

Seasonal wind stress direction influences source and properties of inflow to the Salish Sea and Columbia River estuary

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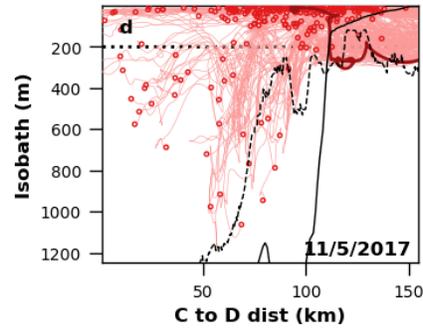
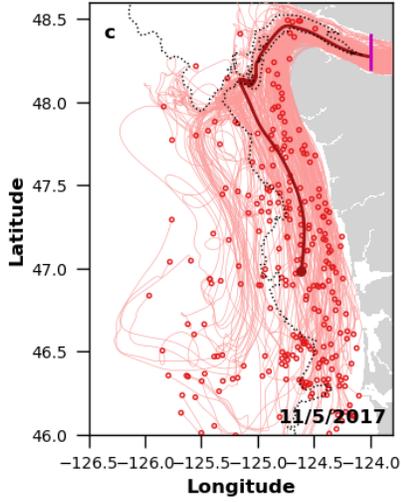
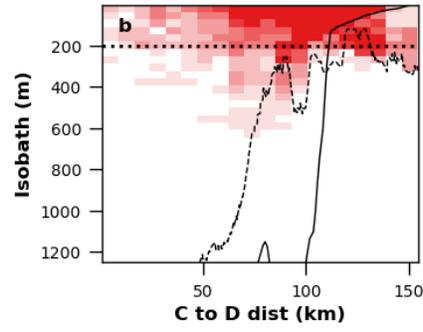
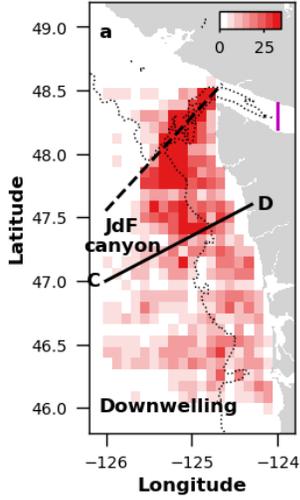
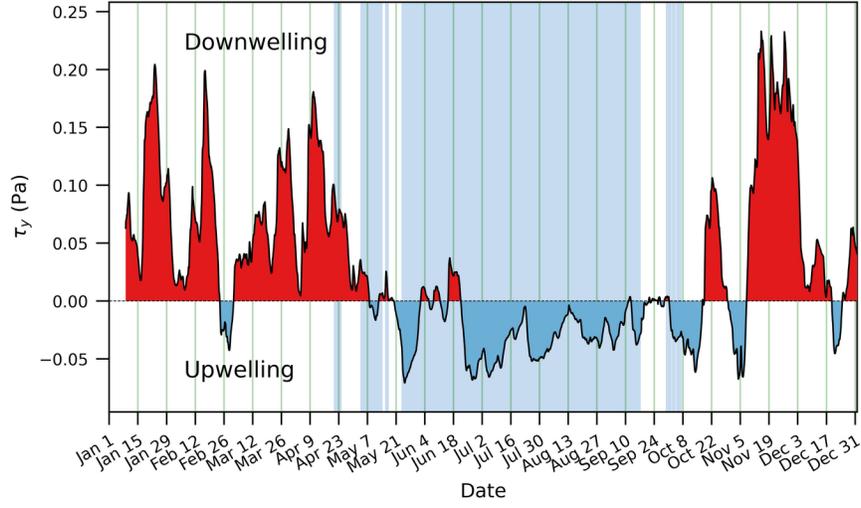
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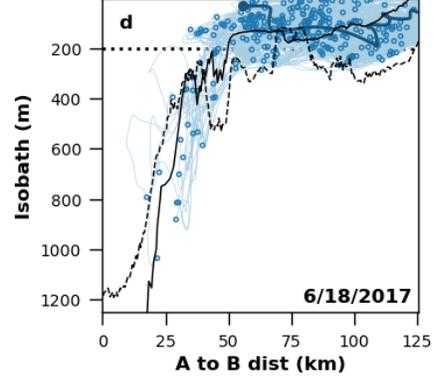
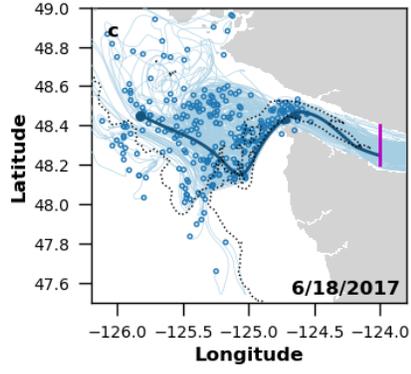
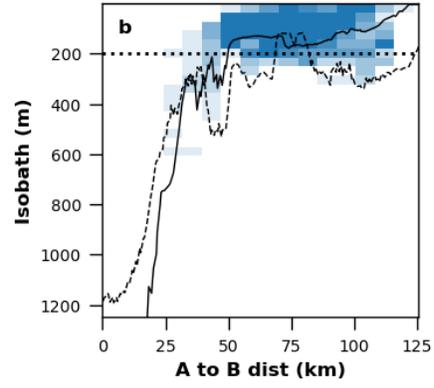
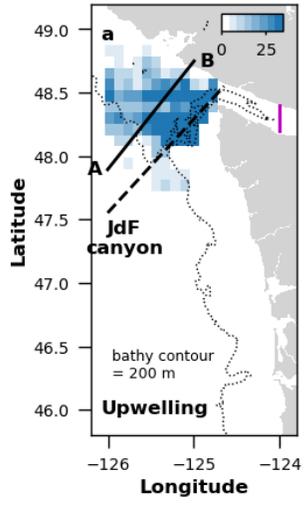
Abstract

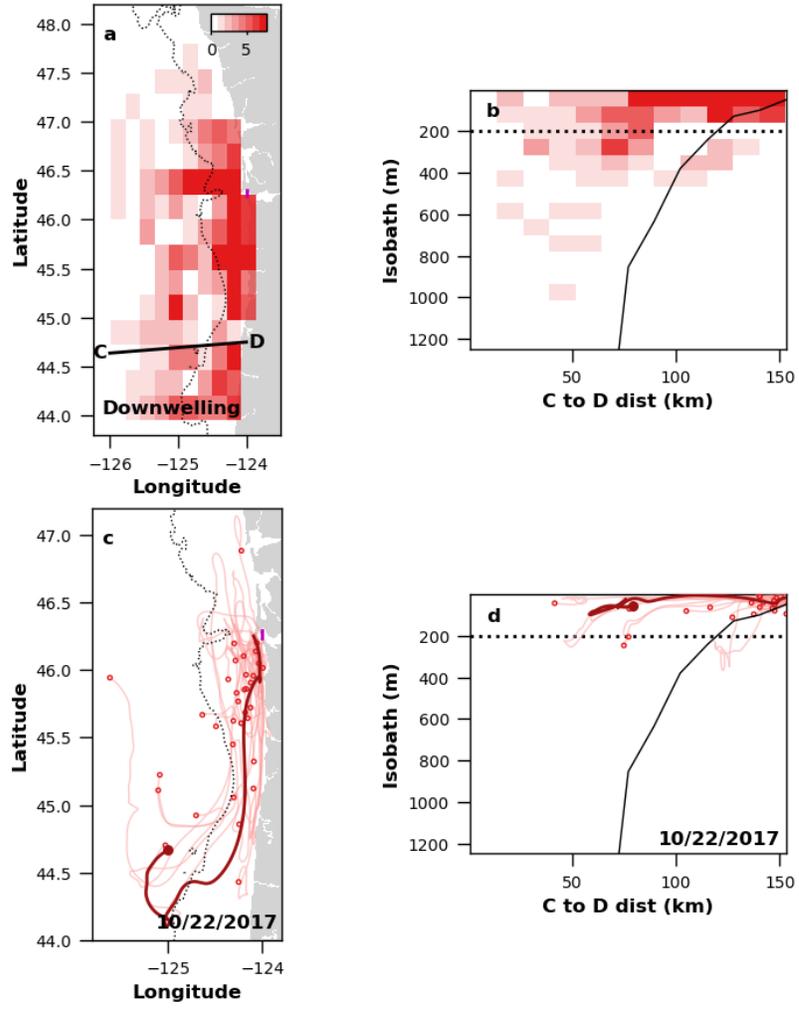
Estuaries in the northern California current system (NCCS) experience seasonally reversing wind stress, which is expected to impact the origin and properties of shelf water which enters NCCS estuaries ('shelf inflow'). Wind stress has been shown to affect the source of shelf inflow by driving alongshelf currents. However, the effects of wind-driven Ekman dynamics and shelf currents from larger-scale forcing on shelf inflow have yet to be explored. Variations in shelf inflow to the Salish Sea and the Columbia River estuary, two large NCCS estuarine systems, were studied using a realistic hydrodynamic model. The paths and source of shelf water were identified using particles released on the shelf. Particles were released every two weeks of 2017 and tracked for sixty days. Shelf inflow was identified as particles that crossed the estuary mouths. Mean wind stress during each release was compared with initial horizontal and vertical positions and physical properties of shelf inflow particles. For both the Salish Sea and the Columbia River estuary, upwelling-favorable wind stress was correlated with a shelf inflow source north of the estuary mouth. Depth was not correlated with wind stress for either estuary, but relative depth (depth scaled by isobath) increased during upwelling-favorable winds for both. Properties of inflow changed from cold and fresh during upwelling to warm and salty during downwelling, reflecting seasonal changes in NCCS shelf waters. These results may be extended to predict the source and properties of shelf inflow to estuaries in other regions with known wind or shelf current patterns.

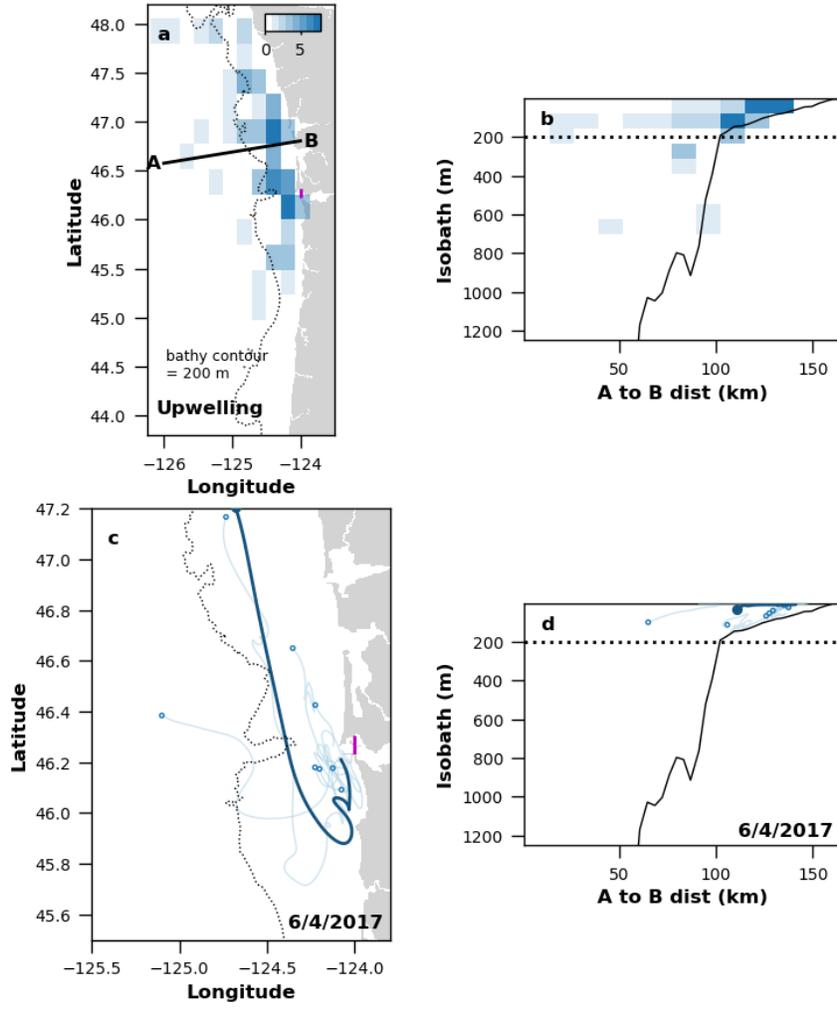
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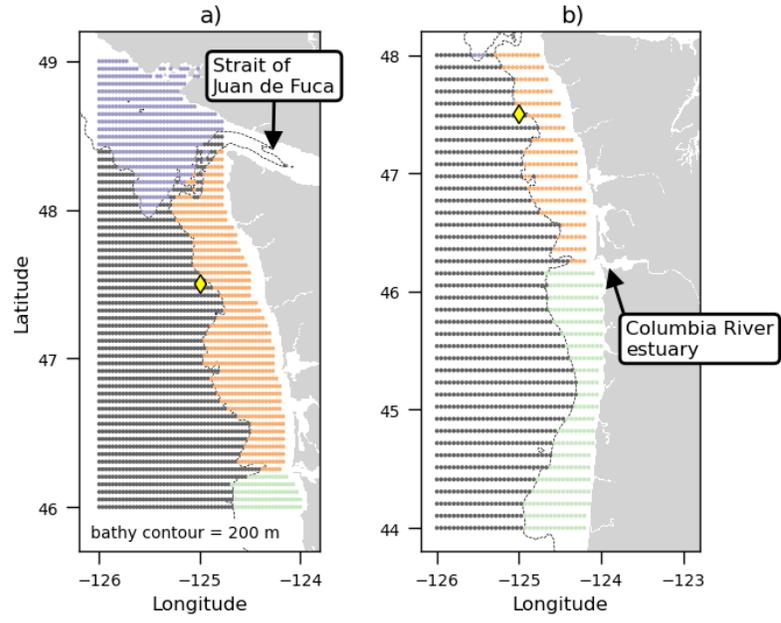
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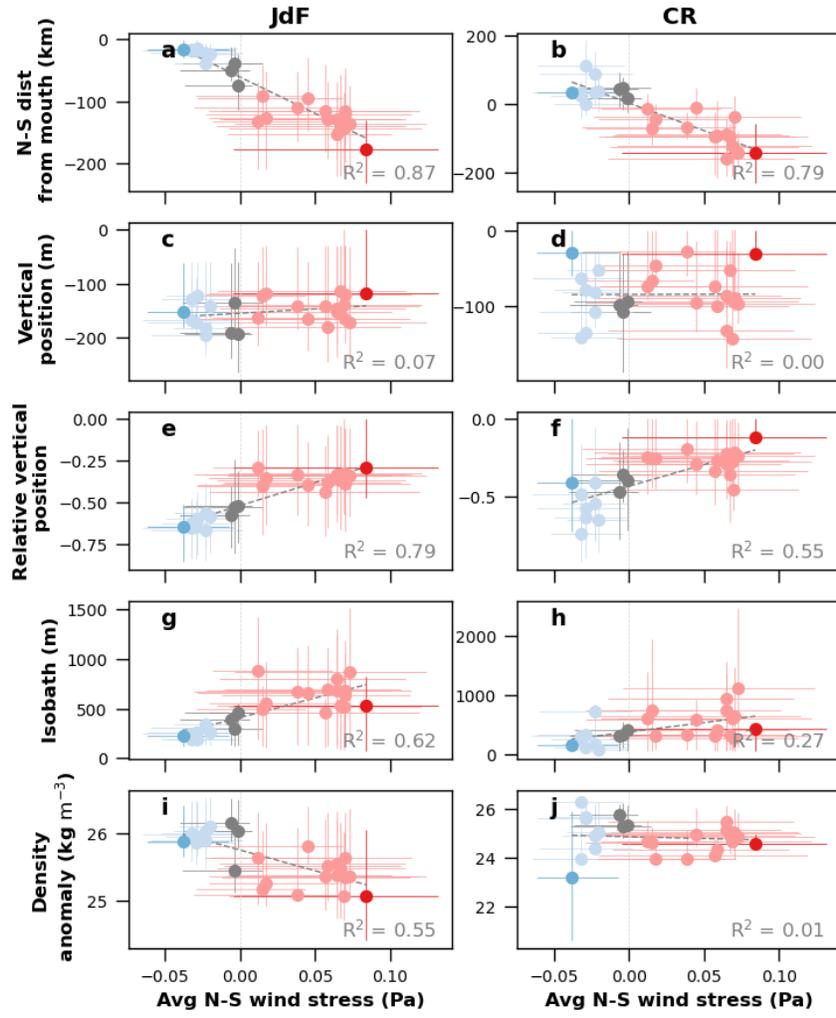


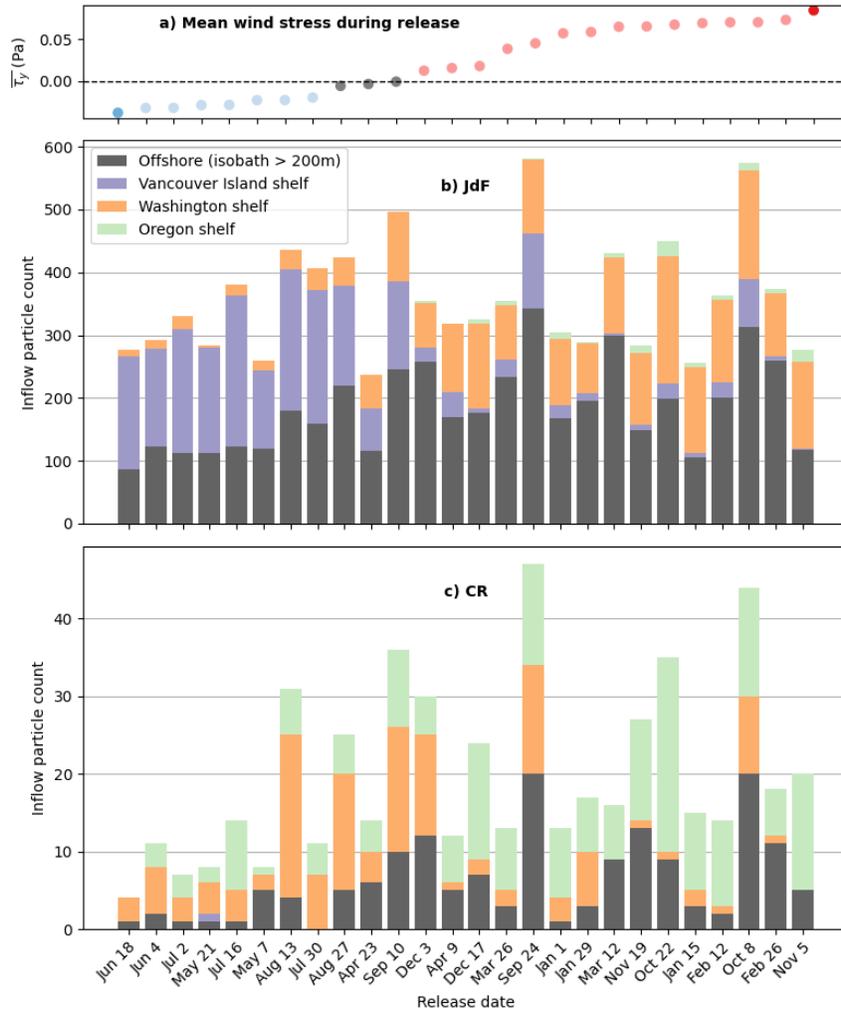


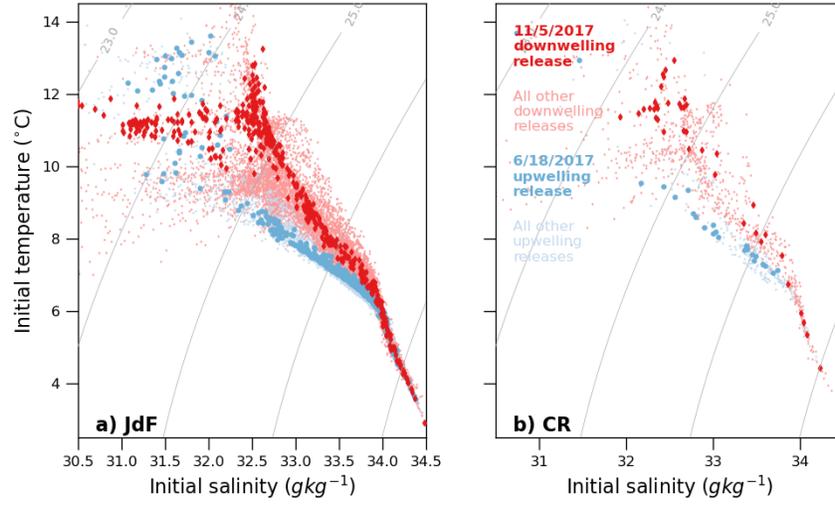












1 **Title**

2 Seasonal wind stress direction influences source and properties of inflow to the Salish Sea and
3 Columbia River estuary

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14 **Key points**

- 15 1. Inflow to the Salish Sea and Columbia River comes from north during upwelling-favorable
16 winds and south during downwelling-favorable winds.
- 17 2. Inflow source is denser and relatively (but not absolutely) deeper during upwelling-favorable
18 wind stress.
- 19 3. The Juan de Fuca canyon influences all inflow to the Salish Sea regardless of wind direction.

20 **Abstract**

21 Estuaries in the northern California current system (NCCS) experience seasonally reversing wind
22 stress, which is expected to impact the origin and properties of shelf water which enters NCCS
23 estuaries ('shelf inflow'). Wind stress has been shown to affect the source of shelf inflow by
24 driving alongshelf currents. However, the effects of wind-driven Ekman dynamics and shelf
25 currents from larger-scale forcing on shelf inflow have yet to be explored. Variations in shelf
26 inflow to the Salish Sea and the Columbia River estuary, two large NCCS estuarine systems,
27 were studied using a realistic hydrodynamic model. The paths and source of shelf water were
28 identified using particles released on the shelf. Particles were released every two weeks of 2017
29 and tracked for sixty days. Shelf inflow was identified as particles that crossed the estuary
30 mouths. Mean wind stress during each release was compared with initial horizontal and vertical
31 positions and physical properties of shelf inflow particles. For both the Salish Sea and the
32 Columbia River estuary, upwelling-favorable wind stress was correlated with a shelf inflow
33 source north of the estuary mouth. Depth was not correlated with wind stress for either estuary,
34 but relative depth (depth scaled by isobath) increased during upwelling-favorable winds for both.
35 Properties of inflow changed from cold and fresh during upwelling to warm and salty during
36 downwelling, reflecting seasonal changes in NCCS shelf waters. These results may be extended

37 to predict the source and properties of shelf inflow to estuaries in other regions with known wind
38 or shelf current patterns.

39 **Plain language summary**

40 The seawater in estuaries brings in ocean-borne density, nutrients, and oxygen levels. To better
41 predict estuarine conditions due to seasonal and longer scale ocean changes, we investigate
42 where estuarine seawater originated in the ocean and why. Here we examine how seasonal wind
43 direction impacts the location and properties of seawater in two Pacific northwest estuaries by
44 generating flow pathways throughout the year 2017 using a 3D ocean forecast model. When
45 wind was from the north (typical during Pacific northwest summer), estuarine seawater
46 originated from the ocean to the north of the estuary mouth. During wintertime, wind from the
47 south brought in seawater from south of the estuarine mouth. On average, seawater came from
48 the same depth below the sea surface regardless of wind direction. However, under northerly
49 winds, most seawater originated near the seafloor of the continental shelf, while under southerly
50 winds, some seawater originated further offshore where the seafloor is much deeper. Since
51 seawater near the seafloor tends to have lower oxygen, these flow pathways help to explain why
52 seawater with low oxygen has been found entering Pacific northwest estuaries during
53 summertime. These results can be extended to estuaries in other regions with known wind
54 patterns.

55 **Keywords**

56 Estuary, shelf, inflow, particles, upwelling

57

58 **1. Introduction**

59 Estuaries mix buoyant water with coastal ocean water which originated somewhere on the
60 continental shelf (hereafter "shelf inflow"). In idealized numerical models without atmospheric
61 forcing, shelf inflow originates from the direction of coastal trapped wave propagation
62 (Beardsley and Hart, 1978; Masse, 1990; Brasseale and MacCready, 2021). However, when
63 wind stress forcing has been included, the source of shelf inflow was sourced from the upwind
64 direction (Beardsley and Hart, 1978; Masse, 1990). An upwind shelf inflow source would be
65 particularly consequential for estuaries in the northern California Current system (CCS) where
66 wind direction switches between predominately upwelling-favorable in summer and
67 downwelling-favorable in winter (Hickey and Banas, 2003).

68
69 Previous shelf inflow source investigations sought simple steady state numerical solutions to the
70 momentum and continuity equations for a two-layer shelf, with a lower shelf inflow layer and an
71 upper estuarine outflowing layer (Beardsley and Hart, 1978; Masse, 1990). However, since two-
72 layer models do not resolve boundary layers, the effect of wind-driven Ekman layer transport on
73 the shelf inflow source remains to be shown. Under upwelling-favorable wind stress, Ekman
74 transport in the surface layer diverges at the coastline, creating upward flow through the bottom
75 boundary layer. This is consistent with observations of dense shelf inflow to CCS estuaries
76 during upwelling-favorable wind stress (Hickey et al., 2002). Intrusions of hypoxic shelf water to
77 the Columbia River estuary have been observed in response to coastal upwelling (Roegner et al.,
78 2011). Inflow to the Salish Sea, a large inland sea in the northern CCS shared by the United
79 States and Canada, has been observed to originate in the Juan de Fuca canyon during upwelling-
80 favorable winds (Alford and MacCready, 2014), and deep water believed to originate below the

81 shelf has been observed in the inland branches of the Salish Sea, including Puget Sound, during
82 the upwelling-favorable wind season (Feely et al., 2010). Deep Pacific Ocean water has low
83 aragonite saturation state and low pH, which may interfere with the growth of juvenile oyster and
84 krill populations that reside in Puget Sound (McLaskey et al., 2016). Although deep water was
85 observed to pass through the Juan de Fuca canyon during upwelling-favorable winds, it is still
86 unknown, however, whether inflow to the Strait of Juan de Fuca originates in the Juan de Fuca
87 canyon under downwelling-favorable winds. Observations presented in Cannon (1972) suggest
88 that it does not, at least near the seaward end of the canyon at the shelf break. The effect of
89 downwelling-favorable wind stress on estuarine inflow is less well-studied than upwelling.

90

91 Here, we investigate how upwelling- and downwelling-favorable wind stress impact the source
92 of shelf inflow. This will be tested in two estuarine systems in the northern CCS, the Salish Sea
93 and the Columbia River estuary. The Salish Sea and Columbia River estuary represent two
94 different estuarine types: the Salish Sea is a glacially carved inland sea which functions as a
95 fjord-like estuary, and the Columbia River estuary is a drowned river valley estuary. This study
96 will focus on event scale (multi-day) forcing, as that is the time scale relevant for upwelling
97 processes observed on the Oregon shelf (Austin and Barth, 2002). The effects of wind stress
98 variations on shorter time scales (such as sea breeze) will be neglected. For each estuary, we will
99 address the following questions:

- 100 1. Does inflow originate in the upwind direction?
- 101 2. Is upwelling-favorable wind stress associated with a deeper source of inflow?
- 102 3. Is the direction of wind stress correlated with different source water properties (density,
103 temperature, and salinity)?

104 Addressing these questions will help explain seasonal variations in source waters to northern
105 CCS estuaries and predict the source of shelf inflow to estuaries in other regions, including those
106 with unidirectional wind stress (e.g., the southern CCS) or persistent coastal currents (e.g., the
107 east coast of the United States).

108

109 **2. Methods**

110 *2.1 Model set-up*

111 Experiments were performed using the LiveOcean model (MacCready et al., 2021), which
112 encompasses the Salish Sea and all coastal waters of Oregon, Washington, and Vancouver
113 Island. The LiveOcean model was built using Regional Ocean Modeling System (ROMS), a
114 three-dimensional Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes model that uses a terrain-following vertical
115 coordinate (Shchepetkin and McWilliams, 2005). The horizontal resolution is 500 m in most of
116 the Salish Sea and Washington coast, stretching up to 3 km at open boundaries. The model has
117 30 vertical levels, following the bathymetry and free surface. The model is configured with
118 realistic forcing which includes 45 rivers, 8 tidal constituents, open ocean conditions from a
119 global data-assimilative model, and high-resolution atmospheric forcing from a regional weather
120 forecast model. The model hindcast has been extensively compared to observations (MacCready
121 et al 2021).

122

123 *2.2 Particle tracking scheme*

124 Particle tracking experiments determined where inflow originated on the shelf. The shelf is
125 seeded with particles which are passively advected by the ocean currents and mixed vertically by
126 turbulence, modeled as a random walk following the technique developed by Visser (1997).

127 Particles were identified as estuarine inflow if, at any point after their release, they crossed a
128 spatial line demarcating the estuarine channel entrance. The particle tracking algorithm forward-
129 integrated a particle's position using the currents interpolated in time from saved hourly
130 snapshots from the model. The forward integration scheme used is 4th-order Runge-Kutta with a
131 300-second time step to resolve tides, similar to that used in Banas et al. (2009), Giddings et al.
132 (2014), Brasseale et al. (2019), Brasseale and MacCready (2021), and Xiong and MacCready
133 (2023). A nearest-neighbor search algorithm was used for finding the velocities used to advect
134 particles.

135

136 To examine inflow to the Strait of Juan de Fuca, approximately 260,000 particles were released
137 at every 15 m of depth for 10,000 latitude-longitude pairs (100 evenly spaced positions between
138 47 and 49 N and 100 evenly spaced positions between -126 and -124 E; Figure 1a). The particles
139 with release points on land or within the Strait of Juan de Fuca were masked out. To examine
140 inflow to the Columbia River estuary, approximately 60,000 particles were released at every 30
141 m of depth for 1600 latitude-longitude pairs (40 evenly spaced positions between 44 and 48 N
142 and 40 evenly spaced positions between -126 and -124 E; Figure 1b). For both estuaries,
143 particles were released every two weeks throughout the year 2017 (26 total releases) and tracked
144 for 60 days to sample the seasonal range of wind stresses experienced in the northern CCS.

145

146 Upwelling or downwelling in the ocean as a response to wind stress was estimated using a
147 weighted average of the wind stress over the previous 8 days (hereafter "AB8d filter"), the time
148 scale for upwelling fronts to reach dynamic equilibrium on the Oregon shelf (Austin and Barth,
149 2002). Analyses used the north-south component of wind stress extracted from the model at

150 longitude -125 and latitude 47.5, a location between the shelf and the slope approximately
151 equidistant from the Strait of Juan de Fuca and the Columbia River estuary (Figure 2). Year 2017
152 was chosen for these experiments because the timing and duration of upwelling-favorable wind
153 stress was typical for the region, i.e. consistent with upwelling-favorable wind conditions from
154 interannual average from a nearby National Data Buoy Center mooring with wind data available
155 from 2003 to 2020 (Figure 2).

156

157 **3. Results**

158 Wind stress was predominantly downwelling-favorable from January 1 to May 1, as typical for
159 winter in the northern CCS. Wind stress was predominantly upwelling-favorable from May 1 to
160 mid-October. From mid-October to the end of the year, wind stress returned to being
161 predominantly downwelling-favorable. Mean AB8d-filtered downwelling-favorable wind stress
162 for the study period was $\tau_y = 0.07$ Pa, more than twice the magnitude of the mean AB8d-filtered
163 upwelling favorable wind stress of $\tau_y = -0.03$ Pa (Figure 2).

164

165 The particle releases experienced a mix of both upwelling- and downwelling-favorable wind
166 stress. A release was categorized as representing upwelling- or downwelling-favorable wind
167 stress using the sign of mean wind stress, $\overline{\tau_y}$, during the 60-day release. Of the twenty-six total
168 releases for each estuary, eight releases represented upwelling-favorable conditions and fifteen
169 releases represented downwelling-favorable conditions. The remaining three releases had $|\overline{\tau_y}| <$
170 0.01 Pa and were therefore not considered representative of either upwelling- or downwelling-
171 favorable conditions (Figure 3a).

172

173 The number of inflowing particles for a given release to the Strait of Juan de Fuca was an order
174 of magnitude greater than the Columbia River estuary ($O(100)$ vs $O(10)$; Figure 3b vs c). There
175 was no significant correlation between the number of inflowing particles and the strength or
176 direction of wind stress.

177

178 *3.1 Effect of wind stress on horizontal inflow source*

179 In both experiments, the initial horizontal positions of inflowing particles were strongly
180 correlated with the magnitude and direction of N-S wind stress (Figure 4a–b).

181 During upwelling-favorable wind stress, most inflowing particles to the Strait of Juan de Fuca
182 were sourced from Vancouver Island shelf northwest of the Strait. Of all inflowing particles,
183 56% originated on the Vancouver Island shelf, compared with 6% from the Washington shelf
184 and 0% from the Oregon shelf. The remaining 38% originated offshore of the shelf break (Figure
185 3b; Figure 5a). The strongest mean upwelling-favorable wind stress occurred for the 6/18/2017
186 release (Figure 5c–d). One case study particle began on the Vancouver Island shelf flowing
187 southeast parallel to the coastline until it reached the Juan de Fuca canyon (thicker, darker line in
188 Figure 5c–d). At the Juan de Fuca canyon, the particle trajectory bent 90° counterclockwise and
189 travelled northeast. Once inside the Strait of Juan de Fuca, the trajectory turned 90° clockwise
190 following Juan de Fuca canyon bathymetry. This case study particle was typical of most particles
191 that originated on the Vancouver Island shelf during the 6/18/2017 release. All particles were
192 steered by the Juan de Fuca canyon towards the Strait of Juan de Fuca, and none originated on
193 the shelf south of the canyon. Some inflowing particle trajectories circulated in the Juan de Fuca
194 eddy. A few particles originated below the shelf break and these reached the shelf through Juan
195 de Fuca canyon or, in rare cases, directly across the shelf break after flowing northward.

196

197 During downwelling-favorable wind stress, most inflowing particles to the Strait of Juan de Fuca
198 originated off the shelf or on the shelf to the south of the Strait (Figure 3b; Figure 6a). Over half,
199 58%, of inflowing particles originated offshore of the shelf break. The Washington shelf was the
200 source of 33% of inflowing particles and 2% originated as far south as the Oregon shelf. Only
201 7% of inflowing particles during downwelling-favorable wind stress originated on the
202 Vancouver Island shelf. The 11/5/2017 release tracks were plotted as a representative
203 downwelling case for the Strait of Juan de Fuca, with one particle track highlighted (Figure 6c–
204 d). The highlighted particle begins on the Washington shelf and flows north, bending to the right
205 when it reaches the Juan de Fuca canyon. In this example release, most other inflowing particles
206 originated on the Washington shelf and followed a similar trajectory. Some particles originated
207 beyond the shelf break and travelled in a northward slope current parallel to the shelf current.

208

209 The Columbia River estuary results were consistent with the Strait of Juan de Fuca results,
210 although there were fewer inflowing particles overall. For inflowing particles released during
211 upwelling-favorable wind stress, 53% originated on the Washington shelf north of the Columbia
212 River estuary mouth, compared with 30% from the Oregon shelf to the south and 1% from the
213 Vancouver Island shelf. The remaining 16% originated offshore of the shelf break (Figure 3c;
214 Figure 7a). The 6/4/2017 release tracks were plotted as a representative upwelling release
215 because that release had the second strongest mean upwelling-favorable wind (Figure 7c–d). The
216 6/18/2017 release had the strongest mean upwelling-favorable wind, but it was not considered
217 representative because it resulted in the fewest inflowing particles. One typical particle track
218 from the representative release was highlighted in bold (Figure 7c–d). The highlighted particle

219 track began on the shelf and traveled southward, parallel to isobaths. It overshot the estuary
220 mouth before reversing and flowing in. The other inflowing particles from this release follow
221 similar southward shelf trajectories.

222
223 During downwelling-favorable wind stress, inflowing particles to the Columbia River estuary
224 originated mostly from south of the estuary mouth. The Oregon shelf was the source of 48% of
225 inflowing particles, compared with 17% from the Washington shelf and 0% from the Vancouver
226 Island shelf. The remaining 35% originated offshore of the shelf break. Thus, inflow from
227 offshore composed a larger proportion of inflowing particles during downwelling than
228 upwelling-favorable wind stress (Figure 3c; Figure 8a). The 10/22/2017 release had the strongest
229 downwelling-favorable wind and was plotted as a representative downwelling case, with one
230 typical particle track highlighted (Figure 8c–d). The highlighted particle began flowing
231 southward over the slope before moving eastward onto the shelf. Once on the shelf, it travelled
232 northward parallel to isobaths and entered the Columbia River estuary mouth. Other inflowing
233 particles that began offshore of the shelf break during the 10/22/2017 release followed similar
234 trajectories. Inflowing particles that began on the shelf travelled northward. A few overshot the
235 mouth before inflowing.

236

237 *3.2 Effect of wind stress on inflow source depth*

238 Vertical position was quantified using three metrics of initial inflowing particle position: vertical
239 position (meters from mean sea surface, up defined positive), relative vertical position (vertical
240 position divided by water column height, seafloor defined -1, sea surface defined 0), and the
241 isobath over which the particle originated (positive distance from sea floor to mean sea surface).

242 In neither estuary was the mean initial vertical position of inflowing particles correlated with
243 wind stress direction or magnitude (Figure 4c–d). However, both estuaries had correlations
244 between wind stress and mean relative vertical position and isobath of inflowing particles
245 (Figure 4e–h), and both correlations were stronger for the Strait of Juan de Fuca ($R^2=0.79$ and
246 $R^2=0.62$, respectively) than the Columbia River estuary ($R^2=0.55$ and $R^2=0.29$, respectively).
247 The correlation between wind stress and isobath was consistent with the result that both the Strait
248 of Juan de Fuca and the Columbia River estuary had more inflowing particles with initial
249 positions over the slope during downwelling-favorable wind stress (compare Figure 5b with
250 Figure 6b for Strait of Juan de Fuca; Figure 7b with Figure 8b for Columbia River estuary). Most
251 slope-sourced particles originated above 200 m (middle slope water). For inflow to the Strait of
252 Juan de Fuca, particles that originated below 200 m were mostly concentrated near the Juan de
253 Fuca canyon.

254

255 *3.3 Effect of wind stress on source water properties*

256 We hypothesized that upwelling-favorable wind stress would result in a denser inflow source.
257 However, density was weakly correlated with wind stress for mean inflow to the Strait of Juan de
258 Fuca (Figure 4i) and not correlated for the Columbia River estuary (Figure 4j). The range of
259 initial particle densities extended lower for the Columbia River estuary. The temperature-salinity
260 composition of inflowing seawater varied for both estuaries with wind stress direction (Figure 9).
261 Inflowing particles were colder and fresher during upwelling-favorable wind stress and warmer
262 and saltier during downwelling-favorable wind stress. For the Strait of Juan de Fuca, releases
263 during downwelling-favorable wind stress included inflowing particles with a range of fresher
264 initial salinities around a fixed temperature (near 11° C in the representative 11/5/2017 release).

265 These fresher inflow particles represented the Columbia River estuary plume inflowing to the
266 Strait of Juan de Fuca, a well-documented phenomenon that occurs during downwelling-
267 favorable wind stress (Thomson et al., 2007; Giddings and MacCready, 2017). Columbia River
268 estuary plume intrusions would lower the mean initial density of inflowing particles to the Strait
269 of Juan de Fuca during downwelling-favorable wind stress, influencing the correlation between
270 initial density and wind stress for the Strait of Juan de Fuca experiment (Figure 4i).

271

272 **4. Discussion**

273 *4.1 Effect of wind-driven alongshore shelf currents on inflow source*

274 Alongshore wind stress was highly correlated with initial alongshore position of inflowing
275 particles. This is consistent with previous numerical studies which represented shelf inflow as a
276 vertically-homogenous layer (Beardsley and Hart, 1978; Masse, 1990; Brasseale and
277 MacCready, 2021). During upwelling-favorable wind stress, inflow originated on the Vancouver
278 Island shelf for the Salish Sea and the Washington shelf for the Columbia River estuary. During
279 downwelling-favorable wind stress, inflow originated on the Washington shelf for the Salish Sea
280 and the Oregon shelf for the Columbia River estuary. The consistency of the upwind source
281 result across all experiments here demonstrates that the two-layer result dominates the 3D result
282 even in stratified shelves with ambient currents and realistic atmospheric forcing.

283

284 The northern CCS is located at a crossroads in the eastern Pacific current system extending from
285 the equator to the subarctic. Summertime upwelling-favorable wind stress carries cold, fresh
286 Pacific Subarctic Upper Water (PSUW) to the northern CCS, and wintertime downwelling-
287 favorable wind stress brings in warm, salty Pacific Equatorial Water (PEW) (Thomson and

288 Krassovski, 2010). The different properties of PSUW and PEW account for a significant amount
289 of the seasonal variability of northern CCS shelf water (Stone et al., 2018). Despite seasonal
290 variation in shelf source waters, latitudinal variation along 800 km of the northern CCS has been
291 demonstrated to be minimal (Hickey et al., 2016; Stone et al., 2018). Thus, the horizontal
292 direction of shelf inflow in this region is likely to affect the salinity and temperature of shelf
293 inflow when the local wind and current directions reflect the large-scale patterns in the northern
294 CCS.

295
296 The alongshore source of inflow is important because biogeochemical water properties such as
297 oxygen are heterogeneously distributed along the shelf and slope. Although the upwelling season
298 is always associated with lower shelf oxygen in this region (Connolly et al., 2010; Siedlecki et
299 al., 2015), shelf inflow sourced from hypoxic hot spots may transport hypoxic waters into
300 estuaries. Estuaries along the Vancouver Island shelf have been observed to be more resistant to
301 hypoxia than along the Washington shelf because of the width of the shelf and the Vancouver
302 Island current (Bianucci et al., 2010). However, the Juan de Fuca eddy, which forms on the
303 northern edge of the Juan de Fuca canyon on the Vancouver Island shelf from spring until fall
304 (Freeland and Denman, 1982; Foreman et al., 2008), is a known hotspot for hypoxia (Crawford
305 and Thomson 1991; Crawford and Peña, 2013; Siedlecki et al., 2015; Sahu et al., 2022). Inflow
306 sourced from the Juan de Fuca eddy may account for the hypoxic inflow to the Salish Sea
307 observed by Feely et al. (2010). Hypoxia is more severe on the Washington shelf than the
308 Oregon shelf (Connolly et al., 2010), which may help explain the source of hypoxic intrusions to
309 the Columbia River estuary observed during upwelling season (Roegner et al., 2011).
310

311 *4.2 Effect of wind-driven Ekman dynamics on inflow source*

312 The Ekman response on the shelf was expected to avail deeper and denser water to estuaries
313 during upwelling-favorable wind stress, but evidence for Ekman dynamics was mixed. Neither
314 experiment saw an increase in absolute depth of inflow during upwelling-favorable wind stress
315 (Figure 4c–d). Inflow to both the Salish Sea and Columbia River estuary originated from a
316 greater relative depth during upwelling-favorable wind stress (Figure 4e–f), consistent with
317 onshore transport in the bottom boundary layer during upwelling-favorable wind stress predicted
318 by Ekman dynamics. However, the correlation between relative depth and wind stress could be
319 also explained by the greater portion of inflow originating over greater isobaths during
320 downwelling-favorable wind stress (Figure 4g–h). For the Strait of Juan de Fuca, buoyant
321 Columbia River plume intrusions during downwelling-favorable winds (Thomson, 2007;
322 Giddings and MacCready, 2017) near the surface may also partially explain the correlation of
323 relative depth of inflow with wind stress. The correlation between density and wind stress
324 expected from Ekman dynamics was seen in inflow to the Strait of Juan de Fuca (Figure 4i), but
325 it was not seen in the Columbia River estuary (Figure 4j). This discrepancy is hard to explain
326 using Ekman dynamics alone. However, if the correlation between density and wind stress to the
327 Strait of Juan de Fuca was wholly or in part due to Columbia River plume intrusions, this would
328 be consistent with the lack of similar correlation in inflow to the Columbia River estuary. The
329 inconclusive evidence for Ekman dynamics in these results should not be taken to mean that
330 Ekman dynamics are unimportant to northern CCS estuaries, only that Ekman transport was not
331 obviously reflected within the Lagrangian framework represented in particle tracking
332 experiments. Ekman transport may be less apparent in a particle's trajectory than shelf currents
333 because it is slower and only affects a fraction of the water column. Cross-shelf bottom boundary

334 layer currents are slower than shelf currents because they are generated by Coriolis deflection of
335 decelerating along-shelf flow.

336

337 Regardless of the mechanism, inflow originated from the shelf during upwelling and offshore
338 during downwelling. Whether inflow originated on the shelf or offshore has implications for its
339 biogeochemical properties even when absolute source depth does not change. An inflow source
340 from shelf water during upwelling explains observed hypoxic intrusions to both the Salish Sea
341 (Feely et al., 2010) and Columbia River estuary (Roegner et al., 2011) during summertime, as
342 oxygen levels in bottom shelf waters have been observed to be lower than slope waters at the
343 same depth and isopycnal in this region (Crawford and Peña, 2013). The slope source of inflow
344 during downwelling-favorable winds reflects the shoaling of the CUC shoals during winter,
345 availing poleward-flowing slope waters as inflow to northern CCS estuaries (Hickey, 1979;
346 Thomson and Kassovski, 2010; Connolly et al., 2014). Although the shoaled CUC aligns with
347 the direction and of shelf flow in wintertime, slope and shelf currents are dynamically distinct.
348 Shelf flow variation is driven by wind stress directly on a time scale of days or weeks, while
349 slope flow variation is driven by wind stress curl on a time scale of months or years (Hickey,
350 1979). Subsequently, shelf and slope water properties in the northern CCS are not correlated
351 (Stone et al., 2018).

352

353 *4.3 Effect of canyons on inflow source*

354 Since submarine canyons are known to enhance upwelling (Allen and Hickey, 2010; Zhang and
355 Lentz, 2017), it was expected that the Juan de Fuca and Astoria canyons would be paths for deep
356 inflow to reach the Salish Sea and Columbia River estuary respectively during upwelling-

357 favorable wind stress. The Juan de Fuca canyon was a conduit for inflow to the Strait of Juan de
358 Fuca during all wind stress experiments. Previous studies have observed inflow to the Strait of
359 Juan de Fuca originating from the Juan de Fuca canyon during upwelling-favorable wind
360 conditions (Cannon, 1972; Feely et al., 2010; Alford and MacCready, 2014). Onshore Juan de
361 Fuca canyon flow during downwelling-favorable wind stress does not have precedent in
362 literature. Downwelling-favorable winds were associated with offshore flow through canyons in
363 idealized models (Spurgin and Allen, 2014), realistic models of the neighboring Clayoquot
364 canyon (Howatt et al., 2022), and observations near the Juan de Fuca canyon floor (Cannon,
365 1972). However, the Juan de Fuca canyon is unique among northern CCS submarine canyons
366 because its canyon head begins in the Strait of Juan de Fuca. In models, canyons that begin in
367 estuary mouths behave as extensions of the estuary, steering estuarine outflow and lengthening
368 the salinity intrusion (Lee and Valle-Levinson, 2013). Other mechanisms such as topographic
369 steering (Kämpf, 2018) and coastal trapped waves (Saldías et al., 2021) could explain upwelling
370 in canyons regardless of wind direction. Further studies, including a dedicated process study
371 using models and additional observations of Juan de Fuca canyon flow during downwelling-
372 favorable winds, would help confirm and explain this result. The Astoria canyon was rarely a
373 conduit for inflow to the Columbia River estuary.

374

375 **5. Conclusions**

376 The ocean end of the estuary influences the physical and biogeochemical composition of the
377 estuary, but variations in the ocean end due to wind stress are still understudied. This study helps
378 to explain seasonal variability in northern CCS estuaries by supporting the idealized numerical
379 model results of Beardsley and Hart (1978), Masse (1990) and Brasseale and MacCready (2021)

380 and demonstrating correlation of wind stress with variations in physical inflow properties
381 (density, temperature, salinity). Wind stress was found to be strongly correlated with the initial
382 alongshore position of inflowing particles, such that inflow originated upwind of both the Salish
383 Sea and the Columbia River estuary. Ekman layer transport influenced initial inflowing particle
384 relative depth during upwelling-favorable wind stress releases. During downwelling-favorable
385 wind stress releases, initial particle depth was influenced by Columbia River plume intrusions to
386 the Strait of Juan de Fuca and wintertime shoaling of the CUC over the continental slope.
387 Subsequently, inflowing particles from downwelling-favorable wind stress releases had
388 shallower relative initial depth than their upwelling counterparts. The Juan de Fuca canyon
389 influenced the paths of inflowing particles to the Salish Sea during both upwelling- and
390 downwelling-favorable wind stress releases, despite expectations that onshore canyon flow
391 would only occur during upwelling-favorable wind stress. Contrarily, the Astoria canyon was
392 rarely a source to the Columbia River estuary. Further process studies are needed to understand
393 how large estuaries at canyon heads can influence canyon dynamics.

394

395 **Data Availability Statement**

396 The hydrodynamic model output used in this study is stored in netCDF format on hard drives at
397 the University of Washington. Model output is available upon request from the corresponding
398 author. The source code for Tracker is hosted on Github at
399 <https://github.com/parkermac/LO/tree/v1.1/tracker>. The associated Zenodo DOI and data files
400 are at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7783639>.

401

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409

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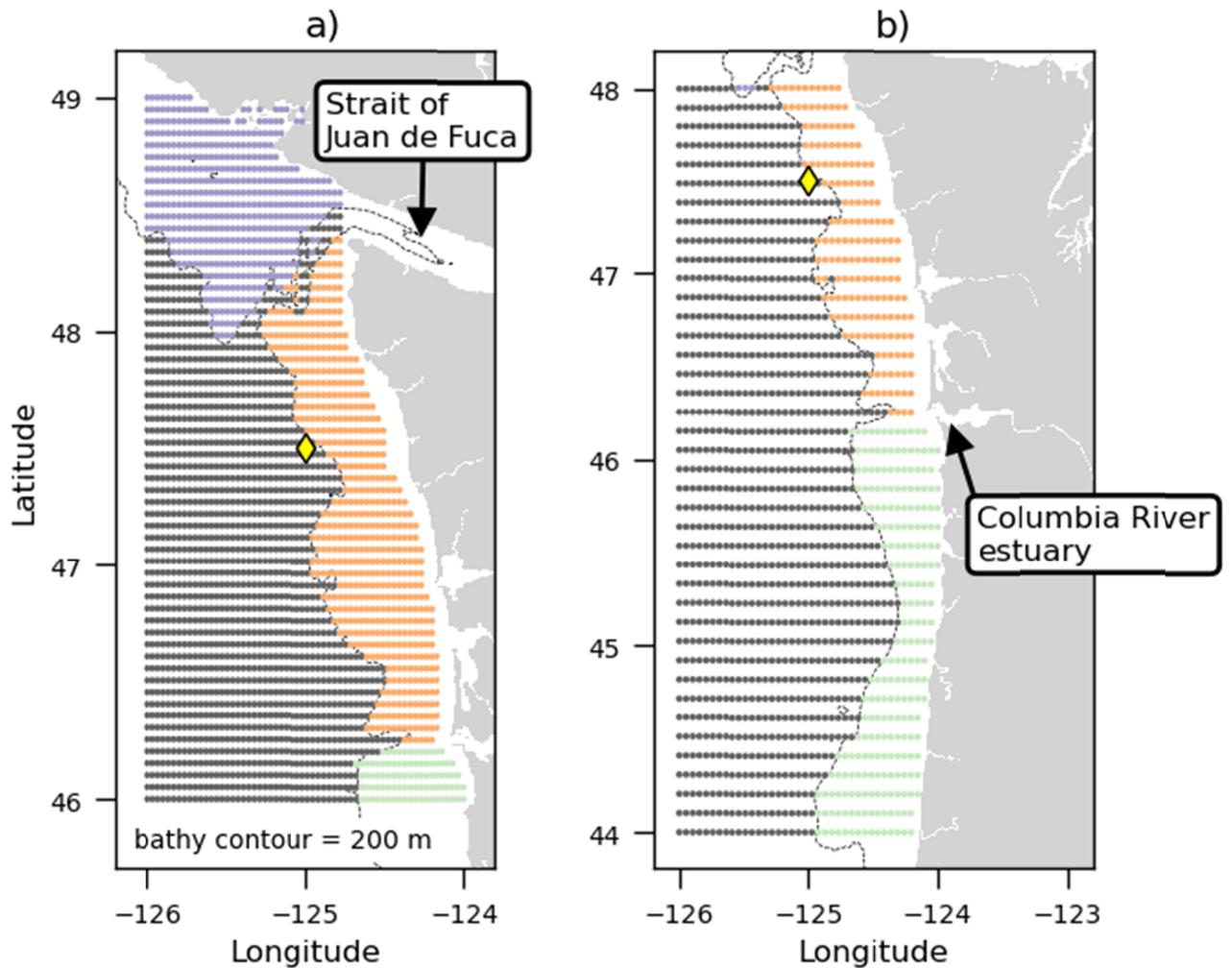
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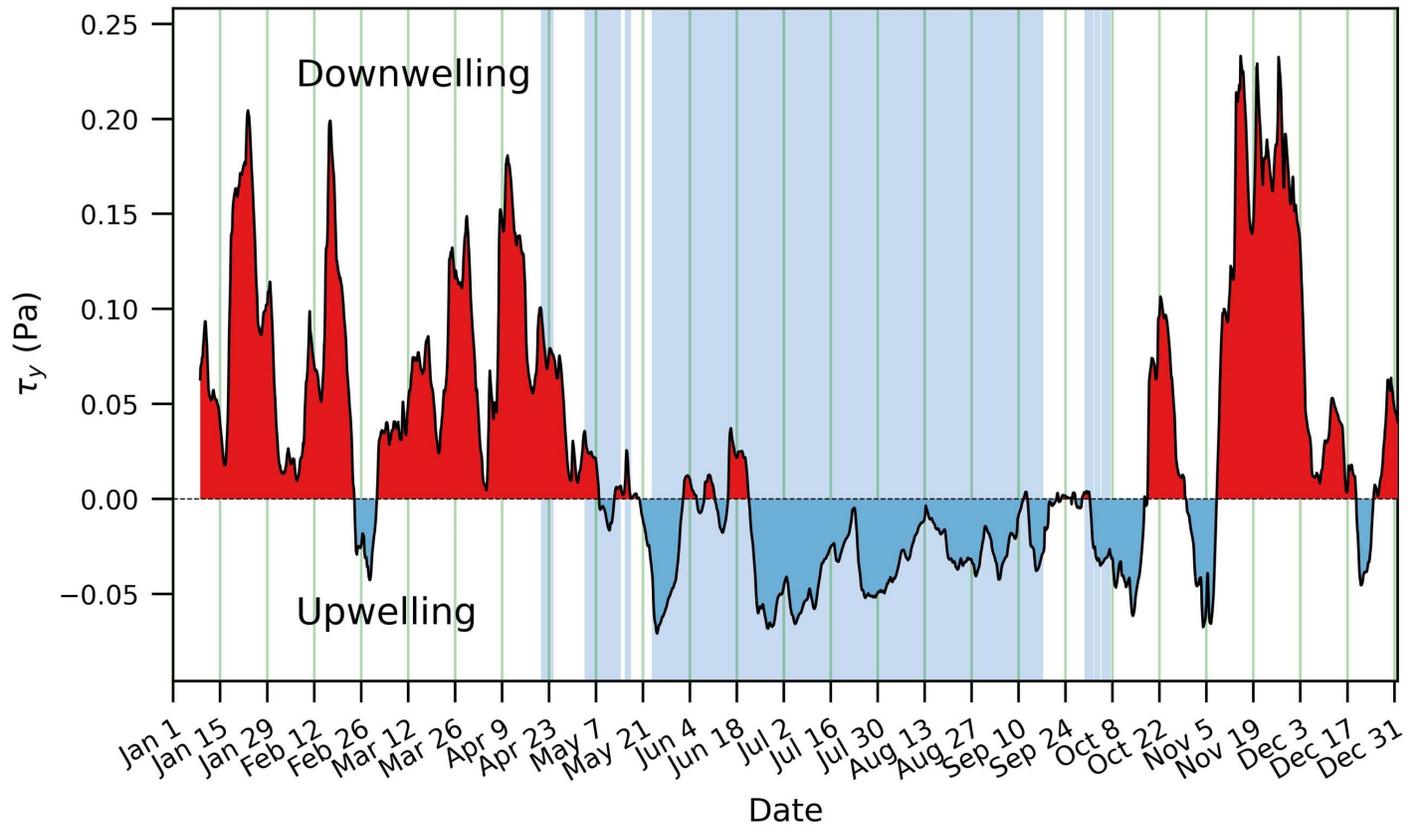
518 Figure 1: Release points of particles tracked to identify inflow to a) the Strait of Juan de Fuca,
519 and b) the Columbia River estuary. Particles were released at 15-m intervals in the water column
520 for the Strait of Juan de Fuca and 30-m intervals for the Columbia River estuary. Release points
521 are colored by source identification (purple = Vancouver Island shelf, orange = Washington
522 shelf, green = Oregon shelf, gray = offshore of shelf). Yellow diamond = location of wind stress
523 extraction used to calculate $\overline{\tau}_y$. Contour is 200-m isobath.
524



525

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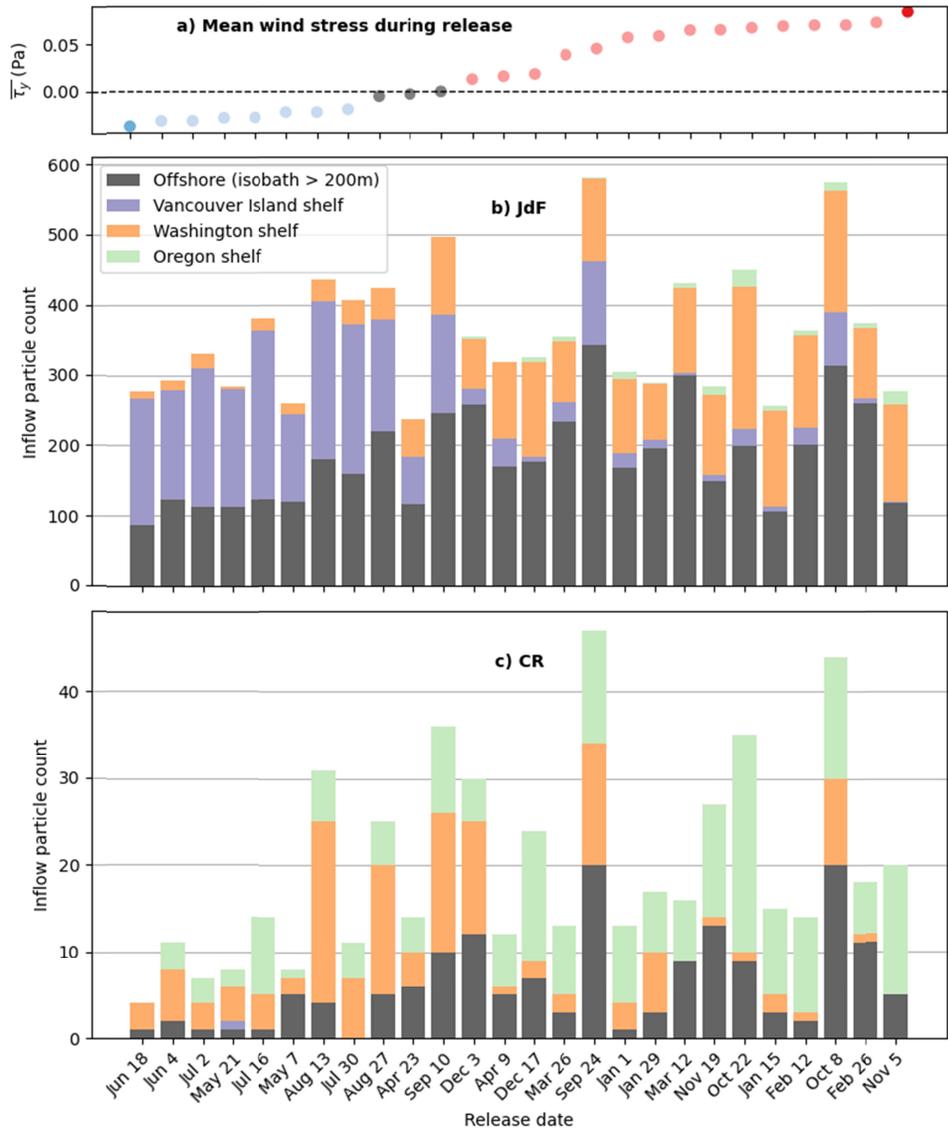
527 Figure 2: North-south wind stress filtered with a weighted 8-day filter as a proxy for the shelf
528 Ekman response (Austin-Barth, 2002) from Jan 1, 2017 to Jan 1, 2018 extracted from model at
529 location of yellow diamond (Lat: 47.5°, Lon: -125°) in Figure 1. Blue fill behind time series
530 illustrates the timing of the typical upwelling season for this region estimated using the sign of
531 the average of wind stress observed from 2003-2020 at the nearby Cape Elizabeth mooring (lat:
532 47.35°, lon: -124.73°, NDBC 46041), filtered with same weighted 8-day filter.



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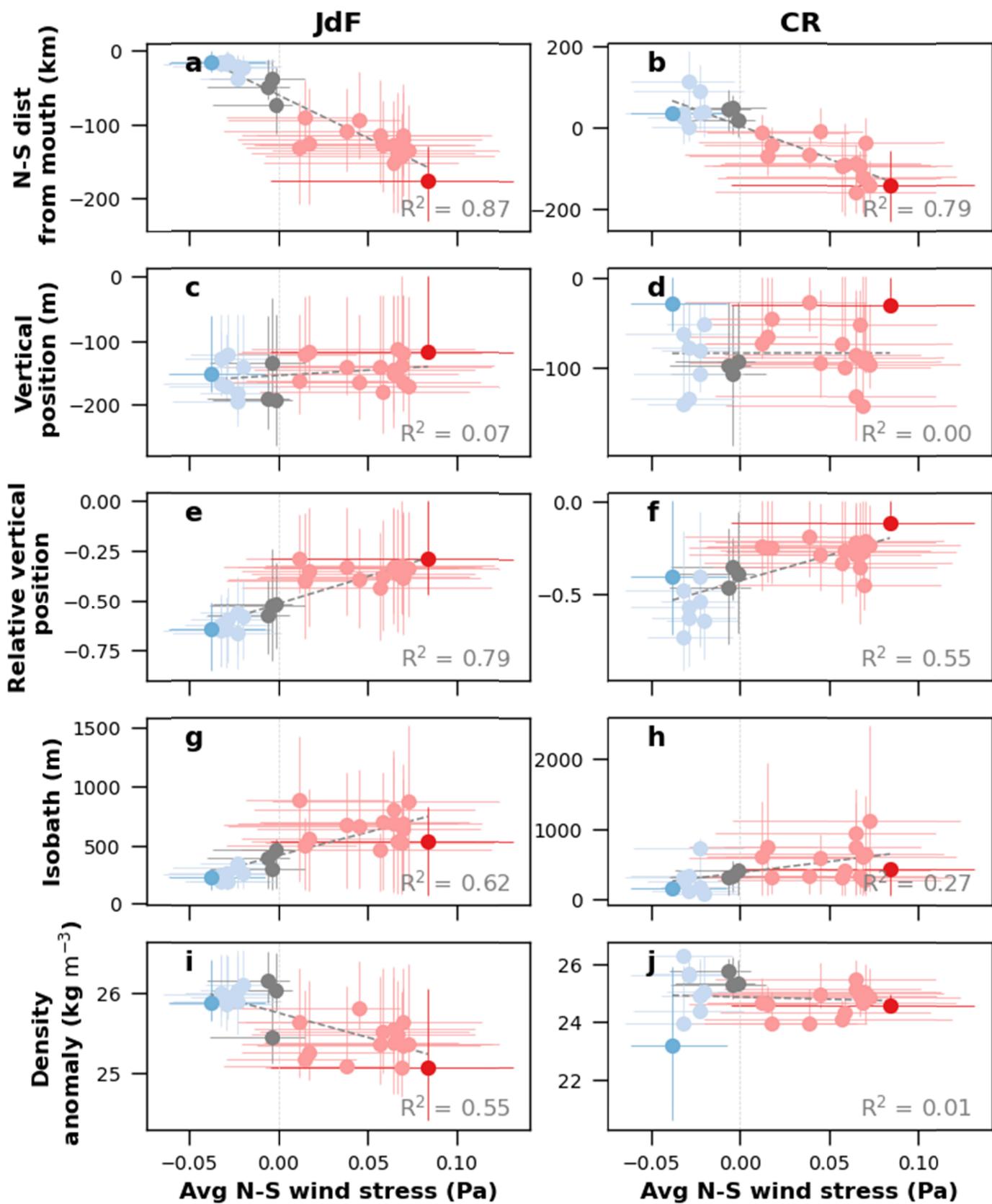
535 Figure 3: Number of inflowing particles to b) Strait of Juan de Fuca and c) Columbia River
 536 estuary per release from each source water region (colors same as Figure 1). Releases are sorted
 537 along x-axis by mean wind stress during release (a).



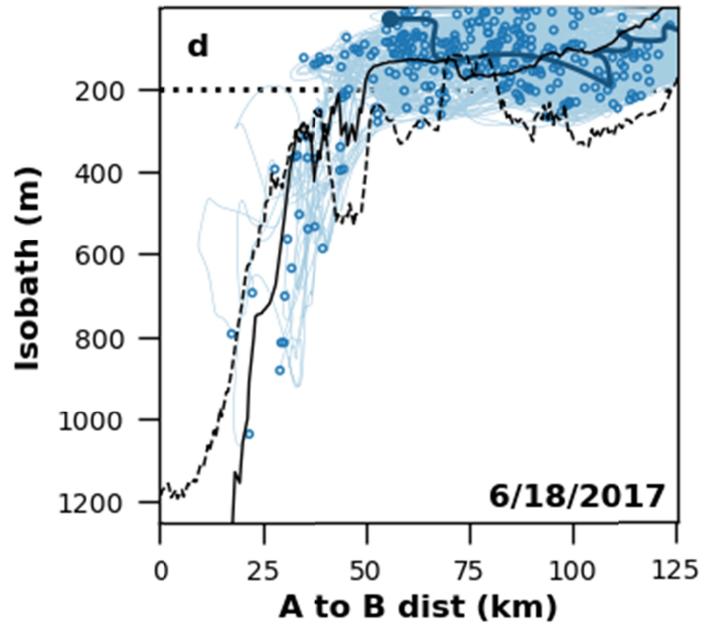
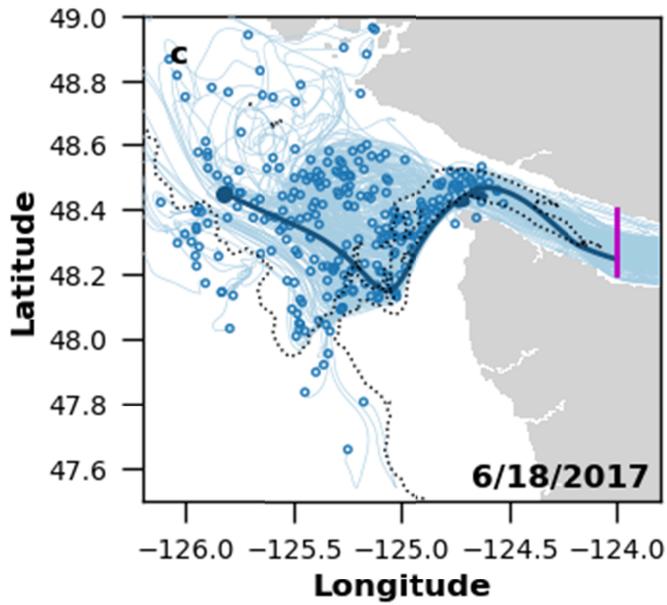
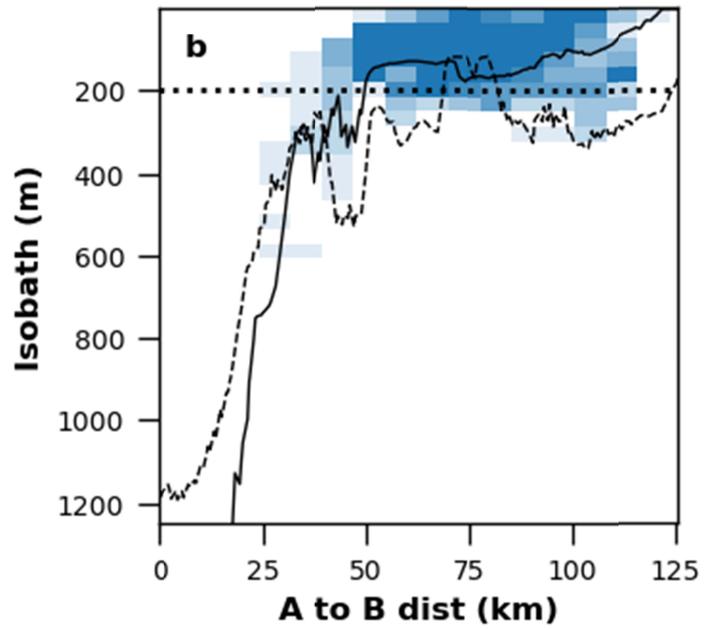
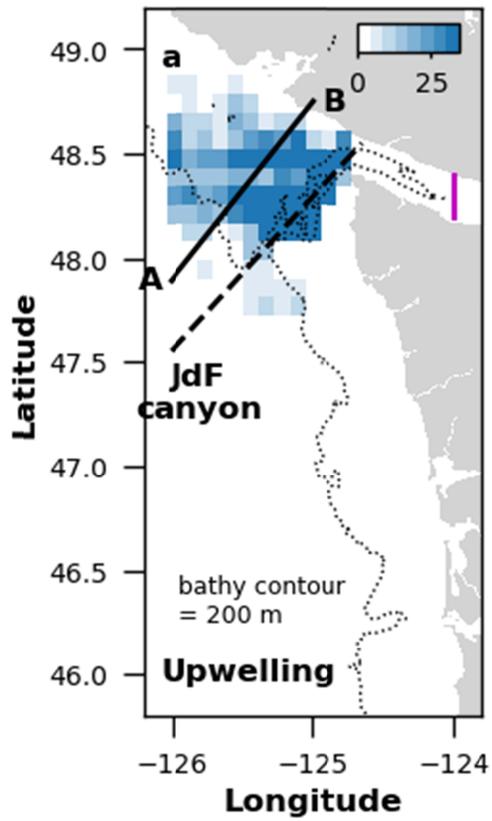
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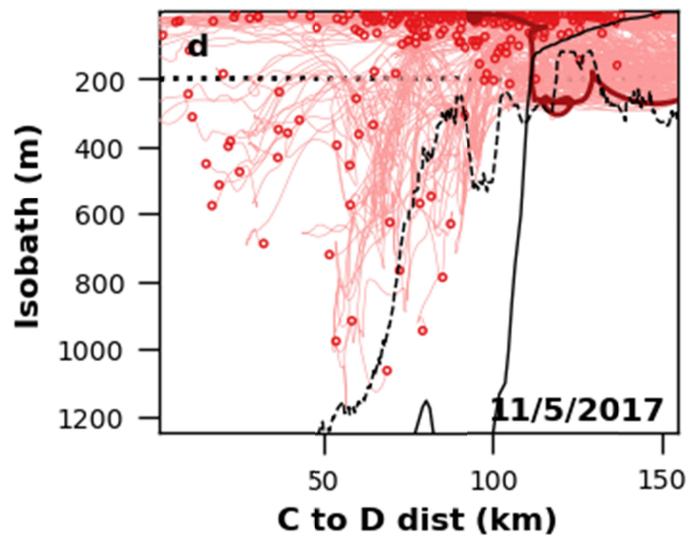
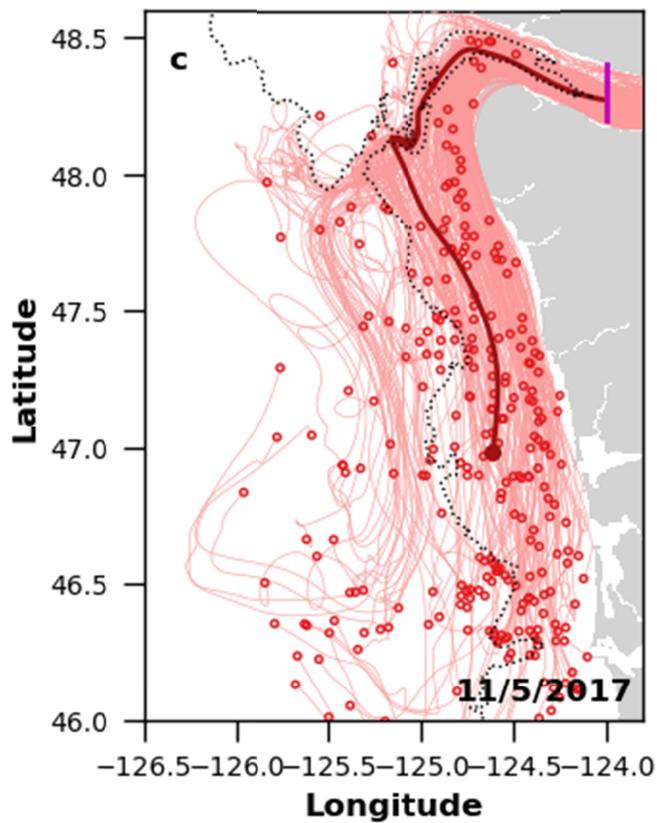
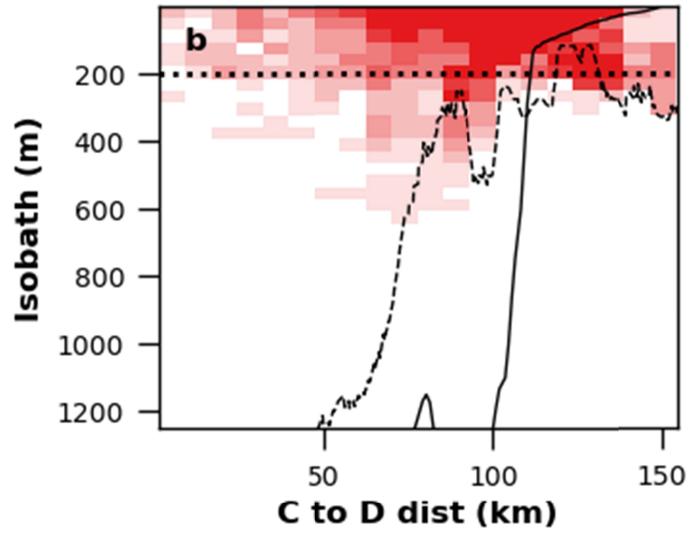
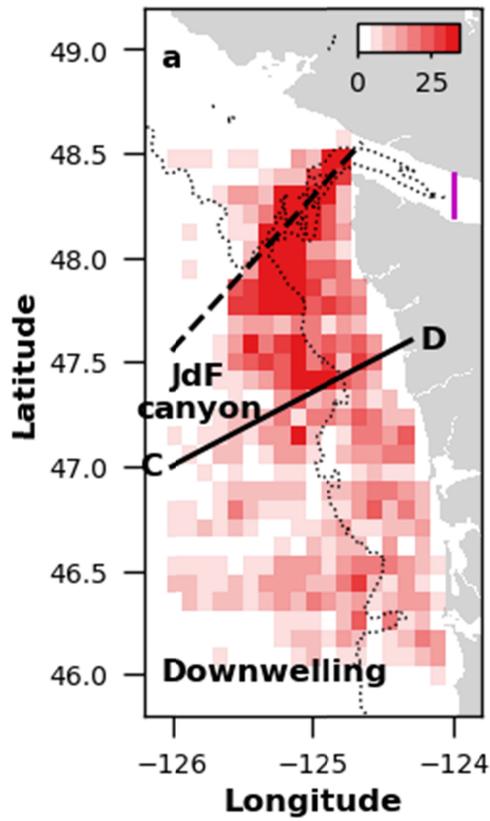
540 Figure 4: Mean initial positions described in four variables (rows; N-S distance from mouth
541 (km), vertical position (m), and relative vertical position) of inflow to the two estuaries
542 (columns; Strait of Juan de Fuca, Columbia River estuary) as a function of mean N-S wind
543 stress. Releases with downwelling-favorable mean wind stress ($\overline{\tau_y} > 0.01$ Pa) are red, releases
544 with upwelling-favorable mean wind stress ($\overline{\tau_y} < -0.01$ Pa) are blue, and releases with near zero
545 mean wind stress ($-0.01 < \overline{\tau_y} < 0.01$) are gray. Darker markers are used for releases with greatest
546 mean upwelling- and downwelling-favorable wind stresses (June 18 and November 5,
547 respectively). Error bars show the 25th percentile to the 75th percentile of particle initial positions
548 and hourly wind stresses for each release. Darker gray dashed line indicates the best linear fit to
549 the mean initial positions for each variable/experiment plot. Correlation coefficients (R^2) are
550 printed in each plot. Wind stress $\overline{\tau_y}=0$ is indicated with a lighter gray dashed line.



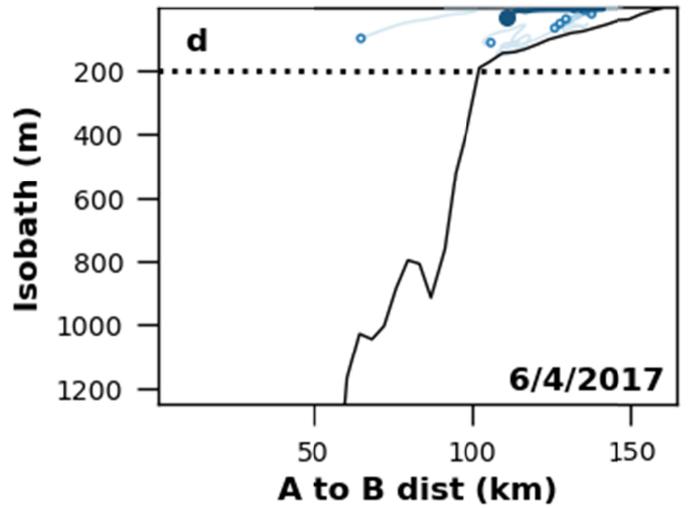
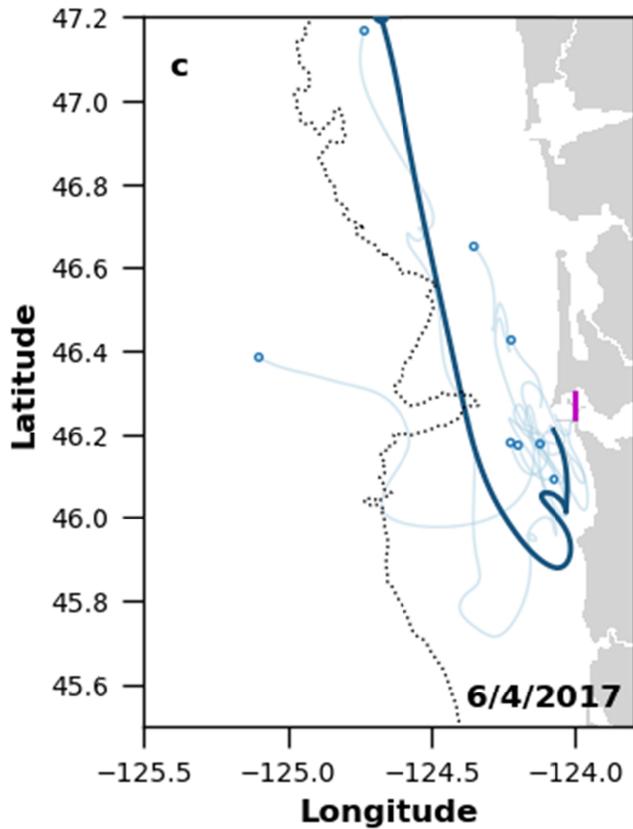
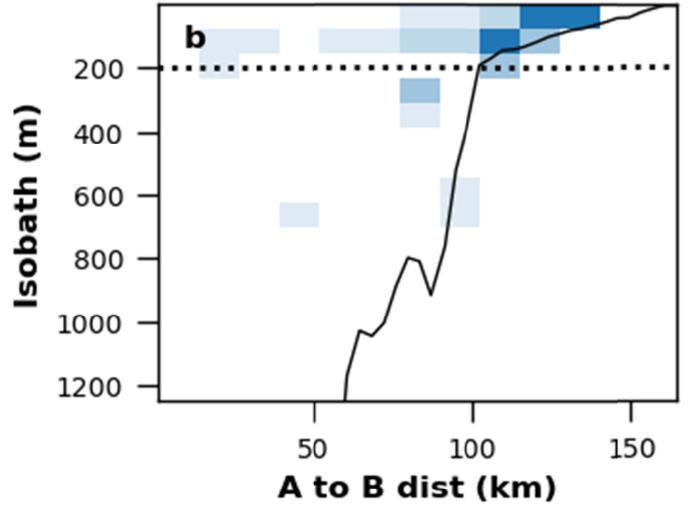
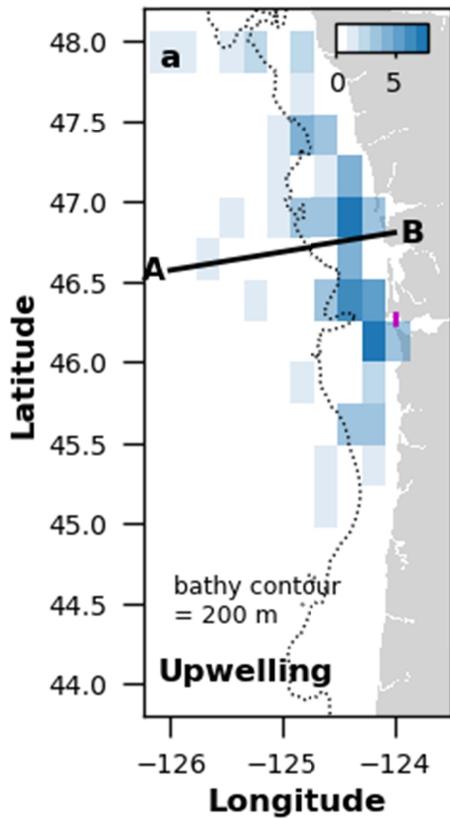
552 Figure 5: Summary of particles inflowing to the Strait of Juan de Fuca during upwelling-
553 favorable wind stress conditions. Only particle tracks found east of magenta line were classified
554 as "inflow." Top subplots depict 2D histograms of initial positions of inflowing particles from all
555 upwelling releases plotted in (a) plan view and (b) profile. In profile plot, an example
556 bathymetric transect is plotted from the shelf where most particles are sourced (solid black line)
557 and along the Juan de Fuca canyon (dashed black line). Bottom subplots (c,d) depict tidally-
558 smoothed tracks of inflowing particles from an example release (circles=initial positions). One
559 representative particle track is highlighted with a thicker, darker line.



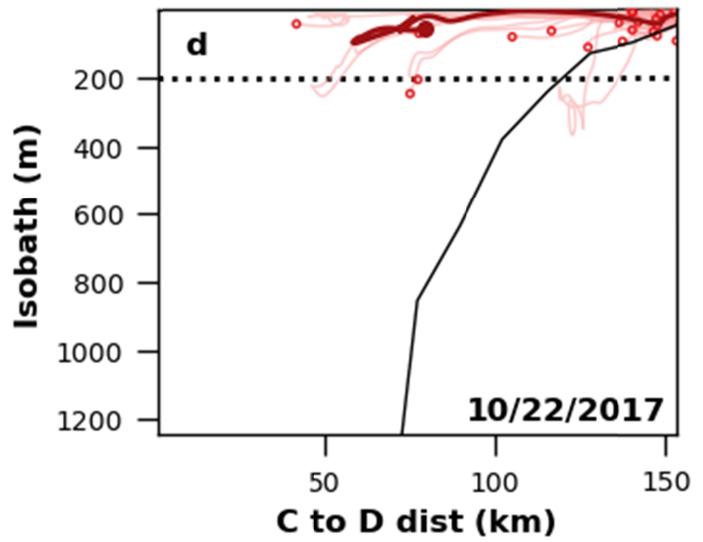
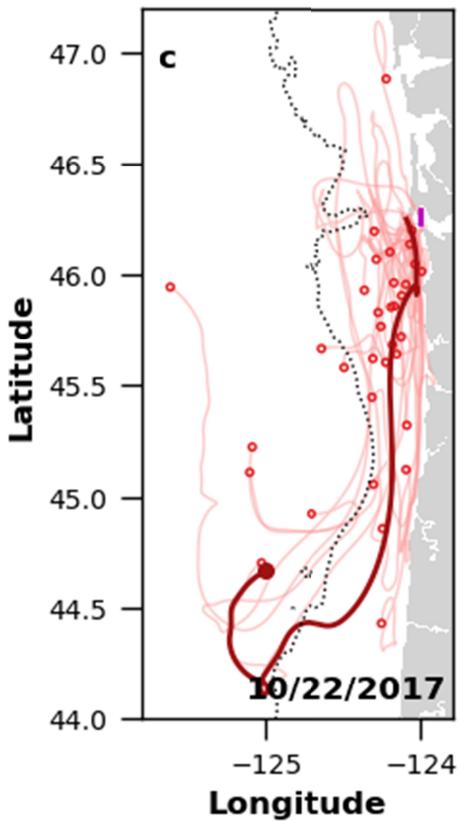
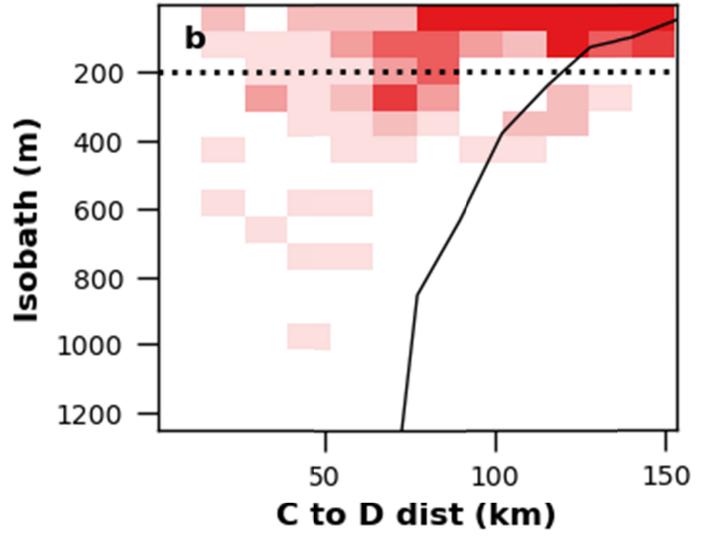
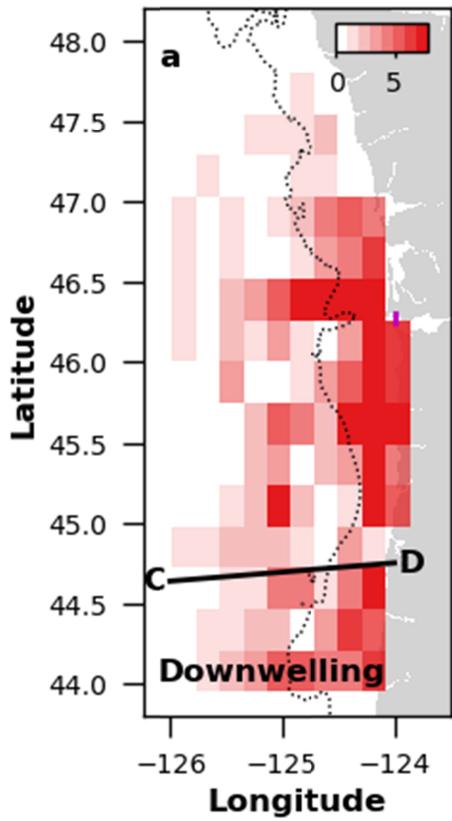
561 Figure 6: As for Figure 5, but for downwelling favorable wind.



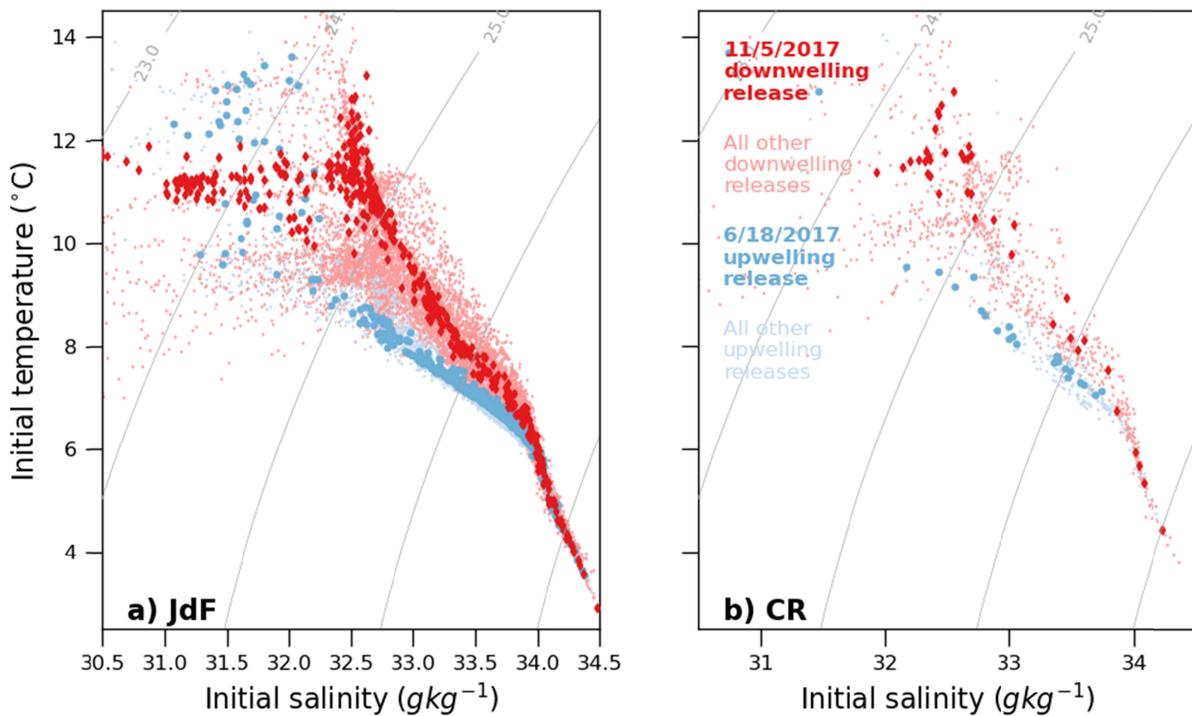
563 Figure 7: As Figure 5, but for Columbia River estuary under upwelling-favorable wind stress,
564 and with no canyon bathymetry transect in profile plots.



566 Figure 8: As Figure 5, but for Columbia River estuary under downwelling-favorable wind stress.



568 Figure 9: Initial temperature-salinity distributions for shelf particles that flowed into a) the Strait
569 of Juan de Fuca, and b) the Columbia River estuary. Points are colored by the mean wind stress
570 for the release. Red diamond markers indicate downwelling-favorable mean wind stress ($\overline{\tau}_y >$
571 0.01 Pa), and blue circles upwelling-favorable mean wind stress ($\overline{\tau}_y < -0.01$ Pa). Darker and
572 larger markers are used for the releases with the greatest mean downwelling- and upwelling-
573 favorable wind stresses (11/5/2017 and 6/18/2017, respectively). Releases with mean wind stress
574 $-0.01 < \overline{\tau}_y < 0.01$ were omitted. Gray contours are density anomaly (g kg^{-1}).



575

576

Figure 1.

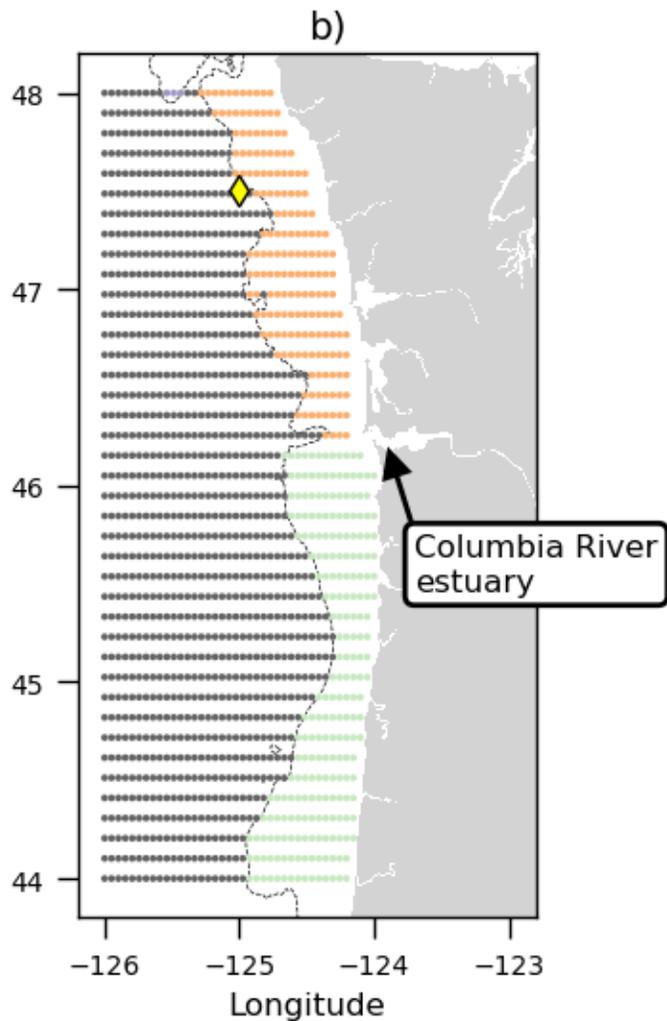
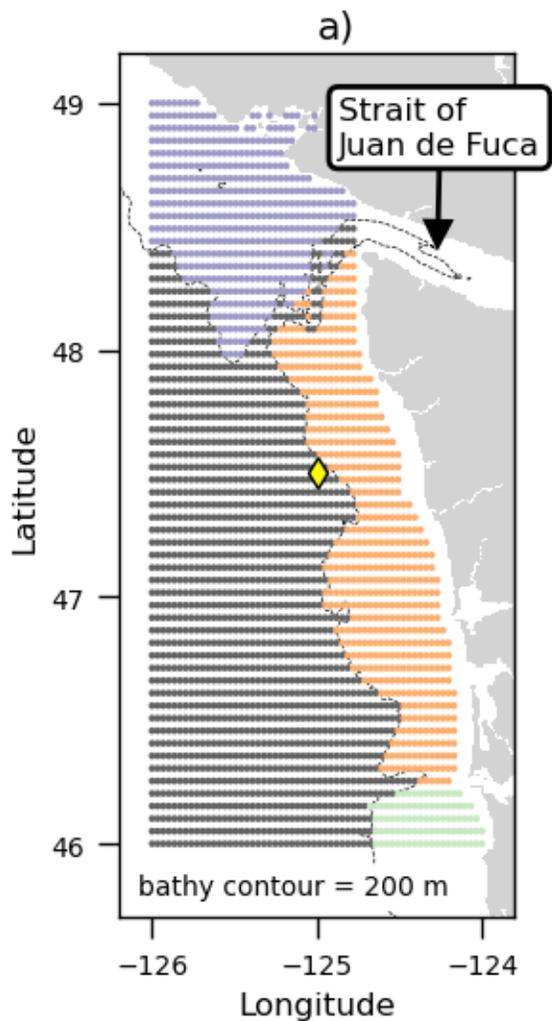


Figure 2.

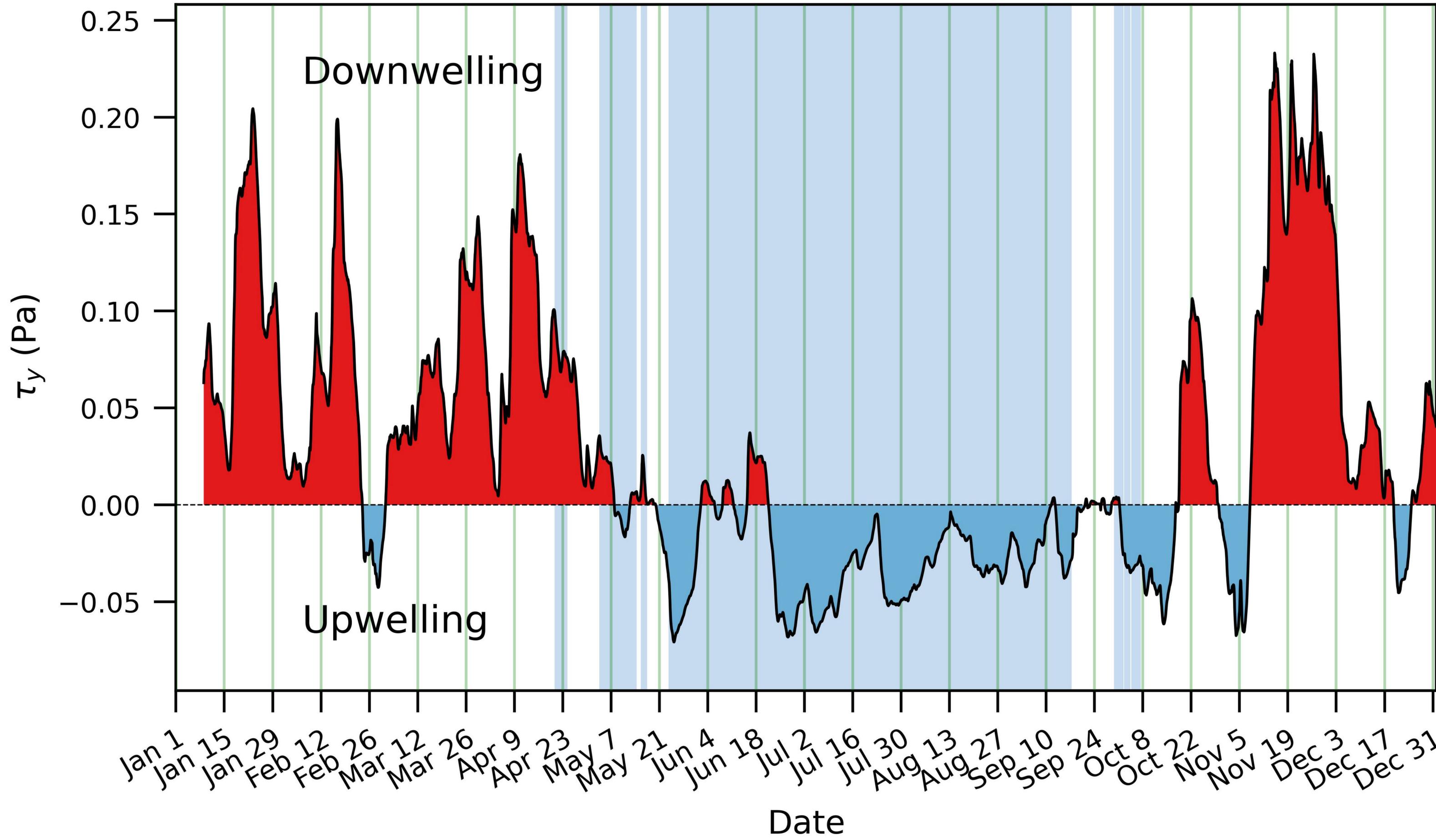


Figure 3.

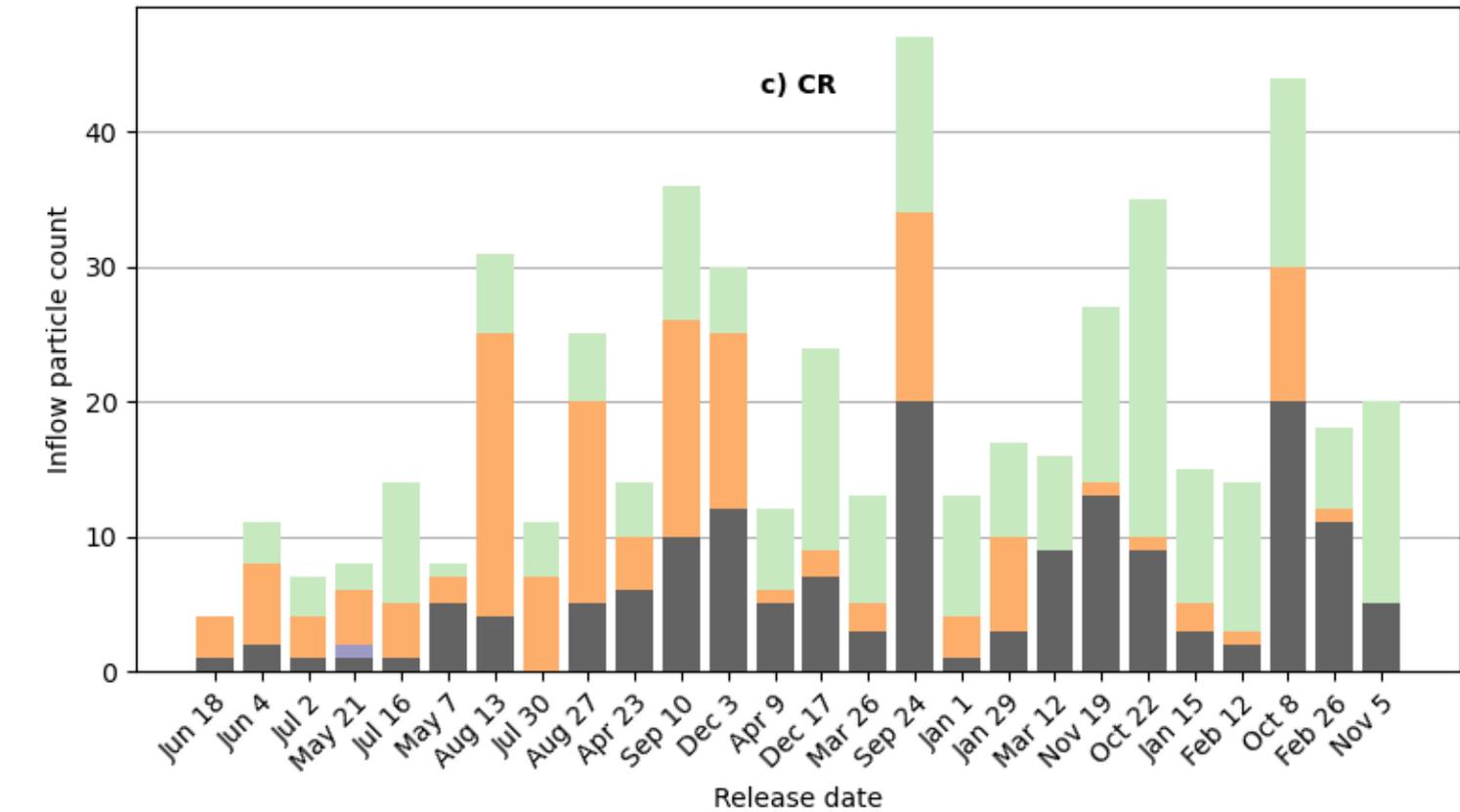
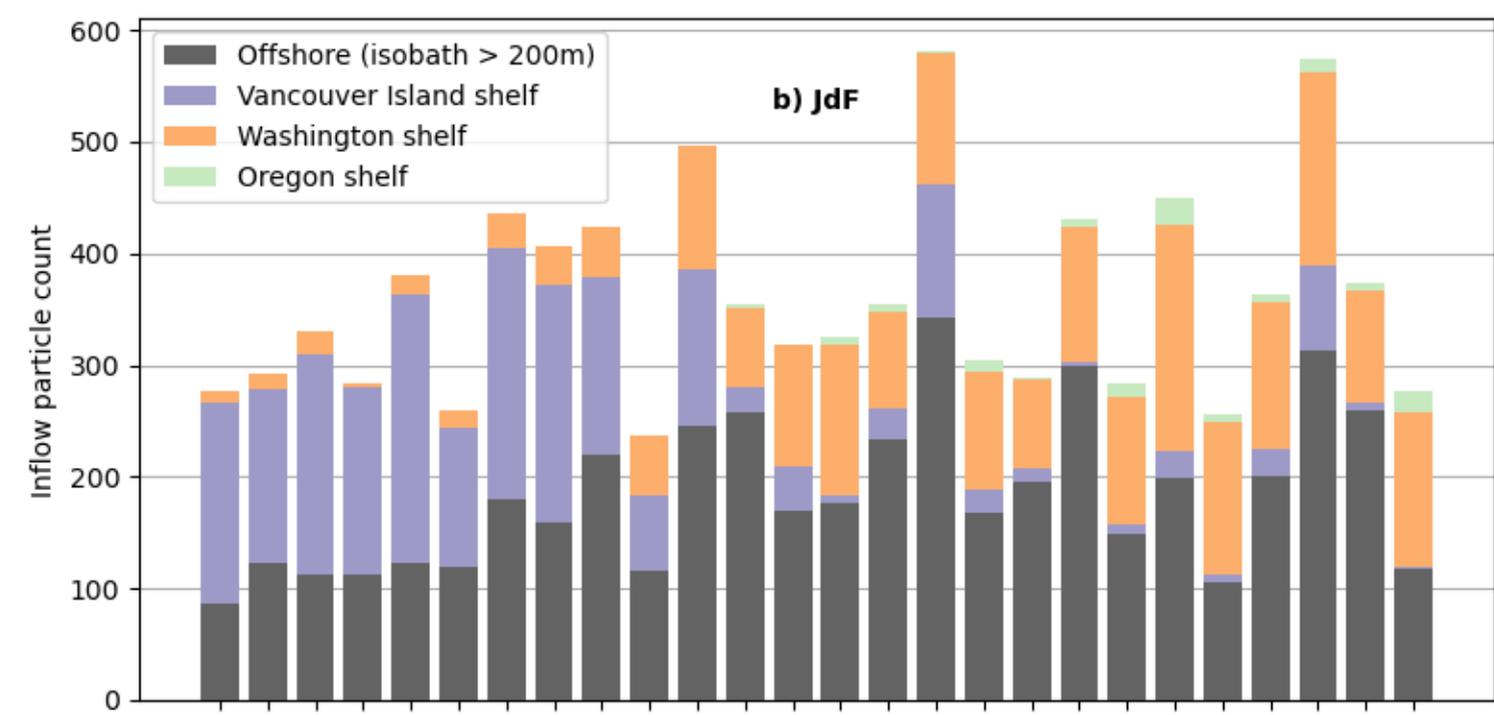
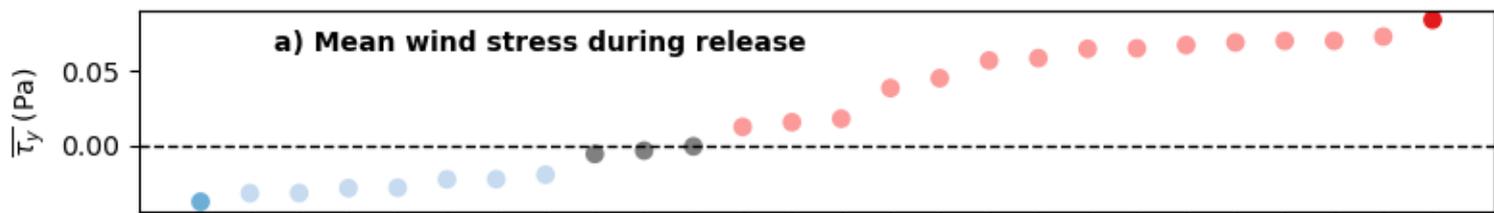


Figure 4.

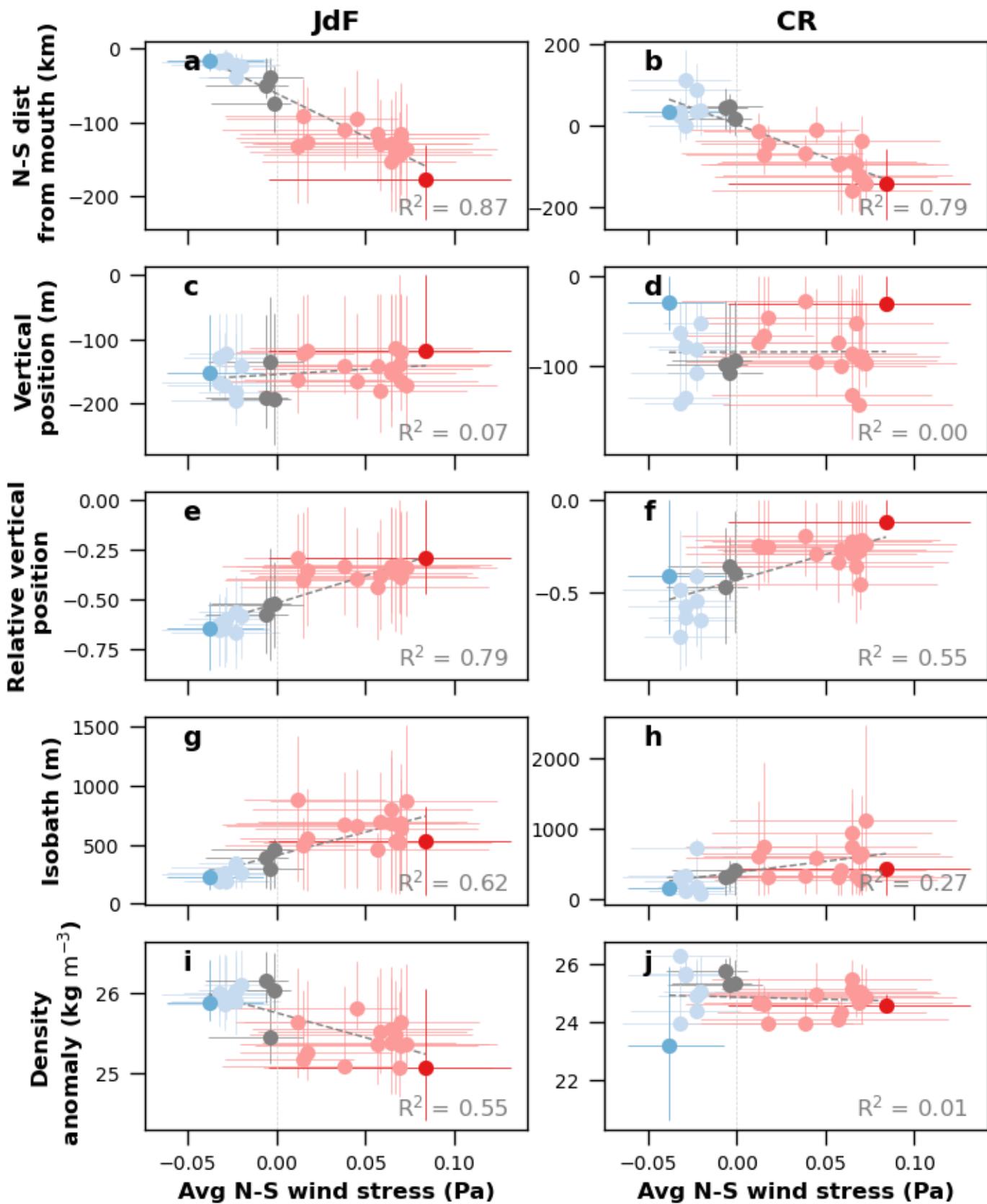


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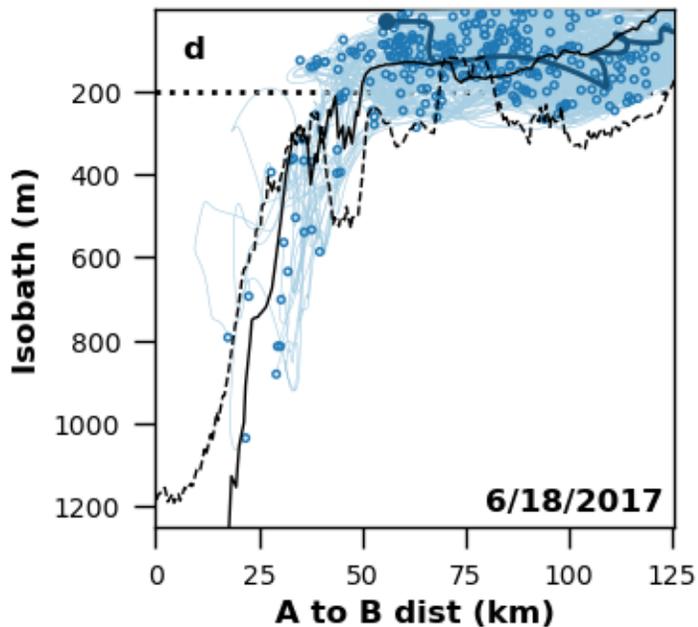
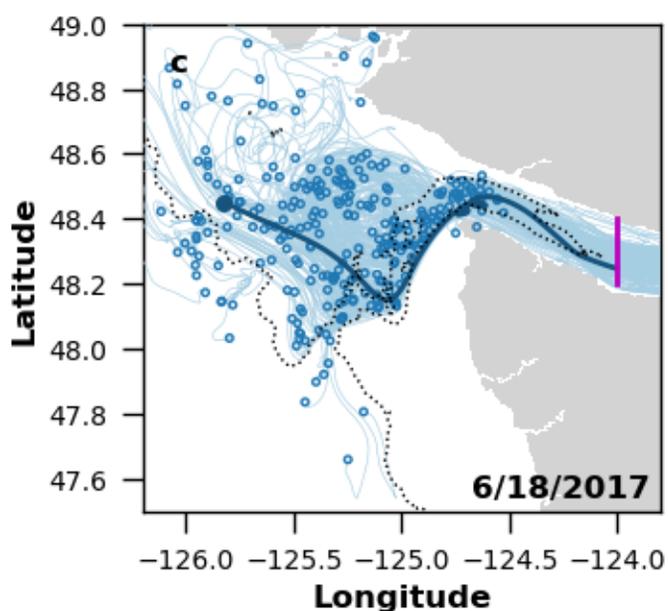
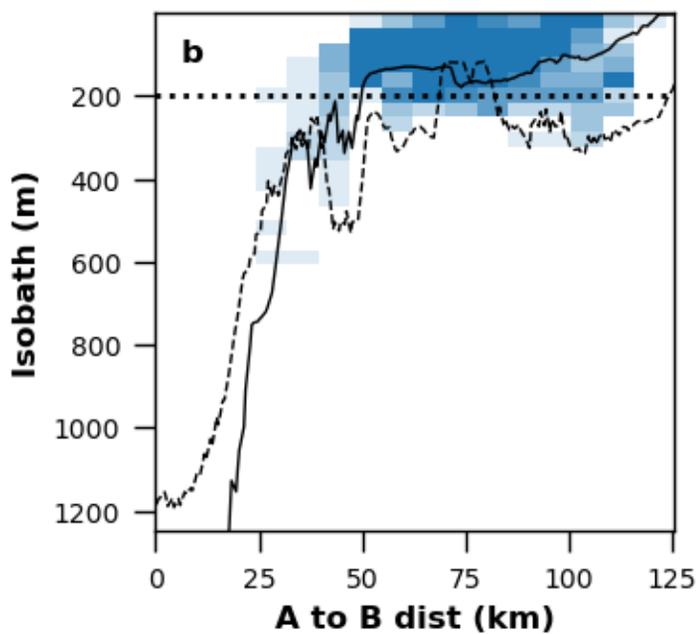
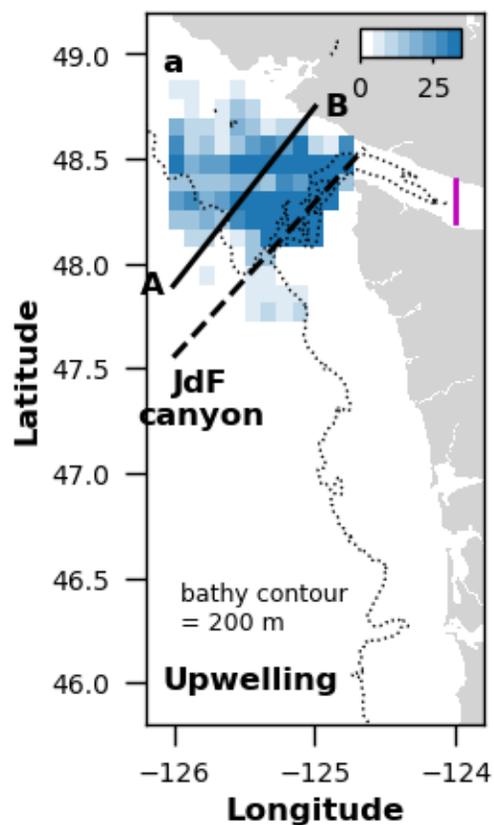


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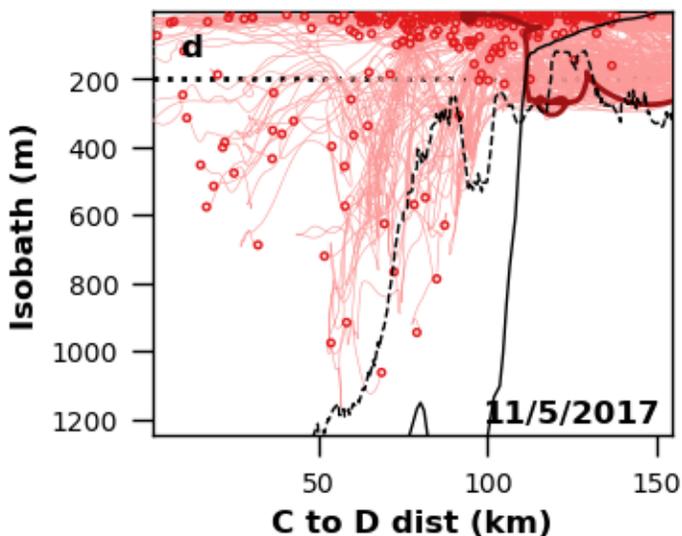
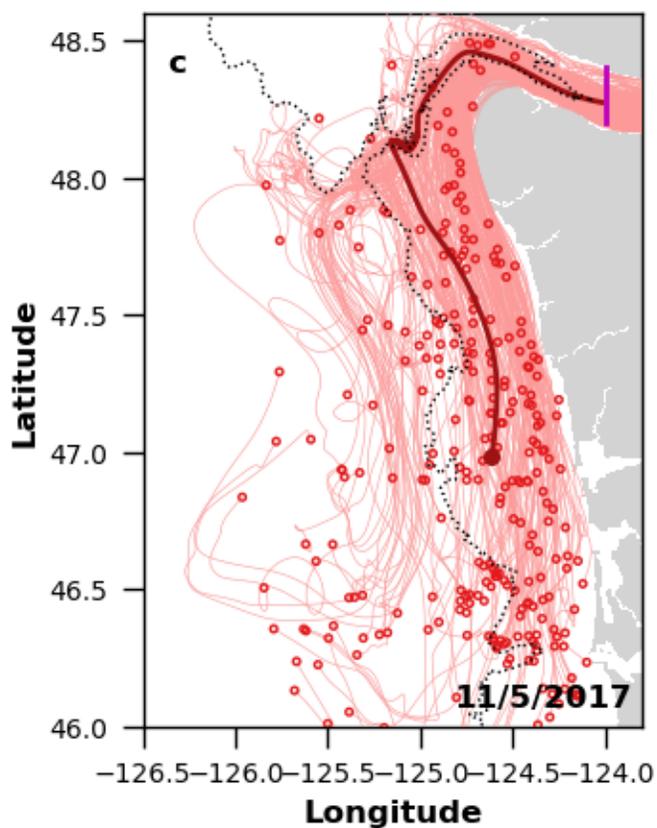
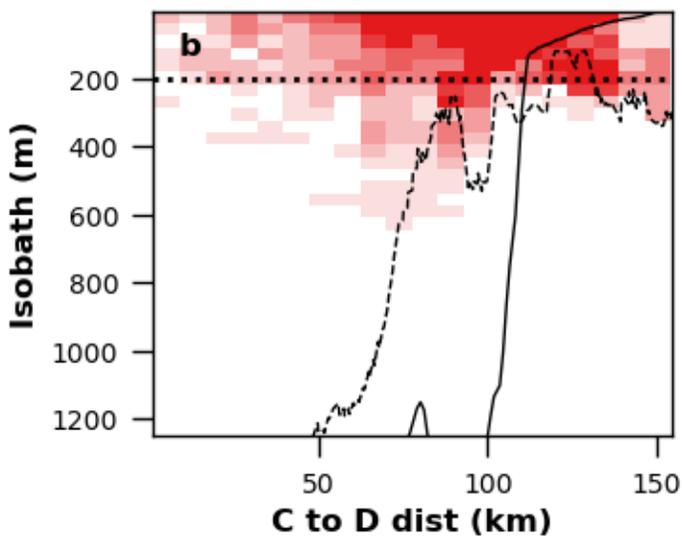
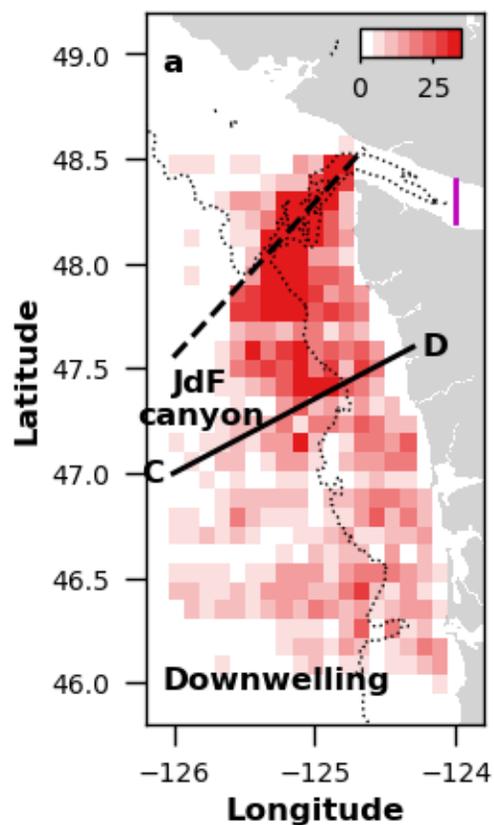


Figure 7.

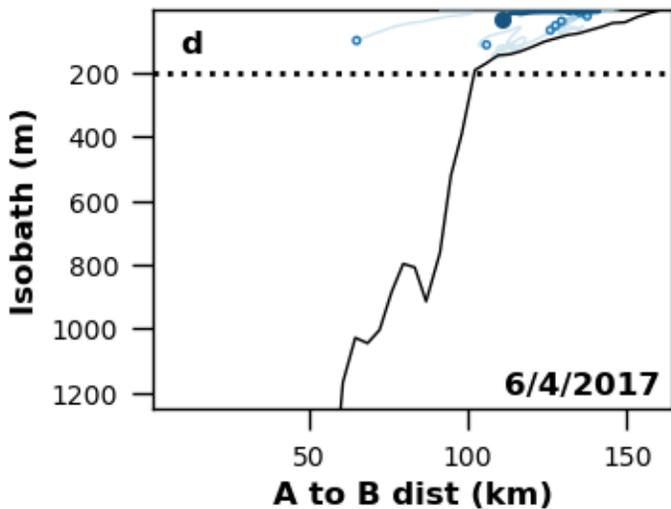
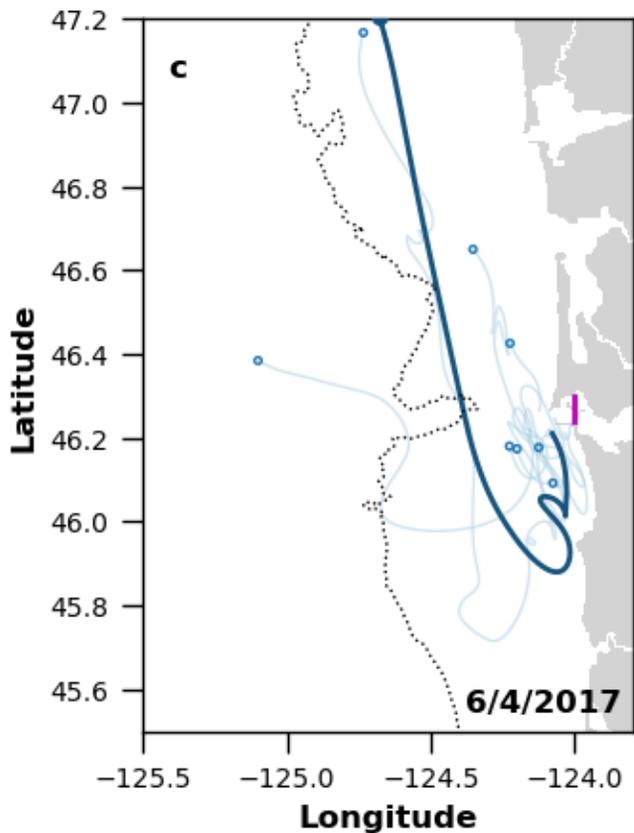
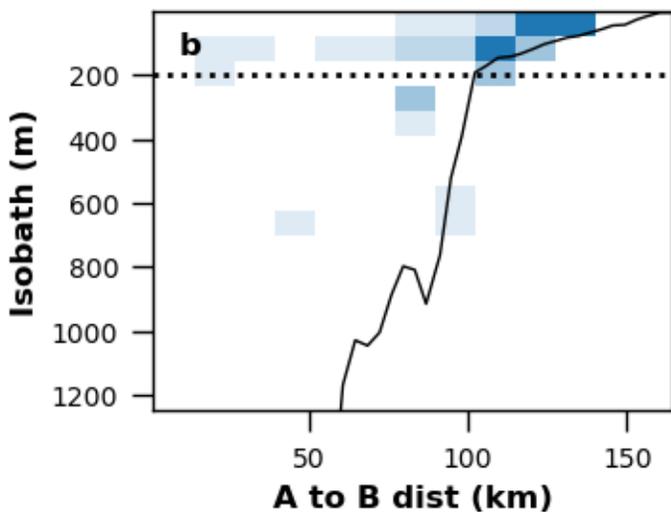
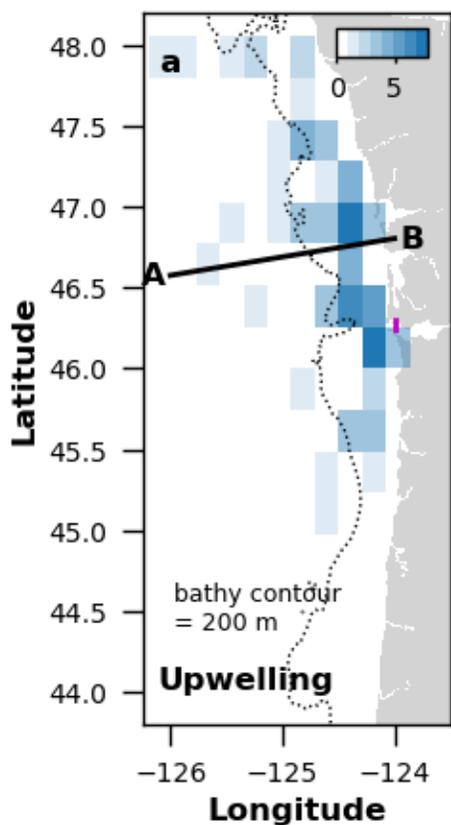


Figure 8.

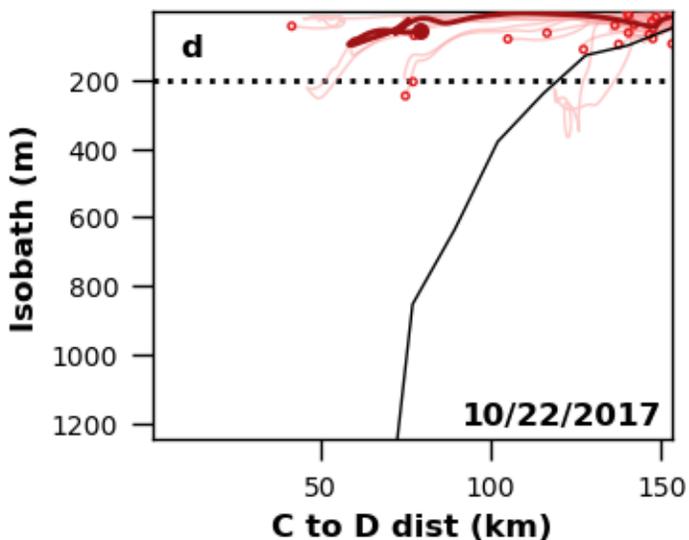
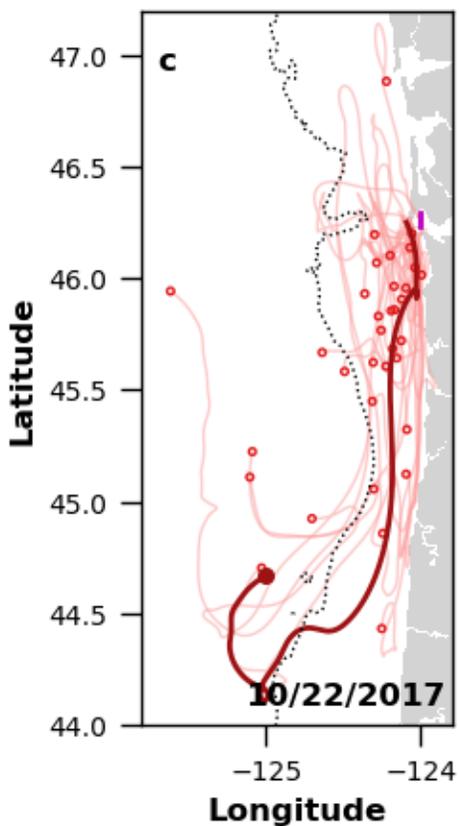
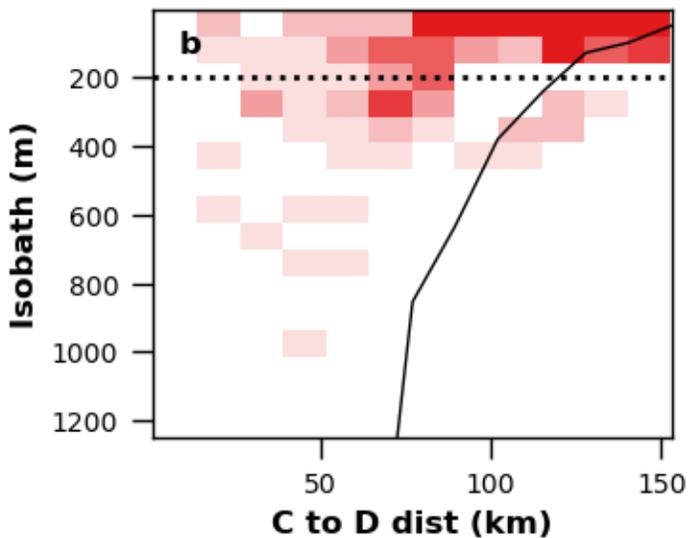
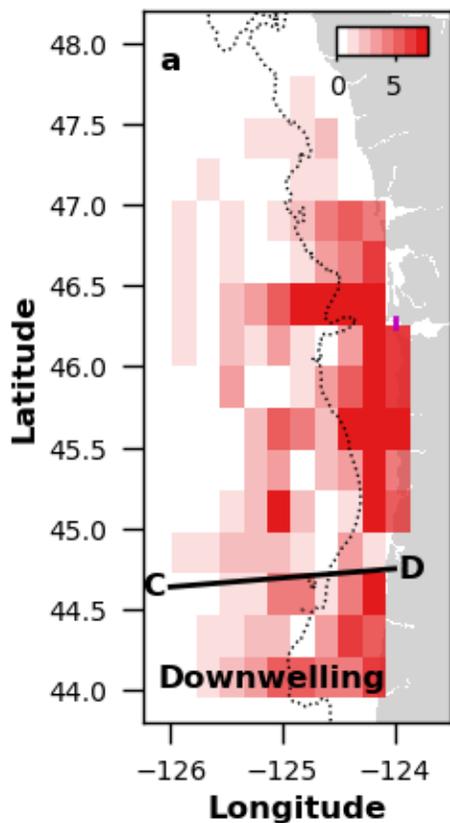


Figure 9.

