

# 1           **Transient Wind-driven Polynyas Within Nares Strait**

2   **Kevin Joshy<sup>1</sup>, G.W.K. Moore<sup>1,2</sup>, Kaitlin McNeil<sup>1,2</sup>**

3   <sup>1</sup>Department of Chemical and Physical Sciences, University of Toronto, Mississauga,  
4   Mississauga, Canada. <sup>2</sup>Department of Physics, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.

5   Corresponding author: G. W. K. Moore (gwk.moore@utoronto.ca)

## 6   **Key Points:**

- 7       • Previously unknown wind-driven polynyas form downwind of Joe and Franklin Islands  
8       within Nares Strait during autumn months
- 9       • The presence of these islands interrupting the sea ice flow through the strait are proposed  
10      to be the drivers inducing polynya formation
- 11      • The size and extent of these polynyas was correlated with wind speed flowing  
12      southwards through the strait

## 13 **Abstract**

14 Nares Strait, situated between northwest Greenland and Ellesmere Island is a major sea  
15 ice export path from the Arctic Ocean. One of the narrowest parts of the strait — Kennedy  
16 Channel — is host to several islands. These obstacles' impact on the ice flow along the Strait has  
17 yet to be investigated. Here we show that during autumn, these islands can interrupt the  
18 relatively homogenous sea ice flow through Kennedy Channel, carried by wind and water  
19 currents, and shield downstream regions from becoming ice-covered, resulting in the formation  
20 of hitherto unknown transient polynyas, whose size and extent were correlated with the wind's  
21 strength and direction along Kennedy Channel. These polynyas likely impact the regional  
22 meteorology and oceanography through enhanced air-sea fluxes of heat, moisture, momentum,  
23 and carbon dioxide. The presence of open water may also impact the complex and productive  
24 regional ecosystem.

## 25 **Plain Language Summary**

26 Nares Strait is a passageway situated between Ellesmere Island — the northernmost  
27 island of Nunavut, Canada — and Greenland. The southern end of this channel is the site of  
28 formation of the North Water Polynya (NOW) which is an open water expanse that forms in the  
29 midst of thick surrounding ice. Open water regions of polynyas throughout the world, in general,  
30 have major impacts on local climates because they facilitate interactions from the atmosphere to  
31 the sea and vice versa. The NOW in particular sustains a major Arctic ecosystem that nearby  
32 human communities depend on for resources as well. We identify polynyas that form in the  
33 interior of Nares Strait during autumn whose sizes are related to the strength of southward winds  
34 blowing through the channel. These polynyas likely also impact the regional climate and ocean  
35 dynamics, and may serve as a site of Arctic species habitation both in the present and in a future  
36 where the integrity of the NOW is potentially compromised due to a changing Arctic  
37 environment.

## 38 **1 Introduction**

39 Polynyas are defined as regions of open water found within a surrounding area of sea ice  
40 and tend to form by two distinct mechanisms (Barber & Massom, 2007); those that form via the  
41 melting of ice due to heat fluxes from processes such as the upwelling of warm waters are called  
42 sensible heat polynyas (Smith et al., 1990), while those that form via the exposure of open water

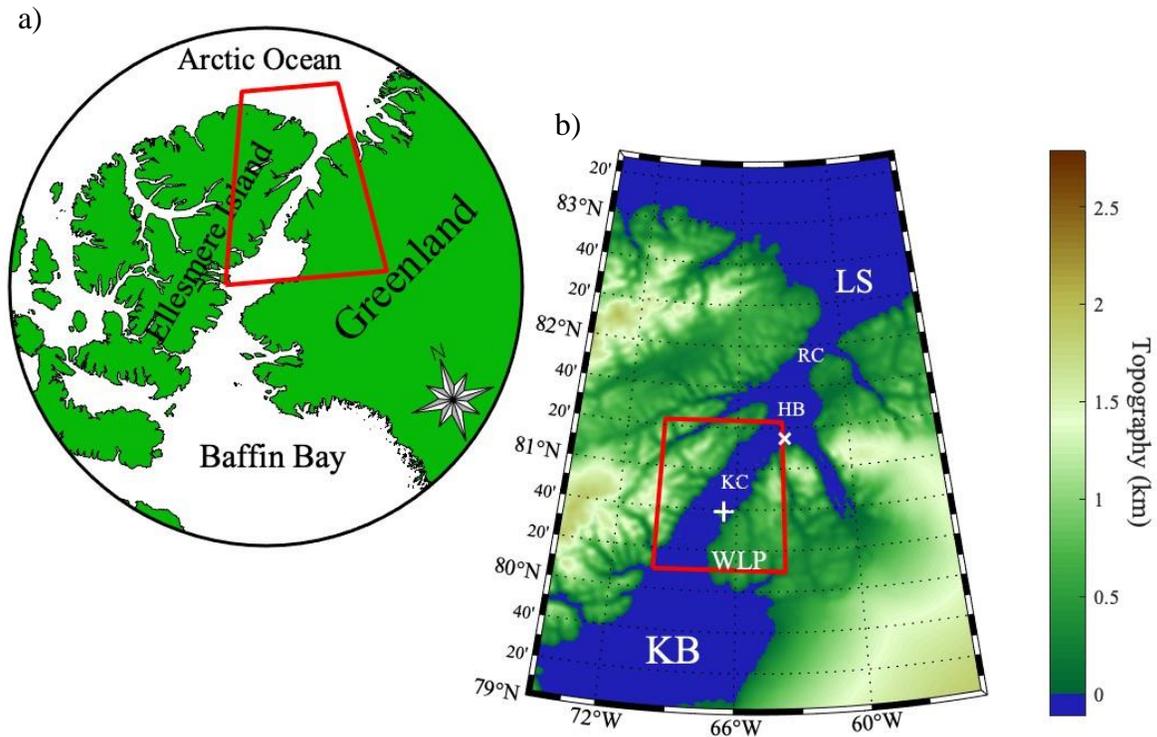
43 by winds that drive away ice cover are referred to as latent heat or wind-driven polynyas (Barber  
44 & Massom, 2007). Despite this classification, many polynyas around the world form as a result  
45 of some combination of these two effects (Barber & Massom, 2007).

46 Polynyas are important meteorologically, oceanographically, and biologically. They  
47 contribute to atmospheric forcing via significant sea-air heat and moisture fluxes (Kottmeier &  
48 Engelbart, 1992), they influence ocean salinity via processes such as frazil ice formation and  
49 brine rejection (Smith et al., 1990), as well as encouraging the formation of dense water  
50 (Weingartner et al., 1998). Biologically, they allow for the upwelling and mixing of nutrient-rich  
51 waters (Arrigo, 2007) which, in combination with enhanced solar insolation at the active polynya  
52 site (Tremblay & Smith, 2007), encourage biological activity.

53 Nares Strait, a passageway situated between Ellesmere Island, the northernmost island of  
54 Canada, and northwestern Greenland (Fig. 1) connects the Arctic Ocean at its north to the  
55 subpolar North Atlantic at its south. Nares Strait is a significant site of sea ice export, which is  
56 driven by wind and ocean currents, out of the Arctic Ocean and experiences an average seasonal  
57 sea ice area flux on the order of  $100 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^2$  (Howell et al., 2023). This is approximately 10%  
58 of the export through Fram Strait (Smedsrud et al., 2017).

59 The polynya that forms annually over northern Baffin Bay — the North Water Polynya  
60 (NOW) — *Pikialasorsuaq* in Greenland (Moore et al., 2023) and *Sarvarjuaq* in Nunavut —  
61 appears as a result of the cessation of sea ice flow through the strait due to the formation of an  
62 ice arch near the strait's southern terminus (Barber et al., 2001; Ribeiro et al., 2021). The  
63 inhibition of further sea ice flow by these arches, alongside the wind-forced advection of sea ice  
64 out of the downstream region (Barber et al., 2001; Moore & Imrit, 2022), and the melting of ice  
65 via the thermodynamic interaction with warm subsurface waters (Steffen, 1985) are together  
66 suggested to maintain the integrity of the NOW (Ingram et al., 2002).

67 A large body of evidence suggests the presence of a vast ecosystem that the NOW  
68 sustains. Phytoplankton blooms are common and promoted in polynyas (Marchese et al., 2017;  
69 Tremblay & Smith, 2007), which act as a foundation for an Arctic food web. Several animal  
70 populations have also been documented in this region such as beluga whales, narwhals, walruses,  
71 bearded seals, seabirds, as well as limited sightings of polar bears, many of which overwinter in  
72 the NOW (Finley & Renaud, 1980; Heide-Jørgensen et al., 2013, 2016; Møller et al., 2018;  
73 Richard et al., 1998).



**Figure 1.** Geographical maps showing a) the location of Nares Strait and b) an enlarged view of the red-boxed region showing the topography around northern Nares Strait with the red polygon showing the specific domain in which sea ice and winds were analyzed. The labelled locations near and on the strait are: the Lincoln Sea (LS), Robeson Channel (RC), Hall Basin (HB), Kennedy Channel (KC), Washington Land Peninsula (WLP), Kane Basin (KB), Joe Island (x), and Franklin Island (+).

74 In this study we identify previously unknown transient polynyas that develop along  
 75 Kennedy Channel that connects Hall Basin to Kane Basin (Fig. 1). These polynyas typically  
 76 form downwind of Joe Island and Franklin Island that are situated along the channel. The winds  
 77 along the channel tend to be enhanced as a result of its narrowness and the steep topography that  
 78 borders it (Moore & Imrit, 2022). We suggest a mechanism by which these islands shield  
 79 adjacent downwind areas from becoming ice-covered by southward sea ice flow as a result of  
 80 strong wind-forced advection.

81

## 82 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 83 **2.1 Datasets**

84 In order to investigate this phenomenon, sea ice concentration along Nares Strait was  
 85 retrieved with the ARTIST algorithm (Spren et al., 2008) that makes use of data from the  
 86 Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometers (AMSR-E and AMSR2). The ARTIST dataset has

87 a spatial resolution of approximately 3.125 km and is available from June 2002 – August 2023,  
88 with a break between October 2011 and July 2012. In order to facilitate examination of  
89 atmospheric conditions surrounding Nares Strait, 10 m wind speed, wind direction, and mean  
90 sea-level pressure daily-averaged fields from the Copernicus Arctic Regional Reanalysis  
91 (CARRA) were used (Schyberg et al., 2020). The CARRA fields are available at a resolution of  
92 2.5 km for the period from September 1990 – May 2023.

93 Imaging/mapping of the sea ice along Nares Strait was achieved using AMSR sea ice  
94 concentration data, MODIS (Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer) infrared  
95 channels, as well as the AMSR's 89 GHz brightness temperature channels. Upwards vertically  
96 polarized emissions at 89 GHz made it possible to distinguish open water (greater brightness  
97 temperature) from sea ice (lower brightness temperature).

98

## 99 **2.2 Choice of time period**

100 Nares Strait's mobile sea ice season typically lasts from mid/late summer to mid/late  
101 winter (Vincent, 2019), with the rest of the year generally characterized by the presence of an ice  
102 arch along the strait that inhibits sea ice flow. October was found to be the ideal month for our  
103 analysis since it avoided the early sea ice transport season (September) during which sea ice  
104 concentration is low, while also avoiding the early onset of the ice arch season, which can begin  
105 as early as November. We did, however, redo our analysis for November and found similar  
106 results.

107

## 108 **2.3 Peak Over Threshold Technique**

109 To quantify sea ice concentration variability within Kennedy Channel, a spatial domain  
110 ranging from 80.16°N to 81.38°N latitude and 63.6°W to 70°W longitude was used (Fig. 1). The  
111 mean daily ice concentration in this region was calculated for all October days on record. We  
112 then employed a peak-over-threshold method by identifying the October dates with mean ice  
113 concentration values that exceeded the 90<sup>th</sup> quantile value and the dates that lie below the 10<sup>th</sup>  
114 quantile value, denoted as our high and low sea ice concentration events, respectively. In order  
115 not to bias our results, instances of double counting whereby we identified several consecutive  
116 days with a mean ice concentration that exceeded the thresholds were not considered. To account  
117 for this, whenever multiple days were found to lie beyond the lower or upper thresholds, only the

118 dates with the lowest or highest values, respectively, within a 3-day period were considered in  
119 the analysis. After identifying all dates that exceeded the thresholds, and accounting for the  
120 described double counting, a total of 30 high sea ice event dates and 33 low sea ice event dates  
121 were identified. We performed a repeat analysis by thresholding on extreme wind  
122 speed/direction events as well and obtained similar results.

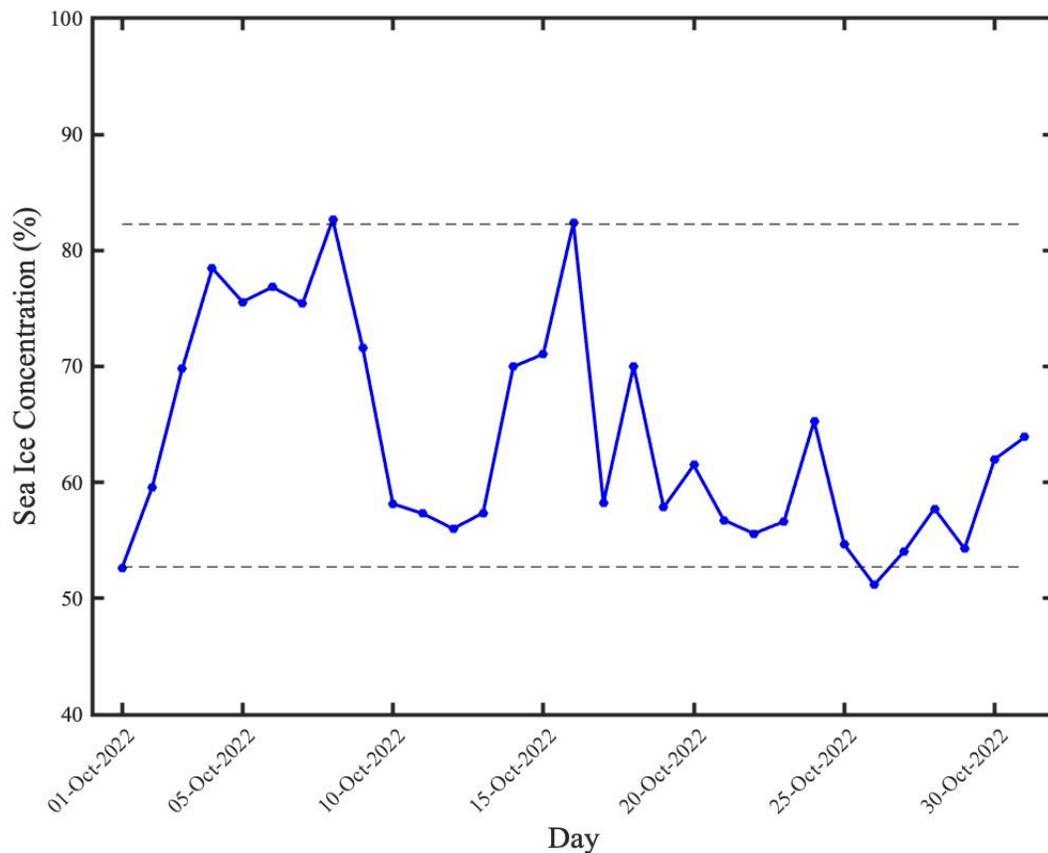
123         Following identification of the October dates that fit into either category, sea ice  
124 concentration maps for northern Nares Strait for the high event dates and low event dates were  
125 composited. For comparison, the sea ice concentration maps for all available October days were  
126 also averaged to identify the climatological sea ice conditions. The 10 m wind vector fields and  
127 sea-level pressure maps from CARRA data for the high and low sea ice event dates were also  
128 composited and a climatological wind and sea-level pressure map was similarly obtained using  
129 data from all available October days.

130         Daily latitudinal profiles of sea ice concentration and wind speeds along Nares Strait  
131 were also constructed by determining median AMSR sea ice concentration and CARRA wind  
132 speeds parallel to the strait along lines of constant latitude. Composites of high and low sea ice  
133 event profiles were generated in order to facilitate a more quantitative treatment of our proposed  
134 island phenomenon. The climatological latitudinal profile from all available October days from  
135 2002 – 2022 was again determined for comparison. Furthermore, using a Monte Carlo approach,  
136 the 1<sup>st</sup> quantile and 99<sup>th</sup> quantile of sea ice concentration and wind speed considering all October  
137 days and at each available latitude were determined in order to characterize the statistical  
138 significance of the high and low composites.

139 **3 Results**

140 **3.1 Temporal Variability of Sea Ice**

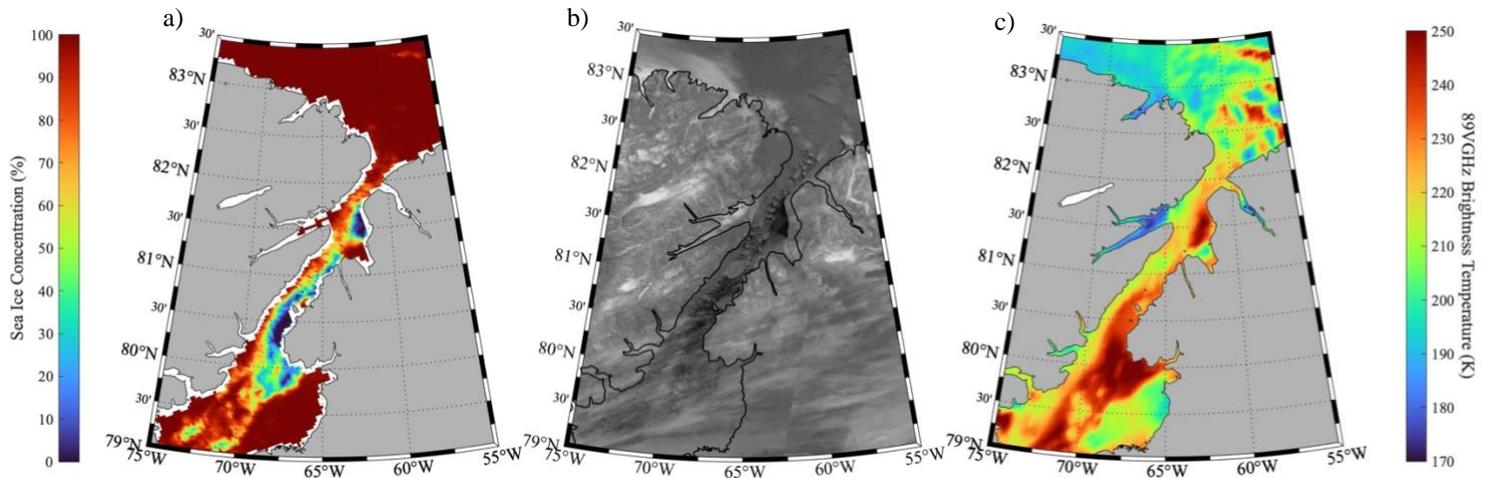
141 We calculated the mean daily sea ice concentration along Kennedy Channel during  
 142 October 2002 – 2022 and constructed a time series for a typical month — October 2022 (Fig. 2).  
 143 It is evident here that the sea ice concentration is quite variable with a mean of 64%, two events  
 144 where the ice concentration drops below the 10<sup>th</sup> quantile value of 53%, as well as two events  
 145 where the ice concentration rises above the 90<sup>th</sup> quantile value of 82%. Other Octobers during  
 146 the period of interest had similar distributions.



**Figure 2.** Time series of daily mean sea ice concentration (AMSR2) in Kennedy Channel during the month of October 2022. The horizontal dashed lines show the 90<sup>th</sup> quantile (upper line) and 10<sup>th</sup> quantile (lower line) values of mean daily sea ice concentration in this region during Octobers.

147 For the date that was identified with an average ice concentration lying below the lower  
 148 threshold — Oct 26, 2022 — the reduced ice cover was mapped/imaged (Fig. 3). In each image

149 high quantities of sea ice can be observed throughout the strait and Kennedy Channel, with  
 150 regions of open water and reduced ice cover southwards of Franklin Island and Joe Island.



**Figure 3.** Kennedy Channel and Northern Nares Strait as viewed, using a) the mapping of AMSR2 sea ice concentration data, b) MODIS infrared imagery, and c) AMSR2 89GHz vertical polarization brightness temperature data, on October 26, 2022.

### 151 3.2 Spatial Variability of Sea Ice

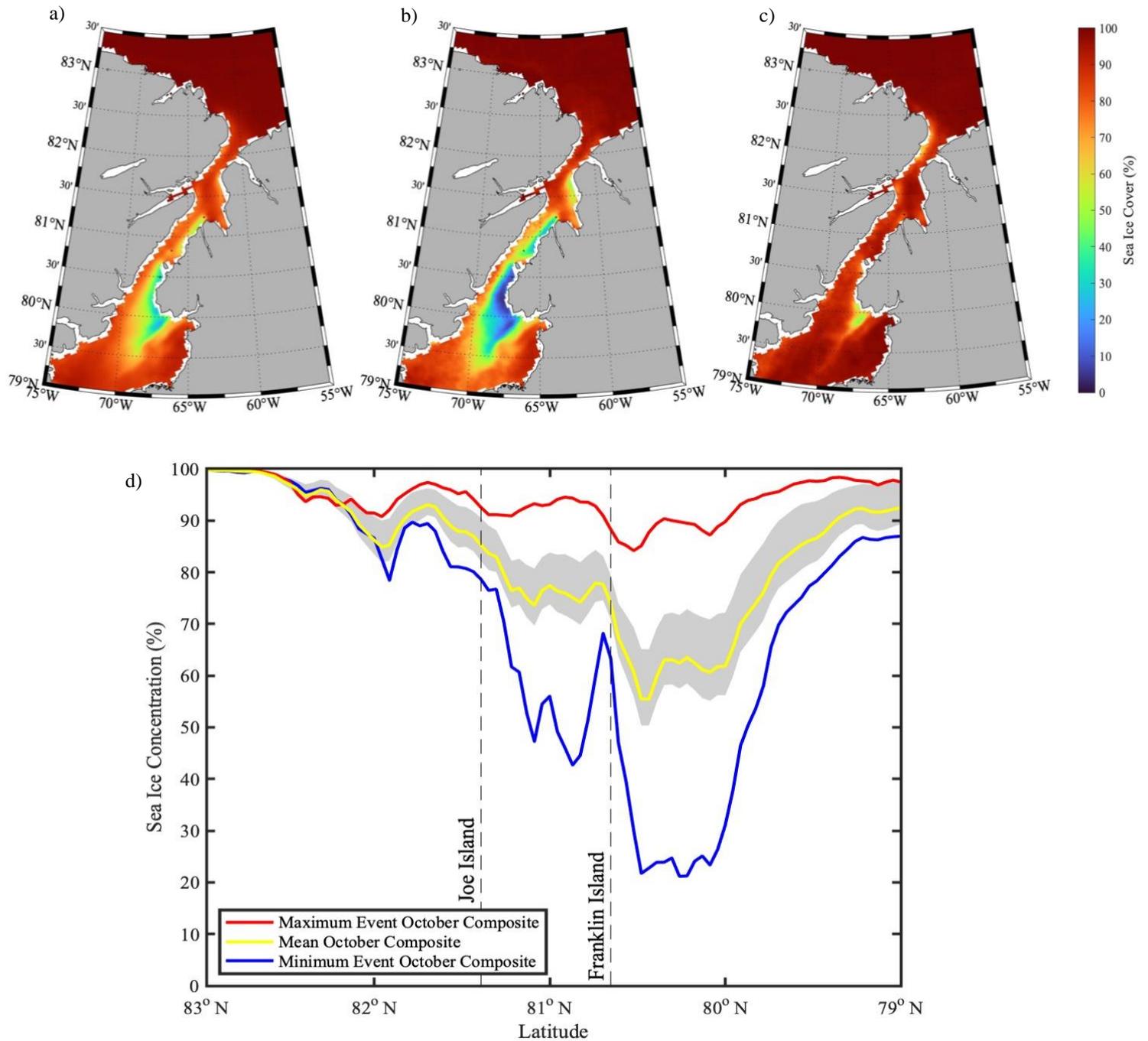
152 The climatological sea ice distribution during October (Fig. 4a) indicates that the ice  
 153 concentration is close to 100% over the Lincoln Sea and decreases as one moves southwards  
 154 towards northern Kane Basin. Local minima occur south of Joe and Franklin Islands as well as  
 155 over northern Kane Basin south of the Washington Land Peninsula (Fig. 1). The low event  
 156 composite (Fig. 4b) has a quantitatively similar structure to the climatological case with  
 157 significantly reduced sea ice concentrations in the same locations. The high event composite  
 158 (Fig. 4c) shows nearly 100% ice cover from the Lincoln Sea down into Kane Basin, albeit with a  
 159 similar noticeable minimum south of the Washington Land Peninsula.

160 The median sea ice concentration along the strait as a function of latitude provides a more  
 161 quantitative view of sea ice variability in Nares Strait (Fig. 4d). Significant local minima for the  
 162 low event case are observed directly downstream of the latitudes of Joe and Franklin Islands.  
 163 Another local minimum is observed around 82°N. Interestingly, in the low composite, there was  
 164 a sharp increase in ice presence immediately north of Franklin Island prior to the subsequent  
 165 decrease to its south producing a sea ice dipole across the island. The climatological and high  
 166 event cases show less variability in median ice concentration and are characterized by weaker  
 167 local minima near the same latitudes as the low case. As expected, the lowest ice concentrations

168 occur for the low composite where, south of Joe Island, it approaches 45% and where, south of  
169 Franklin Island, it reaches between 20% – 30%. The extrema in this low event case were also  
170 found to lie outside of the range of extreme ice concentration variability of the climatological  
171 October case represented by the shading.

172

173



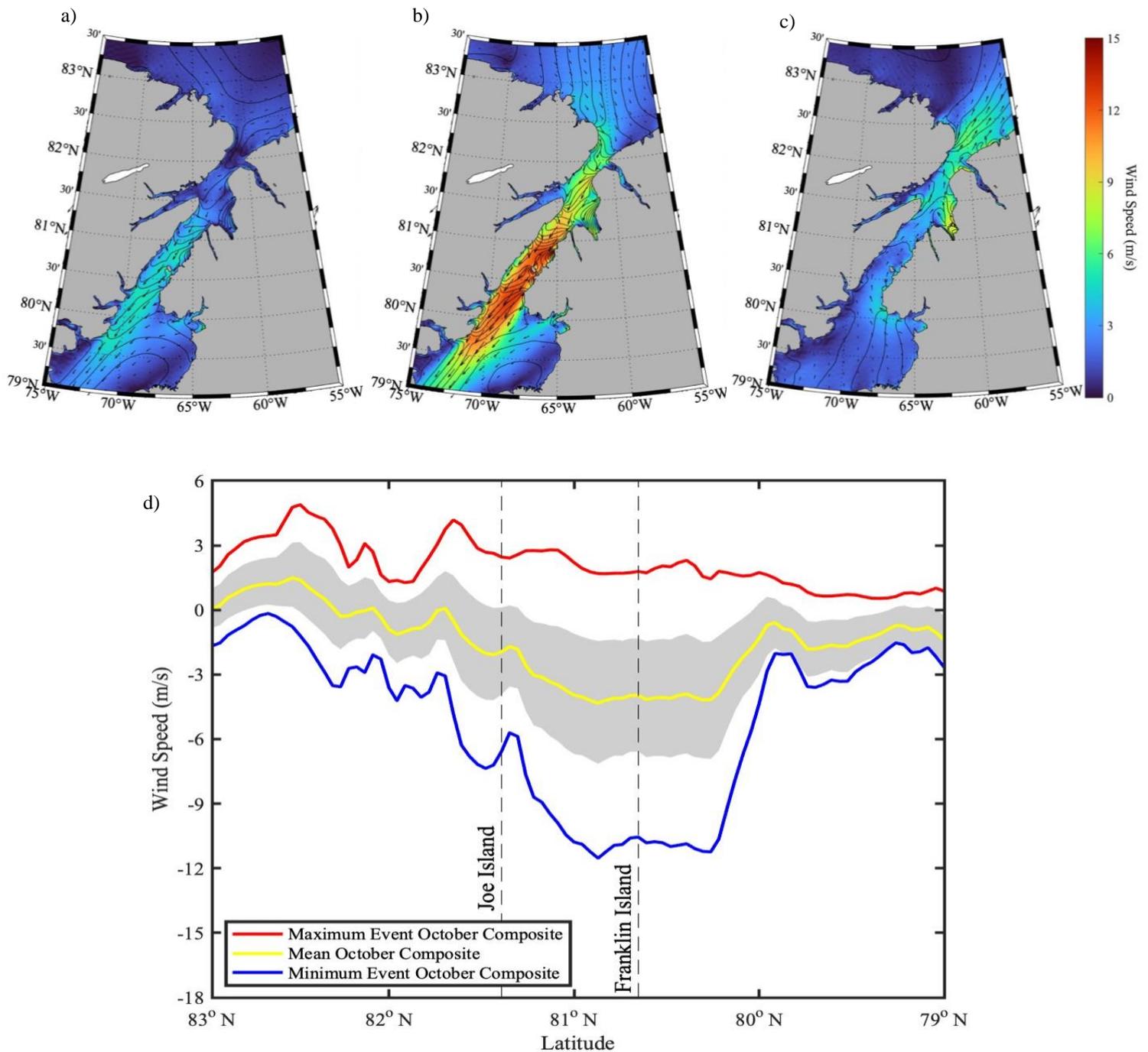
**Figure 4.** October spatial sea ice concentration composites for northern Nares Strait from 2002 – 2022. The three images correspond to the averaging of a) all October days, b) only low event October days, and c) only high event October days. d) shows the median sea ice concentration by latitude along Nares Strait for each of the three sets of days. The shading represents the 1<sup>st</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> quantile variability of sea ice concentration about the climatological composite at each latitude. The labeled dashed lines identify the latitudinal locations of Joe Island and Franklin Island.

### 174 **3.3 Spatial Variability of Wind and Mean Sea Level Pressure**

175 Composites of 10 m winds, 10 m windspeed, and sea level pressure for the low and high  
176 events along with climatological conditions were produced in a similar fashion to the sea ice  
177 maps (Fig. 5). The climatological October case (Fig. 5a) shows relatively weak winds in the  
178 Lincoln Sea and Robeson Channel (Fig. 1), but stronger winds along Kennedy Channel and the  
179 northwestern part of Kane Basin. The low event regime (Fig. 5b) shows significantly greater  
180 wind speeds as compared to the climatological case, particularly within Kennedy Channel, and  
181 has the strongest winds of the three composites. Furthermore, in these two cases the winds  
182 generally lie parallel to the strait, with weaker winds in each of the composites occurring at sites  
183 where the wind vectors are nearly parallel with the isobars (i.e. the Lincoln Sea, Hall Basin (Fig.  
184 1), and southern Kane Basin). Conversely, the strongest winds, within Kennedy Channel, occur  
185 where the wind vectors are nearly orthogonal on the isobars. The high event case (Fig. 5c) has  
186 very weak winds throughout the strait. Interestingly, a wind reversal was present in this  
187 composite which reached speeds of ~6 m/s in northern Robeson Channel and the Lincoln Sea.

188 The median wind speed parallel to the strait as a function of latitude (Fig. 5d) provides a  
189 quantitative examination of the wind variability along the strait. Several local minima in winds  
190 are located north of Joe Island in all three cases, as well as a broad minimum over Kennedy  
191 Channel from just below 81.5°N to just above 80°N in the low and climatological cases. Again,  
192 it is seen that the strongest wind speeds directed southwards along the strait occur for the low  
193 event case reaching speeds of up to 12 m/s. Furthermore, this wind profile lies almost  
194 consistently outside the extreme range of wind speed variability of the climatological October  
195 case represented by the shading.

196



**Figure 5.** October spatial wind and pressure field composites for northern Nares Strait from 2002 – 2022. The maps show wind direction (vector field), wind speed (colourmap), and mean sea level pressure (isobar contours). The three composites were obtained from a) all October days, b) only low sea ice event days, and c) only high sea ice event days. d) shows the median wind speed parallel along the strait by latitude for each of the three sets of days. Positive values correspond to wind blowing up the strait while negative values correspond to wind blowing down the strait. The shading represents the 1<sup>st</sup> and 99<sup>th</sup> quantile variability of the wind speed about the climatological composite at each latitude. The labeled dashed lines identify the latitudinal locations of Joe Island and Franklin Island.

197 **4 Discussion**

198           In the low event case (Fig. 4b), it can be seen that the decrease in ice concentration within  
199 Kennedy Channel is the result of localized reductions at specific sites. The low ice  
200 concentrations south of the islands are believed to be caused by the advection of sea ice by winds  
201 into Kennedy Channel which, impinging upon the islands from the north, are diverted around  
202 them resulting in pockets of decreased concentration to form downwind. Since winds in this  
203 region generally blow from north to south (Moore, 2021), these polynyas tend to form off the  
204 southern faces of the islands.

205           These transient polynyas are believed to form analogously to wind-driven polynyas  
206 (Morales Maqueda et al., 2004) whereby coastal winds push sea ice away from land and expose  
207 open water. In Kennedy Channel, however, we propose that polynya production is caused by the  
208 southward wind-forced advection of ice around island obstacles, as opposed to the wind-forced  
209 removal of coastal ice.

210           Latitudinally, we find that the steepest local minima in ice concentration in the low event  
211 case occur south of the two islands, suggesting that it is indeed island effects that contribute to  
212 this behaviour (Fig. 4d). It is further seen that the minima latitudes in the low event October  
213 composite coincide with the minima in the climatological and high October composites at  
214 approximately 82°N and south of Joe and Franklin Islands' latitudes. This quantitatively  
215 demonstrates that this ice-shielding effect is noticeable even during climatological, and to some  
216 extent during high October sea ice conditions.

217           With respect to the wind and sea level pressure results (Fig. 5), the flow along Kennedy  
218 Channel can be seen to be ageostrophic which, as discussed by Moore and Imrit (2022), is a  
219 consequence of the narrowness of the Strait. In the low event regime (Fig. 5b), the pressure  
220 gradient along Kennedy Channel is larger and thus there are correspondingly greater wind speeds  
221 as compared to climatological (Fig. 5a) and high event regimes (Fig. 5c). These enhanced winds  
222 contribute to a strong ice advection effect around the islands and induce the formation of larger  
223 polynyas (Fig. 4b). These results suggest that the strength of southward winds through Kennedy  
224 Channel are directly correlated to the size and amount of ice reduction within these polynyas. In  
225 the upper extreme case (Fig. 5c) there are relatively weak winds in Kennedy Channel, and  
226 correspondingly no polynya can be observed in the ice concentration composite (Fig. 4c). The

227 noticeable sea ice reduction south of the Washington Land Peninsula (Fig. 4c) does, however,  
228 coincide with the ageostrophic flow of northwestern winds at this same site (Fig. 5c).

229         The wind fields in the low event composite and the climatological composite also reveal  
230 the presence of a meso-scale region of low pressure situated towards the eastern edge of Kane  
231 Basin bounded by the steep topography of the Washington Land peninsula to the north. This may  
232 be an example of a lee cyclone (Buzzi et al., 2020). The associated cyclonic circulation is more  
233 intense in the low event regime and would likely result in strong advection of sea ice away from  
234 the south side of Washington Land Peninsula, therefore contributing to the sea ice reduction  
235 observed here. It should be noted that a polynya had previously been identified in this region  
236 during June by Kirillov et al. (2022), yet its production was attributed to the melting of ice  
237 caused by the rising of warm subsurface water. We propose that a wind-driven sea ice advection  
238 effect may work in tandem with the upwelling of warm water to contribute to the formation of  
239 this polynya.

240         With respect to wind latitudinal profiles (Fig. 5d), the extreme winds in Kennedy channel  
241 agree with spatial wind observations in the low event case (Fig. 5b). Comparison of the ice and  
242 wind latitude profiles reveals that there is a correlated local minimum at approximately 82°N  
243 shared among all composites. 82°N marks a transitional site whereby the geostrophic flow from  
244 the Lincoln Sea becomes ageostrophic in Robeson Channel (Fig. 5b). As the wind enters Nares  
245 Strait from the north, the narrow channel and steep topography funnel and accelerate the winds,  
246 thereby causing a spike in wind speed as observed in the wind speed profiles (Fig. 5d).  
247 Coincident sea ice flow carried by these winds into the strait is likely also sped up leading to a  
248 reduction and gap in ice presence as observed in the sea ice concentration profiles (Fig. 4d). This  
249 effect, albeit a small one, still produces a noticeable impact even on the high sea ice composite  
250 (Fig. 4d).

251         Downwind island effects have previously been shown to have far-reaching impacts on  
252 wind and sea temperature patterns in the Pacific Ocean (Xie et al., 2001). There is also evidence  
253 that the climatological easterly flow within the Chukchi Sea in the western Arctic Ocean results  
254 in a latent heat polynya downstream of Wrangel Island (Moore & Pickart, 2012). Here we  
255 identify previously unknown transient polynyas that form within the interior of Nares Strait due  
256 to such downstream island effects. The presence of these open water regions likely also lead to  
257 increased heat and moisture fluxes into the atmosphere from Kennedy Channel and potential

258 biological activity. Many Arctic species that overwinter in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago  
259 (Pole, 2016) may use these polynyas and may rely on them in a future where the NOW does not  
260 exist as it does today (Moore et al., 2023).

261

## 262 **Acknowledgments**

263

## 264 **Open Research**

265 AMSR-E and AMSR2 (Advanced Microwave Scanning Radiometer) data (Sprenn et al., 2008)

266 are available at <https://seaice.uni-bremen.de/sea-ice-concentration/amsre-amr2/>. AMSR2

267 brightness temperature data (Meier et al., 2018) is available at

268 [https://nsidc.org/data/au\\_si6/versions/1#anchor-0](https://nsidc.org/data/au_si6/versions/1#anchor-0). The CARRA (Copernicus Arctic Regional

269 Reanalysis) data (Schyberg et al., 2020) are available at

270 <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/reanalysis-carra-single-levels?tab=overview>.

271 **References**

- 272 Arrigo, K. R. (2007). Chapter 7 Physical Control of Primary Productivity in Arctic and Antarctic  
 273 Polynyas. In W. O. Smith & D. G. Barber (Eds.), *Polynyas: Windows to the World* (Vol. 74,  
 274 pp. 223–238). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894\(06\)74007-7](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894(06)74007-7)
- 275 Barber, D. G., Hanesiak, J. M., Chan, W., & Piwowar, J. (2001). Sea-ice and meteorological  
 276 conditions in Northern Baffin Bay and the North Water polynya between 1979 and 1996.  
 277 *Atmosphere - Ocean*, 39(3), 343–359. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07055900.2001.9649685>
- 278 Barber, D. G., & Massom, R. A. (2007). Chapter 1 The Role of Sea Ice in Arctic and Antarctic  
 279 Polynyas. In W. O. Smith & D. G. Barber (Eds.), *Polynyas: Windows to the World* (Vol. 74,  
 280 pp. 1–54). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894\(06\)74001-6](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894(06)74001-6)
- 281 Buzzi, A., Davolio, S., & Fantini, M. (2020). Cyclogenesis in the lee of the Alps: a review of  
 282 theories. *Bulletin of Atmospheric Science and Technology*, 1(3), 433–457.  
 283 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42865-020-00021-6>
- 284 Finley, K. J., & Renaud, W. E. (1980). Marine Mammals Inhabiting the Baffin Bay North Water  
 285 in Winter. *Arctic*, 33(4), 724–738.
- 286 Heide-Jørgensen, M. P., Burt, L. M., Hansen, R. G., Nielsen, N. H., Rasmussen, M., Fossette, S.,  
 287 & Stern, H. (2013). The significance of the north water polynya to arctic top predators.  
 288 *Ambio*, 42(5), 596–610. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-012-0357-3>
- 289 Heide-Jørgensen, M. P., Sinding, M.-H. S., Nielsen, N. H., Rosing-Asvid, A., & Hansen, R. G.  
 290 (2016). Large numbers of marine mammals winter in the North Water polynya. *Polar*  
 291 *Biology*, 39(9), 1605–1614. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-015-1885-7>
- 292 Howell, S. E. L., Babb, D. G., Landy, J. C., Moore, G. W. K., Montpetit, B., & Brady, M.  
 293 (2023). A Comparison of Arctic Ocean Sea Ice Export Between Nares Strait and the  
 294 Canadian Arctic Archipelago. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 128(4).  
 295 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2023JC019687>
- 296 Ingram, R. G., Bâcle, J., Barber, D. G., Gratton, Y., & Melling, H. (2002). An overview of  
 297 physical processes in the North Water. *Deep-Sea Research Part II: Topical Studies in*  
 298 *Oceanography*, 49(22–23), 4893–4906. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645\(02\)00169-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0967-0645(02)00169-8)
- 299 Kirillov, S., Dmitrenko, I., Babb, D. G., Ehn, J. K., Koldunov, N., Rysgaard, S., Jensen, D., &  
 300 Barber, D. G. (2022). The role of oceanic heat flux in reducing thermodynamic ice growth

- 301 in Nares Strait and promoting earlier collapse of the ice bridge. *Ocean Science*, 18(5),  
 302 1535–1557. <https://doi.org/10.5194/os-18-1535-2022>
- 303 Kottmeier, Ch., & Engelbart, D. (1992). Generation and atmospheric heat exchange of coastal  
 304 polynyas in the Weddell Sea. *Boundary-Layer Meteorology*, 60(3), 207–234.  
 305 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00119376>
- 306 Marchese, C., Albouy, C., Tremblay, J. É., Dumont, D., D’Ortenzio, F., Vissault, S., & Bélanger,  
 307 S. (2017). Changes in phytoplankton bloom phenology over the North Water (NOW)  
 308 polynya: a response to changing environmental conditions. *Polar Biology*, 40(9), 1721–  
 309 1737. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00300-017-2095-2>
- 310 Meier, N., W., Comiso, J. C., & Markus, T. (2018). *AMSR-E/AMSR2 Unified L3 Daily 6.25 km*  
 311 *Polar Gridded 89 GHz Brightness Temperatures, Version 1* [Dataset]. NASA National  
 312 Snow and Ice Data Center Distributed Active Archive Center.
- 313 Møller, E. F., Johansen, K. L., Agersted, M. D., Rigét, F., Clausen, D. S., Larsen, J., Lyngs, P.,  
 314 Middelbo, A., & Mosbech, A. (2018). Zooplankton phenology may explain the North Water  
 315 polynya’s importance as a breeding area for little auks. *Marine Ecology Progress Series*,  
 316 605, 207–223.
- 317 Moore, G. W. K. (2021). Impact of model resolution on the representation of the wind field  
 318 along Nares Strait. *Scientific Reports*, 11(1), 1–14. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-92813-9)  
 319 [92813-9](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-92813-9)
- 320 Moore, G. W. K., Howell, S. E. L., & Brady, M. (2023). Evolving relationship of Nares Strait ice  
 321 arches on sea ice along the Strait and the North Water, the Arctic’s most productive  
 322 polynya. *Scientific Reports*, 13(1), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-36179-0>
- 323 Moore, G. W. K., & Imrit, A. A. (2022). Impact of Resolution on the Representation of the Mean  
 324 and Extreme Winds Along Nares Strait. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*,  
 325 127(19), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JD037443>
- 326 Moore, G. W. K., & Pickart, R. S. (2012). The Wrangel Island Polynya in early summer: Trends  
 327 and relationships to other polynyas and the Beaufort Sea High. *Geophysical Research*  
 328 *Letters*, 39(5), 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1029/2011GL050691>
- 329 Morales Maqueda, M. A., Willmott, A. J., & Biggs, N. R. T. (2004). Polynya dynamics: A  
 330 review of observations and modeling. *Reviews of Geophysics*, 42(1).  
 331 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002RG000116>

- 332 Pole, N. (2016). *Canadian High Arctic-North Greenland LME*. 1–9.
- 333 Ribeiro, S., Limoges, A., Massé, G., Johansen, K. L., Colgan, W., Weckström, K., Jackson, R.,  
 334 Georgiadis, E., Mikkelsen, N., Kuijpers, A., Olsen, J., Olsen, S. M., Nissen, M., Andersen,  
 335 T. J., Strunk, A., Wetterich, S., Syväranta, J., Henderson, A. C. G., Mackay, H., ...  
 336 Davidson, T. A. (2021). Vulnerability of the North Water ecosystem to climate change.  
 337 *Nature Communications*, 12(1). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-24742-0>
- 338 Richard, P. R., Orr, J. R., Dietz, R., & Dueck, L. (1998). Sightings of Belugas and Other Marine  
 339 Mammals in the North Water, Late March 1993. *Arctic*, 51(1), 1–4.
- 340 Schyberg, H., Yang, X., Køltzow, M. A. Ø., Amstrup, B., Bakketun, Å., Bazile, E., Bojarova, J.,  
 341 Box, J. E., Dahlgren, P., Hagelin, S., Homleid, M., Horányi, A., Høyser, J., Johansson, Å.,  
 342 Killie, M. A., Körnich, H., Le Moigne, P., Lindskog, M., Manninen, T., ... Wang, Z. Q.  
 343 (2020). *Arctic regional reanalysis on single levels from 1991 to present*. Copernicus  
 344 Climate Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS).  
 345 <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.713858f6>
- 346 Smedsrud, L. H., Halvorsen, M. H., Stroeve, J. C., Zhang, R., & Kloster, K. (2017). Fram Strait  
 347 sea ice export variability and September Arctic sea ice extent over the last  
 348 80 years. *The Cryosphere*, 11(1), 65–79. <https://doi.org/10.5194/tc-11-65-2017>
- 349 Smith, S. D., Muench, R. D., & Pease, C. H. (1990). Polynyas and leads: An overview of  
 350 physical processes and environment. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 95(C6),  
 351 9461–9479. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/JC095iC06p09461>
- 352 Spreen, G., Kaleschke, L., & Heygster, G. (2008). Sea ice remote sensing using AMSR-E 89-  
 353 GHz channels. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 113(2), 1–14.  
 354 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2005JC003384>
- 355 Steffen, K. (1985). Warm water cells in the North Water, Northern Baffin Bay during winter.  
 356 *Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans*, 90(C5), 9129–9136.  
 357 <https://doi.org/10.1029/jc090ic05p09129>
- 358 Tremblay, J.-E., & Smith, W. O. (2007). Chapter 8 Primary Production and Nutrient Dynamics  
 359 in Polynyas. In W. O. Smith & D. G. Barber (Eds.), *Polynyas: Windows to the World* (Vol.  
 360 74, pp. 239–269). Elsevier. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894\(06\)74008-9](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0422-9894(06)74008-9)
- 361 Vincent, R. F. (2019). A Study of the North Water Polynya Ice Arch using Four Decades of  
 362 Satellite Data. *Scientific Reports*, 9(1), 20278. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-56780-6>

- 363 Weingartner, T. J., Cavalieri, D. J., Aagaard, K., & Sasaki, Y. (1998). Circulation, dense water  
364 formation, and outflow on the northeast Chukchi Shelf. *Journal of Geophysical Research:*  
365 *Oceans*, 103(C4), 7647–7661. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1029/98JC00374](https://doi.org/10.1029/98JC00374)
- 366 Xie, S. P., Liu, W. T., Liu, Q., & Nonaka, M. (2001). Far-Reaching effects of the Hawaiian  
367 islands on the Pacific Ocean-Atmosphere system. *Science*, 292(5524), 2057–2060.  
368 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1059781>
- 369