Tidal mixing maintains regional differences in water properties and nutrient ratios in British Columbia coastal waters

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Abstract

Tidal mixing is recognized as a key mechanism in setting water properties in coastal regions globally. Our study focuses on Canada's British Columbia coastal waters, from Queen Charlotte Strait to the Strait of Georgia. This area is bisected by a region of exceptionally strong mixing driven by some of the strongest tidal currents in the world. We examine the influence of this tidal mixing on regional differences in water properties and nutrient ratios. Our results quantify a spatially-abrupt and temporally-persistent lateral gradient in temperature, salinity, and density co-located with the region of strongest mixing. The distributions of density on either side of this front remain largely distinct throughout the spring-neap tidal cycle, yearround, and for over 70 individual years for which data are available. Additionally, nutrient molar ratios north of the front are statistically distinct from those to the south. Seasonal changes driven by the arrival of upwelled water differ in both timing and magnitude on either side of the front. Taken together, these results indicate limited exchange of water through the region of strongest tidal mixing, and suggest that Queen Charlotte Strait and the Strait of Georgia are largely isolated from each other. As such, this area provides a valuable case study for the degree to which the reduction of estuarine exchange by tidal mixing can maintain abrupt and substantial regional differences in physical and biogeochemical water properties. Further, it demonstrates the potential of tidal mixing to modify nutrient transport pathways, with implications for marine ecosystems.

Tidal mixing maintains regional differences in water properties and nutrient ratios in British Columbia coastal waters

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12 Key Points:

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- An abrupt and persistent lateral gradient in water properties is quantified, co-located
 with strong tidal mixing bisecting the study area.
 Differences in the seasonality, open-ocean connectivity, and response to stressors
- ¹⁶ are found in the regions separated by the tidal mixing.
- The mixing is likely limiting the two-layer estuarine exchange flow between regions,
 and so modifying the transport pathways for nutrients.

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19 Abstract

Tidal mixing is recognized as a key mechanism in setting water properties in coastal re-20 gions globally. Our study focuses on Canada's British Columbia coastal waters, from Queen 21 Charlotte Strait to the Strait of Georgia. This area is bisected by a region of exception-22 ally strong mixing driven by some of the strongest tidal currents in the world. We ex-23 amine the influence of this tidal mixing on regional differences in water properties and 24 nutrient ratios. Our results quantify a spatially-abrupt and temporally-persistent lat-25 eral gradient in temperature, salinity, and density co-located with the region of strongest 26 mixing. The distributions of density on either side of this front remain largely distinct 27 throughout the spring-neap tidal cycle, year-round, and for over 70 individual years for 28 which data are available. Additionally, nutrient molar ratios north of the front are sta-29 tistically distinct from those to the south. Seasonal changes driven by the arrival of up-30 welled water differ in both timing and magnitude on either side of the front. Taken to-31 gether, these results indicate limited exchange of water through the region of strongest 32 tidal mixing, and suggest that Queen Charlotte Strait and the Strait of Georgia are largely 33 isolated from each other. As such, this area provides a valuable case study for the de-34 gree to which the reduction of estuarine exchange by tidal mixing can maintain abrupt 35 and substantial regional differences in physical and biogeochemical water properties. Fur-36 ther, it demonstrates the potential of tidal mixing to modify nutrient transport path-37 ways, with implications for marine ecosystems. 38

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Plain Language Summary

Mixing caused by the tides affects properties in coastal waters globally. Our study 40 focuses on coastal waters in British Columbia Canada, from Queen Charlotte Strait to 41 the Strait of Georgia. This area is bisected by a region of strong mixing caused by some 42 of the strongest tidal currents in the world. We examine how this tidal mixing affects 43 water properties. Our results show that temperature, salinity, density, and the relative 44 proportions of key nutrients change significantly across the region of strongest mixing. 45 These differences between the two halves of the study area persist throughout the tidal 46 cycle and year-round, for over 70 individual years. We also find differences in the sea-47 sonal cycles in properties and their similarity to open ocean waters. These results indi-48 cate that the exchange of water through the region of strongest tidal mixing is signif-49 icantly limited, which suggests that Queen Charlotte Strait and the Strait of Georgia 50

are largely isolated from each other. As such, this area provides a valuable case study

⁵² for the ability of tidal mixing to maintain abrupt and substantial regional differences in

⁵³ water properties. Further, it suggests that tidal mixing can affect nutrient transport to

⁵⁴ different regions, an important consideration for marine ecosystems.

55 1 Introduction

Tidal mixing has been widely shown to play an important role in the modification 56 of coastal water properties and the maintenance of persistent tidal fronts, leading to dis-57 tinct physical and biogeochemical properties in adjacent regions (Thomson, 1981; LeBlond, 58 1983; van Heijst, 1986; Loder et al., 1994). In many cases, tidal mixing can limit the es-59 tuarine exchange flow typical of coastal waters (e.g. Waldichuk, 1957; Griffin & LeBlond, 60 1990; Masson, 2002; MacCready & Geyer, 2010; Johannessen et al., 2014) reducing the 61 transport of properties between regions. The resulting regional differences in water prop-62 erties have direct effects on marine ecosystem function, including primary and secondary 63 productivity, the location of biological hotspots, and the connectivity of ecosystems (Harrison 64 et al., 1983; Gay & Vaughan, 2001; Arimitsu et al., 2016). 65

The influence of tidal mixing is expected to be particularly significant on the south-66 western coast of British Columbia (BC) Canada, an area where rapid tidal currents and 67 complex topography force some of the strongest tidally-driven turbulence in the world 68 (e.g. Foreman et al., 2012). Our specific study area along the BC coast is located to the 69 east and north of Vancouver Island; from eastern Queen Charlotte Strait (QCSt) through 70 Johnstone Strait (JS) and the Discovery Islands (DI) into the northern Strait of Geor-71 gia (SoG) (Figure 1). Strong tidal currents in the study area are well-documented, as 72 is the resulting intense turbulent mixing over rough bathymetry and sills (Thomson, 1981; 73 Griffin & LeBlond, 1990; Foreman et al., 2004). In particular, the shallow, narrow chan-74 nels in eastern JS and the DI that bisect the study area are known to have the strongest 75 tidal currents in Canada, driving the most intense turbulence in Canadian waters (Whitney 76 et al., 2005). 77

Southwestern British Columbia's complex topography was carved out by glaciers,
and is characterized by fjords, islands, inlets and straits. The tidal currents are mixed,
dominantly semidiurnal, and propagate both north and south around Vancouver Island
before meeting in the area between QCSt and the SoG (Thomson, 1981). A two-layer

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Figure 1. Bathymetric map of the study area showing the boundaries of the four regions: eastern Queen Charlotte Strait (QCSt, red), western Johnstone Strait (JS, orange), the Discovery Islands region (DI, dark blue), and the northern Strait of Georgia (SoG, light blue). The maximum tidal currents (in knots) in select passages are given (*Canadian Tide and Current Tables / Tables des marées et courants du Canada*, 2019).

estuarine circulation is driven by surface outflow from numerous terrestrial freshwater 82 sources, with stratification in the area controlled primarily by salinity. Reviews of the 83 physical oceanography of the area are provided by Thomson (1981); LeBlond (1983); Whit-84 ney et al. (2005) and Riche et al. (2014). Similar complex coastal marine environments 85 are encountered in Alaska, the south-west coast of Chile, New Zealand, and Scandinavia 86 (e.g. Stanton & Pickard, 1980; Svendsen, 1995; Iriarte et al., 2014; Arimitsu et al., 2016). 87 Biological productivity in British Columbia's coastal waters is driven in part by 88 the coastal upwelling of nutrient-rich deep ocean waters (Ware & McFarlane, 1989; Whit-89 ney et al., 2005). Specifically, nutrients in these coastal waters are replenished season-90 ally when large-scale wind patterns shift from downwelling- to upwelling-favorable, driv-91 ing a deep inflow of water from the Northeast Pacific Ocean. Nutrient molar ratios in 92 these coastal waters can differ significantly from open ocean values due to modification 93 by e.g., riverine inputs and denitrification in anoxic sediments (Smethie, 1987; Whitney 94 et al., 2005). The influence of such modification is expected to vary regionally, partially 95

⁹⁶ as a result of tidal mixing limiting two-layer estuarine exchange flow and driving verti-

cal transport of nutrients towards the euphotic zone. Regional variations in the ratios
of nitrate, phosphate, and silicate can have significant implications for phytoplankton
species composition and productivity (Geider & La Roche, 2002; Arrigo, 2005; Strom
et al., 2006; Klausmeier et al., 2008).

An important effect of extremely vigorous tidal mixing on the circulation is to re-101 move momentum from the two-layer estuarine exchange flow and enhance vertical mo-102 mentum transfer (Griffin & LeBlond, 1990; Hibiya & LeBlond, 1993; Park & Kuo, 1996; 103 MacCready, 1999), causing a recirculation of inflowing water. In nearby Haro Strait, tidal 104 mixing is known to periodically drive such a recirculation, limiting estuarine exchange 105 and restricting deep inflow to occasional pulses of dense water passing over the sill be-106 tween the Strait of Georgia and the Strait of Juan de Fuca (Griffin & LeBlond, 1990; LeBlond 107 et al., 1991; Hibiya & LeBlond, 1993; Masson, 2002; Masson & Cummins, 2004; Johan-108 nessen et al., 2014). The impact of tidal mixing on circulation in our study area is ex-109 pected to be even more pronounced, making this area an ideal case study for the poten-110 tial of tidal mixing to drive sustained regional differences in physical and biogeochem-111 ical water properties. Past studies by Thomson (1976) and Thomson (1981) showed ev-112 idence of such a transition in properties in the study area, identifying a well-defined full-113 depth density front co-located with the sill separating the shallower eastern end of JS 114 from the DI. The reduction of estuarine exchange, the recirculation of inflowing water, 115 and other impacts of tidal mixing are additionally expected to result in region-specific 116 ecosystem dynamics and responses to environmental stressors that presently affect the 117 study area, including ocean acidification (e.g. Feely et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2019), hy-118 poxia (e.g. Crawford & Peña, 2013), and marine heatwaves (e.g. Di Lorenzo & Mantua, 119 2016; Jackson et al., 2018). 120

In this study, our goal is to robustly quantify regional differences in water prop-121 erties and consider the implications for eastern Queen Charlotte Strait through to the 122 northern Strait of Georgia, transecting the region of intense tidal mixing in Johnstone 123 Strait and the Discovery Islands. To do so, we combine historic observations spanning 124 multiple decades with high-temporal resolution observations from recent years, thereby 125 creating a new regional data product for physical water properties and nutrient concen-126 trations (Section 2). We use this data product to quantify spatial and temporal variabil-127 ity in water properties to a previously inaccessible degree (Section 3), creating a com-128 prehensive picture of the regional structure of physical water properties and nutrient ra-129

tios. Finally, we discuss how these findings provide insight into the role of tidal mixing

in setting coastal ocean properties and maintaining regional separation, and further how

this mixing-induced regionalization can impact ecosystems (Section 4).

¹³³ 2 Data and Methods

From this point onwards, the abbreviations QCSt, JS, DI, and SoG will be used 134 to refer to the four regions shown in Figure 1. These useful subdivisions of our study area 135 are defined based on data availability, bathymetric features such as sills that provide nat-136 ural boundaries, and stratification used as a proxy for the influence of mixing in each 137 region (see Supporting Information S.1 for a full discussion). In these regions, the far 138 eastern end of Johnstone Strait is included in the DI region, so that 'JS' refers strictly 139 to the western part of Johnstone Strait outlined in Figure 1. As such, the density front 140 in Johnstone Strait described in Thomson1976 and Thomson1981 and discussed herein 141 is co-located with the sill separating the JS and DI regions. We refer to this transition 142 zone between JS and the DI as the 'tidal mixing frontal zone'. 143

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2.1 Data sources

We quantify the spatial and temporal variability of physical and biogeochemical 145 water properties in the study area through the creation and analysis of a new data prod-146 uct combining archived temperature (T), salinity (S), and nutrient concentration data 147 spanning multiple decades (Figure S2) collected by Fisheries and Oceans Canada (DFO) 148 and the University of British Columbia (UBC) with more recent data collected at high 149 temporal resolution by the Hakai Institute (Hakai). Details on these data sources are given 150 below and in Supporting Information S.2. Our analysis represents the first time that data 151 from these sources have been combined for this geographic area. The resulting data prod-152 uct provides a combination of unparalleled spatial and temporal coverage over the re-153 gions of interest, with sufficient temporal resolution in each region to investigate seasonal 154 variability in water properties (Figures S1, S2). 155

DFO has collected hydrographic temperature and salinity data in QCSt, JS, the DI, and the SoG since the 1930s (*Institute of Ocean Sciences Data Archive*, 2020). Additionally, UBC has collected hydrographic data in the study area since the 1970s. These historic data were collected at locations spread across the study area during all months

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of the year. In total, 3,269 DFO profiles and 1,138 UBC profiles are included in the new 160 data product and our analysis. Of these, 608 are from QCSt, 1,522 are from JS, 872 are 161 from the DI, and 1,405 are from the SoG. From the 1930s to the mid-1970s, tempera-162 ture was measured using a reversing thermometer, while salinity was measured from wa-163 ter samples. Beginning in the mid-1970s, use of a Conductivity-Temperature-Depth (CTD) 164 instrument equipped with electronic sensors to measure temperature, conductivity, and 165 pressure became common. The accuracy of the archived measurements is at minimum 166 0.1°C for temperature and 0.1 for CTD salinity. Salinity data collected pre-1980 using 167 bottle samples is comparable to recent CTD-based salinity data with an accuracy of 0.4 168 (Chandler et al., 2017). 169

More recently, from 2014 to present, the Hakai Institute has collected CTD data in QCSt near the sill with JS, in the deep western end of JS, in the DI, and in the northern SoG near Quadra Island where a Hakai field station is located. A total of 3,131 Hakai CTD profiles are included in the data product and our analysis: this includes 103 profiles in QCSt, 244 profiles in JS, 353 profiles in the DI, and 2,431 profiles in the SoG. The accuracy of these measurements is 0.005°C or better for temperature and 0.001 or better for salinity.

Nutrient concentration data (nitrate+nitrite, phosphate, and silicate) collected by 177 DFO since 1977 are also included in our analysis (Institute of Ocean Sciences Data Archive, 178 2020). We use a total of 334 DFO nutrient profiles, with 48 profiles from QCSt, 46 pro-179 files from JS, 61 profiles from the DI, and 179 profiles from the SoG. Here a 'profile' refers 180 to a set of samples collected at a single location for all three nutrients. Sample precision 181 is estimated to be 0.2 μ mol L⁻¹ or better for nitrate+nitrite, 0.03 μ mol L⁻¹ or better 182 for phosphate and 0.4 μ mol L⁻¹ or better for silicate. Nutrient samples are not filtered 183 and were processed fresh until recent years, now most samples are processed frozen. 184

The DFO nutrient data are combined with Hakai Institute nitrate+nitrite, phosphate, and silicate concentration data collected at repeat sampling stations. These data are available from 2014 onwards. A total of 909 Hakai nutrient profiles are used in the analysis, with 102 profiles in QCSt, 189 profiles in JS, 79 profiles in the DI, and 539 profiles in the SoG. Sample precision is estimated to be 0.2 μ mol L⁻¹ or better for nitrate+nitrite (hereafter 'nitrate'), 0.02 μ mol L⁻¹ or better for phosphate and 0.2 μ mol L⁻¹ or better for silicate. Nutrient collection and processing protocols are identical to those cur-

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rently used by DFO, with the exception that nutrients are filtered and are often collected by small boat and so kept upright on ice in a cooler until they can be frozen to -20°C.

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2.2 Data interchangeability and sampling bias

Our analysis of the new combined data product has the goals of quantifying persistent regional differences in physical water properties and nutrient ratios, as well as resolving seasonal and depth variability in these regions. As such, interchangeability of data from different sources is necessary, as is a careful consideration of biases in sampling.

The DFO, UBC, and Hakai data collection programs are independently run, and 199 the DFO data includes measurements collected by different internal programs (further 200 details provided in Chandler et al. (2017) and Supporting Information S.2). Previous stud-201 ies that considered both DFO and Hakai hydrographic data sets suggest that the data 202 are comparable and can be used interchangeably (e.g. Jackson et al., 2018). Preliminary 203 comparisons (not shown) between nutrient samples collected by Hakai and DFO within 204 several days of each other at nearby locations suggests these data can also be used in-205 terchangeably. 206

Due to the realities of sampling conducted over decades by multiple agencies, sig-207 nificant interannual, seasonal, depth, and spatial biases are present in the combined data 208 product and must be considered. A detailed description of known biases is provided in 209 Supporting Information S.2; a brief discussion of the ways in which we designed our anal-210 ysis to minimize these biases in our results follows below. Biases for nutrient data are 211 similar to those for temperature and salinity, and we note that the number of nutrient 212 samples is relatively low compared to the number of hydrographic profiles (Figure S2). 213 As the variables considered herein are frequently not normally distributed, we charac-214 terize the 'average' of a distribution of values using the median rather than the mean, 215 unless otherwise specified. 216

Owing to interannual bias in sampling, which varies by region (Figure S2), our analysis does not include an examination of interannual trends. Rather, we focus on the persistence of regional differences over the full duration of the data record. Seasonal bias in sampling is present in all regions due to the difficulty of making measurements during winter conditions, though this is particularly notable in the QCSt and JS regions (Figure S3). In cases where this seasonal bias is likely to significantly impact our analysis,

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data are averaged monthly or grouped into summer (May to October) vs. winter (November to April) periods.

Our analysis examines both the fresh upper and dense lower layer in the two-layer 225 estuarine exchange flow present in much of the study area, necessitating consideration 226 of depth biases in sampling. For consistency between the physical and nutrient data, we 227 calculate the mean value of temperature, salinity, and nutrient concentration data in 25 m 228 bins for most of the analysis. When appropriate, we focus on differences between the 'up-229 per' (<50 m depth) and 'lower' ($\geq 50 \text{ m depth}$) portions of the water column. The top 230 10 m of T and S profiles are excluded from much of the analysis due to higher uncertainty 231 and the relative scarcity of surface measurements (Supporting Information S.2). 232

To minimize the impacts of spatial biases in sampling on our results, we focus on 233 identifying robust large-scale inter-regional variations. In doing this, we make the im-234 plicit assumption that variations of water properties within regions (whether captured 235 by our data or not) are smaller than variations between regions. The results herein sup-236 port this assumption for locations where profiles are available. Nutrient data are spa-237 tially sparse (Figure S4), and a concerted observational effort would be required to ac-238 curately quantify smaller-scale spatial variations in nutrient concentrations within each 239 region. 240

We acknowledge that it is not possible to fully eliminate the impacts of sampling bias on our analysis. Our aims are to design our analysis to minimize these impacts to a reasonable extent and to interpret our results within the context of the known biases described above.

245 **3 Results**

In what follows, we use the combined data product to quantify regional differences in water properties, which are sustained by the strong tidal mixing in the tidal mixing frontal zone. We examine the spatial and temporal variability of water properties by region, and quantify a spatially-abrupt and temporally-persistent transition within this frontal zone. We show that, despite their geographic proximity, the physical water properties, nutrient ratios, and seasonality in QCSt and JS are distinct from those in the northern SoG and the DI. 253

3.1 Stratification and inferred tidal mixing strength

While we do not measure ocean currents or mixing directly, we use the stratifica-254 tion in the upper water column as a qualitative proxy to infer the relative strength and 255 delineate the spatial extent of the tidal mixing in each region within the study area. We 256 assume that mixing in this area is primarily tidally-driven based both on previous stud-257 ies (e.g. Thomson, 1981; Griffin & LeBlond, 1990; Foreman et al., 2004) and on the strong 258 tidal currents present in the JS and DI regions (Figure 1, Canadian Tide and Current 259 Tables / Tables des marées et courants du Canada (2019)). We characterize the strat-260 ification using the average buoyancy frequency, N^2 , in the upper 50 m of the water col-261 umn (Figure 2, Supporting Information S.1). Our characterization indicates that the strongest 262 tidal mixing occurs in the DI, where the near-homogenization of the water column is im-263 mediately apparent. Relatively weak stratification in the JS region suggests weak tidal 264 mixing there, while relatively strong stratification in QCSt and the SoG suggests min-265 imal or absent tidal mixing in these regions. Regional differences in stratification are sim-266 ilar in summer and winter, with lower values of N^2 overall in winter (Figure S1). Based 267 on these results, we infer that the majority of the tidal mixing occurs in JS and the DI 268 during all seasons. We focus our analysis on regional differences and the transition in 269 properties across the tidal mixing frontal zone (Figure 1), however we note that strong 270 mixing is also known to occur at locations in JS and the DI outside of this zone. 271

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3.2 Temperature and salinity contrast

To investigate how the tidal mixing frontal zone is linked to a transition in water 273 properties, we first examine regional differences in temperature and salinity data (Fig-274 ure 3). A temperature-salinity (T-S) diagram for JS and the DI (Figure 3, right inset) 275 reveals an abrupt, distinct, and persistent regional contrast in T-S properties, evident 276 in the clear separation between the two regions in T-S space. This abrupt transition be-277 tween JS and the DI occurs roughly along the 1023 kg m⁻³ isopycnal. Geographically, 278 this transition bisects the study area and the regional differences in properties remain 279 visible in the adjacent regions: temperature and salinity values in QCSt are distinct from 280 those in the SoG (Figure 3, left inset). Specifically, T-S properties in JS are similar to 281 upper ocean waters in QCSt (density <1025.0 kg m⁻³), while properties in the DI re-282 semble those of upper ocean waters in the SoG (density <1023.0 kg m⁻³) (Figure 3 in-283 sets, density contours). The QCSt/JS regions have T-S properties that more closely re-284



Figure 2. Log of buoyancy frequency, N^2 (in s⁻²), in the upper 50 m of the water column, calculated from 2 m vertically-binned temperature and salinity profile data, with the median value for May to October shown. Within each 2.5 km square grid box, a median value for each month is calculated, then the median value of the summer months is determined. White grid boxes are locations with no data available, or outside the study area. Winter months (Figure S1) display similar regional differences but lower stratification overall. The approximate locations of shallow sills mentioned in the text are indicated, as is the tidal mixing frontal zone (red box).



Figure 3. (Map) Locations of hydrographic profiles coloured by region, with QCSt in red, JS in orange, the DI in dark blue and the SoG in light blue. (Insets) Temperature-salinity diagrams for all potential temperature and salinity profile data from the locations on the map, coloured by region. Data have not been binned or averaged. Black lines give contours of potential density.

- semble values seen in the open Northeast Pacific Ocean adjacent to the BC continental shelf (e.g. Thomson & Krassovski, 2010), whereas the SoG/DI regions are warmer
 and fresher year-round. The relatively cooler and more saline waters in QCSt and JS relative to the SoG and DI may thus reflect their proximity and higher connectivity to the
 open ocean.
- An examination of the average seasonal cycles in the upper (10-50 m depth) and 290 lower (50-200 m depth) water column (Figure 4) allows us to assess seasonal variabil-291 ity in this regional T-S contrast. Regional differences in salinity are roughly constant year-292 round in the upper water column (Figure 4a). In contrast, there is a summer increase 293 in salinity in the lower water column (Figure 4b) seen only in QCSt and JS caused by 294 seasonal upwelling, discussed in Section 3.4. In the upper water column, the median salin-295 ity in the SoG is 2.2 units fresher than in QCSt, while median salinity in the DI region 296 is 1.4 units fresher than in JS. The largest regional difference in the upper water column 297 occurs in August, when the SoG and DI are 2.6 units fresher than QCSt. In the lower 298

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Figure 4. A comparison of regional seasonal cycles in a) salinity from 10-50 m depth, b) salinity from 50-200 m depth, c) potential temperature from 10-50 m depth, and d) potential temperature from 50-200 m depth. Lines give median monthly values for data from all available years with dots indicating months with data from 5 or more years. Shaded envelopes give the 25-75% interquartile range. Colour corresponds to region as indicated in the legend.

water column, median salinity in the SoG is 1.9 units fresher than in QCSt, and median salinity in the DI region is 1.5 units fresher than JS. The largest regional difference occurs in July, when the DI is 3.0 units fresher than QCSt. The reduced salinity contrast between the upper and lower water column in JS and the DI region, relative to that in the SoG and QCSt, is likely due to homogenization of the deep waters with the overlying surface layers through strong tidal mixing. Consistent with this picture, the freshest and warmest deep waters are in the DI, where the strongest tidal mixing occurs.

Regional temperature differences are also present year-round. The magnitude of 306 the temperature contrast between regions varies seasonally in both the upper and lower 307 portions of the water column. In the upper water column (Figure 4c), temperatures in 308 summer (May to October) in the SoG and DI are often 1-2°C warmer than in QCSt and 309 JS, though variations between months are large. The largest regional difference occurs 310 in August, when the DI is 2.3°C warmer than QCSt. Regional temperature differences 311 in the upper water column in winter (November to April) are generally much smaller (typ-312 ically less than 1°C), reflecting the influence of large-scale atmospheric conditions that 313 span the study area as a whole. In the lower water column (Figure 4d), temperatures 314 in the SoG and QCSt display less seasonal variation, with temperatures in the SoG roughly 315 1°C warmer than QCSt year-round. In contrast, JS and the DI show a pronounced sea-316 sonal cycle matching that in the upper water column. The largest regional difference oc-317 curs in September, when the DI is 2.7°C warmer than QCSt. Minimal variation in tem-318 perature between the upper and lower water column in JS and the DI is likely due to 319 the strong vertical mixing characteristic of these regions. 320

321

3.3 Density contrast

In BC coastal waters, density is primarily but not solely controlled by salinity, and 322 so displays a persistent lateral gradient similar to that in salinity within the regions of 323 strongest tidal mixing. The temperature and salinity contrasts detailed above result in 324 ranges of potential density values in QCSt and JS that rarely overlap with those observed 325 in the SoG and DI, in both the upper (10-50 m depth) and lower (\geq 50 m depth) water 326 column (Figure 5). The densest water is found deep in QCSt, and the lightest at the sur-327 face in the SoG. The lightest water in QCSt (JS) is denser than the densest water in the 328 SoG (DI) for the large majority of observations. The density distributions in JS vs. the 329 DI and in QCSt vs. the SoG thus have minimal overlap and are statistically distinct at 330

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Figure 5. Regional distributions of potential density calculated using the full temperature and salinity dataset, binned every 25 m in the vertical, for the upper 10-50 m depth of the water column (left) and below 50 m depth (right). Vertical lines give the median value of density in each distribution.

the 99% confidence level (p<0.001) using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test ("Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test", 2008), which is used to determine the likelihood that two separate distributions of data are drawn from the same overall distribution.

The inclusion of year-round temperature and salinity profile data spanning 1932 334 to 2018 demonstrates that this transition in density persists between seasons and inter-335 annually, for all months and for the 70 individual years for which data are available. An 336 examination of near full-depth profile data confirms that these properties change rapidly 337 in the horizontal at all subsurface depths (see Section 4.1 for further details). Addition-338 ally, this transition is present during both the spring and neap phases of the fortnightly 339 tidal cycle. To confirm that both spring and neap tides are well-sampled in all regions, 340 we note that samples are collected with weekly or higher frequency for 39% of days sam-341

	\mathbf{QCSt}	\mathbf{JS}	DI	SoG
	Nutrient conc	entration (µmo	ol L ⁻¹)	
Nitrate	23 ± 6	23 ± 5	25 ± 4	29 ± 5
Phosphate	1.9 ± 0.5	1.9 ± 0.4	2.2 ± 0.3	2.5 ± 0.4
Silicate	38 ± 14	39 ± 12	49 ± 9	54 ± 10
	Nutrient mola	r ratio		
N:P	12.3 ± 0.8	12.2 ± 1.0	11.4 ± 1.1	11.3 ± 1.0
N:Si	0.59 ± 0.08	0.58 ± 0.06	0.51 ± 0.03	0.51 ± 0.06
P:Si	0.048 ± 0.005	0.048 ± 0.005	0.045 ± 0.005	0.045 ± 0.005

Table 1. Median values and the 25-75% interquartile ranges for full-depth nutrient concentrations and nutrient molar ratios in each region. The median and interquartile range are given, rather than the mean and standard deviation, as the data are not normally distributed. For comparison, Redfield-Brzezinski values are 16 for N:P, 1.1 for N:Si, and 0.07 for P:Si.

pled in QCSt, 54% in JS, 34% in the DI, and 66% in the SoG. Full-depth density pro-342 files on either side of the tidal mixing frontal zone have no notable differences during spring 343 vs. neap tides (not shown). This lack of evidence for significant spring-neap modulation 344 of the density structure across the tidal mixing frontal zone is significant. Spring-neap 345 modulation of the residual circulation is a well-known indicator of tidal mixing (Hibiya 346 & LeBlond, 1993; Park & Kuo, 1996; MacCready et al., 2018), and its apparent absence 347 here suggests that the strength and spatial extent of the tidal mixing may be sufficient 348 to permanently disrupt the two-layer estuarine exchange flow within the tidal mixing frontal 349 zone (tidal currents remain above 75 cm s^{-1} at some locations in the DI even during low 350 neap tides). However, more measurements within the tidal mixing frontal zone would 351 be needed to fully analyze tidal modulation of the mixing front. 352

353

3.4 Contrast in nutrient molar ratios

In addition to the regional separation in physical water properties, there are statistically significant differences in nutrient molar ratios between the QCSt/JS and SoG/DI regions. Regional distributions of the molar ratio of nitrate to phosphate (Figure 6), nitrate to silicate (Figure 7), and phosphate to silicate (Figure 8) are examined for both the upper (<50 m depth) and lower (\geq 50 m depth) water column. Median values and interquartile ranges for nutrient concentrations and nutrient molar ratios for each region

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Figure 6. Regional distributions of the nitrate to phosphate molar ratio, calculated using the full nutrient dataset, binned every 25 m in the vertical, for the upper 50 m depth of the water column (left) and below 50 m depth (right). Vertical lines give the median value for each distribution.

are given in Table 1. Nutrient ratios are assessed relative to the Redfield-Brzezinski molar ratios for carbon to silicon to nitrogen to phosphorus (Brzezinski, 1985), which are canonically C:Si:N:P = 106:15:16:1 in open-ocean waters. Our nutrient ratios are generally lower in all regions than these canonical open-ocean values (Table 1). Median values of the nutrient ratios in both the upper and lower water column are closest to canonical open-ocean values in QCSt and JS, and differ most significantly from canonical openocean values in the SoG and DI.

Median values for the molar ratio of nitrate to phosphate (N:P, Figure 6) vary from 11.3 in the SoG to 12.3 in QCSt (Table 1), an 8% difference. The largest regional difference is for the nitrate to silicate ratio (N:Si, Figure 7), with a 14% difference between the median value of 0.59 in QCSt and 0.51 in the SoG and DI (Table 1). The phosphate



Figure 7. As in Figure 6, but for the molar ratio of nitrate to silicate.



Figure 8. As in Figure 6, but for the molar ratio of phosphate to silicate.

to silicate ratio has the smallest regional variation (P:Si, Figure 8), with a 7% difference in median value between 0.048 in QCSt/JS and 0.045 in the SoG/DI (Table 1). Distributions of all three nutrient molar ratios in QCSt and JS are statistically distinct from those in the SoG and DI at the 99% confidence interval (p<0.001 for all three ratios) based on a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, in both the upper and lower water column.

Nutrient ratios vary regionally as a result of relative differences in nutrient concen-376 tration (Table 1, Supporting Information S.3). Median nutrient concentrations are low-377 est in QCSt and highest in the SoG, with relatively high silicate concentrations in the 378 SoG contributing significantly to regional differences. Nutrient ratio distributions in the 379 upper water column in the SoG have long tails (Figures 6, 7, 8), evidence of occasional 380 nitrate and/or phosphate depletion (Masson & Peña, 2009), which is common in coastal 381 waters particularly in the late summer (Howarth & Marino, 2006). However, nutrient 382 concentrations in all regions are rarely limiting (Table 1, Supporting Information S.3). 383 In addition to differing degrees of nutrient depletion by biology, other possible causes for 384 the regional differences in nutrient ratios are differences in source waters or transport 385 pathways for nutrient input, as discussed further in Section 4.2. 386

387

3.5 Seasonal upwelling

Closer examination of the seasonal cycle of physical water properties and nutrient 388 ratios in the deep waters of QCSt and the SoG reveals differences in the timing and mag-389 nitude of upwelled water arriving from the Northeast Pacific Ocean. (Seasonal variations 390 in deep water properties in JS and the DI are suppressed due to tidal mixing, but are 391 otherwise qualitatively similar to those in QCSt and the SoG respectively.) In the lower 392 water column in QCSt, water upwelled from the deep Northeast Pacific causes decreased 393 temperatures (Figure 4d), increased salinity (Figure 4b), increased density (Figure 9a), 394 and increased nutrient concentrations (Figure 9b) beginning in April and peaking in Au-395 gust. By contrast, upwelled water in the SoG region is associated with only minor vari-396 ations in the seasonal cycle of these properties, likely due to significant modification in 397 Haro Strait before its arrival in the northern Strait of Georgia (LeBlond et al., 1991; Mackas 398 & Harrison, 1997). Here, a small seasonal increase in deep salinity (Figure 4b) and den-399 sity (Figure 9a) reaches a maximum in October/November, with no accompanying in-400 crease in nutrient concentration or decrease in temperature (these attain their maximum 401 and minimum values, respectively, in July). These differences in seasonal cycle magni-402

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Figure 9. a) Potential density and b) nitrate concentration by month for the lower water column (50-200 m) in Queen Charlotte Strait (red) and the Strait of Georgia (light blue). Lines give the monthly median density and nitrate values, with large dots indicating at data from at least five years. Shading gives the 25-75% interquartile range.

tude and the timing of the arrival of upwelled water in QCSt/JS vs. the SoG/DI regions 403 are significant because they suggest distinct transport pathways for upwelled water (we 404 suggest these pathways are to the north of Vancouver Island for QCSt/JS and to the south 405 through the Strait of Juan de Fuca for the SoG/DI), with little to no exchange of deep 406 water through the tidal mixing frontal zone. These differences in the seasonality of deep 407 water properties between regions adds further support to the emerging picture of QCSt/JS 408 and the SoG/DI as separate environments, largely isolated from each other, and likely 409 to respond differently to changes in large-scale open-ocean forcing. 410

411 4 Discussion

The observed regional differences in physical and biogeochemical properties reported herein are consistent with an effective disruption of the two-layer estuarine exchange flow between QCSt and the SoG due to tidal mixing. Here we address, first, possible implications for circulation, and second, some direct and indirect effects on marine ecosystems in the study area. 417

4.1 Tidal mixing and circulation

A visualization of the average density structure along a transect connecting east-418 ern QCSt to the northern SoG during upwelling favorable conditions (Figure 10) shows 419 a strong lateral density gradient between JS and the DI. The abrupt transition between 420 these regions in the tidal mixing frontal zone is visible as near-vertical isopycnal struc-421 ture, indicating homogenization of the water column, for a narrow range of densities around 422 1023 kg m⁻³ (Figure 10; \sim 200 km). As demonstrated in Section 3.3, waters in JS are 423 almost completely separate in density space from waters in the DI at all depths below 424 the near-surface (<10 m). Only very near the surface do we see evidence of freshwater 425 advection from the DI into JS, a signal which is likely caused by wind forcing dominat-426 ing the direction of surface currents there (Chandler et al., 2017). Although the scarcity 427 of data in the tidal mixing frontal zone precludes identifying the exact number and lo-428 cation of individual density fronts, we estimate that the lateral gradient between regions 429 spans a distance of at least ~ 75 km within the narrow, shallow channels of JS and the 430 DI (Figure 10; \sim 150-225 km). Vigorous tidal mixing has been reported both within the 431 tidal mixing frontal zone and in adjacent channels; Thomson1981 mentions particularly 432 strong tidal mixing over the Discovery Passage sill (Figure 10; ~ 275 km). The relatively 433 shallow sills between regions also affect the density structure in the study area. The dens-434 est waters in QCSt are isolated from JS by the <100 m deep sill at ~100 km along the 435 transect. Similarly, the <100 m deep Discovery Passage sill prevents dense deep waters 436 in the SoG from entering the DI. In combination, these factors produce the dramatic lat-437 eral density gradient between the QCSt/JS and SoG/DI regions. 438

Although details of the circulation within our study area are not well-known, the 439 abrupt and persistent transition in density and other water properties that we document 440 is consistent with limited exchange between the QCSt/JS and SoG/DI regions in all sub-441 surface waters (i.e. >10 m). Rather than the strong two-layer estuarine exchange flow 442 typical of stratified estuaries, transport through the tidal mixing frontal zone is likely 443 to occur via a weak residual one-way flow from the DI towards JS, similar to that ob-444 served in a well-mixed estuary (e.g. MacCready & Geyer, 2010). In such a case where 445 the horizontal advection is reduced, the primary transport of properties through the tidal 446 mixing frontal zone must occur via mixing, operating more slowly over smaller spatial 447 scales (MacCready et al., 2018). The inhibition of horizontal transport is additionally 448 expected to cause recirculation of much of the inflowing water (Griffin & LeBlond, 1990; 449

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Figure 10. Lateral transect of potential density following the thalweg (line of deepest bathymetry) from QCSt to the SoG during mid-summer (June to August) using data from all available years. Data are binned every 10 km in the horizontal, and every 25 m in the vertical to 100 m depth, then every 50 m to 500 m depth (due to a paucity of full-depth profiles). Black contours show select isopycnals as indicated. Coloured bars along the x-axis give the boundaries of the four regions as shown in Figure 1. Data in the very near-surface waters (<10 m depth) have been excluded. White arrows show the hypothesized recirculation and transport pathways of inflowing water from QCSt into JS and from the SoG into the DI respectively. Gray arrows indicate the region of strong mixing in the tidal mixing frontal zone and Discovery Passage.

Hibiya & LeBlond, 1993; Park & Kuo, 1996; MacCready, 1999). Based on these consid-450 erations, we propose a hypothetical circulation pattern consistent with our results and 451 past studies of circulation in the study area. This circulation is illustrated schematically 452 for upwelling favorable conditions in Figure 10. Below the very near-surface, our results 453 suggest that a significant fraction of the water entering JS from QCSt is recirculated back 454 out to QCSt. Similarly our results suggest that a significant proportion of water enter-455 ing the DI from the SoG is recirculated back to the SoG. While the visualization in Fig-456 ure 10 is specific to the months of June to August, our results demonstrate that the tran-457 sition in properties across the tidal mixing frontal zone persists year-round (Section 3.2), 458 suggesting that these recirculations driven by tidal mixing occur regardless of season. 459

We further suggest likely transport pathways for the inflowing water on either side 460 of the tidal mixing frontal zone (Figure 10). We hypothesize that during summer dense 461 upwelled water flows from QCSt over the sill into the deep JS basin, is mixed vertically 462 within the tidal mixing frontal zone, and passes back out to QCSt near the surface. This 463 circulation in JS is similar to that in other deep basins situated between shallow sills, 464 such as the main basin in nearby Puget Sound (Ebbesmeyer & Barnes, 1980), and shares 465 similarities with partially-mixed (moderately-stratified) estuaries (MacCready & Gever, 466 2010) with fresh water from the DI playing the role of river inflow at the head of the es-467 tuary. On the other side of the tidal mixing frontal zone, we hypothesize that water from 468 the SoG enters Discovery Passage in the DI primarily above ~ 100 m depth, is mixed ver-469 tically with denser water intermittently sourced from the SoG, and passes back out to 470 the SoG at mid-depth (>100 m on average, Thomson (1981)). These proposed trans-471 port pathways are consistent with the similarity in water properties observed between 472 JS and the upper 30-50 m of QCSt ($<1025 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$), the similarity in properties observed 473 between the SoG and DI in the upper ~ 80 m (<1023 kg m⁻³), the predictions of regional 474 models (Foreman et al., 2006, 2012; Khangaonkar et al., 2017; Olson et al., 2020), and 475 current meter records in JS (Thomson & Huggett, 1980) and Discovery Passage (Foreman 476 et al., 2012). 477

Although it is not surprising that QCSt and the SoG have different water properties, as the latter is an inland sea while the former opens directly to the continental shelf and Northeast Pacific Ocean, conventional wisdom has held that waters from the SoG are advected through the DI and JS into QCSt and vice-versa (e.g. Godin et al., 1981) driving a significant exchange of properties. Our results and hypothesized circu-

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lation suggest that a more accurate view of the QCSt/JS and SoG/DI regions are as distinct, largely isolated marine environments, with different physical water properties, seasonality, connectivity to the open ocean, and pathways of nutrient delivery. An important implication of this is that we expect regional responses to stressors to differ, particularly for stressors originating in the open ocean.

As an example of differing regional responses to a stressor, we briefly examine the 488 effect of the marine heatwave known as The Blob on temperatures in the QCSt/JS and 489 SoG/DI regions (Figure 11). This heatwave and a subsequent El Niño impinged on BC 490 coastal waters beginning in 2014 (Bond et al., 2015), with a subsurface expression af-491 fecting coastal waters through at least 2018 (Jackson et al., 2018). We compare distri-492 butions of temperature in the upper water column pre-2014 vs. during the Blob years 493 in the QCSt/JS vs. SoG/DI regions. The anomalous heat associated with this heatwave is visible on both sides of the tidal mixing frontal zone, however the effects of the heat-495 wave are more pronounced in QCSt/JS, presumably due to its higher connectivity with 496 the open ocean. In particular, the temperature anomaly associated with the heatwave 497 is larger in QCSt/JS; the median of the temperature distribution shifts upward by 0.81° C 498 (compared to 0.66° C in the SoG/DI). In addition, there is a complete loss of the cold-499 est waters in QCSt/JS, which is not observed on the SoG/DI side of the tidal mixing frontal 500 zone. In contrast, the SoG/DI region experiences little change in the range of temper-501 atures observed, though cold temperatures become more rare and warm temperatures 502 more common. 503

504

4.2 Implications for ecosystems

Tidal mixing has important direct and indirect implications for ecosystems. First, 505 we consider the direct role of tidal mixing in vertical nutrient transport and light avail-506 ability. Our results show the arrival of upwelled water in JS in summer (Figure 4), and 507 we hypothesize that strong tidal mixing and recirculation (Figure 10) acts to bring deep 508 nutrients to the surface, which then exit into the more strongly-stratified waters of QCSt. 509 On the other side of the tidal mixing frontal zone, these dynamics result in nutrient-rich 510 water re-entering the SoG at mid-depth in the Discovery Passage plume (e.g. Olson et 511 al., 2020) and help fuel phytoplankton blooms in the SoG (Del Bel Belluz et al., 2020). 512 Despite high near-surface nutrient concentrations (Table 1), the weakly-stratified waters 513 of JS and the DI are themselves regions of low primary productivity (Mahara et al., 2020). 514

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Figure 11. Distributions of potential temperature from 10-200 m depth for years when the marine heatwave known as The Blob affected coastal waters (dark red) and for years prior to this event (gray) in QCSt/JS (left) and in the SoG/DI (right). Vertical lines give the median of each distribution. Data used are binned every 25 m in the vertical. Data from Jan-Mar are excluded as no samples are available in QCSt during those months for 2014-onwards. Minimum and maximum temperatures for the two periods are as given.

These high-nutrient, low-productivity conditions are attributed to full-depth tidal mix-515 ing limiting the light available to phytoplankton for growth (Masson & Peña, 2009; McK-516 innell et al., 2014; Murray et al., 2015). The resulting low primary productivity is known 517 to have wider ecosystem effects, with migrating juvenile salmon experiencing poor for-518 aging success in JS and the DI (James et al., 2020). However, our results suggest that 519 while tidal mixing in JS and the DI limits productivity within those regions, it may si-520 multaneously enhance and sustain the overall high levels of productivity observed in QCSt 521 and the SoG. 522

An important implication of the differing transport pathways resulting from the 523 recirculation of inflowing water caused by tidal mixing is that the primary sources of nutrient-524 rich waters supplying QCSt and the SoG likely differ. This may explain the observed re-525 gional differences in nutrient molar ratios (Figures 6, 7, 8). Seasonal upwelling appears 526 to be the dominant source of nutrient replenishment in QCSt/JS, with upwelled water 527 arriving from the open ocean via Queen Charlotte Sound. Consistent with this picture, 528 nutrient ratios in QCSt/JS are closer to ideal Redfield-Brzezinski values, which describe 529 ratios typical of open-ocean conditions (Brzezinski, 1985). By contrast, nutrient ratios 530 in the SoG/DI are further from these ideal values, as expected for coastal waters with 531 major inputs of silicate from freshwater runoff (Whitney et al., 2005) and accumulation 532 of nutrients through remineralization in SoG waters with high residence time (Pawlowicz 533 et al., 2007; Sutton et al., 2013). As such, while nutrient cycling in QCSt/JS is likely to 534 be directly impacted by changes in the volume or properties of upwelled water, the SoG/DI 535 region is likely more susceptible to changes in terrestrial and river inputs or in-situ wa-536 ter properties that affect remineralization in the water column and sediments. 537

Differences in oceanic nutrient ratios provide more than a measure of nutrient lim-538 itation; regional differences in nutrient ratios are expected to influence the species com-539 position of phytoplankton communities and their cellular stoichiometry (Geider & La Roche, 540 2002; Arrigo, 2005; Klausmeier et al., 2008). Although nutrients are typically plentiful 541 across the study area (Section 3.4, Supporting Information S.3), nutrient molar ratios 542 have the potential to limit the productivity of some phytoplankton species. For exam-543 ple, in QCSt where ratios are most similar to open-ocean values, we might expect phy-544 toplankton communities to share similarities with nearby open-ocean or continental shelf 545 communities. In the SoG, where ratios are further from the ideal Redfield-Brzezinski val-546 ues, we might expect significant differences in species composition. This is an area of ac-547

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tive research, and indeed, cross-shelf differences in phytoplankton community compo-548 sition and size structure in response to changing nutrient ratios have been demonstrated 549 in Alaska (Strom et al., 2006). Phytoplankton species composition and prevalence can 550 in turn affect the quantity and nutritional quality of their zooplankton grazers (El-Sabaawi 551 et al., 2009; Costalago et al., 2020), with implications for the next trophic level, includ-552 ing juvenile salmon and forage fish (e.g. Pacific herring) (Litzow et al., 2006; Godefroid 553 et al., 2019; James et al., 2020). The tidal mixing and its hypothesized effects on circu-554 lation therefore impact not only levels of primary productivity via nutrient transport, 555 but also potentially underlie certain regional ecosystem differences within the study area. 556

557 5 Summary

Using a combined DFO, UBC, and Hakai Institute data product, we document a 558 spatially-abrupt and temporally-persistent transition in physical water properties and 559 nutrient ratios bisecting our study area in British Columbia coastal waters. The tran-560 sition occurs in the weakly-stratified channels of the eastern Discovery Islands and John-561 stone Strait, between Queen Charlotte Strait and the Strait of Georgia, where strong tidal 562 mixing appears to disrupt the two-layer estuarine exchange flow and drive recirculations 563 of inflowing water. We quantify an abrupt change in salinity and temperature across this 564 'tidal mixing frontal zone', with properties in Queen Charlotte Strait and Johnstone Strait 565 more closely resembling cool and saline open-ocean conditions in all seasons and more 566 strongly influenced by the summer arrival of dense, cold, nutrient-rich water upwelled 567 from the Northeast Pacific Ocean. We identify a dramatic lateral gradient in density, pre-568 viously described by Thomson (1976, 1981), and show that it spans the full depth of the 569 water column and persists year-round for the duration of the multi-decadal data record. 570 We find that distributions of nutrient molar ratios in Queen Charlotte Strait and John-571 stone Strait are statistically distinct from those in the northern Strait of Georgia and 572 Discovery Islands, and are closer to ideal open-ocean Redfield-Brzezinski values. 573

The 'tidal mixing frontal zone' provides an ideal case study for the ability of strong, sustained tidal mixing to maintain regional differences in water properties. Despite lacking direct measurements of circulation, our results suggest limited exchange of water through the region of strongest tidal mixing. As such, Queen Charlotte Strait and the Strait of Georgia appear largely isolated from each other and are shown to respond differently to environmental stressors such as marine heatwaves. Furthermore, significant regional dif-

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ferences in marine environmental conditions and nutrient transport pathways, such as those observed within the study area, are expected to influence both the quantity and quality of primary production available to higher trophic levels. Our results demonstrate the degree to which tidal mixing can result in such regionalization, and may be broadly relevant to other highly productive coastal habitats such as those found in Alaska and

on the southwest coasts of Chile, New Zealand, and Scandinavia.

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Supporting Information for "Tidal mixing maintains regional differences in water properties and nutrient ratios in British Columbia coastal waters"

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Introduction

The following Supporting Information is included herein: S.1 provides additional details regarding regional definitions, S.2 expands on the descriptions of sampling biases in the data from Section 2.2, and S.3 provides additional information about the nutrient concentration data.

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S.1 Study area: Definitions of regions and evidence of tidal mixing

The boundaries of our study area are chosen based on the availability of DFO, UBC, and Hakai Institute data. Within this area, we define four regions that are located within the generally accepted boundaries of Queen Charlotte Strait (QCSt), Johnstone Strait (JS), the Discovery Islands (DI), and the Strait of Georgia (SoG) (Figure 1). We restrict our focus to eastern QCSt (east of 127.4°W) due to sparse DFO and UBC data and the complete absence of Hakai Institute data in western QCSt. We focus on only the northern SoG (north of 49.8°N) due to its proximity to JS and the DI and the availability of Hakai Institute samples.

A secondary consideration when choosing our regional boundaries are the bathymetric characteristics that influence tidal mixing (Figure 1), since it is anticipated that these factors will have a critical impact on regional differences. As described in Section 3.1, we use buoyancy frequency, $N^2 = -(g/\rho) d\rho/dz$, where ρ is the density calculated from each set of T, S profiles and g is the acceleration due to gravity, as a proxy for the direct influence of mixing in each region (Figure 2, Figure S1). In the DI, the shallow, constricted passages are conducive to enhanced tidal mixing, reflected in the absence of significant stratification there. By contrast, the topography in the JS region is smoother and deeper, and weak stratification suggests weaker in-situ tidal mixing. QCSt and the SoG have less complex bathymetry and are more strongly stratified than JS or the DI, with the strong stratification extending to the sills between regions.

Bathymetric features such as sills provide natural boundaries between regions. We define the JS region to include only the deep western basin of Johnstone Strait, and include the shallow, weakly-stratified eastern basin on the other side of the JS/DI sill

(Figure 2) in the DI region. This choice allows the tidal mixing frontal zone to span the boundary between the JS and DI regions. Within the DI, we exclude passages near Bute Inlet, as the high volume of freshwater outflow results in properties that differ from the rest of the region. Lastly, for the SoG region, we include strongly-stratified locations to the east of Quadra Island, terminating at the shallow sills entering the passages between islands in the DI.

S.2 Sampling biases

Both seasonal and spatial sampling biases present in the combined data product reflect the difficulty of sampling in challenging conditions, while interannual and depth biases reflect institutional and technical limitations.

Interannual bias: Temperature and salinity data prior to the mid-1940s are extremely limited. A marked increase in sampling in JS, QCSt, and the DI during the late 1970s was driven in large part by the efforts of a single DFO research program (see e.g. Thomson, 1976; Thomson & Huggett, 1980; Thomson, 1981), which was followed by a decrease in sampling during the 1980s and early 1990s. Few nutrient concentration data exist prior to 1998 in any region (Figure S2). The sharp increase in T, S, and nutrient data after 2014 corresponds to the beginning of the Hakai Institute sampling program. There is a significant interannual bias to recent years in all regions.

<u>Seasonal and spatial biases</u>: Seasonal bias is linked to spatial bias, in that DFO routinely samples repeat stations during particular months of the year (e.g. once in May and once in September), while the Hakai Institute only samples in JS and QCSt from April to July. Sampling is biased towards the summer months in all regions due to the difficulty of accessing remote stations during winter conditions (Figure S3). Since DFO, UBC, and

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the Hakai Institute all prioritize sampling at repeat stations, data are also biased to these locations. Despite this, T-S profiles are available at locations that span most of each region during all seasons (Figure 3, map). The DI region has the lowest spatial density of sampling locations, while the SoG has the highest. In the DI, the number of sampling locations is lower in channels with extremely strong tidal currents due to the difficulty of making measurements in such conditions. The spatial coverage of nutrient concentration data is even sparser (Figure S4). There are only two Hakai nutrient sampling stations in QCSt, both near the JS sill. In the DI, most of the DFO nutrient samples are taken near Chatham Point and along Nodales Channel, while Hakai nutrient samples are taken along the eastern side of Quadra Island. In the SoG, much of the DFO nutrient data comes from several repeat stations to the south of Discovery Passage, while the Hakai nutrient sampling stations are located near Quadra Island.

<u>Depth bias</u>: During the earliest part of the data record, temperature and salinity samples were collected at discrete and often widely separated depths (e.g. every 50 m in the vertical), rather than as a near-continuous profile as is the case with CTD measurements. Despite this, the vast majority (93%) of T, S data have a vertical resolution of less than 2 m. Nutrient samples are typically closely spaced in the upper 10 m of the water column and more widely spaced below, with 82% of all nutrient data having a vertical resolution of less than 25 m. Since CTD data are unreliable at the surface, and since 30% of T-S profiles begin between 2 m and 10 m, we exclude T, S data in the uppermost 10 m from the analysis. Finally, both T-S and nutrient profiles often terminate well above the seafloor in the deepest passages (particularly in JS), resulting in fewer data points in the deep water column. In the case of JS, the lower portion of the water column is nearly homo-

geneous (Thomson, 1976, 1981), so that the paucity of full-depth profiles is not expected to significantly bias the results.

S.3 Nutrient concentrations

As described in Section 3.4, distributions of nitrate+nitrite, phosphate, and silicate concentrations (Figures S5, S6, S7) show clear regional differences, with QCSt and JS exhibiting lower median nutrient concentrations compared to the SoG and DI. All three nutrients show occasional depletion near the surface in the SoG, but concentrations are otherwise rarely limiting. Nutrient concentrations are similar in the upper (<50 m depth) and lower ($\geq 50 \text{ m depth}$) water column in JS and the DI, likely due to the influence of tidal mixing in those regions. In contrast, nutrient concentrations tend to be higher in the lower water column in QCSt and the SoG. This is likely due to nutrient replenishment by seasonal upwelling and remineralization in the lower water column, as well as nutrient utilization by phytoplankton in the upper water column, as discussed in Section 4.2.

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Figure S1. Identical to Figure 2, but for stratification in the winter months (November to April).



Figure S2. (Top) Number of T-S profiles collected by DFO, UBC, and the Hakai Institute each year from 1932-2018. Colours correspond to each of the four regions in Figure 1. (Bottom) As above, but for nutrient profiles, where each 'profile' includes samples of nitrate, phosphate, and silicate.



Figure S3. Fraction of total T-S profiles (top row) and nutrient sample profiles (bottom row) collected each month in each region (columns as indicated). Warmer colours indicate the summer months.



Figure S4. Bathymetric map with locations of nutrient sampling shown by the coloured dots, with QCSt in red, JS in orange, the DI in dark blue and the SoG in light blue. Locations of interest (as discussed in the text) are indicated.



Figure S5. Distributions of nitrate+nitrite concentration, calculated using the full nutrient dataset, binned every 25 m in the vertical, and coloured by region, for the upper 50 m of the water column (left) and below 50 m depth (right). Vertical lines give the median value for each distribution.



Figure S6. As in Figure S5, but for the distributions of phosphate concentration.



Figure S7. As in Figure S5, but for the distributions of silicate concentration.