

Increased runoff from Siberian rivers leads to Arctic wide freshening

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September 7, 2023

Abstract

The effects of contemporary increases in riverine freshwater into the Arctic Ocean are estimated from ocean model simulations, using two runoff data sets. One runoff data set which is based on older climatological data, which has no inter-annual variability after 2007 and as such does not represent the observed increases in river runoff into the Arctic. The other data set comes from a hydrological model developed for the Arctic drainage basin, which includes contemporary changes in the climate. In the pan-Arctic this new data set represents an approximately 11% increase in runoff, compared with the older climatological data. Comparing two ocean model runs forced with the different runoff data sets, overall changes in different freshwater markers across the basin were found to be between 5-10%, depending on the area investigated. The strongest increases were seen from the Siberian rivers, which in turn caused the strongest freshening in the Eastern Arctic.

1 **Increased Runoff from Siberian Rivers leads to Arctic**
2 **Wide Freshening**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Freshwater river input to the Arctic Ocean has increased with climate change, though
9 this change is often not represented in ocean models
10 • Freshwater markers increased across the Arctic when comparing ocean model runs
11 which realistically represent contemporary runoff increases
12 • The largest increases came from Siberian rivers, contributing to Eastern Arctic
13 freshening and changes in export water properties

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Abstract

The effects of contemporary increases in riverine freshwater into the Arctic Ocean are estimated from ocean model simulations, using two runoff data sets. One runoff data set which is based on older climatological data, which has no inter-annual variability after 2007 and as such does not represent the observed increases in river runoff into the Arctic. The other data set comes from a hydrological model developed for the Arctic drainage basin, which includes contemporary changes in the climate. In the pan-Arctic this new data set represents an approximately 11% increase in runoff, compared with the older climatological data. Comparing two ocean model runs forced with the different runoff data sets, overall changes in different freshwater markers across the basin were found to be between 5-10%, depending on the area investigated. The strongest increases were seen from the Siberian rivers, which in turn caused the strongest freshening in the Eastern Arctic.

Plain Language Summary

With climate change, there is an increase in freshwater being added into the Arctic Ocean as the hydrological cycle intensifies. This study looks at understanding the impacts of this increased riverine water in the Arctic Ocean using a state of the art regional ocean model. Two runoff forcing data sets are used, one data set which only extends to 2007 and thus doesn't include recently observed runoff increases, and a newer data set which extends up to present day and represents contemporary increases in the river runoff into the Arctic. In comparative ocean model simulations forced with the two data sets, increasing the river runoff by approximately 11% over the time series corresponds to freshening in the Arctic ocean of 5-10%, depending on the metric used and area considered. Much of this increased freshwater found when comparison is driven by increased outflow from the major Siberian rivers. This in turn is seen to affect the Eastern Arctic primarily. This work shows that currently observed increased input of freshwater from rivers in the Arctic Ocean has likely already been influencing the surface properties of the Arctic, as well as affecting the properties of the water which is transported to lower latitudes.

1 Introduction

Freshwater plays a key role in the Arctic Ocean. In the Arctic Ocean, increased freshwater content, precipitation, river runoff, inflow at Bering Strait and sea ice melt has been observed and is predicted to continue, (Morison et al., 2012). These freshwater changes are likely linked to anthropogenic climate change (Haine, 2020). From climate model predictions of the 21st century, solid and liquid freshwater storage are the first observed impacts of climate change on the Arctic freshwater budgets, separable from natural variability (Jahn & Laiho, 2020).

River runoff is the largest source of freshwater discharge in the Arctic Ocean (Haine et al., 2015) and increasing river runoff into the Arctic basin is a major source of the freshwater increases (Stadnyk et al., 2021). It is approximated that 40 million people could be impacted by changes in the Arctic rivers, particularly in Canada (Déry et al., 2011). Many studies agree that river runoff into the Arctic Ocean has been increasing in recent years (Arnell, 2005), (Durocher et al., 2019) and (Stadnyk et al., 2021). River runoff into the Arctic Ocean has increased in the 2000's compared to the 1980-2000 period by approximately 10% (Haine et al., 2015). In Durocher et al. (2019) they considered the stream flow records for rivers feeding into the Arctic Ocean, and they found an increase in river runoff from all sources considered, for the time period 1975-2015. From climate models, the pan-Arctic domain is expected to become wetter as the climate continues to warm (MacDonald et al., 2018). River runoff is also expected to continue increasing in coming years with climate change (Arnell, 2005). Stadnyk et al. (2021) projected a 22% increase overall in river discharge into the Arctic by 2070.

64 A few other modelling studies have looked at the impact of increasing river runoff
65 on the Arctic Ocean, largely using simplified runoff fields. Nummelin et al. (2016) found
66 that increasing river runoff perturbations linearly from 10% to 150% in a coupled ocean-
67 sea ice model lead to increased stratification, and a warmer halocline and Atlantic wa-
68 ter layer in the Arctic Ocean. Ridenour et al. (2019) used a series of Nucleus for Euro-
69 pean Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) modelling experiments to examine the sensitiv-
70 ity of the Hudson Bay Complex to river discharge scenarios, focusing on the impact of
71 river regulation. This was expanded on in Lukovich et al. (2021), where they found cli-
72 mate change was the dominant signal impacting Hudson Bay dynamics, opposed to river
73 regulation under CMIP5 future scenarios. In sensitivity experiments from Pemberton
74 and Nilsson (2016), looking at the Arctic Ocean’s response to freshwater input changes,
75 they also found that the Atlantic water layer warms, weakening of the Beaufort Gyre
76 circulation and increasing freshwater export from Fram Strait, with a corresponding de-
77 crease in export through the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. Brown et al. (2019) looked
78 at the transient response of the Arctic Ocean to changes in river runoff and precipita-
79 tion forcing. They used climatological river runoff forcing, where the forcing was increased
80 by a linear amount to understand sensitivity. They found a fairly linear response in fresh-
81 water storage response to increases in river runoff forcing.

82 Coupled climate models may include a river runoff routing scheme, where precip-
83 itation and evaporation over land is routed to drain into the ocean basins (Delworth et
84 al., 2002). There is significant uncertainty often in regional scale hydrological projections,
85 with significant model variability in response to the same forcing set (Masson-Delmotte
86 et al., 2021). Lehner et al. (2019) found that model’s runoff sensitivity emerges as a prop-
87 erty of the coupled system, as an individual model’s internal climate impacts runoff es-
88 timates. In addition, coupled climate models often run at comparatively coarse resolu-
89 tions compared to regional ocean model, giving a coarse spatial resolution, especially in
90 coastal shelf regions (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021).

91 Traditionally, ocean models have commonly relied on the Dai and Trenberth runoff
92 dataset (Dai et al., 2009) for river runoff forcing (Griffies et al., 2016). Dai and Tren-
93 berth is a climatology based data set, from the largest ocean draining rivers globally, with
94 data gaps filled with a land surface model. There are limitations with this data set, es-
95 pecially in the Arctic Ocean, as it does not include many of the recent changes that have
96 been observed in the Arctic, as well as having significant data gaps and inconsistencies
97 with the observed record. This study aims to compare ocean model results using Dai and
98 Trenberth, with a newer runoff data set created using the Hydrological Predictions of
99 the Environment (HYPE) model (Gelfan et al., 2017). By forcing an ocean model sim-
100 ulation with the two different runoff products and comparing the results, this study aims
101 to look at the high latitude oceans response to river runoff, consider areas where ocean
102 models may be misrepresenting the affects of freshwater inputs and understand the model
103 sensitivity to runoff fields. Comparing the impacts of these runoff products gives a more
104 realistic view of changing runoff forcing, as it does not rely on a uniform linear increase
105 of runoff input, but rather a more regional view of how runoff could increase and poten-
106 tial impacts of these changes. First this paper compares the two runoff data sets, on both
107 spatial and temporal scales, and then the ocean model is described. The results of an
108 ocean model run from 2002 to 2019 with the different forcing products. Changes in fresh-
109 water content and export are considered. Pathways of river water, with particular fo-
110 cus to changes in the Eastern Arctic are also investigated.

111 2 Runoff Product Description

112 The older runoff data set being used in this study was produced by Dai et al. (2009).
113 Dai and Trenberth provides a data set of global continental discharge from 1948-2007.
114 Temporal gaps in gauge records for rivers are filled using linear regression using stream
115 flow simulated by a land surface model, Community Land Model Version 3 (CLM3) (Oleson
116 et al., 2010). For areas where there are no river monitoring available, the simulated CLM3

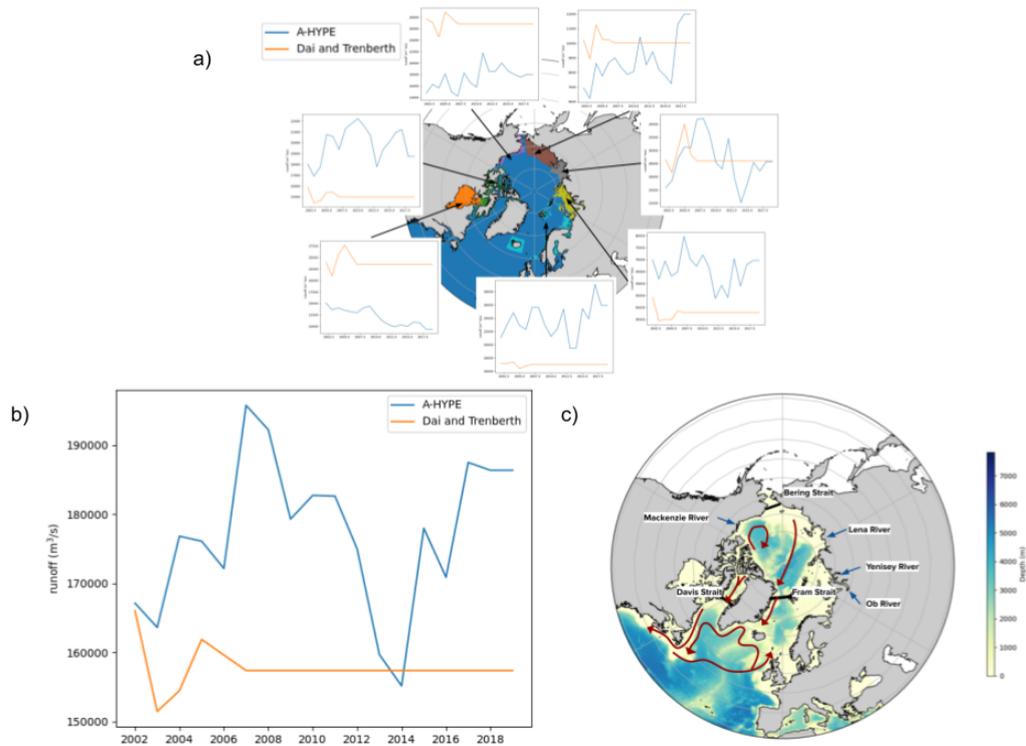


Figure 1. a) The annual average runoff, in m^3/s , for the two products, separated into regional contributions across the high Arctic and Hudson Bay. b) Annual average runoff in the Arctic region, excluding Hudson Bay, from 2002-2019 for A-HYPE and Dai and Trenberth, in m^3/s . The forcing used was supplied to the model in monthly values, but annual averages are shown here to understand the inter-annual variability seen in the products. c) Schematic of large scale Arctic Ocean circulation, with the four largest river discharge locations marked, and the major straits shown. The color bar indicates the depth of the bottom bathymetry, units in meters.

runoff field was used to estimate annual discharge in the region. Historically, to allow for common forcing in ocean modelling inter-comparison experiments (Biaostoch et al., 2021), models were forced with the CORE dataset (Griffies et al., 2009). As part of the CORE protocol, river runoff was traditionally represented by climatological monthly fields, based on the major rivers and various infilling techniques (Dai et al., 2009). For this reason, after 2007 the final year of the Dai and Trenberth data set is repeated until the end of the model run. For forcing the ocean model, runoff estimates from Greenland from Bamber et al. (2012) were used with this data set.

A more recent Arctic runoff data set has been produced by the University of Calgary Hydrological Analysis Lab, based off of the Hydrological Predictions of the Environment (HYPE) model. HYPE is a semi-distributed catchment model, which simulates water flow and substance flux on their way from precipitation through different storage compartments and fluxes to the sea (Lindström et al., 2010). The Arctic-HYPE (A-HYPE) setup has been created specifically for the Arctic drainage basin (Gelfan et al., 2017). It includes representations of cryospheric processes, and includes a river regulation model, particularly in the Hudson Bay complex (Tefs et al., 2021), (Stadnyk et al., 2020). This data set extends up to present day, and includes many of the recent changes seen in Arctic runoff. A-HYPE is forced using the HydroGFDv2 atmospheric reanalysis product (Berg et al., 2018). This runoff data set is combined with an updated estimate of the Greenland freshwater fluxes, from Bamber et al. (2018).

For both runoff data sets, the runoff forcing files for the model are produced in a similar manner. Runoff values from the data sets were combined with runoff values from the Greenland ice sheet. These values are then translated onto the model grid with volume conserved. Based off of the runoff value in a grid cell, the runoff would be distributed over nearby grid cells, in order to not over flood a grid cell with large amounts of freshwater at the surface layer and avoid associated numerical instability. This flooding of a coastal grid cell can happen in particular when there are shallow areas, or long fjords and estuaries where there is only weak exchange with the rest of the ocean. This redistribution is done through a system of manually edited polygons, which define the outflow areas of the river systems. As the A-HYPE data set was only produced for the Arctic region, for runoff in the lower latitudes of the domain it was combined with the Dai and Trenberth runoff. This constrains the changes in the data sets for the model to the terrestrial Arctic and the Greenland ice sheet.

2.1 Runoff Product Comparison

Overall, the A-HYPE data set supplies more freshwater to the Arctic region, though this has significant regional variation. When just considering the high Arctic region, without Hudson Bay, on average the A-HYPE data set supplies $177,101m^3/s$ of river runoff yearly, which the Dai and Trenberth data set supplies $158,487m^3/s$. The difference represents an overall average increase of approximately 11 % over the Arctic region, for the entire time period of 2002-2019. See figure 1, which shows the regional annual average contributions in a), annual average runoff amounts for the entire Arctic region in b), and a schematic diagram of the study region bathymetry, major ocean circulation patterns and the four largest river locations in c).

There is considerable spatial variability to these increases. Regions where Dai and Trenberth provides larger runoff compared with HYPE include the Hudson Bay complex, the Mackenzie River region, and river input near Bering Strait on both the North American and Siberian side. For all other regions, the HYPE runoff exceeds the Dai and Trenberth amounts. Three of the largest four rivers discharge on the Eastern side of the Arctic, the Ob River, the Yenisei River and the Lena River. Overall, the Eastern half of the Arctic represents 71 % of the runoff discharge from the Dai and Trenberth data set, and 77 % with the A-HYPE data set. There is a significant discrepancy between the runoff contributions in the Hudson Bay region from Dai and Trenberth, compared with observations, which is likely due to the impacts of river regulation (Stadnyk et al., 2020).

170 There is also considerable inter-annual variability from the A-HYPE data set, while
171 the Dai and Trenberth runoff is repeated after 2007, giving no variability throughout most
172 of the study period. For the Arctic overall, the peak discharge is seen in 2008 from the
173 A-HYPE data set. After this peak, there is a decrease in average discharge amounts, with
174 the lowest discharge year is in 2014. There is then a recovery of the runoff amounts in
175 the remainder of the time series. For detailed analysis of the trends and variability in
176 the A-HYPE data set, see Stadnyk et al. (2021). After 2007, the annual average runoff
177 from Dai and Trenberth is $157,285m^3/s$, and from A-HYPE is $177,984m^3/s$. This is a
178 slightly larger spread than when considering the entire time series, with the A-HYPE
179 data set for being approximately 13 % greater than Dai and Trenberth.

180 3 Model and Methods

181 All model simulations compared used the Nucleus for European Modelling of the
182 Ocean (NEMO) ocean model engine (Rousset et al., 2015), (Vancoppenolle et al., 2009)
183 version 3.6. It uses a sea ice module, Louvain-la-neuve Ice Model version 2 (LIM2) (Fichefet
184 & Maqueda, 1997). The Arctic and Northern Hemisphere Atlantic (ANHA) configura-
185 tion was used, with 1/4 degree resolution (Holdsworth & Myers, 2015), (Gillard et al.,
186 2016), (Hu et al., 2018). This gives a resolution of between 8-18km for the Arctic Ocean.
187 All model simulations were run from 2002 to 2019, with 2002-2005 considered the spin
188 up period. For atmospheric forcing, the Canadian Meteorological Centre's global deter-
189 ministic prediction system, CGRF, was used (Smith et al., 2014), as it has a high res-
190 olution with relatively small bias (Pennelly & Myers, 2021). The freshwater fluxes from
191 Greenland are from Bamber et al. (2012) and Bamber et al. (2018). Further details on
192 the model setup can be found in Hu et al. (2018).

193 Freshwater content and freshwater transports are calculated relative to 34.8 psu.
194 While Schauer and Losch (2019) argues against the use of relative freshwater, it is a com-
195 mon metric particularly in the Arctic and allows for consistency with previous studies.
196 Passive online tracers were also used in the model runs, to track the propagation of river
197 runoff input into the model throughout the run. Tracers are inputted into the model at
198 the boundary in the same grid cell and initial concentration as the river runoff input.
199 The tracer concentrations measured the total amount of tracer integrated over the wa-
200 ter column in meters. For a complete description of tracers in this model configuration
201 see Hu et al. (2019) and Gillard et al. (2016).

202 4 Results

203 4.1 Increased Freshwater Content

204 Model simulations forced with the A-HYPE river runoff data set showed an over-
205 all freshening of the surface layer across most of the Arctic region by the end of the model
206 integration. This can be seen from the spatial difference of the salinity of the top 50m,
207 shown in figure 2 a) and b). In the early part of the model integration from 2005-2007,
208 2 a), changes in the surface salinity are generally constrained to the coastlines. The A-
209 HYPE forced model run has fresher shelves in the Eastern Arctic, particularly around
210 the major Siberian river discharge regions. The CAA in comparison shows a fresher sur-
211 face in the Dai and Trenberth forced run, with the rest of the Arctic region showing lit-
212 tle change in the beginning of the model run. The spatial pattern for the end of the model
213 integration shows more significant differences, 2 b). The A-HYPE model run is fresher
214 throughout most of the Arctic, with changes having migrated throughout the Central
215 and Western Arctic. For example, the Kara Sea region receives large amounts of fresh-
216 water discharge, and over the entire model run has an average surface salinity of 29.3
217 in the A-HYPE forced run, compared to an average surface salinity of 30.6 in the Dai
218 and Trenberth forced run. This is an approximately 4% freshening over the entire run
219 period. The Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA) is overall slightly fresher in the Dai

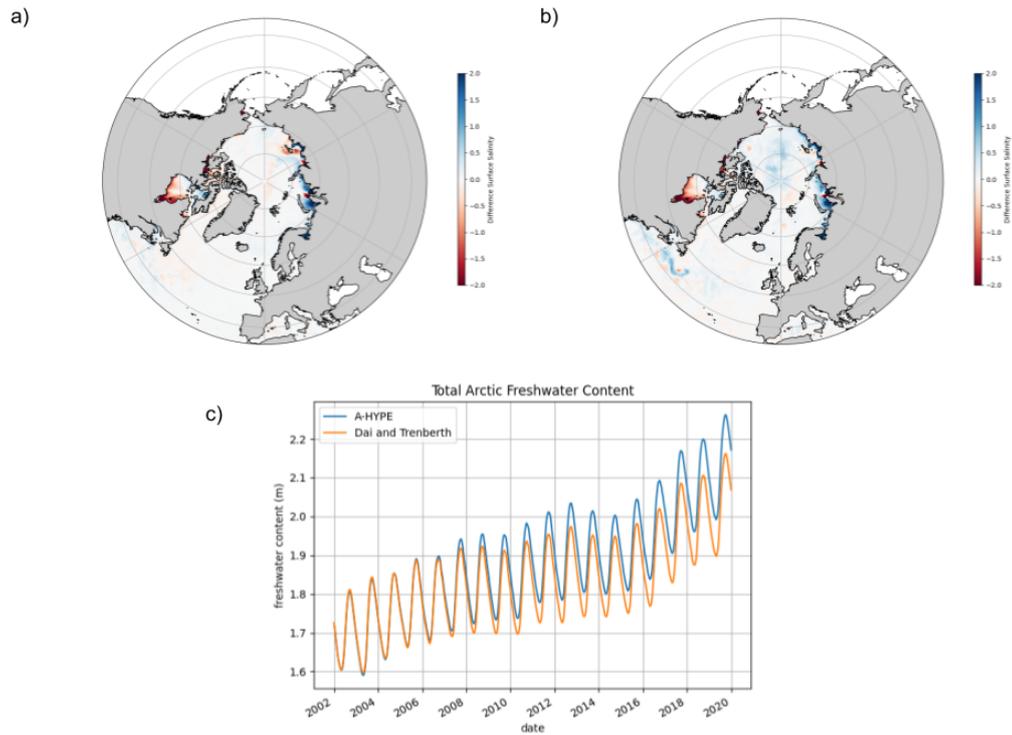


Figure 2. The average difference from 2005-2007, a), and 2017-2019, b), in the average salinity over the top 50m between the two model runs. A positive value indicates fresher surface in the A-HYPE forced, and a negative value indicates a fresher surface in the Dai and Trenberth forced run. c) Time series of freshwater content, in Sverdrups, for the two model runs over the whole Arctic domain. This is defined as the ocean above 60N, excluding Hudson Bay.

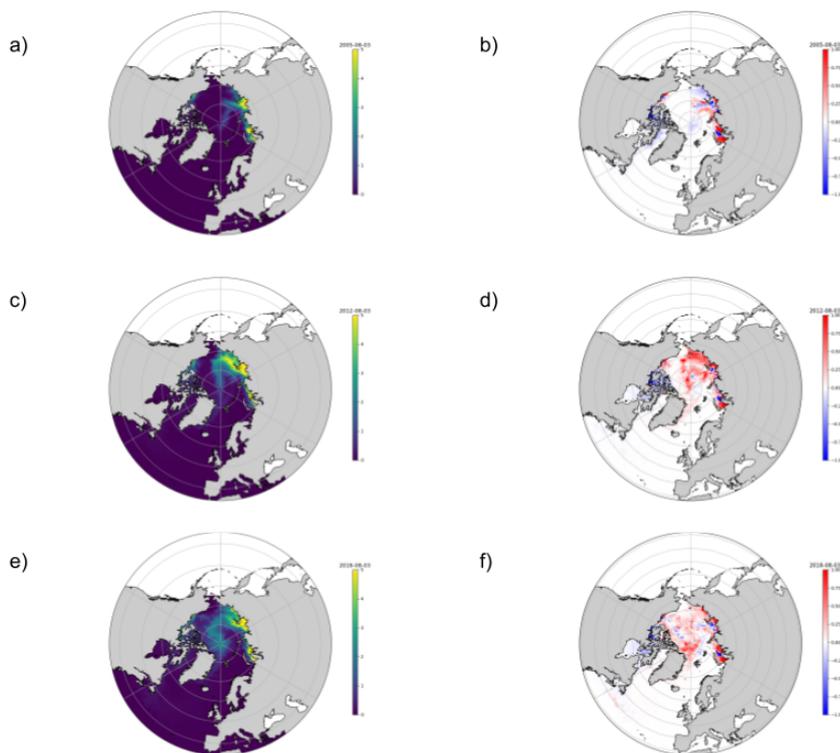


Figure 3. A-HYPE experiment River Tracer 2005-08-03, a), 2012-08-03, c) and 2018-08-03, e), as an example of the distribution of the river waters at the beginning of the time series. The colour bar shows the tracer concentration, measured as the total amount of tracer integrated over the water column in meters. Similarly, b), d) and f) show the difference in the river tracers values between the two runs for 2005-08-03, 2012-08-03 and 2018-08-03. The colour bar units are in meters, where positive values indicated higher river tracer values in A-HYPE forced run, and negative values are higher tracer values in the Dai and Trenberth forced run.

220 and Trenberth forced simulation. The average surface salinity in the A-HYPE forced run
 221 is 30.6, while in the Dai and Trenberth forced run is 30.4. Changes in the average sur-
 222 face salinity have also propagated down into the North Atlantic by the end of the model
 223 run.

224 The time series of freshwater content over the Arctic ocean is shown in figure 2 c),
 225 which is defined as the ocean region north of 60N, excluding Hudson Bay. For analysis
 226 of the impacts of river runoff forcing in Hudson Bay, see (Ridenour et al., 2019). In the
 227 time series, the A-HYPE forced model run shows a consistently higher freshwater con-
 228 tent after 2008. Overall, the average freshwater content over the entire Arctic above the
 229 34.8 isohaline is 1.91m in the A-HYPE forced run and 1.83m in the Dai and Trenberth
 230 forced run. This is an approximately 4 % increase in freshwater content on average over
 231 the whole Arctic in the A-HYPE forced model run. Much of this freshening is originally
 232 from Siberian river drainage, as seen in the spatial difference plots.

233 4.2 Links to Siberian Rivers

234 To understand where this increased freshening originates and how it propagates
 235 throughout the model domain, the model was run with passive tracers for river input.

236 Example snapshots of the river tracer propagation, and the difference between the river
237 tracers in the pair of model runs can be seen in figure 3. The full time series of the river
238 tracer shown in figure 3, a), c) and e) can be found at DOI: 10.7939/r3-4kj0-em27. The
239 tracers start along the coasts, with the highest concentrations correlating with the dis-
240 charge locations of the major river systems. The pathway of the tracers from the differ-
241 ent regions can be seen to correlate with the freshening shown in figure 3, as would be
242 expected as river runoff is known to be a large factor controlling surface water proper-
243 ties in the Arctic Ocean (Timmermans & Marshall, 2020). By the end of the time se-
244 ries, the tracers have propagated throughout the entire Arctic, as well as reaching into
245 the North Atlantic.

246 The largest difference in the total volume of freshwater entering the Arctic between
247 the two products comes from the the Siberian rivers, as shown in figure 1. This is also
248 seen to be the largest difference in the river tracers as the model run progresses. There
249 is a higher concentration of river tracers entering the Eurasian Basin in the A-HYPE forced
250 model run. This water is then able to enter the transpolar drift, then propagating through-
251 out the Arctic and eventually downstream out of Fram Strait. This behaviour of Siberian
252 river water has been seen before, as the pathway of the Transpolar Drift is known to im-
253 pact the propagation of Siberian waters from biological tracer studies (Paffrath et al.,
254 2021), (Gamrani et al., 2023). The difference in the river tracers in figure 3 shows that
255 the freshening seen in the Eastern half of the Arctic Ocean originated primarily from in-
256 creased Siberian river outflow in the A-HYPE runoff data set.

257 The greatest difference in the river tracers can be seen in the 2012, which repre-
258 sents approximately the middle of the time series. During this period there is a large con-
259 centration of the tracers in the Arctic Ocean, leading to much higher concentrations in
260 the A-HYPE forced run, especially along the Siberian Coast and Eurasian Basin. Later
261 in the time series, this difference in the river tracers is lessened, as there has been more
262 time for the river tracers to propagate downstream through the export gateways. By then
263 end of the model run period, the weaker signal in the Dai forced run can be seen towards
264 the Central Arctic and North of Greenland. There is consistently less river runoff en-
265 tering the CAA in the A-HYPE model run, seen in both the difference in river water trac-
266 ers, and the comparison of the regional runoff contributions, figure 1.

267 4.3 Propagation of Freshwater through Straits

268 The changed freshwater input into the Arctic Ocean has the potential to impact
269 the export of freshwater through the major Arctic gateways. The two primary gateways
270 between the Arctic and the North Atlantic are Davis Strait and Fram Strait. In order
271 to consider if these runoff changes could influence downstream water properties, the vol-
272 ume and freshwater transports were calculated at these two major gateways for each model
273 run.

274 As the focus of this analysis is on the export of freshwater from the Arctic, the south-
275 ward flowing section of Fram Strait is primarily considered. This section is defined at
276 78.5N and between 1-6 W. There is an average volume transport of 5.55 Sv in the A-
277 HYPE forced run, and 5.42 Sv in the Dai and Trenberth forced run. See figure 4, pan-
278 els a) and b). We consider this difference primarily in terms of the freshwater transport,
279 as seen in figure 4, panels c) and d). There is an average southward flow of 0.036Sv in
280 the A-HYPE forced run and 0.034Sv from the Dai and Trenberth forced run. This com-
281 pares well with (De Steur et al., 2018), which showed a 5 year average mean of the south-
282 ward freshwater transport at Fram Strait 78.5 N of $0.040 \pm 0.015Sv$. Residence times
283 of Siberian river water in other studies range from 3 years to 11 years (Alkire et al., 2017),
284 (Jahn et al., 2010). For this reason, we consider the percentage change in the freshwa-
285 ter export from 2008 onward, which allows the changes from the river runoff to prop-
286 agate to the strait. There is considerable variability throughout the time series. There
287 is on average a 7.5 % increase in southward freshwater transport when using A-HYPE
288 forcing, compared with Dai and Trenberth over the entire study period.

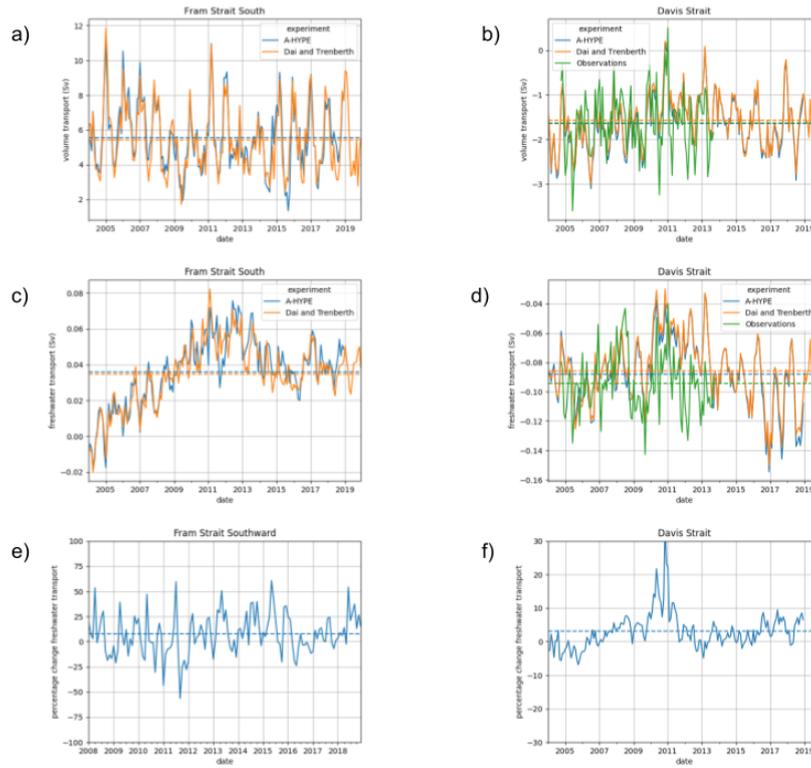


Figure 4. Time series of the southward volume transport, a), and freshwater transport, c), out of Fram Strait, in Sverdrups for both model runs. Similarly Davis Strait volume transport and freshwater transport are shown in b) and d), with observations from Curry et al. (2014). The percentage change in the freshwater transport for the two straits in the A-HYPE forced model run, compared to the Dai and Trenberth forced run are shown in e) and f) for southward Fram Strait and Davis Strait. A positive change indicates a increased freshwater transport from the A-HYPE forced run, and vice versa.

289 Davis Strait shows a similar behaviour. The Davis Strait section used is defined
290 between 66.8 - 68.5 N and 52 to 63 W. There is an average volume transport at this sec-
291 tion of -1.65 Sv in the A-HYPE forced run, and -1.57 Sv in the Dai and Trenberth forced
292 run, where the negative denotes a southward total transport. The freshwater transport
293 through this section was compared with available observations of transport across Davis
294 Strait, from Curry et al. (2014). There is an average freshwater transport southward over
295 the whole time series of 0.086 Sv with Dai and Trenberth forcing, 0.089 Sv with A-HYPE
296 forcing and 0.094 Sv from the observations. In order to understand the impact of chang-
297 ing runoff forcing with A-HYPE, the percentage change can be considered. There is an
298 average increase in freshwater transport out of Davis Strait of 3.1 % in the A-HYPE forced
299 run over the entire study period. This is in spite of the decrease in runoff in the A-HYPE
300 run in the CAA and Hudson Bay regions, which would affect the Davis Strait outflow
301 (Ridenour et al., 2021), (Lu et al., 2014).

302 5 Conclusions

303 River runoff is an important source of freshwater into the Arctic Ocean, and can
304 have a large impact on the stratification and circulation of the region. As the hydrolog-
305 ical cycle intensifies with climate change, runoff is increasing into the Arctic Ocean, a
306 trend which is expected to continue (Haie, 2020).

307 These two experiments in essence represent a realistic increase of river runoff since
308 2007, compared with a fixed static runoff since 2007. When comparing ocean model re-
309 sults using the two runoff products, A-HYPE produced an overall fresher ocean. This
310 freshening came in particular from the Siberian rivers. This caused freshening first the
311 Eastern basin, and Eastern Arctic. This anomaly can then be seen travelling through
312 the transpolar drift. This eventually freshens the outflow through Fram Strait. This change
313 was on the order of 5-10% depending on the area investigated, showing the strength of
314 river runoff in controlling surface properties in the Arctic. This comes from an overall
315 increase in runoff forcing of approximately 11%, though there is significant regional vari-
316 ability in the runoff amounts. This is consistent with Brown et al. (2019), where they
317 found an approximately linear response in large scale freshwater to increases in river runoff
318 forcing.

319 In line with previous studies, such as Alkire et al. (2017), Jahn et al. (2010), the
320 transpolar drift played a major role in the distribution of river waters, affecting export
321 timing through Fram Strait. In Wang et al. (2022), they showed that changes in the runoff
322 pathways can affect whether a region is a carbon dioxide source or sink, highlighting the
323 importance of accurately representing river runoff pathways. Other studies have shown
324 there is a link between the atmospheric state, and the transport of river waters through
325 either the transpolar drift or into the Canadian basin (Morison et al., 2012), (Alkire et
326 al., 2015). This can affect whether riverine input is stored in the Beaufort Gyre in the
327 Canadian Basin, or exported to lower latitudes (Proshutinsky et al., 2019), (Solomon et
328 al., 2021). This study shows a likely link between volume and freshwater transport in-
329 creases at the major straits and riverine freshwater increases. However the freshwater
330 storage in the model simulations was not discussed, which can strongly impact the south-
331 ward transport, and is potential future work.

332 There is also an increase in Davis Strait export seen with the A-HYPE forcing. This
333 is with a decrease in runoff from the CAA and Hudson Bay regions in the A-HYPE data
334 set. This shows the role of other sources in driving freshwater export from this gateway.
335 During the export event in winter 2010, see also Myers et al. (2021), the differences be-
336 tween the two model runs is the strongest. This highlights the role atmospheric variabil-
337 ity plays in the export of surface waters, and changing freshwater availability at the sur-
338 face could likely impact the strength of such events in the future. As well, for both Davis
339 Strait and Fram Strait, the A-HYPE forced model run shows closer agreement with ob-
340 servations, opposed to the Dai and Trenberth forced runs.

341 This work gives two main conclusions. First, that the Arctic Ocean surface prop-
 342 erties are sensitive to river runoff changes, implying that recent observed increases in river
 343 runoff have likely had a wide scale impact on surface and near surface salinity. River runoff
 344 is able to explain a significant amount of the Arctic freshening observed over the past
 345 decade. Second, that Siberian Rivers play an important role in the surface waters through-
 346 out the Arctic. Changes then in Siberian outflow could affect surface circulation patterns
 347 and stratification throughout the Arctic. They are also shown here to impact the prop-
 348 erties of Arctic waters exported into the North Atlantic. As the Arctic warms at an ac-
 349 celerated pace, changes in river runoff will drive large scale changes in the state of the
 350 Arctic Ocean.

351 6 Open Research

352 Model data can be requested at
 353 [https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs](https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html)
 354 [.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html](https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html). Runs used for this analysis are ANHA4-
 355 EPM015 and ANHA4-EPM151, which can be found on the website on the ANHA4 with
 356 tides simulation table. The source code and configuration information is available at
 357 <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP3/0AFNPL> and
 358 <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP3/DMGYXI>. Analysis scripts used for this work can
 359 be found at <https://github.com/t-gibbons/NEMO-Analysis.git>.

360 Acknowledgments

361 The authors would like to thank the NEMO development team and the DRAKKAR group
 362 for providing the model code and continuous guidance. We express our thanks to West-
 363 Grid and the Digital Research Alliance of Canada (<https://ccdb.alliancecan.ca>, last
 364 access: 20 July 2023) for the computational resources used to carry out our numerical
 365 simulations and for archiving the experiments. The Fortran code used to carry out the
 366 simulations can be accessed from the NEMO version 3.6 repository ([https://forge.ipsl](https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6)
 367 [.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6](https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6), last access: 14 October 2020).

368 This research was funded by Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council
 369 Canada (NSERC) Discovery Grant grants awarded to Paul G. Myers (rgpin227438-09
 370 and 2020-04344), as well as a Department of National Defence NSERC Supplement (DGDND-
 371 2020-04344).

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1 **Increased Runoff from Siberian Rivers leads to Arctic**
2 **Wide Freshening**

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7 **Key Points:**

- 8 • Freshwater river input to the Arctic Ocean has increased with climate change, though
9 this change is often not represented in ocean models
10 • Freshwater markers increased across the Arctic when comparing ocean model runs
11 which realistically represent contemporary runoff increases
12 • The largest increases came from Siberian rivers, contributing to Eastern Arctic
13 freshening and changes in export water properties

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Abstract

The effects of contemporary increases in riverine freshwater into the Arctic Ocean are estimated from ocean model simulations, using two runoff data sets. One runoff data set which is based on older climatological data, which has no inter-annual variability after 2007 and as such does not represent the observed increases in river runoff into the Arctic. The other data set comes from a hydrological model developed for the Arctic drainage basin, which includes contemporary changes in the climate. In the pan-Arctic this new data set represents an approximately 11% increase in runoff, compared with the older climatological data. Comparing two ocean model runs forced with the different runoff data sets, overall changes in different freshwater markers across the basin were found to be between 5-10%, depending on the area investigated. The strongest increases were seen from the Siberian rivers, which in turn caused the strongest freshening in the Eastern Arctic.

Plain Language Summary

With climate change, there is an increase in freshwater being added into the Arctic Ocean as the hydrological cycle intensifies. This study looks at understanding the impacts of this increased riverine water in the Arctic Ocean using a state of the art regional ocean model. Two runoff forcing data sets are used, one data set which only extends to 2007 and thus doesn't include recently observed runoff increases, and a newer data set which extends up to present day and represents contemporary increases in the river runoff into the Arctic. In comparative ocean model simulations forced with the two data sets, increasing the river runoff by approximately 11% over the time series corresponds to freshening in the Arctic ocean of 5-10%, depending on the metric used and area considered. Much of this increased freshwater found when comparison is driven by increased outflow from the major Siberian rivers. This in turn is seen to affect the Eastern Arctic primarily. This work shows that currently observed increased input of freshwater from rivers in the Arctic Ocean has likely already been influencing the surface properties of the Arctic, as well as affecting the properties of the water which is transported to lower latitudes.

1 Introduction

Freshwater plays a key role in the Arctic Ocean. In the Arctic Ocean, increased freshwater content, precipitation, river runoff, inflow at Bering Strait and sea ice melt has been observed and is predicted to continue, (Morison et al., 2012). These freshwater changes are likely linked to anthropogenic climate change (Haine, 2020). From climate model predictions of the 21st century, solid and liquid freshwater storage are the first observed impacts of climate change on the Arctic freshwater budgets, separable from natural variability (Jahn & Laiho, 2020).

River runoff is the largest source of freshwater discharge in the Arctic Ocean (Haine et al., 2015) and increasing river runoff into the Arctic basin is a major source of the freshwater increases (Stadnyk et al., 2021). It is approximated that 40 million people could be impacted by changes in the Arctic rivers, particularly in Canada (Déry et al., 2011). Many studies agree that river runoff into the Arctic Ocean has been increasing in recent years (Arnell, 2005), (Durocher et al., 2019) and (Stadnyk et al., 2021). River runoff into the Arctic Ocean has increased in the 2000's compared to the 1980-2000 period by approximately 10% (Haine et al., 2015). In Durocher et al. (2019) they considered the stream flow records for rivers feeding into the Arctic Ocean, and they found an increase in river runoff from all sources considered, for the time period 1975-2015. From climate models, the pan-Arctic domain is expected to become wetter as the climate continues to warm (MacDonald et al., 2018). River runoff is also expected to continue increasing in coming years with climate change (Arnell, 2005). Stadnyk et al. (2021) projected a 22% increase overall in river discharge into the Arctic by 2070.

64 A few other modelling studies have looked at the impact of increasing river runoff
65 on the Arctic Ocean, largely using simplified runoff fields. Nummelin et al. (2016) found
66 that increasing river runoff perturbations linearly from 10% to 150% in a coupled ocean-
67 sea ice model lead to increased stratification, and a warmer halocline and Atlantic wa-
68 ter layer in the Arctic Ocean. Ridenour et al. (2019) used a series of Nucleus for Euro-
69 pean Modelling of the Ocean (NEMO) modelling experiments to examine the sensitiv-
70 ity of the Hudson Bay Complex to river discharge scenarios, focusing on the impact of
71 river regulation. This was expanded on in Lukovich et al. (2021), where they found cli-
72 mate change was the dominant signal impacting Hudson Bay dynamics, opposed to river
73 regulation under CMIP5 future scenarios. In sensitivity experiments from Pemberton
74 and Nilsson (2016), looking at the Arctic Ocean’s response to freshwater input changes,
75 they also found that the Atlantic water layer warms, weakening of the Beaufort Gyre
76 circulation and increasing freshwater export from Fram Strait, with a corresponding de-
77 crease in export through the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. Brown et al. (2019) looked
78 at the transient response of the Arctic Ocean to changes in river runoff and precipita-
79 tion forcing. They used climatological river runoff forcing, where the forcing was increased
80 by a linear amount to understand sensitivity. They found a fairly linear response in fresh-
81 water storage response to increases in river runoff forcing.

82 Coupled climate models may include a river runoff routing scheme, where precip-
83 itation and evaporation over land is routed to drain into the ocean basins (Delworth et
84 al., 2002). There is significant uncertainty often in regional scale hydrological projections,
85 with significant model variability in response to the same forcing set (Masson-Delmotte
86 et al., 2021). Lehner et al. (2019) found that model’s runoff sensitivity emerges as a prop-
87 erty of the coupled system, as an individual model’s internal climate impacts runoff es-
88 timates. In addition, coupled climate models often run at comparatively coarse resolu-
89 tions compared to regional ocean model, giving a coarse spatial resolution, especially in
90 coastal shelf regions (Masson-Delmotte et al., 2021).

91 Traditionally, ocean models have commonly relied on the Dai and Trenberth runoff
92 dataset (Dai et al., 2009) for river runoff forcing (Griffies et al., 2016). Dai and Tren-
93 berth is a climatology based data set, from the largest ocean draining rivers globally, with
94 data gaps filled with a land surface model. There are limitations with this data set, es-
95 pecially in the Arctic Ocean, as it does not include many of the recent changes that have
96 been observed in the Arctic, as well as having significant data gaps and inconsistencies
97 with the observed record. This study aims to compare ocean model results using Dai and
98 Trenberth, with a newer runoff data set created using the Hydrological Predictions of
99 the Environment (HYPE) model (Gelfan et al., 2017). By forcing an ocean model sim-
100 ulation with the two different runoff products and comparing the results, this study aims
101 to look at the high latitude oceans response to river runoff, consider areas where ocean
102 models may be misrepresenting the affects of freshwater inputs and understand the model
103 sensitivity to runoff fields. Comparing the impacts of these runoff products gives a more
104 realistic view of changing runoff forcing, as it does not rely on a uniform linear increase
105 of runoff input, but rather a more regional view of how runoff could increase and poten-
106 tial impacts of these changes. First this paper compares the two runoff data sets, on both
107 spatial and temporal scales, and then the ocean model is described. The results of an
108 ocean model run from 2002 to 2019 with the different forcing products. Changes in fresh-
109 water content and export are considered. Pathways of river water, with particular fo-
110 cus to changes in the Eastern Arctic are also investigated.

111 2 Runoff Product Description

112 The older runoff data set being used in this study was produced by Dai et al. (2009).
113 Dai and Trenberth provides a data set of global continental discharge from 1948-2007.
114 Temporal gaps in gauge records for rivers are filled using linear regression using stream
115 flow simulated by a land surface model, Community Land Model Version 3 (CLM3) (Oleson
116 et al., 2010). For areas where there are no river monitoring available, the simulated CLM3

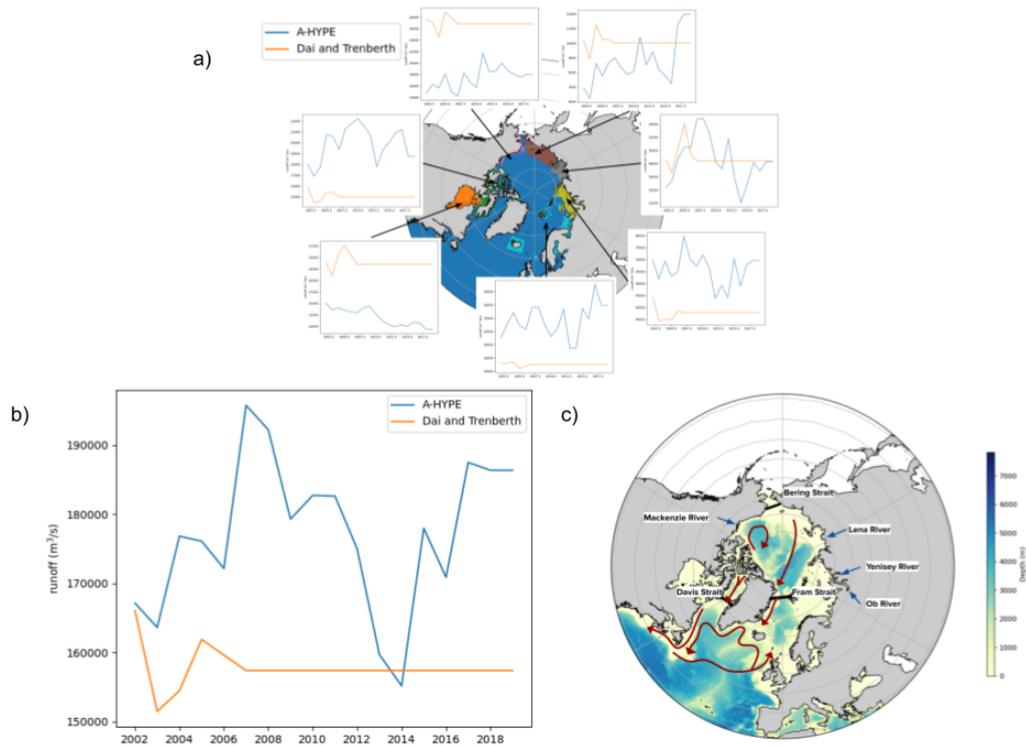


Figure 1. a) The annual average runoff, in m^3/s , for the two products, separated into regional contributions across the high Arctic and Hudson Bay. b) Annual average runoff in the Arctic region, excluding Hudson Bay, from 2002-2019 for A-HYPE and Dai and Trenberth, in m^3/s . The forcing used was supplied to the model in monthly values, but annual averages are shown here to understand the inter-annual variability seen in the products. c) Schematic of large scale Arctic Ocean circulation, with the four largest river discharge locations marked, and the major straits shown. The color bar indicates the depth of the bottom bathymetry, units in meters.

runoff field was used to estimate annual discharge in the region. Historically, to allow for common forcing in ocean modelling inter-comparison experiments (Biaostoch et al., 2021), models were forced with the CORE dataset (Griffies et al., 2009). As part of the CORE protocol, river runoff was traditionally represented by climatological monthly fields, based on the major rivers and various infilling techniques (Dai et al., 2009). For this reason, after 2007 the final year of the Dai and Trenberth data set is repeated until the end of the model run. For forcing the ocean model, runoff estimates from Greenland from Bamber et al. (2012) were used with this data set.

A more recent Arctic runoff data set has been produced by the University of Calgary Hydrological Analysis Lab, based off of the Hydrological Predictions of the Environment (HYPE) model. HYPE is a semi-distributed catchment model, which simulates water flow and substance flux on their way from precipitation through different storage compartments and fluxes to the sea (Lindström et al., 2010). The Arctic-HYPE (A-HYPE) setup has been created specifically for the Arctic drainage basin (Gelfan et al., 2017). It includes representations of cryospheric processes, and includes a river regulation model, particularly in the Hudson Bay complex (Tefs et al., 2021), (Stadnyk et al., 2020). This data set extends up to present day, and includes many of the recent changes seen in Arctic runoff. A-HYPE is forced using the HydroGFDv2 atmospheric reanalysis product (Berg et al., 2018). This runoff data set is combined with an updated estimate of the Greenland freshwater fluxes, from Bamber et al. (2018).

For both runoff data sets, the runoff forcing files for the model are produced in a similar manner. Runoff values from the data sets were combined with runoff values from the Greenland ice sheet. These values are then translated onto the model grid with volume conserved. Based off of the runoff value in a grid cell, the runoff would be distributed over nearby grid cells, in order to not over flood a grid cell with large amounts of freshwater at the surface layer and avoid associated numerical instability. This flooding of a coastal grid cell can happen in particular when there are shallow areas, or long fjords and estuaries where there is only weak exchange with the rest of the ocean. This redistribution is done through a system of manually edited polygons, which define the outflow areas of the river systems. As the A-HYPE data set was only produced for the Arctic region, for runoff in the lower latitudes of the domain it was combined with the Dai and Trenberth runoff. This constrains the changes in the data sets for the model to the terrestrial Arctic and the Greenland ice sheet.

2.1 Runoff Product Comparison

Overall, the A-HYPE data set supplies more freshwater to the Arctic region, though this has significant regional variation. When just considering the high Arctic region, without Hudson Bay, on average the A-HYPE data set supplies $177,101m^3/s$ of river runoff yearly, which the Dai and Trenberth data set supplies $158,487m^3/s$. The difference represents an overall average increase of approximately 11 % over the Arctic region, for the entire time period of 2002-2019. See figure 1, which shows the regional annual average contributions in a), annual average runoff amounts for the entire Arctic region in b), and a schematic diagram of the study region bathymetry, major ocean circulation patterns and the four largest river locations in c).

There is considerable spatial variability to these increases. Regions where Dai and Trenberth provides larger runoff compared with HYPE include the Hudson Bay complex, the Mackenzie River region, and river input near Bering Strait on both the North American and Siberian side. For all other regions, the HYPE runoff exceeds the Dai and Trenberth amounts. Three of the largest four rivers discharge on the Eastern side of the Arctic, the Ob River, the Yenisei River and the Lena River. Overall, the Eastern half of the Arctic represents 71 % of the runoff discharge from the Dai and Trenberth data set, and 77 % with the A-HYPE data set. There is a significant discrepancy between the runoff contributions in the Hudson Bay region from Dai and Trenberth, compared with observations, which is likely due to the impacts of river regulation (Stadnyk et al., 2020).

170 There is also considerable inter-annual variability from the A-HYPE data set, while
171 the Dai and Trenberth runoff is repeated after 2007, giving no variability throughout most
172 of the study period. For the Arctic overall, the peak discharge is seen in 2008 from the
173 A-HYPE data set. After this peak, there is a decrease in average discharge amounts, with
174 the lowest discharge year is in 2014. There is then a recovery of the runoff amounts in
175 the remainder of the time series. For detailed analysis of the trends and variability in
176 the A-HYPE data set, see Stadnyk et al. (2021). After 2007, the annual average runoff
177 from Dai and Trenberth is $157,285m^3/s$, and from A-HYPE is $177,984m^3/s$. This is a
178 slightly larger spread than when considering the entire time series, with the A-HYPE
179 data set for being approximately 13 % greater than Dai and Trenberth.

180 3 Model and Methods

181 All model simulations compared used the Nucleus for European Modelling of the
182 Ocean (NEMO) ocean model engine (Rousset et al., 2015), (Vancoppenolle et al., 2009)
183 version 3.6. It uses a sea ice module, Louvain-la-neuve Ice Model version 2 (LIM2) (Fichefet
184 & Maqueda, 1997). The Arctic and Northern Hemisphere Atlantic (ANHA) configura-
185 tion was used, with 1/4 degree resolution (Holdsworth & Myers, 2015), (Gillard et al.,
186 2016), (Hu et al., 2018). This gives a resolution of between 8-18km for the Arctic Ocean.
187 All model simulations were run from 2002 to 2019, with 2002-2005 considered the spin
188 up period. For atmospheric forcing, the Canadian Meteorological Centre's global deter-
189 ministic prediction system, CGRF, was used (Smith et al., 2014), as it has a high res-
190 olution with relatively small bias (Pennelly & Myers, 2021). The freshwater fluxes from
191 Greenland are from Bamber et al. (2012) and Bamber et al. (2018). Further details on
192 the model setup can be found in Hu et al. (2018).

193 Freshwater content and freshwater transports are calculated relative to 34.8 psu.
194 While Schauer and Losch (2019) argues against the use of relative freshwater, it is a com-
195 mon metric particularly in the Arctic and allows for consistency with previous studies.
196 Passive online tracers were also used in the model runs, to track the propagation of river
197 runoff input into the model throughout the run. Tracers are inputted into the model at
198 the boundary in the same grid cell and initial concentration as the river runoff input.
199 The tracer concentrations measured the total amount of tracer integrated over the wa-
200 ter column in meters. For a complete description of tracers in this model configuration
201 see Hu et al. (2019) and Gillard et al. (2016).

202 4 Results

203 4.1 Increased Freshwater Content

204 Model simulations forced with the A-HYPE river runoff data set showed an over-
205 all freshening of the surface layer across most of the Arctic region by the end of the model
206 integration. This can be seen from the spatial difference of the salinity of the top 50m,
207 shown in figure 2 a) and b). In the early part of the model integration from 2005-2007,
208 2 a), changes in the surface salinity are generally constrained to the coastlines. The A-
209 HYPE forced model run has fresher shelves in the Eastern Arctic, particularly around
210 the major Siberian river discharge regions. The CAA in comparison shows a fresher sur-
211 face in the Dai and Trenberth forced run, with the rest of the Arctic region showing lit-
212 tle change in the beginning of the model run. The spatial pattern for the end of the model
213 integration shows more significant differences, 2 b). The A-HYPE model run is fresher
214 throughout most of the Arctic, with changes having migrated throughout the Central
215 and Western Arctic. For example, the Kara Sea region receives large amounts of fresh-
216 water discharge, and over the entire model run has an average surface salinity of 29.3
217 in the A-HYPE forced run, compared to an average surface salinity of 30.6 in the Dai
218 and Trenberth forced run. This is an approximately 4% freshening over the entire run
219 period. The Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA) is overall slightly fresher in the Dai

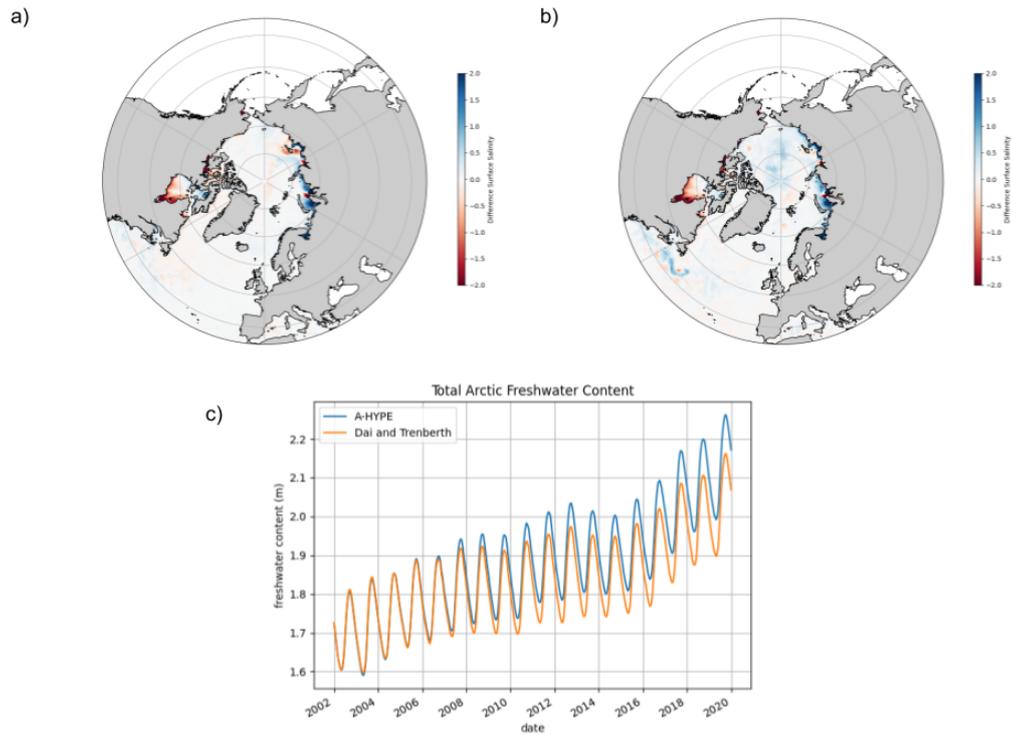


Figure 2. The average difference from 2005-2007, a), and 2017-2019, b), in the average salinity over the top 50m between the two model runs. A positive value indicates fresher surface in the A-HYPE forced, and a negative value indicates a fresher surface in the Dai and Trenberth forced run. c) Time series of freshwater content, in Sverdrups, for the two model runs over the whole Arctic domain. This is defined as the ocean above 60N, excluding Hudson Bay.

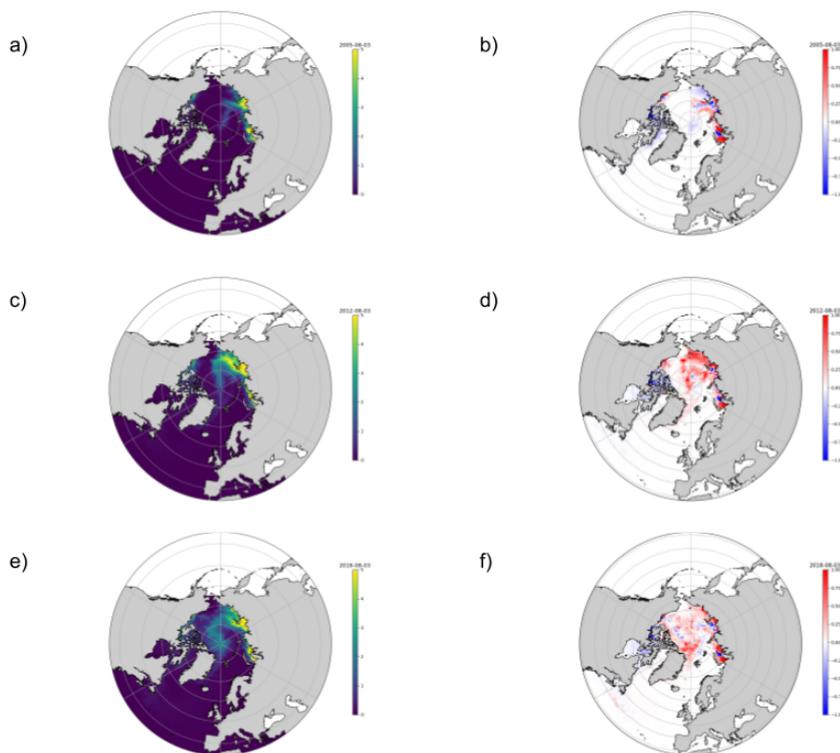


Figure 3. A-HYPE experiment River Tracer 2005-08-03, a), 2012-08-03, c) and 2018-08-03, e), as an example of the distribution of the river waters at the beginning of the time series. The colour bar shows the tracer concentration, measured as the total amount of tracer integrated over the water column in meters. Similarly, b), d) and f) show the difference in the river tracers values between the two runs for 2005-08-03, 2012-08-03 and 2018-08-03. The colour bar units are in meters, where positive values indicated higher river tracer values in A-HYPE forced run, and negative values are higher tracer values in the Dai and Trenberth forced run.

220 and Trenberth forced simulation. The average surface salinity in the A-HYPE forced run
 221 is 30.6, while in the Dai and Trenberth forced run is 30.4. Changes in the average sur-
 222 face salinity have also propagated down into the North Atlantic by the end of the model
 223 run.

224 The time series of freshwater content over the Arctic ocean is shown in figure 2 c),
 225 which is defined as the ocean region north of 60N, excluding Hudson Bay. For analysis
 226 of the impacts of river runoff forcing in Hudson Bay, see (Ridenour et al., 2019). In the
 227 time series, the A-HYPE forced model run shows a consistently higher freshwater con-
 228 tent after 2008. Overall, the average freshwater content over the entire Arctic above the
 229 34.8 isohaline is 1.91m in the A-HYPE forced run and 1.83m in the Dai and Trenberth
 230 forced run. This is an approximately 4 % increase in freshwater content on average over
 231 the whole Arctic in the A-HYPE forced model run. Much of this freshening is originally
 232 from Siberian river drainage, as seen in the spatial difference plots.

233 4.2 Links to Siberian Rivers

234 To understand where this increased freshening originates and how it propagates
 235 throughout the model domain, the model was run with passive tracers for river input.

236 Example snapshots of the river tracer propagation, and the difference between the river
237 tracers in the pair of model runs can be seen in figure 3. The full time series of the river
238 tracer shown in figure 3, a), c) and e) can be found at DOI: 10.7939/r3-4kj0-em27. The
239 tracers start along the coasts, with the highest concentrations correlating with the dis-
240 charge locations of the major river systems. The pathway of the tracers from the differ-
241 ent regions can be seen to correlate with the freshening shown in figure 3, as would be
242 expected as river runoff is known to be a large factor controlling surface water proper-
243 ties in the Arctic Ocean (Timmermans & Marshall, 2020). By the end of the time se-
244 ries, the tracers have propagated throughout the entire Arctic, as well as reaching into
245 the North Atlantic.

246 The largest difference in the total volume of freshwater entering the Arctic between
247 the two products comes from the the Siberian rivers, as shown in figure 1. This is also
248 seen to be the largest difference in the river tracers as the model run progresses. There
249 is a higher concentration of river tracers entering the Eurasian Basin in the A-HYPE forced
250 model run. This water is then able to enter the transpolar drift, then propagating through-
251 out the Arctic and eventually downstream out of Fram Strait. This behaviour of Siberian
252 river water has been seen before, as the pathway of the Transpolar Drift is known to im-
253 pact the propagation of Siberian waters from biological tracer studies (Paffrath et al.,
254 2021), (Gamrani et al., 2023). The difference in the river tracers in figure 3 shows that
255 the freshening seen in the Eastern half of the Arctic Ocean originated primarily from in-
256 creased Siberian river outflow in the A-HYPE runoff data set.

257 The greatest difference in the river tracers can be seen in the 2012, which repre-
258 sents approximately the middle of the time series. During this period there is a large con-
259 centration of the tracers in the Arctic Ocean, leading to much higher concentrations in
260 the A-HYPE forced run, especially along the Siberian Coast and Eurasian Basin. Later
261 in the time series, this difference in the river tracers is lessened, as there has been more
262 time for the river tracers to propagate downstream through the export gateways. By then
263 end of the model run period, the weaker signal in the Dai forced run can be seen towards
264 the Central Arctic and North of Greenland. There is consistently less river runoff en-
265 tering the CAA in the A-HYPE model run, seen in both the difference in river water trac-
266 ers, and the comparison of the regional runoff contributions, figure 1.

267 4.3 Propagation of Freshwater through Straits

268 The changed freshwater input into the Arctic Ocean has the potential to impact
269 the export of freshwater through the major Arctic gateways. The two primary gateways
270 between the Arctic and the North Atlantic are Davis Strait and Fram Strait. In order
271 to consider if these runoff changes could influence downstream water properties, the vol-
272 ume and freshwater transports were calculated at these two major gateways for each model
273 run.

274 As the focus of this analysis is on the export of freshwater from the Arctic, the south-
275 ward flowing section of Fram Strait is primarily considered. This section is defined at
276 78.5N and between 1-6 W. There is an average volume transport of 5.55 Sv in the A-
277 HYPE forced run, and 5.42 Sv in the Dai and Trenberth forced run. See figure 4, pan-
278 els a) and b). We consider this difference primarily in terms of the freshwater transport,
279 as seen in figure 4, panels c) and d). There is an average southward flow of 0.036Sv in
280 the A-HYPE forced run and 0.034Sv from the Dai and Trenberth forced run. This com-
281 pares well with (De Steur et al., 2018), which showed a 5 year average mean of the south-
282 ward freshwater transport at Fram Strait 78.5 N of $0.040 \pm 0.015Sv$. Residence times
283 of Siberian river water in other studies range from 3 years to 11 years (Alkire et al., 2017),
284 (Jahn et al., 2010). For this reason, we consider the percentage change in the freshwa-
285 ter export from 2008 onward, which allows the changes from the river runoff to prop-
286 agate to the strait. There is considerable variability throughout the time series. There
287 is on average a 7.5 % increase in southward freshwater transport when using A-HYPE
288 forcing, compared with Dai and Trenberth over the entire study period.

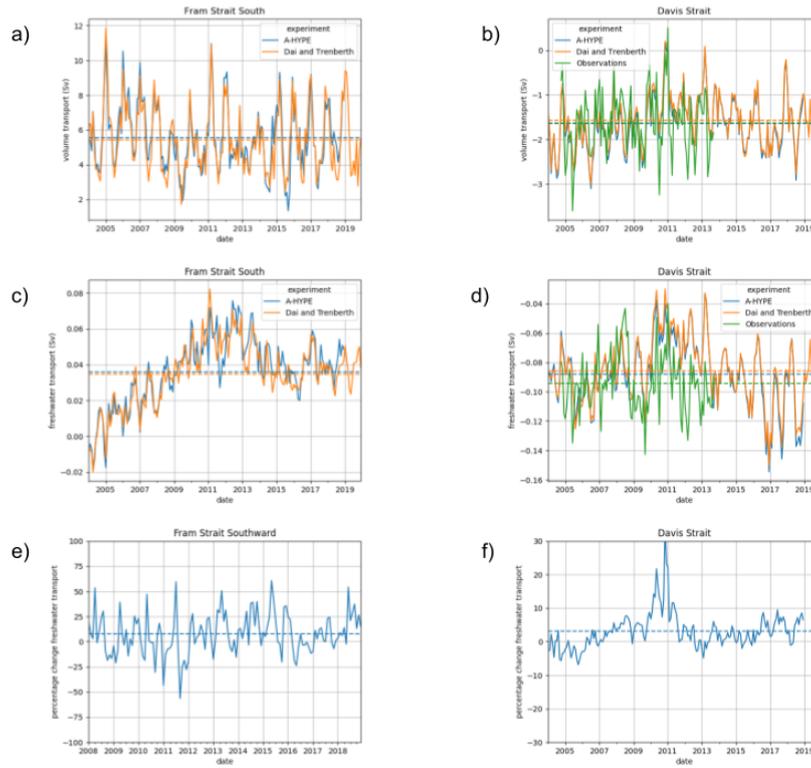


Figure 4. Time series of the southward volume transport, a), and freshwater transport, c), out of Fram Strait, in Sverdrups for both model runs. Similarly Davis Strait volume transport and freshwater transport are shown in b) and d), with observations from Curry et al. (2014). The percentage change in the freshwater transport for the two straits in the A-HYPE forced model run, compared to the Dai and Trenberth forced run are shown in e) and f) for southward Fram Strait and Davis Strait. A positive change indicates a increased freshwater transport from the A-HYPE forced run, and vice versa.

289 Davis Strait shows a similar behaviour. The Davis Strait section used is defined
290 between 66.8 - 68.5 N and 52 to 63 W. There is an average volume transport at this sec-
291 tion of -1.65 Sv in the A-HYPE forced run, and -1.57 Sv in the Dai and Trenberth forced
292 run, where the negative denotes a southward total transport. The freshwater transport
293 through this section was compared with available observations of transport across Davis
294 Strait, from Curry et al. (2014). There is an average freshwater transport southward over
295 the whole time series of 0.086 Sv with Dai and Trenberth forcing, 0.089 Sv with A-HYPE
296 forcing and 0.094 Sv from the observations. In order to understand the impact of chang-
297 ing runoff forcing with A-HYPE, the percentage change can be considered. There is an
298 average increase in freshwater transport out of Davis Strait of 3.1 % in the A-HYPE forced
299 run over the entire study period. This is in spite of the decrease in runoff in the A-HYPE
300 run in the CAA and Hudson Bay regions, which would affect the Davis Strait outflow
301 (Ridenour et al., 2021), (Lu et al., 2014).

302 5 Conclusions

303 River runoff is an important source of freshwater into the Arctic Ocean, and can
304 have a large impact on the stratification and circulation of the region. As the hydrolog-
305 ical cycle intensifies with climate change, runoff is increasing into the Arctic Ocean, a
306 trend which is expected to continue (Haie, 2020).

307 These two experiments in essence represent a realistic increase of river runoff since
308 2007, compared with a fixed static runoff since 2007. When comparing ocean model re-
309 sults using the two runoff products, A-HYPE produced an overall fresher ocean. This
310 freshening came in particular from the Siberian rivers. This caused freshening first the
311 Eastern basin, and Eastern Arctic. This anomaly can then be seen travelling through
312 the transpolar drift. This eventually freshens the outflow through Fram Strait. This change
313 was on the order of 5-10% depending on the area investigated, showing the strength of
314 river runoff in controlling surface properties in the Arctic. This comes from an overall
315 increase in runoff forcing of approximately 11%, though there is significant regional vari-
316 ability in the runoff amounts. This is consistent with Brown et al. (2019), where they
317 found an approximately linear response in large scale freshwater to increases in river runoff
318 forcing.

319 In line with previous studies, such as Alkire et al. (2017), Jahn et al. (2010), the
320 transpolar drift played a major role in the distribution of river waters, affecting export
321 timing through Fram Strait. In Wang et al. (2022), they showed that changes in the runoff
322 pathways can affect whether a region is a carbon dioxide source or sink, highlighting the
323 importance of accurately representing river runoff pathways. Other studies have shown
324 there is a link between the atmospheric state, and the transport of river waters through
325 either the transpolar drift or into the Canadian basin (Morison et al., 2012), (Alkire et
326 al., 2015). This can affect whether riverine input is stored in the Beaufort Gyre in the
327 Canadian Basin, or exported to lower latitudes (Proshutinsky et al., 2019), (Solomon et
328 al., 2021). This study shows a likely link between volume and freshwater transport in-
329 creases at the major straits and riverine freshwater increases. However the freshwater
330 storage in the model simulations was not discussed, which can strongly impact the south-
331 ward transport, and is potential future work.

332 There is also an increase in Davis Strait export seen with the A-HYPE forcing. This
333 is with a decrease in runoff from the CAA and Hudson Bay regions in the A-HYPE data
334 set. This shows the role of other sources in driving freshwater export from this gateway.
335 During the export event in winter 2010, see also Myers et al. (2021), the differences be-
336 tween the two model runs is the strongest. This highlights the role atmospheric variabil-
337 ity plays in the export of surface waters, and changing freshwater availability at the sur-
338 face could likely impact the strength of such events in the future. As well, for both Davis
339 Strait and Fram Strait, the A-HYPE forced model run shows closer agreement with ob-
340 servations, opposed to the Dai and Trenberth forced runs.

341 This work gives two main conclusions. First, that the Arctic Ocean surface prop-
 342 erties are sensitive to river runoff changes, implying that recent observed increases in river
 343 runoff have likely had a wide scale impact on surface and near surface salinity. River runoff
 344 is able to explain a significant amount of the Arctic freshening observed over the past
 345 decade. Second, that Siberian Rivers play an important role in the surface waters through-
 346 out the Arctic. Changes then in Siberian outflow could affect surface circulation patterns
 347 and stratification throughout the Arctic. They are also shown here to impact the prop-
 348 erties of Arctic waters exported into the North Atlantic. As the Arctic warms at an ac-
 349 celerated pace, changes in river runoff will drive large scale changes in the state of the
 350 Arctic Ocean.

351 6 Open Research

352 Model data can be requested at
 353 [https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs](https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html)
 354 [.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html](https://canadian-nemo-ocean-modelling-forum-community-of-practice.readthedocs.io/en/latest/Institutions/UofA/index.html). Runs used for this analysis are ANHA4-
 355 EPM015 and ANHA4-EPM151, which can be found on the website on the ANHA4 with
 356 tides simulation table. The source code and configuration information is available at
 357 <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP3/0AFNPL> and
 358 <https://doi.org/10.5683/SP3/DMGYXI>. Analysis scripts used for this work can
 359 be found at <https://github.com/t-gibbons/NEMO-Analysis.git>.

360 Acknowledgments

361 The authors would like to thank the NEMO development team and the DRAKKAR group
 362 for providing the model code and continuous guidance. We express our thanks to West-
 363 Grid and the Digital Research Alliance of Canada (<https://ccdb.alliancecan.ca>, last
 364 access: 20 July 2023) for the computational resources used to carry out our numerical
 365 simulations and for archiving the experiments. The Fortran code used to carry out the
 366 simulations can be accessed from the NEMO version 3.6 repository ([https://forge.ipsl](https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6)
 367 [.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6](https://forge.ipsl.jussieu.fr/nemo/browser/NEMO/releases/release-3.6), last access: 14 October 2020).

368 This research was funded by Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council
 369 Canada (NSERC) Discovery Grant grants awarded to Paul G. Myers (rgpin227438-09
 370 and 2020-04344), as well as a Department of National Defence NSERC Supplement (DGDND-
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