



1 Arctic sea level variability from high-resolution model simula-

2 tions and implications for the Arctic observing system

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- 6 many
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Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:44:59

Summary comment:

My name is Benjamin Rabe and I have been asked to review the manuscript "Arctic sea level variability from high-resolution model simulations and implications for the Arctic observing system" by Guokun Lyu and coauthors.

Overall this is a very interesting paper, and the use of high-resolution ice-ocean simulations to evaluate observational coverage and variability seen in advanced analyses of both in-situ and satellite data is likely to improve knowledge in the community and enhance future analyses of Arctic sea level and freshwater content / salinity. The paper is generally well written in terms of structure and language.

I see a few issues with the current version of the manuscript: there are several citations important for this topic that have not been considered, notably studies on in-situ observations. Further, there are open question as to the optimal analysis method described in the appendix. Data citations are almost entirely missing, which needs to be corrected to comply with FAIR principles.

Please consider my detailed suggestions given as comments in this PDF. Overall I would consider this manuscript publishable subject to the modest corrections I suggest.





- 8 Abstract. Two high-resolution model simulations are used to investigate the spatio-temporal variability of the 9 Arctic Ocean sea level. The model simulations reveal barotropic sea level variability at periods <30 days, which is strongly captured by bottom pressure observations. The seasonal sea level variability is driven by volume 10 11 exchanges with the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans and the redistribution of the water by the wind. Halosteric ef-12 fects due to river runoff and evaporation minus precipitation (EmPmR), ice melting/formation also contribute in 13 the marginal seas and seasonal sea ice extent regions. In the central Arctic Ocean, especially the Canadian Basin, the decadal halosteric effect dominates sea level variability. 1 atellite altimetric observations and Gravity Recov-14 ery and Climate Experiment (GRACE) measurements could be used to infer freshwater content changes in the 15 Canadian Basin at periods longer than one year. The increasing number of profiles seems to capture freshwater 16 17 content changes since 2007, encouraging further data synthesis work with a more complicated interpolation 18 method. Further, in-situ hydrographic observations should be enhanced to reveal the freshwater budget and
- 19 close the gaps between satellite altimetry and GRACE, especially in the marginal seas.

Number: 1Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 16:48:51 This has been shown before, e.g. Giles et al. (2012; doi: 10.1038/ngeo1379) and Morison et al. (2012; doi: 10.1038/ nature10705).





20 1 Introduction

The Arctic Ocean is experiencing pronounced changes (e.g., Perovich et al., 2020; AMAP, 2019). Observations have revealed increased warm inflows through the Bering Strait (Woodgate et al., 2012) and the Fram Strait (Polyakov et al., 2017), and an unprecedented freshening of the Canadian Basin especially the Beaufort Gyre (Proshutinsky et al., 2019). The rapid changes potentially impact the weather and climate of the northern hemisphere (Overland et al., 2021).

As an integrated indicator, sea level change reflects changing ocean conditions caused by ocean dynamics, atmospheric forcing, and terrestrial processes (Stammer et al., 2013). Satellite altimetry, together with bottom pressure observations from Gravity Recovery and Climate Experiment (GRACE), has been applied to infer ocean temperature and salinity changes that are not measured directly in the Arctic Ocean (e.g., Armitage et al., 2016) and in the deep ocean (e.g., Llovel et al., 2014), enhancing our ability to monitor ocean changes.

31 Over the past decades, coupled ocean-sea ice models and observations have advanced our understanding of 32 the Arctic Ocean variability. Proshutinsky and Johnson (1997) demonstrated wind-forced cyclonic/anticyclonic 33 ocean circulation patterns accompanied by dome-shaped sea levels variation using a barotropic model simula-34 tion. Further, in the Canadian Basin, ocean circulation changes result in freshwater accumulation and releasing, 35 very well correlated to sea level changes (Koldunov et al., 2014; Proshutinsky et al., 2002). Given that sea level changes reflect freshwater content changes in the Canadian Basin, Giles et al. (2012) and Morison et al. (2012) 36 proposed to use satellite altimetry observations and GRACE observations to infer freshwater content changes. 37 38 The method was then applied to explore the freshwater content changes in the Beaufort Gyre (Armitage et al., 2016; Proshutinsky et al., 2019) at seasonal to decadal timescales. In the Barents Sea, Volkov et al. (2013) used 39 altimetric sea level observations and the ECCO reanalysis (Forget et al., 2015) to explore seasonal to interannual 40 41 sea level anomalies, revealing different roles of mass-related changes, thermosteric and halosteric effects on 42 different regions of the Barents Sea.

43 However, the sparseness of in-situ profiles, coarse resolution and significant uncertainties of satellite altim-44 etry and GRACE observations result in large gaps in understanding the spatio-temporal variability of the Arctic 45 sea level and its relations to the thermo/halosteric effects and mass changes (Ludwigsen and Andersen, 2021). Previous studies mainly focus on the decadal sea level variability (e.g., Koldunov et al., 2014; Proshutinsky et al., 46 47 2007; Proshutinsky and Johnson, 1997), and no study has yet fully explored the Arctic sea level variability at 48 different spectral bands, and its dependence on the mass component and the vertical oceanic variability. Such a 49 study could help identify critical regions and environmental parameters that need to be coordinately observed 50 and point out observational gaps that need to be filled in the future.

51 Our study systematically explores the Arctic sea level variability as function of timescale and geographic 52 location using daily and monthly outputs of two high-resolution model simulations. Contributions from ba-53 rotropic changes expressed in bottom pressure variations and baroclinic processes represented by ther-54 mo/halosteric changes are quantified at different timescales. The further discuss the existing Arctic Ocean ob-55 serving system's capability to monitor the Arctic freshwater content variability.

The structure of the remaining paper is as follows: the numerical models and the observations from the bottom pressure sensor, GRACE, and satellite altimetry are described in Section 2, together with different components of sea level changes. We compare the model simulations against observations in Section 3. Section 4 analyzes sea level variability and associated mechanisms at high frequency (<30 days), at the seasonal cycle and at

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:00:57

Here you could cite Solomon et al. (2021; doi: 10.5194/os-17-1081-2021) and summarise briefly.

If you discuss freshwater variability estimates for the Arctic, it would be worth mentioning and briefly relating to the following publications:

Haine et al. (2015, doi: <u>10.1016/j.gloplacha.2014.11.013</u>)

Rabe et al. (2011, doi: <u>10.1016/j.dsr.2010.12.002</u>; 2014, doi: <u>10.1002/2013GL058121</u>) Polyakov et al. (2020, doi: <u>10.3389/fmars.2020.00491</u>).

These use various kinds of interpolated products, based on in-situ profiles, to estimate freshwater content variability.





- 60 decadal timescales. The relations with bottom pressure and thermos/halosteric components are demonstrated,
- 61 pointing out key regions and parameters we need to observe. Further, we analyze the ability of satellite altimetry,
- 62 GRACE, and the in situ profiler system to monitor the Arctic freshwater content variability in Section 5. Section
- 63 6 provides a summary and conclusions.

64 2 Model Simulations and observations

65 2.1 Atlantic-Arctic simulations

This study relies on two ocean high-resolution numerical simulations using the MIT general circulation model (Marshall et al., 1997). A dynamic thermodynamic sea ice model (Hibler, 1979, 1980;Zhang and Rothrock, 2000), implemented by Losch et al. (2010), is employed to simulate sea ice processes. The model domain covers the entire Arctic Ocean north of the Bering Strait and the Atlantic Ocean north of 33°S. In the horizontal, the model uses a curvilinear grid with resolutions of ~8 km (ATLARC08km) and ~4 km (AT-LARC04km). In the vertical, ATLARC08km and ATLARC04km have 50 and 100 vertical z-levels, respectively.

73 At the ocean surface, the model simulations are forced by momentum, heat, and freshwater fluxes comput-74 ed using bulk formulae and either the 6-hourly NCEP RA1 reanalysis (Kalnay et al., 1996) (ATLARC08km) or 75 the 6-hourly ECMWF ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011) (ATLARC04km). 1 virtual salt flux parameterization is used to mimic the dilution and salinification effects of rainfall, evaporation, and river discharge. 76 The models are forced by the monthly output from the GECCO2 (Köhl, 2015) global model configuration at the 77 open boundaries. The river runoff is applied at river mouths by a seasonal climatology. Bottom topography is 78 79 derived from the ETOPO 2-min (Smith and Sandwell, 1997) database. 2TLARC08km is initialized with annual mean temperature and salinity from the World Ocean Atlas 2005 (Boyer et al., 2005) and covers 1948 to 2016, 80 81 and ATLARC04km starts from the initial condition of ATLARC08km at the start of the year 2002. Table 1

82 summarizes both the simulations and their main characteristics.

83 Table 1. Summary of model simulations used in this study.

	Horizontal resolution	Vertical grid	Surface forcing	periods	Output Frequency
ATLARC08km	~8 km	50 z-levels	NCEP-RA1	1948-2016	monthly
				05.01.2003-	daily
				01.12.2010	
ATLARC04km	~4 km	100 z-levels	ERA-Interim	01.01.2003-23.08.2012	daily

84

85 **32 Satellite and in-situ observations**

Koldunov et al. (2014) have validated ATLARC08km against tide gauge observations. We further compare
 the two model simulations against in-situ bottom pressure observations, GRACE observations, and satellite

88 altimetric observations.

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:16:08

I see in line 123 you mention that this does not imply a volume flux but only a salinity restoring. Please briefly explain in the discussion why it does not matter for this sea level study.

Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:09:33 Is there a reason why you used WOA and not PHC, which is the "classical" climatology for the Arctic, using otherwise unavailable (Russian) observations, that are not included in WOA?

Number: 3Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 09:45:02

This section lacks data citations (note: just citing the scientific analysis papers where data are used is not according to FAIR principles): all the data should be available in repositories with a full citation (incl. doi). Please add those to the text and to your reference list.

As an example, for ITP data, use Toole et al. (2016, doi: 10.7289/v5mw2f7x);

see also

https://www2.whoi.edu/site/itp/data/data-products/ .







133

134 []gure 2. RMS variability of (a-c) sea level and (d-f) bottom pressure in (a, d) ATLARC08km, (b, e) ATLARC04km, (c) satellite altimetry, and (f) GRACE. We computed the RMS variability using monthly data from January 2003 to December 2011. Bathymetry contours of 500, 1000, 2000, and 3000 m are drawn with grey lines.

137 2 oth the model simulations (Fig. 2a, b) and satellite altimetry (Fig. 2c) reveal pronounced sea level varia-138 bility in the Canadian Basin and along the coast, which could be attributed to the redistribution of water due to the shifting of basin-scale cyclonic/anticyclonic wind (Proshutinsky and Johnson, 1997) and to the discharge 139 and transport of river runoff along the coast (Proshutinsky et al., 2007). ATLARC04km simulates more signifi-140 141 cant sea level variability than ATLARC08km, especially in the East Siberian Sea and the Canadian Basin, and 142 matches better with the observed sea level variability. Bottom pressure also shows significant variability in the Arctic marginal seas (Fig. 2d-f), especially in the East Siberian Sea. However, due to the smoothing process 143 144 applied on GRACE measurements (a 500 km Gaussian filter), both the model simulations simulate much more substantial RMS variability of bottom pressure. 145

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Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:23:15

I suggest to make the letters a-f white -- easier to see agains the gray land mask. Alternatively, highlight the letters with a white disc in the background.

It would be easier to understand this figure at a glance by putting row and column labels adjacent to the figures (e.g. at top and to left).

Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:29:27

I think this whole paragraph deserves a bit more detail: what about the effect of model resolution and (not) resolving mesoscale eddies? Those play a significant role in the dynamics of the Beaufort Gyre, for example (e.g. Armitage et al., 2020; doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-14449-z ; and references therein). How does the altimetry product SSH perform close to the coast?





165



166

1671 gure 4. RMS variability (cm) of sea level (a) in the high-frequency band (<30 days), (b) at the seasonal cycle,</th>168and (c) at decadal periods (>4 years). Panels (d)-(f) are the corresponding ratios (%) to the total sea level vari-169ance that panels (a)-(c) explained. The grey lines denote bathymetry contours of 500, 1000, 2000, and 3000 m.

170 At period <30 days, RMS variability of sea level up to 14 cm appears in the marginal seas and along the coasts (Fig. 4a), accounting for 60%~80% of the local sea level variance (Fig. 4d). The seasonal sea level varia-171 172 bility is pronounced in the marginal seas and southern edge of the Beaufort Sea, and it explains 20%-40% of the 173 total sea level variance. In the deep regions of the pan-Arctic Ocean, the decadal variability dominates the sea 174 level variability, and it explains more than 70%~90% of the sea level variability. Overall, in the marginal seas, 175 sea level variability is dominated by sub-monthly and seasonal signals. In contrast, decadal sea level variability 176 dominates in the deep regions of the pan-Arctic Ocean. Besides, seasonal variability is also visible in the south-177 ern periphery of the Beaufort Sea, indicating possible exchanges between the marginal seas and the Beaufort 178 Sea.

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:34:06

This caption is lacking a clear mention of what model output is used (you mention it somehow at the end of section 3., but would really help to have that here, as well).

The letters a-f are easier to see here, as the gray background is lighter than in Figure 3. However, I'd still think outside labels for rows / columns would speed up understanding this figure.





179 4.1 High-frequency (<30 days) variability

180 With a coarse resolution model simulation, Vinogradova et al. (2007) demonstrated that sea level variabil-

181 ity is coherent with and virtually equivalent to bottom pressure in the mid-latitude and subpolar regions at peri-

182 ods <100 days, reflecting the barotropic nature of high-frequency variability (Stammer et al., 2000). Here, we

183 revisit the high-frequency sea level variability in the pan-Arctic Ocean with high-resolution model simulations

184 and a transfer function (Vinogradova et al., 2007) of sea level and bottom pressure.



185

Figure 5. (a) Amplitude (shading) and phase (black vectors) of the transfer function between sea level anomaly
and bottom pressure anomaly at periods <30 days. Time series of sea level anomaly (blue lines), mass component (black lines), and steric component (red lines) averaged in (b) 1 e East Siberian Sea (blue box A in panel a)
and along (c) the NwAC (blue box B in panel a).

190 Except for the Norwegian Atlantic Current (NwAC) and the East/West Greenland Current (EGC/WGC),

191 the amplitude of the transfer function between sea level and mass component is ~1 (Fig. 5a) in most of the pan-

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:55:28 the blue boxes and the letters "A" and "B" are difficult to see -- perhaps put letters in bold font and white?





Arctic regions. The phases (vectors in Fig. 5a) are ~0 in the entire Arctic Ocean, indicating that the highfrequency sea level variability is mostly barotropic. However, in the strong current regions, including NwAC, EGC, and WGC, an amplitude of the transfer function of ~0.4 is observed, revealing that both barotropic and baroclinic processes contribute to the high-frequency sea level variability.

195 barochine processes contribute to the high-frequency sea level variability.

Subregions in the East Siberian Sea (A in Fig. 5a) and along the NwAC (B in Fig. 5a) are used to reveal details of the high-frequency sea level variability. It is clear that the sea level anomaly in the East Siberian Sea (Fig. 5b) is almost equivalent to the bottom pressure anomaly, and the steric component contributes slightly to the seasonal timescale. Along the NwAC (Fig. 5c), pronounced steric height variability with timescales of 20-60 days is visible, which may be caused by baroclinic instability, and the mass component shows high-frequency variability.

202 The high-frequency sea level variability is mainly related to wind forcing (Fukumori et al., 1998) at high 203 latitudes. Correlations to the wind forcing and sea level anomalies are used to explain the driving mechanisms of the high-frequency sea level variability. The negative prelations between high-frequency sea level variability 204 205 and wind stress curl (shading in Fig. 6a) in the Canadian Basin and GIN seas 30.3) and in the marginal seas (-206 0.3~-0.5) reveal that local sea level increase/decrease is partially related to convergence/divergence of Ekman 207 transport. Positive correlations (0.2~0.3) are visible along the 1000 m isobath where strong currents exist and 208 stratification is strong. A plausible explanation is that wind stress curl anomalies may likely result in baroclinic 209 instabilities, resulting in the baroclinic component of sea level variability along NwAC, EGC, and WGC (e.g., 210 Fig. 5). In the coastal regions, the pronounced correlation of the along-shore wind stress and sea level anomaly 211 at the high-frequency band indicates that the along-shore wind is essential to produce the significant sea level 212 variability (vectors in Fig. 6a).

Correlations of sea level anomalies in regions A (Fig. 6b) and B (Fig. 6c) to the sea level anomalies (contour), wind stress (vectors), and wind stress curl (shading) demonstrate that the along-shore wind drives water towards the coast through Ekman transport which interacts with topography, rising sea level along the coast. And the sea level anomalies could propagate along the coast.

217



218

4 gure 6. (a) Correlations of sea level anomalies to wind stress curl (shading) and wind stress (vectors) at periods <30 days. Correlations of sea level anomalies in subregions of (a) the East Siberian Sea and (b) along the NwAC (see magenta pentagrams in panels (b) and (c)) to wind stress (vectors), wind stress curl (shading), and sea level anomalies (contours). The blue, black, and red contours denote correlation levels of 0.3, 0.5, and 0.7.

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 17:59:50

The depiction of the phase by vectors is a bit confusing to the non-expert -- perhaps remove vectors and add another panel with phase contours / colour ?

Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 18:14:26 Worth mentioning somewhere in the paper if correlation coefficients are significant at some level (e.g. 1 or 5 %).

Number: 3Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 18:15:27 Are those correlation coefficients significant?

Number: 4Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 18:23:02

Need to show lines where correlation coefficients are significant, unless they are significant everywhere. In the latter case, this deserves at least one sentence.

The unit vector could be more prominently places at the top left of each figure (gets a bit lost in Greenland, reaching into the EGC).

The caption is a bit confusing as to what is c -- perhaps clarify by separating into two sentences? (you write it in the text, but should be clear in the caption)

Do I understand correctly, that (a) is the correlation of local wind to local sea level, whereas (b) and (c) denote the correlation of each local wind across the Arctic to the averages of the boxes A and B in Figure 5a?





en by the cyclonic/anticyclonic wind pattern in the summer/winter season (Proshutinsky and Johnson, 1997).
Mean sea level anomalies from June to August (Fig. 9a) and from December to February (Fig. 9b) further reveal
the antiphase of the sea level changes between the deep basin and the shallow waters. The mean pattern of wind
stress anomalies (vectors in Fig. 9) indicates that wind-driven Ekman transport drives the water toward/away
from the marginal seas, resulting in the antiphase of seasonal sea level variability in the deep basin and shallow
waters.

268 The model simulation demonstrates the critical importance of exchanges with the Pacific and Atlantic 269 Oceans for the Arctic volume changes at seasonal periods. The wind stress will further redistribute water in the 270 Arctic Ocean, resulting in the antiphase pattern of sea level changes in the shallow waters and deep basin. Using a one-dimensional model, Peralta-Ferriz and Morison (2010) demonstrated that river runoff and evaporation 271 272 minus precipitation (EmP) drive the basin-scale seasonal mass variation of the Arctic Ocean. This process is not 273 included in our model simulations due to the virtual salt flux parameterization. But it should be noted that either 274 input from river runoff and EmP (Peralta-Ferriz and Morison, 2010) or exchanges with the Pacific and Atlantic 275 Oceans is large enough to drive the Arctic volume changes. Moreover, the wind stress will further redistribute 276 the water to different regions. It is also expected that volume input from the rivers (~700 km³) could signifi-277 cantly alleviate the negative volume anomalies from May to August in the marginal seas.



278

Figure 9. Sea level anomalies (shading) and wind stress anomalies (vectors) averaged from (a) June to August and (b) December to February.

281 4.3 Decadal variability

The Arctic sea level shows significant decadal variability driven by cyclonic/anticyclonic wind patterns (Proshutinsky and Johnson, 1997), accompanied by freshwater content changes (Häkkinen and Proshutinsky, 2004;Köhl and Serra, 2014). Tatellite altimetry observations were used to infer Arctic freshwater content increases (Armitage et al., 2016;Giles et al., 2012;Proshutinsky et al., 2019;Rose et al., 2019). This section exam-

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 Here I would see it appropriate to also cite the estimates based on in-situ observations, covering the whole of
 the Arctic basin -- Rabe et al. (2011; 2014), Haine et al. (2015) and Polyakov et al. (2020) -- see my prior comment for doi.





ines the spatial variability of Arctic decadal sea level and addresses its relation to the mass, halosteric, and ther-mosteric components.

It is revealed in the pronounced decadal sea level variability in the Canadian and Eurasian Basins (Fig. 4c) is mainly due to the halosteric effect (Fig. 10b), with the mass components accounting for 20-30%. The thermosteric effect dominates in the GIN Seas since a change from shallow convection to deep convection can lead to temperature changes of more than -0.2 °C over the upper 600 m and salinity changes of 0.02 PSU over the upper 200 m (see Fig. A1 in Brakstad et al., 2019). In the north Atlantic Ocean, the thermosteric effect dominates. At the same time, the halosteric effect compensates for the thermosteric effect and more considerable thermosteric height variability than decadal total sea level variability.

Timeseries of sea level anomalies and its different components in Fig. 10d confirm that sea level variability in the Canadian Basin is mostly halosteric (Armitage et al., 2016;Giles et al., 2012;Morison et al., 2012), that the thermosteric component contributes with a linear trend (not shown here). In the Surasian Basin, the mass component, which is likely related to volume exchanges with the Atlantic Ocean and the Barents Sea, also contributes to the interannual sea level variability. The halosteric component shows clearly decadal variability and is in phase with that in the Canadian Basin. The thermosteric component slightly compensates for the halosteric component.



302

Figure 10. RMS variability at the decadal period of (a) bottom pressure anomaly, (b) the halosteric component, and (c) the thermosteric component. Panels (d) and (e) show the time series of sea level anomaly and mass,

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 "The model simulation indicates" (btw.: which one -- the 4 km ?)
 "Inserted Text
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 Number: 2Author: brabe
 Subject: Highlight
 Date: 12/10/2021, 09:19:19

 Please details, with reference to literature, what happened in the GIN seas during the time covered by the model run (e.g. Somavilla et al., 2013, doi: 10.1002/grl.50775; Ronski and Budeus, 20015, doi: 10.1029/2004JC002318).

 Number: 3Author: brabe
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 in this region
 Date: 12/10/2021, 09:21:14

Number: 4Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 09:22:03 Is that trend significant? Difficult to see in Figr. 10 d...

Number: 5Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 09:24:09 Why "likely related to..." ? Please explain how this is indicated in the model results and/or cite literature...





(6),

steric, and thermo/halosteric components in the Canadian and in the Eurasian Basins 1 e the regions in panel
(b)), respectively. Linear trends are removed.

307 5 Capability of the observing system to monitor 2 reshwater content variability

308 Observing Arctic freshwater content changes remains challenging (Proshutinsky et al., 2019). The results 309 above and previous studies (Giles et al., 2012;Morison et al., 2012;Proshutinsky et al., 2019) have indicated that 310 satellite altimetry could infer freshwater content changes. International efforts try to enhance the profiles ob-311 serving system, including ice-tethered profilers (ITP), shipboard observations, and moorings. Here, we test their 312 capability to monitor the freshwater changes in an idealized setting in which 1) we do not consider influences of 313 observational errors and 2) 3e assume the profiles sample the top 800 m and the moorings sample from 65-800 314 m.

415 **5.1 Satellite altimetry and GRACE measurements**

Giles et al. (2012) used altimetric sea level observations, GRACE-based bottom pressure, and a static 1.5layer model to infer freshwater changes in the Canadian Basin. They assumed that freshwater changes lead to sea level and isopycnal changes simultaneously, changing the layer thickness and total mass of the water column. In this case, freshwater change in the water column is estimated as follows:

320
$$\Delta FW = \frac{s_2 - s_1}{s_2} \cdot \Delta h = \frac{s_2 - s_1}{s_2} \cdot \left(\eta' \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2 - \rho_1} \right) - \frac{\Delta m}{\rho_2 - \rho_1} \right)$$
(5),

where ρ_1 =1025.0 kg m⁻³ and ρ_2 =1028.0 kg m⁻³ are the mean density in the top and bottom layers. S₁=33.0 PSU is the mean salinity in the top layer, and S₂=34.8 PSU is a reference salinity. η' and Δm are the sea level anomaly and bottom pressure anomalies observations. Morison et al. (2012) suggest that freshwater changes depends on steric height changes linearly and could be approximated by:

325 $\Delta FW = \alpha \cdot \eta'_s$

326 where 5 is an empirical constant estimated from in-situ profile observations and is set to 35.6.

As shown in Fig. 11, **beshwater content changes** and the two estimates show similar decadal variabilities, but differences remain in the seasonal and long-term trends. Since the halosteric effect dominates the steric effect, estimation using Eq. (6) matches the seasonal freshwater cycle very well (red and black lines), considering the amplitude and phase. However, it overestimates the long-term trend (the difference between the black and red dashed lines) since Eq. (6) attributes thermosteric effect (mainly a linear trend) to freshwater changes. Eq. (5) infers a much more substantial seasonal variability of freshwater content, and the phase does not always match the real freshwater content changes (blue and black lines).

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 09:25:23			
Regional boxes not clearly labelled please mark the "d" and "e" in Fig. 10 b clearly.			
Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:51:01			
Define freshwater content and fresh water concentration (see e.g. Aagard and Carmack, 1989, doi: 10.1029/JC094iC10p14485).			
Please also see the discussion in Solomon et al. (2021, doi: 10.5194/os-17-1081-2021), Forryan et al. (2019, doi: 10.5194/			
tc-13-2111-2019) and Schauer and Losch (2019, doi: 10.1175/JPO-D-19-0102.1) regarding the use of fresh water in the (Arctic)			
ocean.			
Number: 3 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021_09:43:39			
The method of correcting ITD profiles (M/HOI) for drift in the conductivity sensor is apploadue to the method used for APGO floate			
"Historical" references profiles are used in an entimal interpolation approach to a compare to in all profiles in a southin donth range			
Fision can relefence promes are used in an optimal interpolation approach to compare to in-situ promes in a certain depth range.			
For that reason it's not useful to consider the deeper part of the profile (deeper than about 500 m) to analyse long-term variability /			
trends, as they would likely not show up. The analysis by Rabe et al. (2011; 2014) and others thus only considered observational			
data shallower than 500 m, or even limited the analysis to the layer shallower than the lower halocline (practical salinity < 34). Due			
to this fact, Sumata et al. (2018, doi: 10.5194/os-14-161-2018) used only observational data in the top 400 m in their analysis of			
Arctic Ocean decorrelation scales. See also https://www2.whoi.edu/site/itp/wp-content/uploads/sites/92/2019/08/			
ITP_Data_Processing_Procedures_35803-1.pdf for ITP processing procedure (section IV.D.).			
Number: 4Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 09:50:22			
Very nice discussion! First time I really see anyone comparing the approaches by each Giles and Morison			
Number: 5 Author: broke Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021 00:50:22			
Muniper, SAurior, plage Subject, nignignit Date, 12 10/2021, 09:30/33			
Please use a couple of sentences to discuss the potential error by assuming a standard density profile of			
estimating this constant, in the SSH-based estimate of freshwater content.			

 Number: 6Author: brabe
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 What area did you consider -- e.g. "Arctic" bounded by what?





334



Figure 11. Freshwater content anomalies 1^3 km³ and approximated based on Eq. (5) in blue and Eq. (6) in red using the monthly 1_2 tput. The thick dashed lines are the annual mean values.

Eq. (5) assumes the isopycnal adjusts simultaneously with sea level anomaly, which may not apply in the
presence of baroclinic effects. In order to illustrate the limitation of Eq. (5) we take the differences between Feb.
2003 and Sep. 2002 (in which Eq. (5) fails to reproduce the phase and the amplitude of freshwater content
changes) and between 1994-1996 and 2008-2010 (when Eq. (5) reproduces the freshwater changes well).

From Sep. 2002 to Feb. 2003 (Fig. 12a), anticyclonic wind stress anomalies occur in the Beaufort Sea, resulting in positive SLA through Ekman transport. However, freshwater content is reduced during this period. The salinity difference averaged over the central Arctic Ocean reveals that salinity increases in the top 30 m₃ caused by ice formation. At the same time, the isopycnal (27.9 kg m⁻³) does the deepen (Fig. 12c) as predicted by Eq. (5). The assumption that freshwater content changes are captured by freshwater column thickness changes $\eta \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2 - \rho_1}\right)$ (red dashed lines in Fig. 12c) fails to infer freshwater content changes in this case.

347 From 1994-1996 to 2008-2010, anticyclonic wind stress anomalies appear in the Canadian Basin, accom-348 panied by positive SLA and freshwater content anomalies (Fig. 12b). During that period, Ekman pumping deep-349 ens the isopycnals (blue and red lines in Fig. 12), accumulating more freshwater and reducing the local salinity over the top 300 m (Fig. 12d). In this scenario, the water column thickness change dominates the freshwater 350 content variability, which is approximated by $\eta \cdot \left(1 + \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2 - \rho_1}\right)$ (red dashed lines in Fig. 12d). Therefore, Eq. (5) 351 352 captures the interannual freshwater content changes using the satellite altimetry observations. Therefore, caution 353 needs to be taken when inferring Arctic Ocean freshwater content changes using satellite altimetry observations and GRACE measurements. In addition, Figs. 12b and 12c also indicate that Eq. (5) can be only used in the 354 355 deep basin of the Canadian Basin where wind drives the sea level changes and the deepening/shoaling of the 356 isopycnals.

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It would be useful here to have a panel with the difference between the red and black lines (referred to in the		
text, "long term trend").	
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(again, is that the 4 kr	n one?)	
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Figure 12. The differences of freshwater content (shading), sea level anomaly (0.15 m contour, black lines), and wind stress(vectors) between (a) Feb. 2003 and Sep. 2002, (b) 1994-1996 and 2008-2010. Panels (c) and (d) are the corresponding salinity differences (shading) average over the central Arctic Ocean (black dashed lines in panel (a)). The blue lines denote the 27.9 kg m⁻³ isopycnal in Sep. 2002 and 1994-1996. The red lines and red dashed lines are the 27.9 kg m⁻³ isopycnal and the diagnosed lines with SLA and Eq. (5) in Feb. 2003 and 2008-2010.

364 **22 In-situ profilers**

365 In-situ profilers measure salinity directly, but they are limited by sea ice presence. The endeavor of polar expeditions and the evolving measurement techniques (e.g., ITP) have generated a large number of hydrograph-366 ic data in the central Arctic and subarctic seas (e.g., Behrendt et al., 2018). 3his section examines to what extent 367 existing hydrographic observations could help reveal Arctic freshwater content changes and identify observa-368 369 tional gaps. Based on the spatiotemporal distribution of profiles in the study of Behrendt et al. (2018) and an 370 ensemble optimal interpolation (EnOI) scheme (Evensen, 2003;Lyu et al., 2014), we test to what extent existing profiles could help to reconstruct the "true" state (here the ATLARC08km simulation) during the periods 1992 371 372 to 2012. Details of the EnOI scheme are given in Appendix A.

357

Number: 1 Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:09:41

Please define "difference" -- is it the latter period MINUS the former, or vice versa? (b) suggests that it's 2008-2010 MINUS 199-1996 (i.e. FW content increase).

Units are missing on the colorbars !

What you are plotting in colour are the FW inventories (presumeable in "m"), not the content (that being a volume quantity, i.e. "m^3").

Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 11/10/2021, 18:30:55

This is a nice study making use of the model runs presented here.

However, this section deserves reference to existing works. For example, Rabe et al. (2014, doi:10.1002/2013GL058121) do not resolve the seasonal cycle, using data from 1992 to 2012, but instead use a 6-year moving window to weigh data in time and space using an optimal interpolation method. The final interpolated product showed high error for the annual mean estimate of Arctic Basin freshwater content, indicating that shorter than interannual / multi-year variability is not adequately resolved by those observations. IT's at least worth a paragraph of discussion.

Number: 3Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:15:50

Again, much work has been done, e.g. by Rabe..., Polyakov... and also Haine... -- please cite appropriately here and/or above (see prior comments).



374





Year Figure 13. Mean freshwater content in the Canadian Basin (enclosed by the black line in the top subplot) from the background state, the "tuth", and the optimal interpolation reconstructed state (see legend).

377	2s shown in Fig. 13, the sparse in-situ profiles help bring the freshwater content in the background state
378	close to the "truth" state. However, it is not until 2007 that the reconstructed state reproduces the seasonal to
379	inter-annual freshwater content variability in the Canadian Basin, benefiting from the increasing number of
380	research activities and international collaborations. In Fig. 14, we further examined RMS errors of freshwater
381	content depending on geographic locations from 2007 to 2012. Besides the Barents Sea, more significant errors
382	remain in coastal areas due to the lacking in-situ profiles. In the Laptev Sea and the Alaska coast, we note
383	pronounced errors extending from the coasts to the deep basin, underlining the observing requirements.

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inventory		

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The regional selection is somewhat arbitrary -- best use either the topographic basin boundaries (e.g. denoted by continental slope isobath and Alpha-Mendeleyev Ridge). The Beaufort Gyre follows dynamics that may show variability in this box that is not related to FW content changes in the whole gyre.

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384

1] gure 14. Root mean square errors of freshwater content between the reconstructed state and the "truth".
 The above results highlight that the increase of hydrographic observations have enhanced our ability to re construct the Arctic freshwater content changes since 2007. A lack of hydrographic observations in the coastal
 areas results in significant errors in the marginal seas, which require extensive international collaborations.

289 6 Summary and conclusions

Sea level variability reflects changes in ocean dynamics, atmospheric forcing, and terrestrial runoff processes (Stammer et al., 2013). In particular, sea level observations have been applied to infer freshwater content changes (Armitage et al., 2016;Giles et al., 2012;Proshutinsky et al., 2019) in the central Arctic Ocean. To complement our understanding of the Arctic sea level variability and its mechanisms, we use two high-resolution ATLARC model simulations to investigate the Arctic sea level variability at different timescales and the relation with bottom pressure and thermo/halosteric effects, identifying critical observational gaps that need to be filled.

Both the model simulations and mooring observations reveal very high-frequency bottom pressure variations. The model simulations confirm that the bottom pressure anomaly is equivalent to sea level anomaly in most areas of the Arctic Ocean at periods <30 days, reflecting the barotropic nature of this high-frequency variability. Correlation analyses show that the high-frequency sea level variability is caused by wind-driven Ekman transport and propagations of these barotropic signals.

The seasonal sea level variability is dominated by volume exchanges with the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans and the redistribution of the water by wind stress. Halosteric effects due to river runoff and ice melting/formation are also pronounced in the marginal seas and seasonal sea ice extent regions. Peralta-Ferriz and Morison (2010) demonstrated that river runoff and EmP drive the seasonal cycle of the Arctic bottom pressure. Although the virtual salt flux parameterization could not mimic the influences of volume input from rivers and surface fluxes, the model simulations still simulate much stronger seasonal mass anomalies than the observa-

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Here we have a mixture of

1-- regional observation density in time and space

2-- variance of regional observations

Due to 1 we would expect high errors on the shelves, whereas due to 2 we see errors in the well-sampled Canada Basin. Please discuss in a couple of sentences....

Number: 2Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:38:09

this discussion ignores all the estimates of FW content based on in-situ observations. Please include this in your discussion, as you specifically look at the use of those observations in your analysis. (see my prior comments for references)





407 tions from GRACE. Either volume exchanges with the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans or volume input from river 408 runoff and EmP are large enough to cause the Arctic Ocean's seasonal volume variability. They should work 409 together, resulting in the Arctic seasonal volume variability. We speculate that using river runoff and EmP as 410 volume flux, rather than the virtual salt flux, could likely improve the volume and sea level variability in the 411 marginal seas from April to July, since the volume inputs from river runoff could alleviate the negative volume 412 anomalies in the marginal seas caused by wind.

413 At decadal timescales, the model simulations further confirm that the pronounced sea level variability in the 414 central Arctic Ocean, especially in the Canadian Basin, is mainly a halosteric effect. Using the satellite altimet-415 ric observations and GRACE observations, the method of Giles et al. (2012) could infer the freshwater content changes in the Canadian Basin very well at timescales longer than one year since **1** opycnal requires time to 416 417 adjust to sea level changes. Inferring freshwater content changes using a linear relation of freshwater content 418 and steric height (Morison et al., 2012) reveals both the interannual and the seasonal variability of freshwater content. However, caution 2 need to be taken since the method also attributes the thermosteric effects to haloster-419 420 ic effects, resulting in an additional linear trend. In addition, uncertainties in the satellite altimetric and GRACE 421 measurements make the estimation more complicated and introduce significant uncertainties in the steric effects 422 and freshwater content estimation (Ludwigsen and Andersen, 2021).

423 The increasing number of international collaborations and new measurement techniques have generat-424 ed a large number of profiles. From reconstructing the salinity with synthetic observations, we note that the in-425 situ profile system seems to capture the seasonal freshwater variability since the year 2007, encouraging further 426 Arctic data synthesis studies (Behrendt et al., 2018;Cheng and Zhu, 2016;Steele et al., 2001) with more compli-427 cated interpolation methods. In addition, international collaborations need to be enhanced to fill in the observa-428 tional gaps in the marginal seas. Further, observing system simulation experiments (e.g., Lyu et al., 2021;Nguyen et al., 2020) should be performed coordinately develop an 3 tonomous observing system in the 429 430 Arctic Ocean.

431 5 Data availability

The data used to create the plots in the paper are available at Pangaea (https://issues.pangaea.de/browse/PDI22940). To access results of the two high resolution ATLARC model simulations, please contact Dr. Nuno Serra
at https://www.ifm.uni-hamburg.de/en/institute/staff/serra.html. Observational data were retrieved from publicly
available sources and are listed in the text.

436

- Author contribution. G. Lyu performed the analysis and wrote the paper. N. Serra performed the model simula tions. D. Stammer proposed this study and M. Zhou provided advice on the analysis.
- 438 tions. D. Stammer proposed this study and M. Zhou provided advice on the analysis
- 439 Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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which? all isopycnals	(i.e. stratificatior	n)?		
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Consider citing Lee et al. (2019, doi: <u>10.3389/fmars.2019.00451</u>).				
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See my prior comment you need data citations !!!				





441 Acknowledgments

442	This work was supported partly through funding received from project INTAROS, funded by the European
443	Union (Grant No. 727890). G. Lyu and M. Zhou also thank the support from project STRESSOR, funded by the
444	National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 41861134040). We thank ECMWF and NCEP for
445	offering, respectively, the ERAInterim and NCEP-RA1 atmospheric reanalysis data. 1/e also thank NASA,
446	BGEP, NPEO, and NABOS for supplying observational data used in the model validation. All model simula-
447	tions were performed at the Deutsches Klimarechenzentrum (DKRZ), Hamburg, Germany. Contribution to the
448	DFG funded Excellence Cluster CLICCS at the Center für Erdsystemforschung und Nachhaltigkeit (CEN) of
449	Universität Hamburg.

450 Appendix A

451 An EnOI Scheme

452 We use an EnOI scheme (Cheng and Zhu, 2016) to reconstruct the salinity in the Arctic Ocean using syn-453 thetic observations. The analysis state φ^a is a linear combination of a background field φ^f and in-situ observa-454 tions *d*:

455 $\varphi^a = \varphi^f + K(d - H\varphi^f)$ (A1), 456 where *H* is a transfer matric that maps model state from model space to observation space. 2 this study, the

457 background field of salinity ϕ^{i} is taken as the mean salinity over the period 1992-2012. *K* is the Kalman gain, 458 calculated as:

459 $K = A'A'^T H^T (HA'A'^T H^T + \gamma \gamma^T)^{-1}$ (A2).

460 The superscript *T* denotes matrix transposition. In this formulation, we use *A'*, the salinity deviation from 461 the mean salinity, to compute the error covariance of the background state $(A'A'^T)$. We use monthly data from 462 the year 1992 to 2012 to compute *A'*, resulting in a total of 252 ensemble members. For simplicity, **3**e assume 463 the observational errors $\overline{\gamma}$ only depend on depth, ranging from 0.09 PSU at the surface to 0.02 PSU in the deep 464 ocean, and are not correlated.

The use of ensemble members to approximate the background error covariance $(A'A'^T)$ will inevitably introduce long-distance correlations and propagate the observational information incorrectly over a much longer distance. Therefore, we introduce a aussian filter as a function of the distance between observational locations and the model grid and an influencing radius to ensure that only observations within the influencing radius of a model grid point could modify the analysis state.

Taken the "true" salinity state from August 1992 and observation locations from the year 2008 (black dots in Fig. A1a), we test the impacts of the influencing radius on the analysis field. The background state is more saline than the truth (Fig. A1a). With a 300 km influencing radius (Fig. A1b), the analysis state reduces the errors near the observations while significant errors remain in regions far away from observations. Increasing the influencing radius to 1000 km, we see that salinity errors in the marginal seas, north pole areas and the Baffin bay are reduced (Fig. A1c). A 2400 km influencing radius further reduces salinity error in the Canadian

	What is that based	on? The instrument	arrar daga not depend on depth but the anotial representativeness of
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	Mean at each grid	point or mean over	the whole domain and time period? (i.e. not a field, but a single scalar)
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	. then you might a	s well acknowledge	the WHOI ITP program (see their website my prior comment).
Τ	Number: 1 Author: brabe	Subject: Highlight	Date: 12/10/2021, 10:26:22

What is that based on? The instrument errorr does not depend on depth! ... but the spatial representativeness of the data for a whole grid box likely does, due to decorrelation scales (see my earlier comment / citatation of Sumata et al.).

Number: 4Author: brabe Subject: Highlight Date: 12/10/2021, 10:24:45

Please state the function -- e^(x/scaling) or similar...(?)

Do you consider the water depth (e.g. planetary potential vorticity) or if not, please comment why that does not matter (see also Rabe et al., 2011, 2014; doi see prior comment). What is your time scale (or is there any in the Gaussian)? Do you consider all data or do you have a moving time selection window?





- 476 Arctic Archipelago (Fig. A1d). However, only slight improvements are observed in the central Arctic Ocean,
- 477 and errors in the Kara Sea are slightly increased. Since we focus on the Arctic freshwater content variability,
- 478 we use a 1000 km influencing radius throughout this study.
- 479



480

Figure A1. Example of sea surface salinity difference between (a) the **1** ckground and the truth, (b) the analysis with an influencing radius of 300 km and the truth, (c) the analysis with an influencing radius of 1000 km and the truth, and (d) the analysis with an influencing radius of 2400 km and the "truth". Black dots in panel (a) denote the locations of synthetic observations, sampled using sites of the prevations from year 2008.

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only for 2008, annual average of monthly fields ?

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this may be biased -- in 2007 the central and Eurasian Arctic was much better covered by obs., whereas in 2008 the region north of the East Siberian Sea was.