analysis results and CTSM+TCC tidal predictions. Sect. 3 explains how the CTSM+TCC method was applied  
72 and adapted in this case study (with Appendix 1 detailing the calculations), while Sect. 4 demonstrates the CTSM+TCC tidal  
73 prediction capability. Sect. 5 discusses the generation of fortnightly tide effects and double tidal peaks; and situates the Ross  
74 Sea tides examined in this paper within the wider context of Antarctic tidal regimes.

## 75 **2 Antarctica's major tides: Observations and background**

### 76 **2.1 Study sites and data records**

77 The Korea Hydrographic and Oceanographic Agency (KHOA) survey team went to JBARS in Northern Victoria Land's Terra  
78 Nova Bay, Ross Sea, Antarctica, in the austral summertime of 2017 (Fig. 2) for a preliminary fieldtrip to conduct hydrographic

79 surveys and produce a nautical chart. This mission collected the first, 19 day sea level records for JBARS: 10 min interval  
80 observation data, recorded between 28 Jan. and 16 Feb. 2017 using a bottom-mounted pressure sensor (WTG-256S AAT,  
81 Korea). High-frequency sea level oscillations ( $<3$  hr) were removed from the observation record using a fifth-order low-pass  
82 Butterworth filter. Note that the first and last days of this campaign comprised partial day records, so we excluded these end  
83 days from our tidal prediction experiments, since our method requires continuous 25 hr input data (for convenience, starting  
84 at midnight). That left 17 days and 1 hour of useable tidal observation data as the basis of the primary JBARS observation  
85 record.

86 For the purposes of a full-scale survey, three additional, discontinuous sea level observation records were measured by KHOA  
87 at JBARS between 29 Dec. 2018 and 11 Mar. 2019, all at 10 min intervals using the same instrument. Of these, the 20.54 day  
88 record produced between 29 Dec. 2018 and 18 Jan. 2019 comprised relatively high quality data with small residuals (i.e.  
89 observations minus predictions). We used this additional dataset (hereafter referred to as the JBARS 2019 observations) to  
90 verify CTSM+TCC method tidal predictions generated from input parameters derived from ‘daily’ (25 hr) slices of the 2017  
91 sea level records. Due to the short duration of the KHOA survey team’s forays into the Ross Sea, and in the absence of a  
92 permanent tide station at JBARS, it was not possible to collect the year-long sea level records that are commonly employed to  
93 obtain reliable tidal harmonic constants for tidal prediction.

94 Approximately 269 km south of JBARS, there is a permanent tidal observation station named after its location on Cape Roberts  
95 (ROBT), operated by Land Information New Zealand (LINZ) and recording at intervals since November 1990 (Fig. 2). Five  
96 minute interval sea level data have been collected at ROBT since November 2011 using Standard Piezometers (Model 4500,  
97 GEOKON). Part of the 2017 record from this site was unavailable online at the time of starting this research, so instead we  
98 chose as our reference records the 2013 ROBT sea level data, a quality year-long dataset with few missing points.

## 99 **2.2 Tidal characteristic analyses and descriptions**

100 Using the T\_TIDE toolbox (Pawlowicz et al., 2002), we obtained the tidal harmonic constants of the 8 and 6 major tidal  
101 constituents for ROBT and JBARS, respectively (Table 1). Also the inference method was used to separate out neighbouring  
102 diurnal ( $K_1$  and  $P_1$ ) and semidiurnal ( $S_2$  and  $K_2$ ) tide constituents, with their amplitude ratios and phase lag differences obtained  
103 from harmonic analysis of the long-term ROBT reference station records. Analyses revealed that the two main diurnal ( $O_1$  and  
104  $K_1$ ) and semidiurnal ( $M_2$  and  $S_2$ ) tides had similar amplitudes at the two stations, with the diurnal (semidiurnal) amplitudes  
105 being slightly larger (smaller) at ROBT than at JBARS, and the phase lags of all four tides having only slightly different values.  
106 The amplitude differences result in slightly different tidal form factors at the two sites (e.g.,  $F$  in Table 1).

## 107 **3 Using the CTSM+TCC tidal prediction methodology in the Ross Sea**

108 Having analysed the tidal harmonic constants at the two stations, we then employed the CTSM+TCC method (Byun and Hart,  
109 2015) to generate tidal height predictions for JBARS, our ‘temporary’ tidal observation station (subscript  $o$ ), using ROBT as  
110 the ‘reference’ station (subscript  $r$ ). This prediction approach (see Appendix 1 for the detailed calculations, and Byun and Hart  
111 (2015) for explanation of procedure development) is based on:

- 112 (i) using long-term (1 year, in our case) reference station records ( $LH_r$ ) and CTSM calculations to make an initial  
113 anytime ( $\tau$ ) tidal prediction ( $\eta_r(\tau)$ ), which involves summing tidal species’ heights for the reference station (Fig.3);
- 114 (ii) comparing the tidal harmonic constants (amplitude ratios and phase lag differences) of representative tidal  
115 constituents (e.g.,  $M_2$  and  $K_1$ ) for each tidal species between the temporary and reference stations, calculated using  
116 T\_TIDE and concurrent short-term records ( $\geq 25$  hr duration, starting at midnight) from the temporary ( $SH_o$ ) and  
117 reference ( $SH_r$ ) stations; and

118 (iii) using the step (ii) comparative data and the TCC calculations for each tidal species to adjust the  $\eta_r(\tau)$  tidal species'  
119 heights in order to generate accurate, anytime tidal height predictions for the temporary tidal station ( $\eta_o(\tau)$ ).  
120 In this Ross Sea case study we used the 2017 JBARS tidal observation records (i.e. 17.04 days from 00:00 29 Jan. to 01:00 15  
121 Feb.) as a source of  $SH_o$ , keeping the second JBARS 2019 observation record for evaluation purposes.  
122 Importantly, this method assumes that the reference and temporary tidal stations are situated in neighbouring regimes with  
123 similar dominant tidal constituent and tidal species characteristics, and that the tidal properties between the two stations remain  
124 similar through time. As explained above, both JBARS and ROBT have tidal regimes that are primarily dominated by diurnal  
125 tides.  $LH_r$  must comprise high quality (e.g. few missing data) tidal height observations from anytime.  
126 Byun and Hart (2015) recommended the use of short-term records gathered during periods of calm weather, to minimise errors  
127 due to atmospheric influences. They employed observational data for both  $SH_o$  and  $SH_r$  but as demonstrated in this paper the  
128 method can also be applied using tidal predictions as a source of  $SH_r$ . This adjustment in approach arose since for the 2017  
129 JBARS observation time period, the concurrent 2017 ROBT records available online (LINZ, 2019) had multiple missing data.  
130 We solved this issue by producing a year-long synthetic 2017 record for ROBT using T\_TIDE (Pawlowicz et al., 2002) and  
131 the 2013 (i.e.  $LH_r$ ) observational record as input data. The 17.04 days of predicted tides that were concurrent with the 2017  
132 JBARS observation record were then used as our  $SH_r$  source. While this CTSM+TCC method adjustment was procedurally  
133 small, it represents an important adaptation in the context of generating tidal predictions for stations situated in extreme  
134 environments, since concurrent temporary and reference station observations might be rare in such contexts.  
135 When using CTSM+TCC, if the available temporary tidal station observation record covers multiple days, it is best practice  
136 to experiment by generating multiple  $\eta_o(\tau)$ , each using different concurrent pairs of  $SH_o$  and  $SH_r$  daily data slices in step (ii)  
137 above, to produce daily amplitude ratios and phase lag differences between the two stations for the diurnal  $K_1$  and semidiurnal  
138  $M_2$  tidal constituents. Comparisons are then made between the different  $\eta_o(\tau)$  data sets produced and the original temporary  
139 station observations, to determine the optimal 25 hr window to use: once selected, tidal height predictions can be generated  
140 for the temporary observation station for any time period. Thus, 17 individual 25 hr duration data slices were clipped from the  
141 2017 JBARS observation records and from the concurrent ROBT predictions, forming 17 pairs of  $SH_o$  and  $SH_r$  'daily' slices.  
142 Each paired data set was then used with  $LH_r$  to generate tidal height predictions for JBARS covering both the 2017 and 2019  
143 KHOA observation campaign time periods. Comparisons were made between the JBARS observations and the 17 prediction  
144 data sets generated for each campaign to identify which 25 hr short-term data window produced optimal  $\eta_o(\tau)$  results.

## 145 **4 Results**

### 146 **4.1 Tidal prediction evaluation**

147 CTSM+TCC was used to produce 17 different JBARS tidal prediction datasets for the period 29 Jan. to 14 Feb. 2017, based  
148 on harmonic analysis results of the 'daily' (25 hr)  $K_1$  and  $M_2$  amplitudes and phase lags at our two tidal observation stations  
149 (Fig. 4). In order to evaluate these results, each predicted tidal height data set was compared with the concurrent JBARS field  
150 observations via Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) statistics. As illustrated in Fig. 5, the  
151 RMSE and  $R^2$  results varied in relation to the JBARS tidal range (range being twice amplitude), with greater accuracy evident  
152 in predictions made using data derived from periods with above average tidal ranges.  
153 In the JBARS area of the Ross Sea during our 2017 observation period, above average tidal ranges corresponded to the period  
154 when the moon was near its greatest northern declination. RMSEs between observations and predictions ranged from 4.26 cm  
155 to 20.56 cm, while  $R^2$  varied from 0 to 0.94, across the 17 'daily' experiments. Eleven of the experiments produced accurate  
156 results (i.e. excluding those derived from 31 Jan.; and 1 to 4 and 14 Feb. data slices). Daily datasets from periods with relatively  
157 high tidal ranges ( $>83.5$  cm) produced predictions with RMSEs  $<5$  cm and  $R^2$  values  $>0.92$ . The maximum spring tidal range  
158 occurred on 9 Feb.: the data slices from this date produced predictions with a low (but not the lowest) RMSE (4.81 cm). The

159 predictions with the lowest RMSE (4.259 cm) and highest  $R^2$  value (0.941) were produced using data slices from one day  
 160 earlier, 8 Feb. 2017. In contrast to the majority of successful experiments, the experiment based on data derived from the 2  
 161 Feb. 2017 data slices produced predictions with very high RMSE (20.56 cm) and very low  $R^2$  (0.00) values. The 2 Feb. 2017  
 162 tides were characterised by the smallest tidal range (11.95 cm) of the JBARS record, during a period of low lunar declination.  
 163 As with the 2017 predictions, RMSEs between the 2019 predictions and observations were lower when generated using data  
 164 slices from 2017 periods at high lunar declination (Fig.6). For example, 2019 predictions made using input data derived from  
 165 the 8 Feb. 2017 data slices produced the lowest RMSE (5.3 cm) and highest  $R^2$  (0.913) values of the 2019 experiments (Fig.  
 166 7).

167 These results show that the CTSM+TCC method can be used successfully to predict tidal heights for JBARS, when using  
 168 observation records gathered from periods at high lunar declination (sometimes called tropic tides), with relatively calm  
 169 weather, together with observation or prediction records from the neighbouring reference station ROBT.

#### 170 4.2 Determining the ideal short-term sea level observation period when using CTSM+TCC

171 The previous section verified that the CTSM+TCC method can be used to generate accurate tidal predictions based on 25 hr  
 172 sea level records, from periods with above average tidal ranges, for a temporary station in a mixed, mainly diurnal regime and  
 173 a reference station in a diurnal regime. The question arises as to how to determine optimal observation days in such settings to  
 174 produce the most accurate tidal predictions.

175 For semidiurnal or mixed, mainly semidiurnal tidal regimes, we can estimate preferred temporary station observation days,  
 176 those with the largest tidal ranges, based on the moon's phase, without reference to tide tables. That is, spring tides commonly  
 177 occur just a day or two after the full and new moon, which reoccurs at a period of 14.76 days. The time lag between the full or  
 178 new moon and the spring tide is called the age of the tide ( $AT$ ).

179 Similarly, in a diurnal tide regime or a mixed, mainly diurnal tide regime (Fig. 5), preferred temporary station observation  
 180 days can be estimated based on the lunar declination, which varies at a period of 13.66 days. That is, maximum tidal range  
 181 days can be estimated for JBARS based on the day of the Moon's greatest northern (GN) and southern (GS) declinations. The  
 182 time between the Moon's semi-monthly GN and GS declinations and their effects on tidal range, called the age of diurnal  
 183 inequality ( $ADI$ ), is commonly 1 to 2 days. As shown in Fig. 8, the GN and GS lunar declinations during our temporary station  
 184 summertime observation periods occurred on 8 Feb. 2017 (GN) and on 6 Jan. 2019 (GS) respectively, with the maximum  
 185 diurnal tides at JBARS expected around 1 day after each lunar declination peak.

186 Thus, when planning to use the CTSM+TCC tidal prediction method for places characterised by diurnal or mixed,  
 187 predominantly diurnal tidal regimes, we can use knowledge of the moon's declination to select potential sea level observation  
 188 days.

#### 189 4.3 Comparison of ROBT and JBARS tidal species characteristics

190 The CTSM+TCC tidal prediction method is based on the assumption that the tidal harmonic characteristics of each tidal species  
 191 are very similar between the temporary and reference stations. This is because the reference station tidal species' CTSMs form  
 192 the basis of the tidal predictions for the temporary observation station. To test the validity of this assumption, we examined  
 193 the phase lag ( $G$ ) differences of the two major diurnal and semidiurnal tidal constituents using  $ADI$  and  $AT$ , calculated as:

$$194 \quad ADI \text{ (day)} = \left( \frac{G_{K_1} - G_{O_1}}{\omega_{K_1} - \omega_{O_1}} \right) / 24, \text{ and} \quad (1)$$

$$195 \quad AT \text{ (day)} = \left( \frac{G_{S_2} - G_{M_2}}{\omega_{S_2} - \omega_{M_2}} \right) / 24, \quad (2)$$

196 where  $\omega_{K_1}$  ( $= 15.0410686^\circ \text{ hr}^{-1}$ ),  $\omega_{O_1}$  ( $= 13.9430356^\circ \text{ hr}^{-1}$ ),  $\omega_{S_2}$  ( $= 30.0000000^\circ \text{ hr}^{-1}$ ), and  $\omega_{M_2}$  ( $= 28.9841042^\circ \text{ hr}^{-1}$ ) are the  
 197 angular speeds of the  $K_1$ ,  $O_1$ ,  $S_2$  and  $M_2$  tides, respectively. Results revealed that the  $ADI$  are very similar, and there is  $<1$  day  
 198  $AT$  difference, between ROBT and JBARS respectively (Table 1), indicating that the tidal characteristics of the representative

199 tidal constituents for each species between the two stations are very similar, in particular the dominant diurnal species. This  
200 similarity explains why we found the CTSM+TCC method successful in generating our Ross Sea tidal predictions.

## 201 **5 Discussion**

### 202 **5.1 Explaining fortnightly tide effects and double tide peaks in the Ross Sea tidal predictions**

203 We have demonstrated that the CTSM+TCC approach can produce reasonably accurate tidal predictions (RMSE <5 cm,  $R^2$   
204 >0.92) for a new site in the Ross Sea, Antarctica, based on 25 hr temporary station observation records from periods with  
205 above average tidal ranges, plus neighbouring reference station records. Our results compare favourably with those of Han et  
206 al. (2013), who reviewed the tidal height prediction accuracy of 4 models for Terra Nova Bay, Ross Sea: these models  
207 generated similar quality results to our CTSM+TCC results, with  $R^2$  values between 0.876 and 0.907, and RMSEs ranging  
208 from 3.6 to 4.1 cm. However, as shown in Fig. 7, our results contain a changing fortnightly timescale bias in estimates. This  
209 error pattern likely resulted from our application of CTSM+TCC considering only 2 major tidal species (diurnal and  
210 semidiurnal) whilst ignoring several long period and small amplitude short period tides.

211 Table 2 summarises the characteristics of 6 long-period tides ( $S_a$ ,  $S_{sa}$ ,  $MS_m$ ,  $M_m$ ,  $M_f$ ,  $MS_f$ ) at the ROBT station, derived from  
212 tidal harmonic analysis of year-long (2013) in situ observation records. To investigate the main cause of the apparent  
213 fortnightly prediction biases in our JBARS results, in particular that in the 2019 predictions (Fig. 7b), we examined the effects  
214 of two fortnightly tidal constituents ( $M_f$ , and  $MS_f$ ) at ROBT. Three 2019 tidal prediction experiments were conducted:

- 215 • *Srun* excluded all long-period tides (see list of exclusions in Table 2);
- 216 • *Run1* was based on *Srun* but also incorporated the  $M_f$ ; and
- 217 • *Run2* was based on *Srun* but also incorporated the  $M_f$  and  $MS_f$ .

218 Comparisons between *Run1* and *Srun* predictions show that exclusion of the  $M_f$  tide (2.7 cm amplitude) can produce prediction  
219 biases during periods of lunar declination change (Fig. 9a), with comparisons between *Run2* and *Run1* results showing that  
220 the additional exclusion of the  $MS_f$  tide (1.2 cm amplitude) intensifies the biases (Fig. 9b).

221 Rosier and Gudmundsson (2018) found that ice flows are modulated at various tidal frequencies, including that of the  $MS_f$   
222 tide. However, because these tides' amplitudes have small signal-to-noise ratios (<1) with large standard errors (Table 2),  
223 caution should be exercised when elucidating fortnightly tide effects using these constituents. Nevertheless, studies indicate  
224 that incorporating major and minor tidal constituents, including long period tides, into tidal predictions may be advantageous  
225 for their use in ice flow and ice-ocean front modelling specifically (e.g. Rignot et al., 2000; Rosier and Gudmundsson, 2018).  
226 Consideration of additional, long period tides in predictions is one recommendation we have for future work on improving  
227 tidal predictions for Ross Sea coasts.

228 Another characteristic of our results needing explanation is the double tidal peaks evident in both the tidal observations and  
229 predictions at JBARS. These peaks occur, for example, in Fig. 7b between Jan. 11<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup>, 2019. To explore why these  
230 double peaks occur, we generated JBARS tidal height predictions using Eq. (A1) and the 2019 tidal constants listed in Table  
231 1 for the two major diurnal and semidiurnal tides. Fig. 10a shows separately the resulting diurnal (with their period of 13.66  
232 days) and semidiurnal (with their period of 14.77 days) species' tide predictions. The combination of these out-of-phase tidal  
233 species generates double peaks (or double troughs) around low tide (Fig. 10b) for periods when the diurnal tide amplitudes are  
234 low, and the amplitude ratio of the semidiurnal to diurnal tide species is >0.5 (Fig. 10c). Double peaks also occur around high  
235 tide during periods of low lunar declination (Fig. 8b), when the semidiurnal to diurnal species amplitude ratio is >1, and the  
236 phase lag difference between the diurnal and semidiurnal species is between  $-78^\circ$  and  $46^\circ$  (Fig. 10). Since the semidiurnal tides  
237 are slightly stronger, and the diurnal tides are slightly weaker, at JBARS compared to at ROBT (Table 1), these double tide  
238 peaks occur more commonly at JBARS (e.g., compare Fig. 5b and Fig. 7).

## 239 5.2 Understanding the contrasting tidal environments around Antarctica

240 Figure 11 illustrates the form factors of tidal regimes in the seas surrounding Antarctica, according to FES2014 model data.  
241 There are large areas characterised by diurnal ( $F > 3$ ); mixed, mainly diurnal ( $1.5 < F < 3$ ); and mixed, mainly semidiurnal  
242 ( $0.25 < F < 1.5$ ) forms. Only in a small area half-way along the Weddell Sea coast of the Antarctic Peninsula (at  $72^\circ\text{S}$ ) do tides  
243 exhibit a semidiurnal form ( $F < 0.25$ ). Strong diurnal tides predominate in the Ross Sea area of West Antarctica, around to the  
244 Amundsen Sea. In addition, a small area near Prydz Bay (Fig. 2) in East Antarctica exhibits diurnal and mixed mainly diurnal  
245 tides. The rest of the seas surrounding Antarctica, including the Weddell Sea, are predominantly characterised by mixed,  
246 mainly semidiurnal tides.

247 Since diurnal tides have larger nodal amplitude factor and nodal angle variations than semidiurnal tides (Pugh and Woodworth,  
248 2014), areas like the Ross Sea will have larger variations in tidal height across the 18.61 year lunar nodal cycle compared to  
249 areas like the Weddell Sea. As the nodal angle variations of the diurnal and semidiurnal tides are out of phase, this leads to  
250 differing tidal responses around Antarctica over 18.61 years, particularly between the Ross and Weddell Seas (see details for  
251 ROBT in Byun and Hart, 2019). Given that CTSM+TCC is based on modulated tidal amplitude and phase lag corrections for  
252 each diurnal and semidiurnal species, it is applicable in studying a continent with such a diversity of tidal regime types.  
253 Accurate (cm scale) quantification of the contrasting tidal behaviours and environments around Antarctica's margins are not  
254 only of use for polar station maritime operations, they are essential for estimating ice flows to the sea. This paper has shown  
255 how the CTSM+TCC approach may be used to complement existing efforts to quantify variations in tidal processes around  
256 Antarctica, in particular for places with sparse in situ tidal monitoring, such as the Ross Sea.

## 257 6 Conclusions

258 This paper has demonstrated the usefulness of the CTSM+TCC method for tidal prediction in extreme environments, where  
259 long-term tidal station installations are difficult, using the Ross Sea in Antarctica for our case study. Here CTSM+TCC  
260 methods can be employed for accurate tidal height predictions for a temporary tidal observation station using short-term ( $\geq 25$   
261 hr) sea level records from this site, plus long-term (1 year) tidal records from a neighbouring reference tidal station. Essentially  
262 the temporary and reference station sites must share similarities in their main tidal constituent and tidal species characteristics  
263 for CTSM+TCC to produce acceptable results.

264 Using this approach, an initial tidal prediction time series is generated for the temporary station using CTSM and the reference  
265 station long-term records. The temporary station predicted time series can then be adjusted via TCC of each tidal species,  
266 based on harmonic comparisons between the short-term temporary station observation record and its corresponding modelled  
267 predictions, leading to improved accuracy in the tidal predictions. The modulated amplitude ratio and phase lag difference  
268 between diurnal and semidiurnal species predicted from CTSM at the reference station can be used as an indicator for selecting  
269 optimal short term observation dates at a temporary tidal station.

270 This paper has further demonstrated that the CTSM+TCC approach can be employed successfully in the absence of concurrent  
271 short-term (25 hr) records from the reference station, since a tidal harmonic prediction program can be used to produce a  
272 synthetic short-term record for the reference station, based on a quality long-term (1 year) record from that site.

273 The proper consideration of long-period tides in the CTSM+TCC approach remains a challenge, as outlined in this study, with  
274 the solutions to this issue likely to improve tidal predictions further. However, this study demonstrates that the CTSM+TCC  
275 method can already produce tidal predictions of sufficient accuracy to aid local polar station maritime operations, as well as  
276 starting to help resolve gaps in the spatial coverage of tidal height predictions for scientists studying important issues, such as  
277 the rate and role of ice loss along polar coastlines.

278 **Code Availability**

279 The T\_TIDE based CTSM code is available from [https://au.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/73764-ctsm\\_t\\_tide](https://au.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/73764-ctsm_t_tide).

280 **Data Availability**

281 The sea level data used in this paper are available from LINZ (2019) for selected ROBT records, with the remaining ROBT  
282 records available by email application (customersupport@linz.govt.nz); and the JBARS records used are available on request  
283 from KHOA ([infokhoa@korea.kr](mailto:infokhoa@korea.kr)). Details of the FES2014 tide model are found in Carrère et al. (2016) and via  
284 <https://www.aviso.altimetry.fr/en/data/products/auxiliary-products/global-tide-fes.html>.

285



287 This appendix describes the calculations involved in using the CTSM+TCC approach as employed in this Ross Sea, Antarctica,  
 288 case study. For a fuller description of the development of this approach and its application in semidiurnal and mixed, mainly  
 289 semidiurnal tidal regime settings, see Byun and Hart (2015).

290 As explained in the main body of this paper, we used 25 hr slices of the 2017 short-term observations from JBARS (SH<sub>o</sub>), our  
 291 temporary tidal observation station (subscript *o*), and 2013 year-long observations (LH<sub>r</sub>) and 2017 short-term tidal predictions  
 292 (SH<sub>r</sub>, concurrent with SH<sub>o</sub>) from ROBT, our reference tidal station (subscript *r*), as the basis of JBARS tidal prediction  
 293 calculations. We then employed the full 17.04 day 2017 JBARS tidal observation data set, and an additional 21.54 day 2019  
 294 JBARS tidal observation dataset, to evaluate the success of the CTSM+TCC tidal prediction calculations for this site.

295 The CTSM+TCC, expressed as the summation of each tidal species cosine function, includes three key steps:

- 296 (i) calculating each tidal species' modulation at the reference tidal station;  
 297 (ii) comparing the tidal harmonic constants between the temporary observation and reference stations (e.g., the tidal  
 298 amplitude ratios and phase lag differences of each representative tidal constituent for each tidal species calculated  
 299 from concurrent observation records between two stations); and  
 300 (iii) adjusting the tidal species modulations calculated in the first step using the correction factors calculated in the  
 301 second step to produce predictions for the temporary tidal station.

302 As a first step, tidal height predictions for the temporary station ( $\eta_o(\tau)$ ) were initially derived from reference station predictions  
 303 ( $\eta_r(\tau)$ ) on the assumption that the tidal properties between the two stations remain similar through time. Using the modulated  
 304 amplitude ( $A_r^{(s)}$ ) and the modulated phase lag ( $\varphi_r^{(s)}$ ) for each tidal species, this step is expressed as:

$$305 \eta_r(\tau) = \sum_{s=1}^k A_r^{(s)}(\tau) \cos(\omega_R^{(s)}t - \varphi_r^{(s)}(\tau)) \quad (\text{A1})$$

306 with

$$307 A_r^{(s)}(\tau) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m [f(\tau)_i^{(s)} a_i^{(s)}]^2 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{m-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^m [f(\tau)_i^{(s)} a_i^{(s)}] [f(\tau)_j^{(s)} a_j^{(s)}] \cos\{(\omega_i^{(s)} - \omega_j^{(s)})t + [V(t_0)_i^{(s)} + u(\tau)_i^{(s)} - G_i^{(s)}] - [V(t_0)_j^{(s)} + u(\tau)_j^{(s)} - G_j^{(s)}]\}}$$

308 (A2)

309 and

$$310 \varphi_r^{(s)}(\tau) = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^{(s)} \sin[(\omega_i^{(s)} - \omega_R^{(s)})t + V(t_0)_i^{(s)} + u(\tau)_i^{(s)} - G_i^{(s)}]}{\sum_{i=1}^m a_i^{(s)} \cos[(\omega_i^{(s)} - \omega_R^{(s)})t + V(t_0)_i^{(s)} + u(\tau)_i^{(s)} - G_i^{(s)}]} \right) \quad (\text{A3})$$

311 where superscript *s* denotes the type of tidal species (e.g., 1 for diurnal species and 2 for semidiurnal species); *m* is the number  
 312 of tidal constituents; *t*<sub>0</sub> is the reference time; *t* is the time elapsed since *t*<sub>0</sub>; and  $\tau = t_0 + t$ ;  $\omega_i^{(s)}$  are the angular frequencies  
 313 of each tidal constituent (subscripts *i* and *j*);  $\omega_R^{(s)}$  are the angular frequencies of each tidal constituent representing a tidal  
 314 species (subscript *R*); with the dominant tidal constituent of each tidal species used as the representative for that species (e.g.,  
 315 K<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> are used as representative of the diurnal and semidiurnal species, respectively). For each tidal constituent,  $a_i^{(s)}$  and  
 316  $G_i^{(s)}$  are the tidal harmonic amplitudes and phase lags (referenced to Greenwich);  $f(\tau)_i^{(s)}$  is the nodal amplitude factor of each  
 317 tidal constituent;  $u(\tau)_i^{(s)}$  is the nodal angle; and  $V(t_0)_i^{(s)}$  is the astronomical argument. T\_TIDE was used for tidal harmonic  
 318 analysis as well as for calculation of the nodal amplitude factors; nodal angles; and astronomical arguments; for the  
 319 representative tidal constituents.

320 As the second step, under the 'credo of smoothness' assumption that the admittance or 'ratio of output to input' does not  
 321 change significantly between constituents of the same species (Munk and Cartwright, 1966; Pugh and Woodworth, 2014), the  
 322 amplitude ratio and phase lag difference of each representative tidal constituent for each tidal species between the temporary  
 323 and reference stations were calculated from the results of tidal harmonic analyses of concurrent 25 hr data slices (starting at

324 00.00) from the temporary observation and reference tidal stations (i.e. from  $SH_o$  and  $SH_r$ ). The process of selecting the optimal  
 325 25 hr window for the concurrent data slices from amongst the 17.04 days of available records is explained in Sect. 3.  
 326 Once this 2017 window was selected, the third step involved adjusting the tidal predictions at the reference station calculated  
 327 from Eq. (A1), to represent those for the temporary station ( $\eta_o(\tau)$ ), by substituting the daily (i.e.  $SH_o$  and  $SH_r$ ) amplitude ratios  
 328  $\left(\frac{a_o^{(s)}}{a_r^{(s)}}\right)$  and phase lag differences ( $G_o^{(s)} - G_r^{(s)}$ ) for the tidal constituents ( $K_1$  and  $M_2$ ) representing the diurnal and semidiurnal  
 329 tidal species between the temporary and reference stations into Eq. (A1) as follows (Byun and Hart, 2015):

$$330 \eta_o(\tau) = \sum_{s=1}^k A_o^{(s)}(\tau) \cos\left(\omega_R^{(s)} t - \varphi_o^{(s)}(\tau)\right) \quad (\text{A4})$$

$$331 \text{ with } A_o^{(s)}(\tau) = A_r^{(s)}(\tau) \left(\frac{a_o^{(s)}}{a_r^{(s)}}\right), \text{ and} \quad (\text{A5})$$

$$332 \varphi_o^{(s)}(\tau) = \varphi_r^{(s)}(\tau) + G_o^{(s)} - G_r^{(s)} \quad (\text{A6})$$

333 Substituting Eqs. (A5) and (A6) into Eq. (A4),  $\eta_o(\tau)$  can be expressed as:

$$334 \eta_o(\tau) = \sum_{s=1}^k A_r^{(s)}(\tau) \left(\frac{a_o^{(s)}}{a_r^{(s)}}\right) \cos\left[\omega_R^{(s)} t - \left(\varphi_r^{(s)}(\tau) + G_o^{(s)} - G_r^{(s)}\right)\right] \quad (\text{A7})$$

335

336 The T\_TIDE based CTSM code is available from [https://au.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/73764-ctsm\\_t\\_tide](https://au.mathworks.com/matlabcentral/fileexchange/73764-ctsm_t_tide).

337 **Author contribution**

338 D-SB conceived of the tidal prediction idea behind this paper, and wrote the results sections. Both authors worked on initial  
339 and final versions of the full manuscript.

340 **Competing interests**

341 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be  
342 construed as a potential conflict of interest.

343 **Special issue statement (will be included by Copernicus)**

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347 knowledge of the Cape Roberts sea level gauge site and its records, and to a KHOA colleague for providing the Fig. 1  
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350 manuscript.

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401 **Table 1. Major tidal harmonic results for diurnal and semidiurnal constituents from harmonic analyses of sea level observations:**  
 402 **year-long (2013) records from Cape Roberts (ROBT), and 17.04 day records (29 Jan. to 15 Feb. 2017) and 20.54 day records (29**  
 403 **Dec. 2018 to 18 Jan. 2019) from Jang Bogo Antarctic Research Station (JBARS) in the Ross Sea (see source details in Sect. 2). For**  
 404 **the JBARS tidal harmonic analyses, the inference method was applied to separate out the K<sub>1</sub> (S<sub>2</sub>) and P<sub>1</sub> (K<sub>2</sub>) tidal constituents,**  
 405 **using inference parameters estimated from the ROBT 2013 harmonic analysis.**

Tidal constituents & characteristics		ROBT (2013) 369 days		JBARS (2017) 17.04 days		JBARS (2019) 20.54 days	
		Amp. (cm)	Pha. (°)	Amp. (cm)	Pha. (°)	Amp. (cm)	Pha. (°)
Diurnal	O <sub>1</sub>	21.1	202	19.6	208	16.0	208
	K <sub>1</sub>	20.5	217	16.3	214	14.9	216
	P <sub>1</sub>	6.6	215	5.2	213	4.8	214
	Q <sub>1</sub>	4.4	190	-	-	-	-
Semidiurnal	M <sub>2</sub>	5.3	5	6.7	4	6.3	34
	S <sub>2</sub>	4.9	309	6.4	329	5.7	320
	N <sub>2</sub>	3.8	255	-	-	-	-
	K <sub>2</sub>	1.8	315	2.4	333	2.4	328
<i>F</i>		4.1 (diurnal form)		2.7 (mixed, mainly diurnal)		2.6 (mixed, mainly diurnal)	
<i>ADI</i> (day)		0.57		0.23		0.30	
<i>AT</i> (day)		-2.30		-1.44		-2.87	

406 **Note: Amp. denotes amplitude; Pha. denotes phase lag, referenced to 0° Greenwich; *F* is the amplitude ratio of the (K<sub>1</sub> + O<sub>1</sub>)/(M<sub>2</sub> +**  
 407 **S<sub>2</sub>) tides; and *ADI* and *AT* denote the age of diurnal inequality and the age of the tide.**

408 **Table 2. Harmonic constants for 6 long-period tidal constituents, derived from harmonic analyses of year-long observations (2013)**  
 409 **measured at the Cape Roberts sea level gauge (ROBT), using T\_Tide (Pawlowicz et al., 2002)**

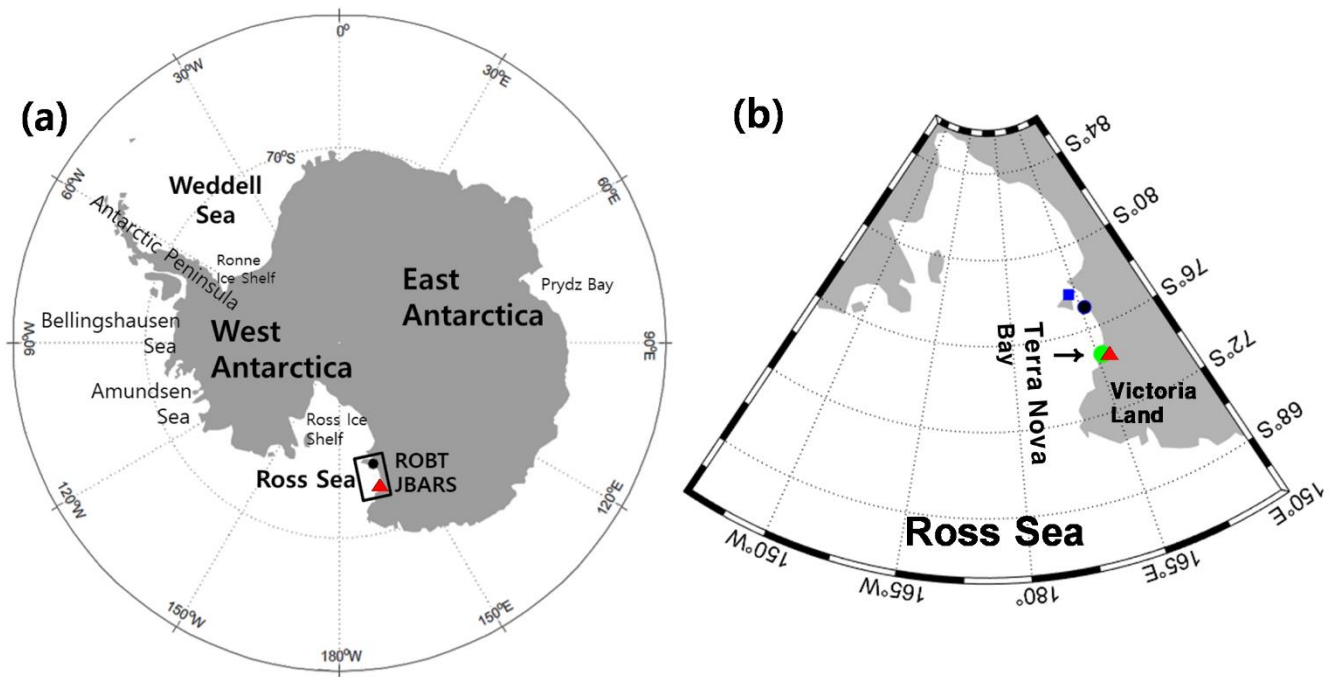
Constituent		Amplitude (cm)	Amplitude standard error (cm)	Phase lag (°)	Phase lag standard error (°)	SNR
Solar annual	$S_a$	5.8	4.8	75	50	1.5
Solar semi-annual	$S_{sa}$	0.1	3.3	352	194	0.06
Lunar monthly	$MS_m$	0.4	3.5	57	254	0.02
	$M_m$	2.9	3.8	139	102	0.59
Lunar fortnightly	$MS_f$	1.2	3.0	281	189	0.14
	$M_f$	2.7	3.9	153	101	0.47

410 **Phase lags are referenced to 0° Greenwich, and SNR denotes the signal-to-noise ratios.**



412

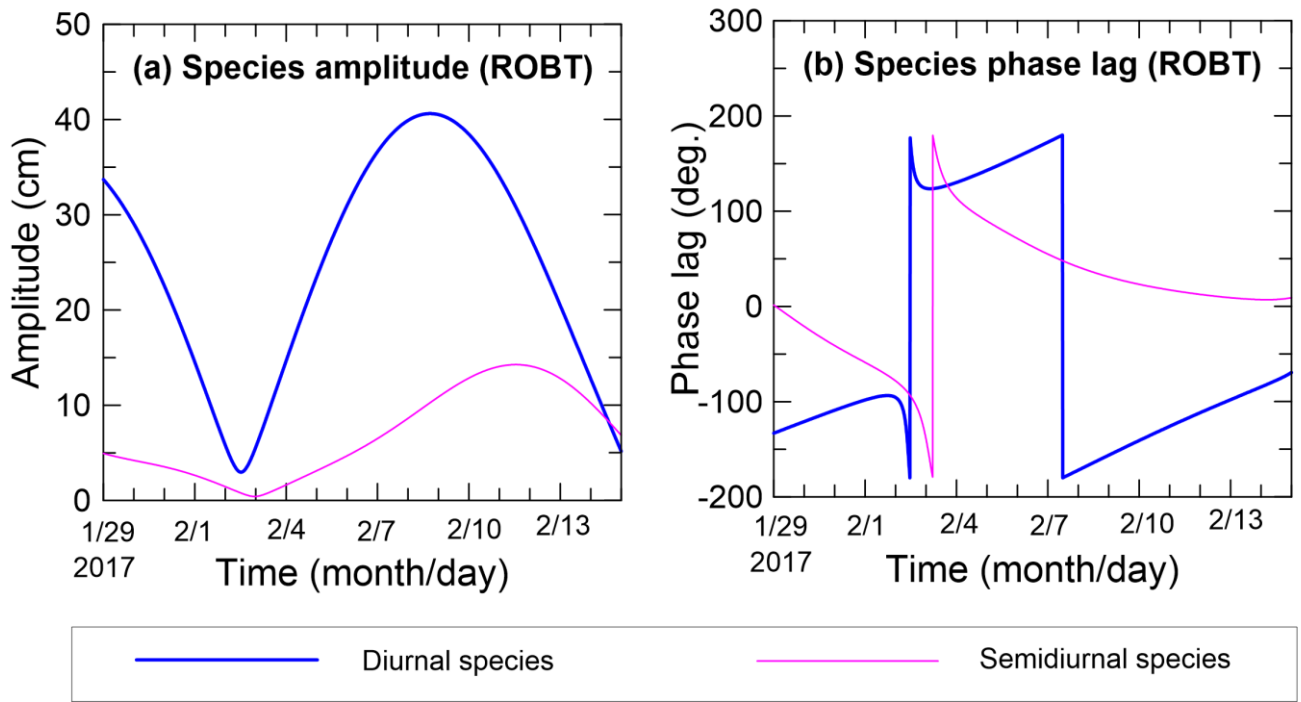
413 **Figure 1. Drifting ice, including icebergs and mobile sea ice, around the Jang Bogo Antarctic Research Station (JBARS),**  
414 **photographed on 29 Jan. 2017.**



416

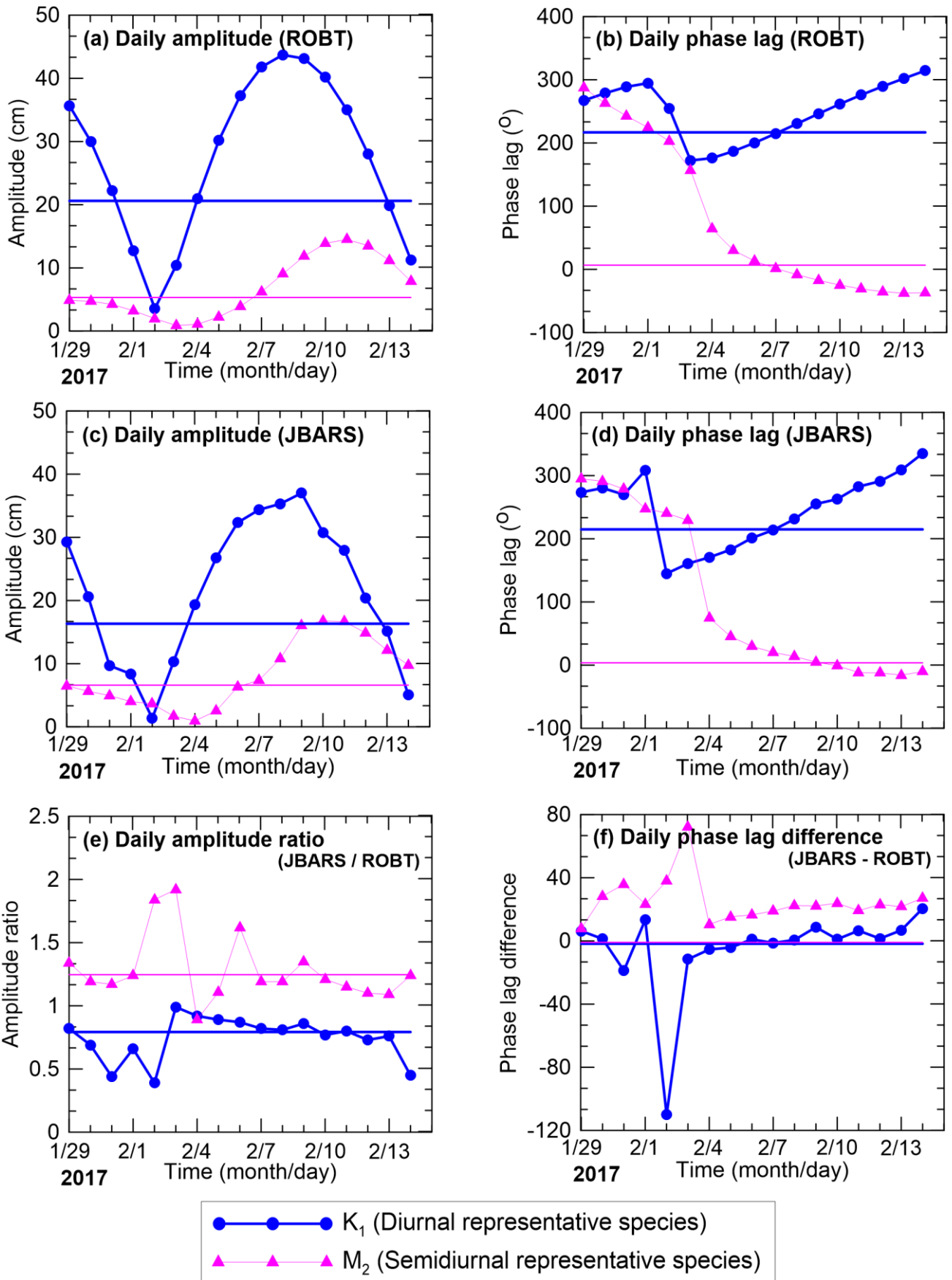
417 **Figure 2.** Maps showing (a) the locations of the two tidal observation stations employed in this study within a wider Antarctic context:  
 418 **Jang Bogo Antarctic Research Station (JBARS, ▲) and Cape Roberts (ROBT, ●);** and (b) the case study station locations relative  
 419 **to two other (previous) temporary tidal observations stations, McMurdo Station (■), and Mario Zucchelli Station (●), in the Ross**  
 420 **Sea.**





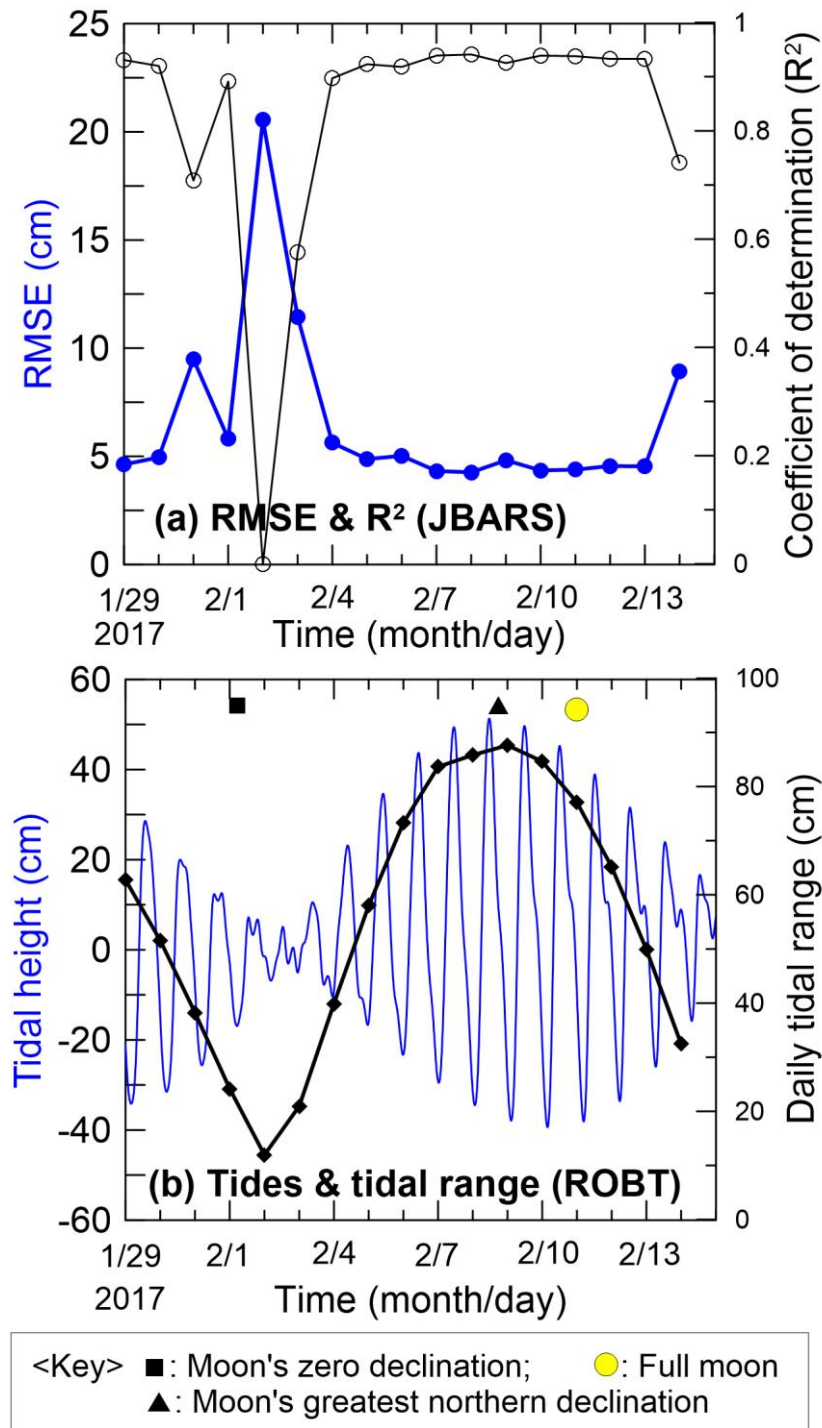
422

423 **Figure 3. Modulated tidal (a) species amplitudes and (b) phase lags for the diurnal and semidiurnal tidal species, calculated from**  
 424 **Cape Roberts (ROBT) tidal prediction data (29 Jan. to 14 Feb. 2017), using Appendix 1 Eqs. (A1) and (A3).**

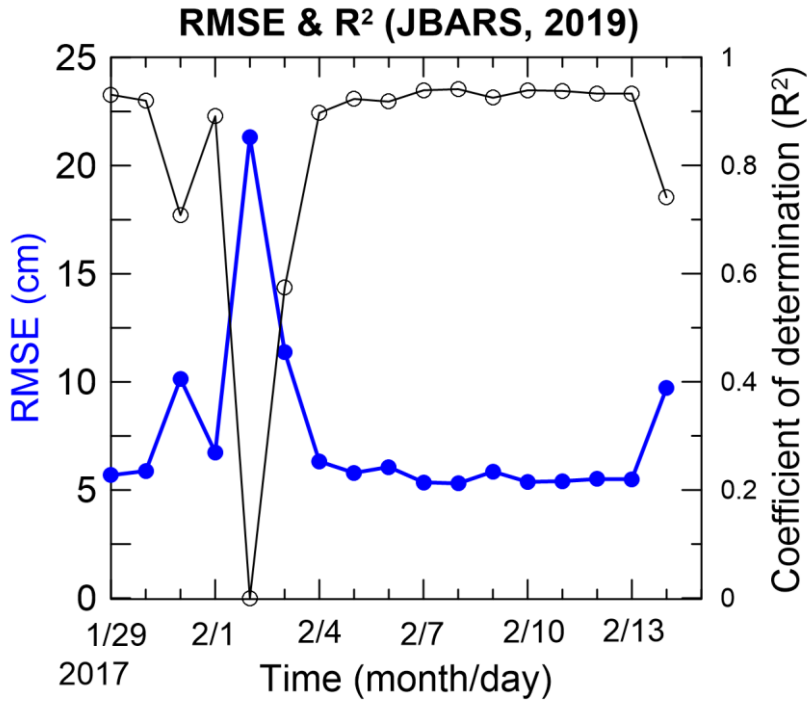


425

426 **Figure 4.** Daily amplitudes (a, c); phase lags (b, d); amplitude ratios (e); and phase lag differences (f) of the  $K_1$  and  $M_2$  tides  
 427 (representative diurnal and semidiurnal tide species) at ROBT (a, b) and JBARS (c, d), and between JBARS and ROBT (e, f),  
 428 calculated from ‘daily’ slices of the 29 Jan. to 14 Feb. 2017 ROBT tidal predictions and JBARS sea level observations. In addition,  
 429 thick blue ( $K_1$ ) and thin pink ( $M_2$ ) horizontal lines in the panels indicate the amplitudes and phase lags derived from harmonic  
 430 analyses of the 369 day 2013 ROBT sea level records (a, b) and of the 17 day 2017 JBARS sea level records (c, d), along with their  
 431 amplitude ratios and phase lag differences (e, f).

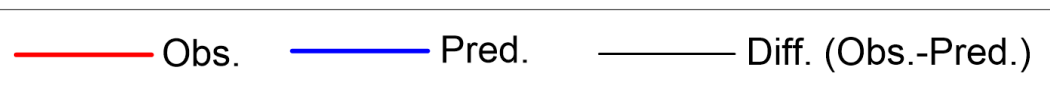
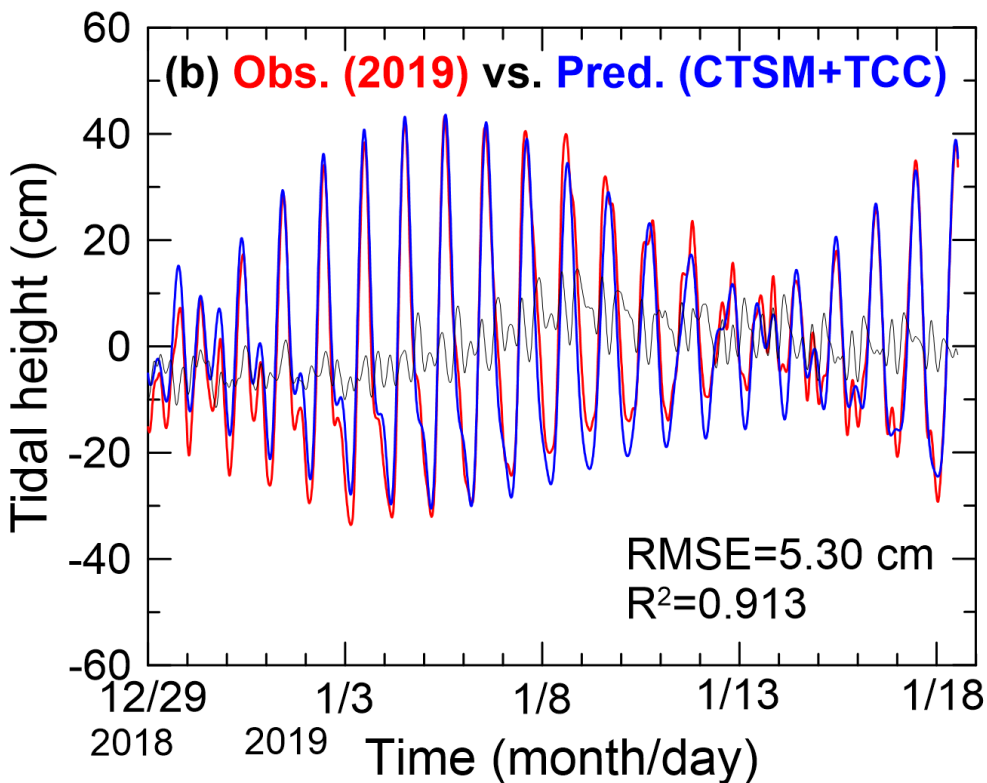
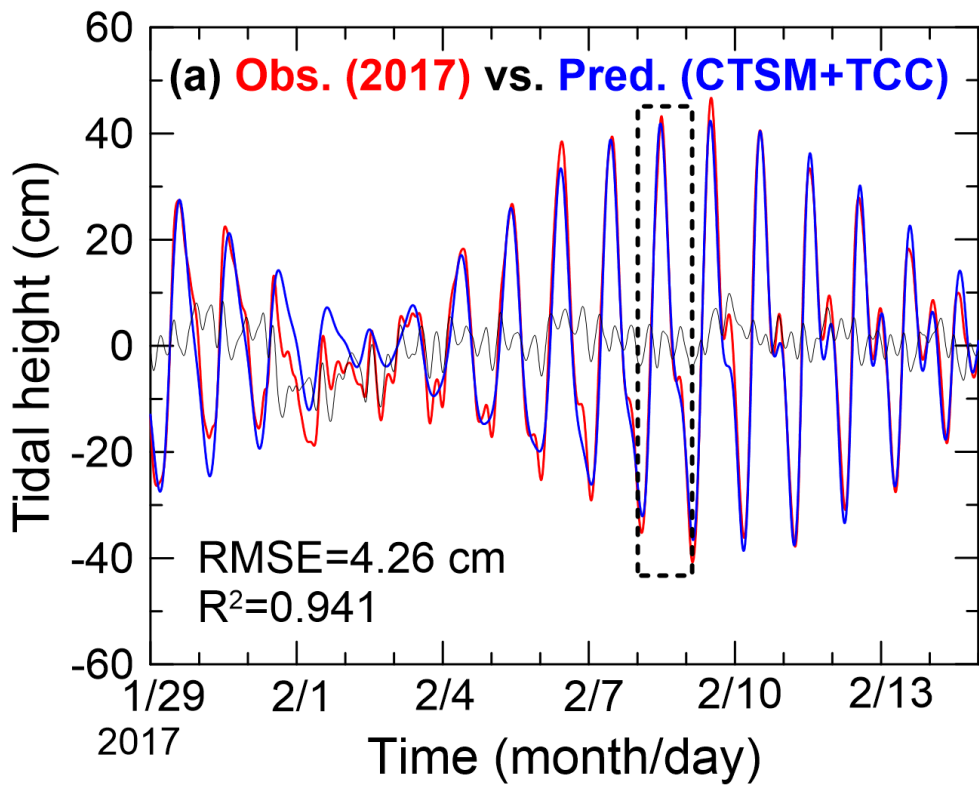


435 **Figure 5.** (a) Time series (29 Jan. to 14 Feb. 2017) of Root Mean Square Errors (RMSE, thick blue line with ●) and coefficients of  
 436 determination (R<sup>2</sup>, thin black line with ○) between JBARS 10 min interval sea level observations and the CTSM+TCC prediction  
 437 datasets, generated for this site using harmonic analysis results from the JBARS daily (25 hr) sea level data slices and concurrent  
 438 daily (25 hr) 2017 tidal prediction data slices and harmonic analysis results from ROBT station's year-long (2017) tidal predictions.  
 439 (b) Time series of predicted 2017 tidal heights (thin blue line) and daily tidal ranges (thick black line with ◆) for ROBT, based on  
 440 harmonic analysis of this station's 2013, 5 min interval sea level records, plus an indication of the moon's phase and declination.



442

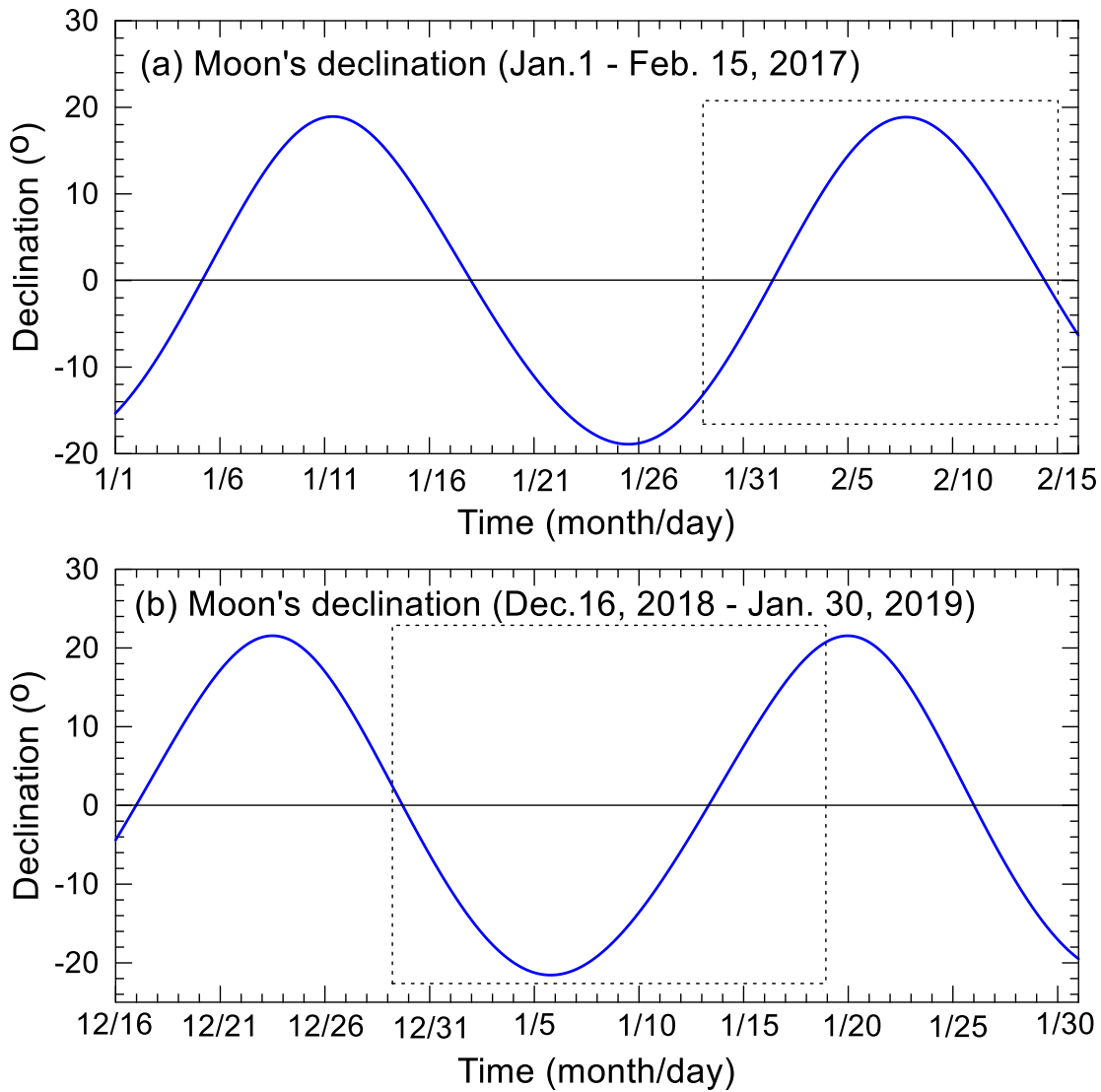
443 **Figure 6.** Time series of Root Mean Square Errors (RMSE, thick blue line with ●) and coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ , thin black  
 444 line with ○) between JBARS 10 min interval sea level observations (29 Dec. 2018 to 18 Jan. 2019) and the CTSM+TCC prediction  
 445 data sets generated for this site (using harmonic analysis results from daily (25 hr) summertime 2017 sea level data slices from  
 446 JBARS along with concurrent daily (25 hr) tidal prediction slices and harmonic analysis results from ROBT station's year-long  
 447 (2017) tidal predictions).



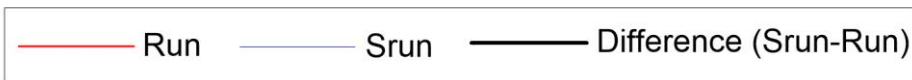
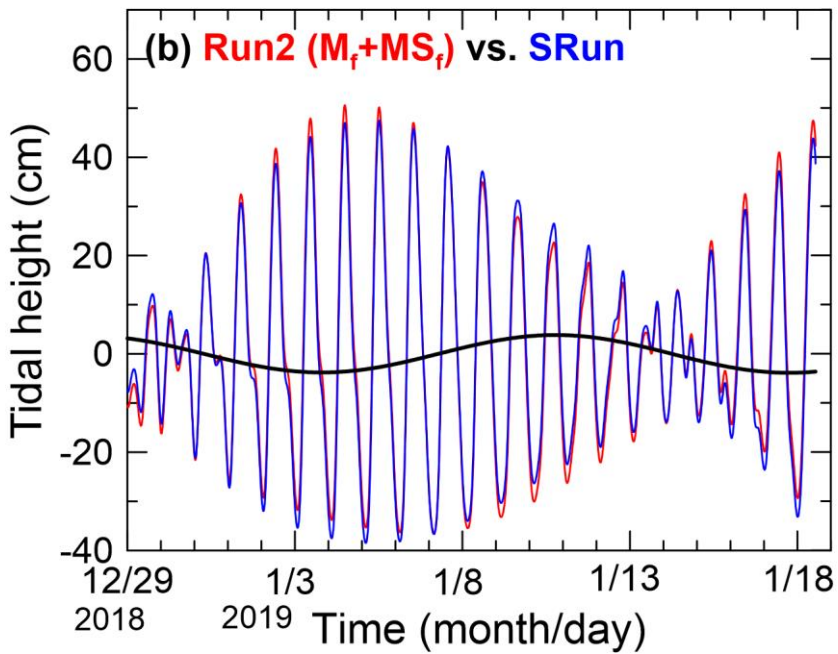
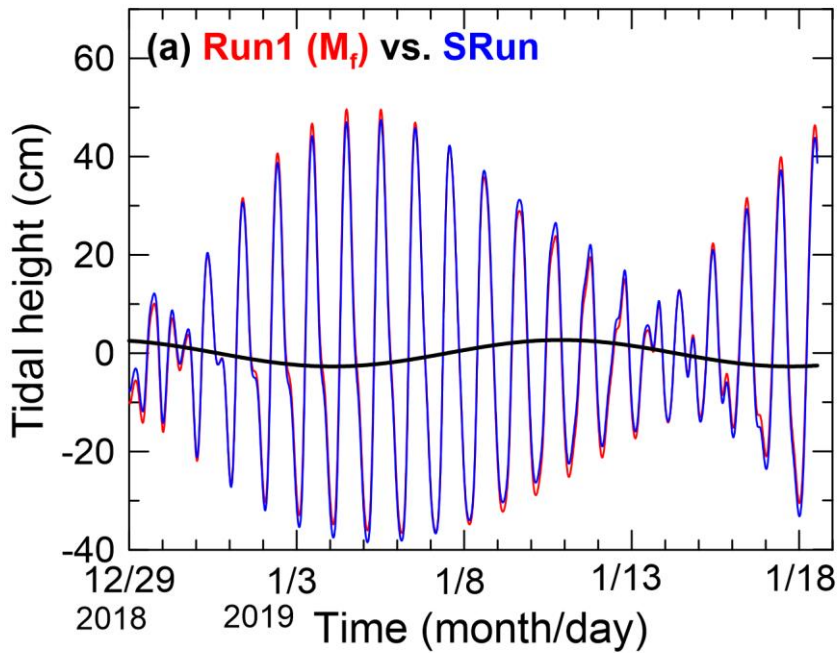
448

449

450 **Figure 7. Time series of JBARS sea level observations (Obs.), predicted tidal heights (Pred.), and sea level residuals (Diff.) from (a)**  
 451 **29 Jan. to 14 Feb. 2017; and (b) 29 Dec. 2018 to 18 Jan. 2019. The JBARS predictions were generated via the CSTM+TCC method**  
 452 **(using a daily (25 hr) slice of local sea level observations from 8 Feb. 2017 (dashed box in (a)), along with concurrent (to time periods**  
 453 **a and b) ROBT predictions; and year-long (2017) 5 min interval ROBT tidal predictions). RMSE and R<sup>2</sup> denote the comparison**  
 454 **Root Mean Square Errors and coefficients of determination, respectively.**



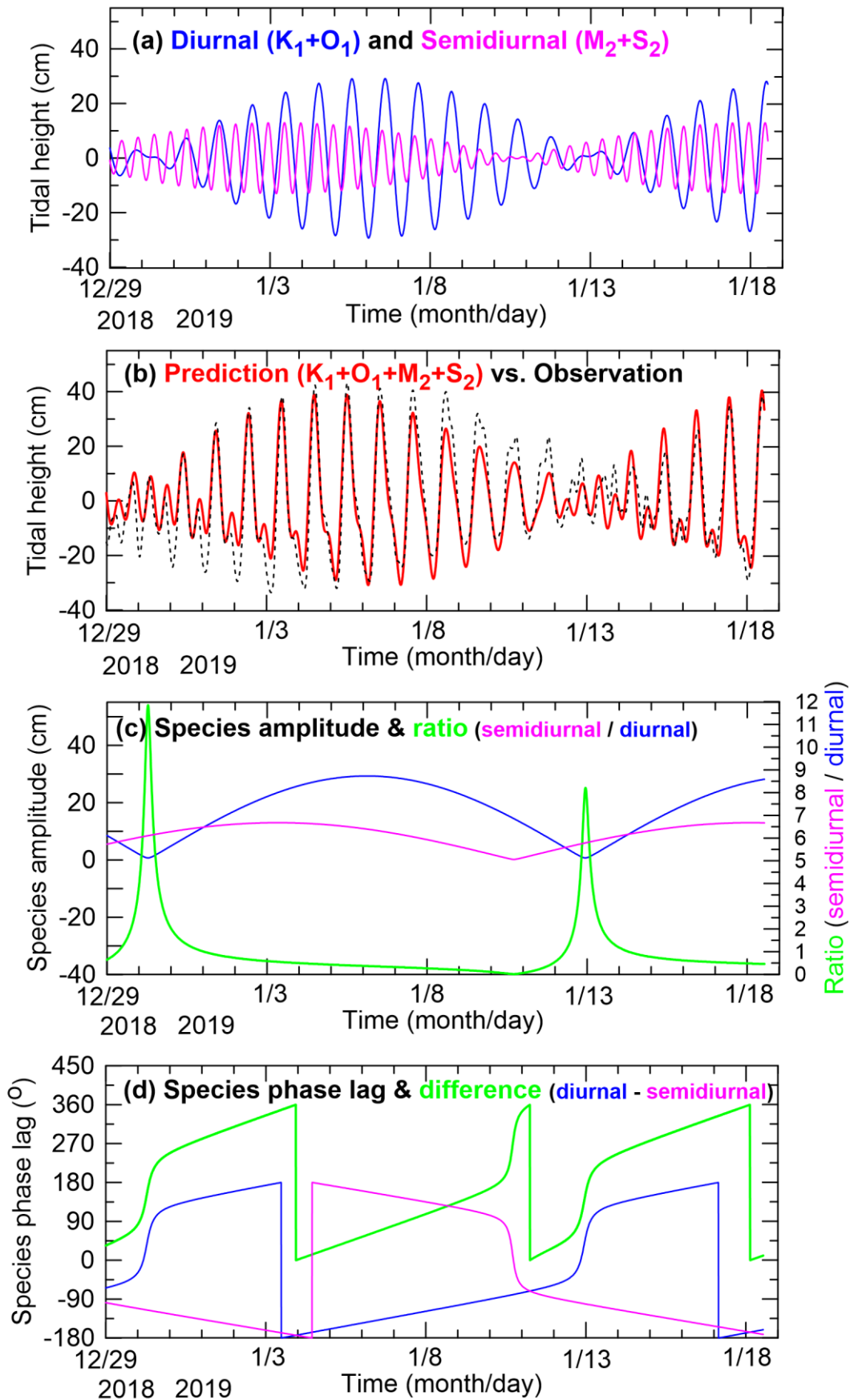
458 **Figure 8. Time series of the Moon's declination, calculated at daily intervals for two observation periods: (a) 1 Jan. to 15 Feb. 2017;**  
 459 **and (b) 16 Dec. 2018 to 30 Jan. 2019. Dashed boxes indicate the sea level observation windows examined in this study.**



460

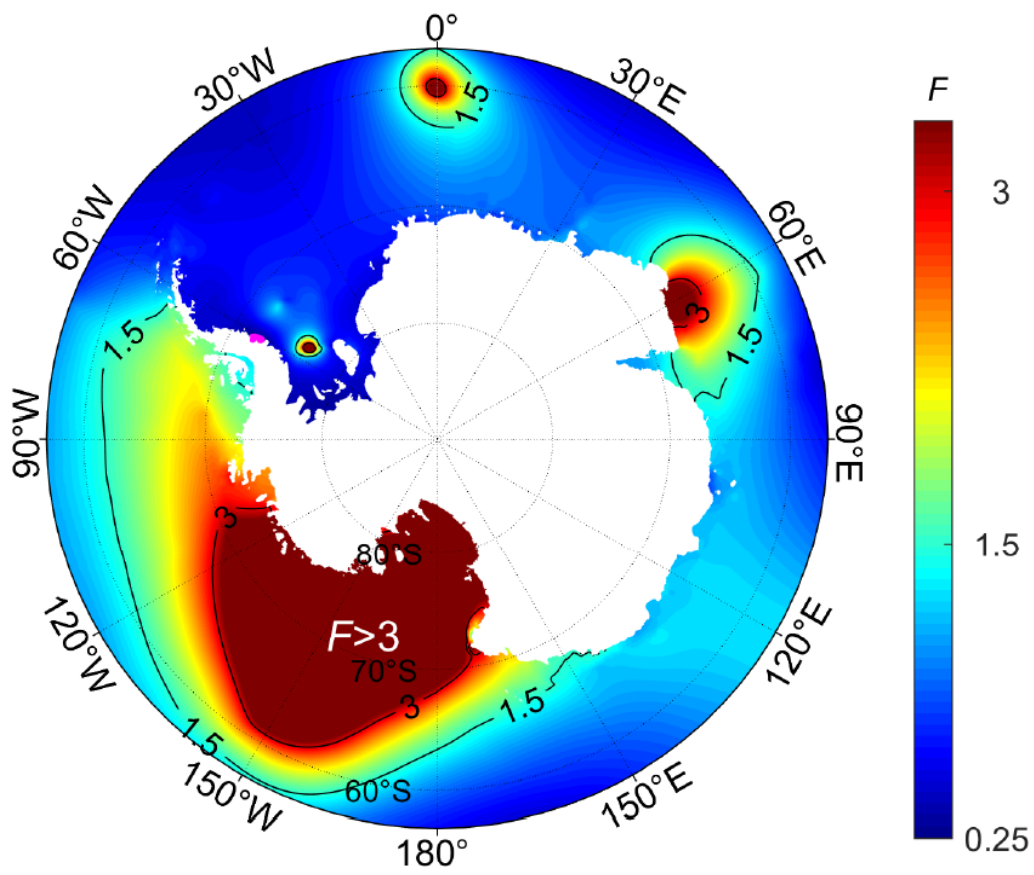
461 Figure 9. Time series of ROBT tidal predictions (a) made without long-period constituents (SRun, i.e. excluding the constituents  
 462 listed in Table 2) versus with the  $M_f$  tide (Exp1); and (b) time series of ROBT tidal predictions made (SRun) without the long-period  
 463 constituents versus (Exp2) with the  $MS_f$  and  $M_f$  tides. All predictions were generated based on tidal harmonic analysis results from  
 464 the year-long (2013) ROBT sea level records.





465  
 466 Figure 10. Time series (29 Dec. 2018 to 18 Jan. 2019) of (a) predictions of the diurnal ( $K_1+O_1$ ) tides (blue line) and the semidiurnal  
 467 ( $M_2+S_2$ ) tides (magenta line) for JBARS; (b) their combined JBARS predictions (red line) and observations (black dashed line); (c)  
 468 the ROBT diurnal (blue line) and semidiurnal (magenta line) species amplitudes and their ratio (green line); and (d) the ROBT  
 469 diurnal (blue line) and semidiurnal (magenta line) species phase lags and their difference (diurnal – semidiurnal) (green line).





470

471 **Figure 11.** Distribution of tidal form factor ( $F$ ) values around Antarctica. Note the magenta area (72°S) on the Antarctic Peninsula's  
 472 **Weddell Sea coast denotes the only area with a properly semidiurnal tide regime ( $F < 0.25$ ) in the Antarctic region.**