

Answers to the Editors Comments:

We would like to thank the editor for taking the time to go through our paper again. Below the comments from the referees and editor are italicized and the location of the comment bolded, while the authors response is written in plain text.

Abstract, Page 2, line 31:

“As the two long lived isotopes of the Radium Quartet”. Both isotopes (226-Ra and 228-Ra) are not the longest lived.

Although ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra are both the two most long lived Ra isotopes within the Quartet and the two most long lived Ra isotopes, we do understand the editors confusion and to clarify for the reader, the sentence was changed to “As the two long-lived isotopes of the Radium Quartet, ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra (^{226}Ra , $t_{1/2}=1600\text{y}$ and ^{228}Ra , $t_{1/2}=5.8\text{y}$) can provide insight into the water mass compositions, distribution patterns, as well as mixing processes and the associated timescales throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA). ”

Abstract, Page 2 line 49.

Which “radioactive isotopes” authors’ are referring to? Reference can be made on to Radium isotopes as used in this study. Or else, authors’ can prefer to write “radioactive tracers”.

Yes, we were addressing to the Radium isotopes in addition to the oxygen isotope used throughout the study. The aim of this more elusive language was to connection to the GEOTRACES tracer initiative; thus, the latter was chosen, replacing radioactive isotopes with “radioactive tracers”.

Table 2:

It appears that the authors have not honoured their own corrections made in Manuscript Version 2. The activities of 226-Ra and 228-Ra are again given to 2nd and 3rd decimal units.

We appreciate this being noticed; one decimal place has now been used throughout.

Figure Captions 5 & 6:

Are the intercept values given as 2680.9 and 3282.2 (Fig 5) realistic? The significance of the number is equally important in addition to regression analysis. Likewise, the value of the slope given -0.485x (Fig. 6) cannot be justified considering analytical uncertainties associated with the measured 228-Ra activity (dpm/100L).

To account for each values significance, the standard error was calculated for each regression. For Figure 5 in the DIC by S relationship yielded, $\text{DIC}=(53.4\pm2.75)*S_p+371.4\pm88.8$ ($R^2 = 0.862$). Where similarly for the surface samples in Figure 5 Normalized DIC by Salinity, $\text{DIC}_{\text{norm}}=-(19.7\pm3.92)*S_p+2680\pm120$ ($R^2=0.533$) and at depth; $\text{DIC}_{\text{norm}}=(-34.2\pm3.47)*S_p+3282\pm117$ ($R^2=0.765$). The same was then done for Figure 6, where the shallow samples with $f(x) = -2.47x + 86.4$ ($R^2 = 0.284$) was rewritten to accommodate the error as $f(x) = (-2.47\pm 0.784)x + 86.4\pm23.6$ ($R^2 = 0.284$). And again, the deeper samples yielding, $f(x) = (-0.485\pm0.312)x + 21.1\pm10.5$ ($R^2 = 0.072$).

Furthermore, in text this was rewritten as:

“Figure 5: Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) (a) and salinity-normalized Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC_{norm}) (b) were plotted against salinity (S_p), with colours indicating depth (m) (a, b) and longitude (c).

The DIC vs. S_p regression yields $DIC = (53.4 \pm 2.76) * S_p + 371 \pm 88.8$ ($R^2 = 0.8621$). The DIC_{norm} vs. S_p plots were fitted with a piecewise regression analysis representing the surface, $DIC_{norm} = (-19.7 \pm 3.92) * S_p + 2680.9 \pm 120$ ($R^2 = 0.533$) and at depth; $DIC_{norm} = (-34.2 \pm 3.47) * S_p + 3282 \pm 117$ ($R^2 = 0.765$). In plots b & c CB4 was excluded from the piecewise regression (represented by unfilled, crossed out grey circles), whereas stations 312 and 314 surface samples were excluded entirely. The black diamonds identify the average Atlantic deep-water samples from stations CAA1, CAA2 and CAA3.

Figure 6: ^{228}Ra (dpm/100L) plotted against practical salinity with colour indicating depth (a) and longitude (b) fitted with a piecewise regression excluding the deep stations of the Canada Basin (grey circles) and yielding $^{228}\text{Ra} = (-2.47 \pm 0.784) * S_p + 86.4 \pm 23.6$ ($R^2 = 0.284$) for the surface trend (0-80m) and $^{228}\text{Ra} = (-0.485 \pm 0.312) * S_p + 21.1 \pm 10.5$ ($R^2 = 0.072$) for the deep trend ($>80\text{m}$). The average of Atlantic deep waters sampled from stations CAA1, CAA2 and CAA3 is defined by a black diamond.”

Interactive Comments from Referee 3 (Amber Annett): the text has not been adequately revised to respond to these comments.

General Comment: “*My additional comments are that the presentation of some results could be improved to make the interpretations more immediately visible from the figures (specified below) and that providing some additional quantitative details in the implications section could enhance the impact of this manuscript.*

Specific Comment, Line 531: “*This section feels a bit unsupported; some quantification effort would deliver meaningful context for using these findings as a tool to probe impacts or vulnerability to climate change, and increase the impact of the manuscript.*

We agree with the reviewer, it was brought to our attention that the link to climate change was unsupported throughout the paper as climate change was only mentioned in the introduction and conclusion. Thus, referencing to climate change had been removed from both these sections. Changing the last sentence in the originally submitted document to “Furthermore, this study provides an additional tool to better understand and characterize water mass distributions, flow patterns, mixing and their respective time scales in challenging sampling areas such as the Arctic.” in our last submission.

Some suggestions: based on ^{228}Ra decay, what is the minimum time scale of the eastward transport of water between CAA1 and CAA6? This must make some assumptions (rg. No additional inputs) but would provide a minimum time scale; is it rapid or slow?

We appreciate the reviewer’s suggestion, this was an interest of the authors early on in the data analysis as well, although the timescale of water flow throughout the CAA is much faster than that of the decay of ^{228}Ra . Thus, looking at the transport time between stations using the ^{228}Ra does not allow us to shed light on the timescale of water flow accurately. As we describe in section III.III.I.II, transport speeds are on the order to 2cm-15cm/s, which would equal to a transport time of a few weeks between CAA and

CAA7, which cannot be resolved with ^{228}Ra given the half live of 5.8y. Rather, as we show the ^{228}Ra reveals the different sources of he watrer, which are much further away and can be resolved.

What are the temperature differences between east and westward flowing waters? Where will increased heat be delivered -pumped into LS or out into Baffin Bay?

To better understand distinct differences in the westward intruding waters into the CAA and that of the bulk eastward transport an additional study should be done. Although overall trends in the Temperature can be seen within this data set (see Figure 2), a more in-depth extrapolation cannot be verified within this data set due to the lack of surface samples, in particular within the region of the westward flowing water mass. Furthermore, the authors feel that no further scientific understanding can be drawn distinguishing temperatures from this dataset and an additional investigation would need to be done to better understand these flow patterns.

Does any historical data support a strengthened or weakening of this U-turn route and what does/would that meant for transport of heat (or nutrients, or any other parameter).

We appreciate the reviewer question, to the authors knowledge, mention of the “U-turn” in the literature has primarily only included it’s positioning and distribution not the implications of such a flow. Again, the authors feel that this is an area for more research, measuring the westward intruding water more carefully.

Authors should address to some historical perspective in support of their results/findings as pointed out by the referee (strengthening/weakening of U-turn route and transport of heat/nutrienst). Overall, conclusion/implications section needs some quantitative information in regard to time scale of water transport and temperature difference between east and west flowing waters (As per Referees comment).

Given the design of the overall GEOTRACES study within the CAA, these detailed points, though appreciably relevant, can hardly be answered based on our data set, as sampling density appears insufficient to resolve any change from local/spatial variability at the time of sampling. Due to the large water volume (and thus wire-time) required for Ra and also other tracers, sampling density needed to be lower in return. We feel that the strength of the Ra as tracer lies in the identification of patterns as we show in our paper, while in depth-quantification of such patterns at times needs to be achieved using other means. Obviously, we were able to make such statements, however we do feel that you data are would be over-interpreted in doing so.

Using ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra isotopes to distinguish water mass distribution in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago

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Abstract:

As a shelf dominated basin, the Arctic Ocean and its biogeochemistry are heavily influenced by continental and riverine sources. Radium isotopes (^{226}Ra , ^{228}Ra , ^{224}Ra , ^{223}Ra), are transferred from the 30 sediments to seawater, making them ideal tracers of sediment-water exchange processes and ocean mixing. As the two longlongest-lived isotopes of the Radium Quartet, ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra (^{226}Ra , $t_{1/2}=1600\text{y}$ and ^{228}Ra , $t_{1/2}=5.8\text{y}$) can provide insight into the water mass compositions, distribution patterns, as well as mixing processes and the associated timescales throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA). The wide range of ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra activities, as well as of the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ ratios, measured in water 35 samples collected during the 2015 GEOTRACES cruise, complemented by additional chemical tracers (dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total alkalinity (AT), barium (Ba), and the stable oxygen isotope composition of water ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)), highlight the dominant biogeochemical, hydrographic and bathymetric features of the CAA. Bathymetric features, such as the continental shelf and shallow coastal sills, are critical in modulating circulation patterns within the CAA, including the bulk flow of Pacific waters 40 and the inhibited eastward flow of denser Atlantic waters through the CAA. Using a Principal Component Analysis, we unravel the dominant mechanisms and apparent water mass end-members that shape the tracer distributions. We identify two distinct water masses located above and below the upper halocline layer throughout the CAA, as well as distinctly differentiate surface waters in the eastern and western CAA. Furthermore, we highlight water exchange across 80°W , inferring a draw of Atlantic 45 water, originating from Baffin Bay, into the CAA. This underscores the presence of an Atlantic water U-turn located at Barrow Strait, where the same water mass is seen along the northernmost edge at 80°W as well as along the south-eastern most confines of Lancaster Sound. Overall, this study provides a stepping stone for future research initiatives within the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, revealing how quantifying disparities in the distributions of radioactive tracers-radioactive isotopes can provide

50 valuable information on water mass distributions, flow patterns and mixing, within vulnerable areas
such as the CAA.

I: Introduction

I.I. General Background

55 Over the past 30 years, major research initiatives have been undertaken within the Arctic, highlighting this region's global importance and vulnerability to climate change (Prinsenberg and Bennett, 1987; Shadwick et al., 2013). One of the primary causes of this vulnerability is a modification of the regional hydrographic regime, characterized by cool, CO₂-charged (less alkaline) Pacific waters, that enter the Arctic Ocean via the Bering Strait, flowing along the southern parts of the Canadian
60 Arctic Archipelago (CAA) and being dispersed into Baffin Bay. Previous studies have shown that these eastward flowing waters contribute significantly to carbon sequestration as well as instigate deep-water formation in the North Atlantic (e.g., Aagaard and Carmack, 1989; Burt et al., 2016a; Curry et al., 2011; Hamilton and Wu, 2013; Holland et al., 2001; Ingram and Prinsenberg, 1998; Rahmstorf, 2002; Shadwick et al., 2011a).

65 Although the various water masses delivered to Baffin Bay play a role in establishing and maintaining the global thermohaline circulation, little is known about the distribution, composition, and modes of delivery of water through the Canadian Archipelago. This study contributes to the knowledge base of circulation patterns in the CAA by using the radioactive radium isotopes ²²⁸Ra and ²²⁶Ra as well as dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), total alkalinity (AT), barium (Ba), and the stable oxygen isotope
70 composition of water ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) as tracers of water mass distribution, mixing, and composition throughout the region. Moreover, we hope that this study will provide a foundation for further investigations of how changes in environmental conditions within this vulnerable area will affect the distribution of these tracers, as well as biogeochemical cycles and circulation in the CAA.

75 I.II. Oceanographic Setting

Approximately 30-50% of the Arctic Ocean surface area (totaling to $9.5 \times 10^6 \text{ km}^2$) is dominated by polar continental shelves (Coachman and Aagaard, 1974; Jakobsson, 2002; Rutgers van der Loeff et al., 1995; Shadwick et al., 2011b; Walsh, 1991; Xing et al., 2003). The CAA, a region of branching channels and straits that extends from approximately 120°W to 80°W is located in this shelf-dominated region (Fig. 1). Spanning only 65km across at its widest, this narrow, polar network provides a critical connection between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans and facilitates the export of approximately one third of the Arctic Ocean's outflowing water (Coachman and Aagaard, 1974; Hamilton et al., 2013; Hamilton and Wu, 2013).

Previous research has recognized the partitioning of the water column in the CAA into three salinity-defined water masses, the deepest and most saline being the Atlantic Layer (ATL, $S_p > 33.1$), followed by the Pacific Upper Halocline Layer (UHL; $31 < S_p < 33.1$), and finally the least saline and uppermost being the Polar Mixed Layer (PML; $S_p < 31$) (e.g., Aagaard et al., 1981; Aagaard and Carmack, 1994; Bauch et al., 1995; Mathis et al., 2005; Shadwick et al., 2011a). All three water masses have been identified at both the eastern and western boundaries of the CAA whereas only the upper two layers (PML and UHL) are found throughout. The presence of a 200 m shoal at Barrow Strait (Fig. 1), that bridges the western and eastern regions, prevents the Deep ATL water mass from flowing eastward through the CAA (Jones, 2003; Macdonald et al., 1987; Newton and Coachman, 1974). As a result, the bulk eastward transport is composed of the cool, CO_2 -charged (less alkaline) Pacific and fresh surface waters that flow from the Canada Basin to Baffin Bay through the CAA (Hamilton and Wu, 2013; Prinsenberg et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2012; Xing et al., 2003).

In addition to the bulk eastward transport through the CAA, the northern regions of the CAA host an occasional westward flowing counter-current during late summer (Peterson et al., 2012; Prinsenberg &

Bennett, 1987; Prinsenberg et al., 2009; Rudels, 1985). This suggests that there may be the intrusion of Atlantic waters originating from Baffin Bay, moving into the CAA along the northern edge from the 100 east, and possibly creating a “U-turn” as the westward current reroutes back into Baffin Bay along the southern edge. The importance of this “U-turn” will be discussed later in the results section.

I.III. Some considerations about the two long-lived Radium Isotopes

^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra are the two longer-lived isotopes of the Radium Quartet (^{226}Ra , $t_{1/2}=1600$ y and ^{228}Ra , 105 $t_{1/2}=5.8$ y) and are often present at readily detectable activities that are largely unperturbed by biological activity in seawater. ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra are thus often considered as conservative radioactive tracers (Charette et al., 2015a, 2016; International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), 2010; Moore et al., 1980).

Both long-lived Ra isotopes are formed from the decay of different Thorium (Th) isotopes (^{226}Ra is the daughter of ^{230}Th , whereas ^{228}Ra is the daughter of ^{232}Th) in terrestrial soils and marine sediments.

110 Subsequently, they are distributed to the ocean through riverine inputs, porewater advection, and diffusion across the sediment-water interface (Charette et al., 2015a). Since ^{228}Ra is more rapidly regenerated within sediments and its half-life is relatively short in comparison to ^{226}Ra , its activity in coastal and continental shelf regions decreases rapidly away from the source towards the open ocean.

115 Thus, ^{228}Ra tracks the sediment-ocean or shelf-ocean transition (van Beek et al., 2007; Burt et al., 2016b; Kadko and Muench, 2005; Kawakami and Kusakabe, 2008; Moore et al., 1980, 2008; Rutgers van der Loeff et al., 1995). For the purpose of this study, we assume that ^{228}Ra has no pelagic source.

120 As ^{226}Ra is released from the sediment and disperses into the water column through advective and diffusive mixing (Charette et al., 2015a; International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), 2010; Rutgers van der Loeff and Moore, 1999), its longer half-life allows it to be distributed over great distances, often decaying within the oceanic water column (Charette et al., 2015a; International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA), 1988). A slight enrichment in Pacific Ocean deep waters, relative to deep waters of the

Atlantic Ocean is primarily attributed to ^{226}Ra uptake in the co-precipitation of barite (BaSO_4) or its uptake by biological silicate or calcium tests (van Beek et al., 2007; Charette et al., 2015b; Moore and Dymond, 1991). With this exception, ^{226}Ra displays a “nearly” conservative distribution in the oceans, 125 thus facilitating its use as a long-term pelagic-based tracer of water masses and of shelf inputs (Broecker et al., 1967; Charette et al., 2015a; Chung, 1980). These characteristics allow the two long-lived Ra isotopes to be used as radioactive geochemical tracers to distinguish water mass sources and their distribution patterns within the CAA.

130 **II. Methods**

II.I. Sample Collection

During the summer of 2015 Canadian GEOTRACES cruise, 64 water samples were collected throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago aboard the icebreaker CCGS Amundsen at 17 different stations as a subset of the overall biogeochemical sampling (Fig. 1). Samples for dissolved inorganic 135 carbon (DIC), total alkalinity (AT), barium (Ba), the stable oxygen isotope composition of water ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$), and Ra isotopes were collected at various depths from the surface to 1000m on the up-cast of a rosette system equipped with (24) 12-L Niskin bottles. Surface samples (2-12m) for Ra were collected using an onboard pump collecting ship-side. In addition, temperature and salinity (S_p) measurements were recorded on the downcast by a Sea-Bird SBE 9 (Seasave V 7.23.2) CTD. The CTD salinity-probe 140 measurements were calibrated post-cruise using a Guidline salinometer in the home laboratory against discrete samples taken directly from the Niskin bottles into 250 mL screw-cap HDPE bottles. DIC and AT samples were collected directly from the Niskin bottles into 250mL or 500mL borosilicate glass bottles to which 100 μL of a saturated HgCl_2 solution was added before being sealed with ground-glass stoppers, Apiezon® Type-M grease and elastic closures (Burt et al., 2016a). The bottles were then 145 stored in the dark at room temperature or 4°C until they could be processed on board. A VINDTA 3C

(Versatile Instrument for the Determination of Titration Alkalinity, Marianda) was used to analyze the DIC samples by coulometric titrations, and the AT by potentiometric titrations (Shadwick et al., 2011a). A calibration of the instrument was performed against certified reference materials (CRM) provided by Andrew Dickson (Scripps Institution of Oceanography) and the reproducibility of the DIC and AT 150 measurements was better than 0.1%.

Each Ra sample (105-215L) was sequentially pre-filtered through 10 μ m and 1 μ m filters, either directly using the ship's pump, or a high-volume pump connected to the Niskin bottles. The Ra isotopes were then pre-concentrated by elution through manganese dioxide (MnO₂)-coated acrylic fiber cartridges at a constant flow rate of 1 L min⁻¹ (Charette et al., 2001; Moore and Reid, 1973; Rutgers van 155 der Loeff and Moore, 1999). To verify the extraction efficiency of the MnO₂ fiber cartridge, a second fiber-filter was occasionally mounted in series. ²²⁴Ra was then determined using a Radium Delayed Coincidence Counter (RaDeCC) (Moore, 2008) that had been calibrated against an IAEA (International 160 Atomic Energy Agency) distributed reference material. The detection limit was estimated to 3 atoms L⁻¹ (0.05dpm 100L⁻¹) for ²²⁴Ra (see for details Moore, 2008; Moore and Arnold, 1996). No ²²⁴Ra activity could be detected in any of the second cartridges mounted in series, confirming 100% extraction efficiency. The Mn-fibers were then shipped to the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution to be ashed at 820°C for 16h, homogenized and transferred to counting vials (Charette et al., 2001). Well-type gamma spectrometers (Canberra and Ortec high purity germanium) were used to quantify ²²⁶Ra (via ²¹⁴Pb @ 352 keV) and ²²⁸Ra (via ²²⁸Ac @ 338 and 911 keV) (International Atomic Energy Agency 165 (IAEA), 2010). Each detector was calibrated with Mn-fiber ash spiked with NIST-certified reference material #4967A (²²⁶Ra) or a gravimetrically-prepared Th(NO₃)₄ solution with the ²²⁸Ra daughter in secular equilibrium with its parent ²³²Th. Detection limits, determined using the Currie Hypothesis test (De Geer, 2004), were determined to be 0.2 dpm for both ²²⁶Ra and ²²⁸Ra (Gonneea et al., 2013), which is equivalent to ~0.15 dpm 100L⁻¹ for a typical 130 L sample.

170 Barium (Ba) concentrations were determined in water transferred directly from the Niskin bottles to
30mL HDPE plastic bottles containing 15 μ L of concentrated ultrapure hydrochloric acid (Thomas et
al., 2011). Each subsample was then analyzed by Isotope Dilution using Sector Field Inductively
Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (SF-ICP-MS, Element 2, Thermo Finnigan) in Brussels. The
instrument was run in the low mass resolution mode $m/\Delta m = 300$. Limit of detection and limit of
175 quantification based on blank analyses were: 0.06 and 0.20 nM, respectively (LOD = 3 X s.d. blank;
LOQ = 10 X s.d. blank). Reproducibility of multiple measurements of reference materials (SLRS5;
SLRS3; OMP) was $\leq 2.5\%$. Details of the instrument's operational conditions are given by Thomas et
al. (2011). The barite saturation state (Q_i) is the ratio of the aqueous barium and sulfate ion activity
product ($Q_{(BaSO_4, aq)}$) to the barite solubility product (K_{sp}):

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$$Saturation\ State\ BaSO_4(Q_i) = \frac{Q_{BaSO_4 aq}}{K_{sp(Barite)}} \quad (eq.\ 1)$$

As described in greater detail by Thomas et al. (2011), Q_i was computed according to Monnin (1999)
and Hoppema et al. (2010).

185 Samples destined for measurements of the stable oxygen isotope composition of seawater ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$)
were taken directly from the Niskin bottles into 13mL screw-cap plastic test tubes (Lansard et al.,
2012). The samples were analyzed at the GEOTOP-UQAM stable isotope laboratory using the CO_2
equilibrium method of Epstein and Mayeda (1953) on a Micromass Isoprime universal triple collector
isotope ratio mass spectrometer in dual inlet mode (Mucci et al., 2018) at the GEOTOP-UQAM Light
190 Stable Isotope Geochemistry Laboratory. The data were normalized against three internal reference
waters, themselves calibrated against Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (V-SMOW) and Vienna
Standard Light Arctic Precipitation (V-SLAP). Data are reported on the δ -scale in ‰ with respect to V-
SMOW, and the average relative standard deviation on replicate measurements is better than 0.05‰.

II.II. Principal Component Analysis

Principal Component Analyses (PCA) were performed to quantitatively determine the correlation between variables as well as the affinity between each of the samples to arbitrary components, while reducing the effects of random variation by using a correlation matrix (Gunasekaran and Kasirajan, 2017; Jolliffe and Cadima, 2016; Pearson, 1901; Peres-Neto et al., 2003). In this study, associated or 200 derived variables such as the radium isotopic ratios were excluded from the PCA due to the congruency with other incorporated variables. Prior to statistical analysis, the variables from each station and depth were transformed to fit a near-normal distribution and normalized to satisfy the parameters of the analysis. Interpolations of the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Ba data were made with respect to salinity, as samples were not collected at every depth at each station. The interpolations were verified relative to the original data by 205 means of linear regression and comparison of slopes. Only three surface data samples were interpolated for Ba samples, all from within Baffin Bay. After interpolation and normalization, each sample was categorized by depth: Surface, Middle Depth, Deep Archipelago, or Deep Atlantic, ranging from 0-20m, 21-80m, 81-500m and >500m, respectively.

In addition, quantitative analyses of the PCA results were conducted by a broken stick analysis as a 210 means to distinguish the loading significance of each variable. To this end, eigenvectors were scaled to V-vectors (product of eigenvector multiplied by the square root of the specific eigenvalue) and V² vectors (V-vectors²) (Jackson, 2004; Peres-Neto et al., 2003). End-members were calculated for each of the variables significantly loading on PC1 from the derived partial values (eigenvector for associated 215 variable multiplied by the PC score for that sample). Each partial value was then de-normalized and back-transformed, thus deriving a refined rendition of the original data set (Appendix 1). Lastly, linear regressions of each variable against the practical salinity were plotted to express robust end-member relationships from within the previously categorized salinity-defined water masses present throughout

the CAA. We report the respective end-members as “apparent end-members”, as they resemble the mean end-member properties in the CAA. For example, an apparent freshwater end-member at null practical salinity ($S_p=0$) would be composed of various individual river and meteoric water end-members, in consideration of their relative weights in this composite. As ^{228}Ra originates from shelf sediments, which in our study are primarily located in waters at the lower salinity ($S_p \approx 25$) range of the CAA, the ^{228}Ra end-member was derived from the linear regression to $S_p = 25$ (eg. Rutgers van der Loeff et al., 2003).

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III. Results and Discussion

III.I. Water Mass Properties

Surface values of S_p , density, DIC, AT, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were found to increase from west to east through the CAA (Figs. 1, 2a, c, d, f, g, Appendix 2). This trend was extended to the temperature profiles taken 230 throughout the CAA, with the exception of station CAA5, which was found to closely resemble the temperature profile of CAA3 (Fig. 2b, Appendix 2). Prinsenberg and Bennett (1987) reported similar trends employing samples collected in 1982 across Barrow Strait, a sill less than 200m deep located roughly between 105°W to 90°W , where analogous transects for salinity and temperature were recorded throughout the surface layer (Fig. 1). This is both the widest and shallowest section of the 235 CAA. It is responsible for restricting the eastward flow of Deep ATL waters found in the Western Canada Basin and inhibiting high salinity ($S_p > 33.1$) ATL water within Baffin Bay from venturing westward (Hamilton and Wu, 2013; Jones, 2003; Prinsenberg, 1982; Prinsenberg and Bennett, 1987; Shadwick et al., 2011a; Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2010).

In contrast, dissolved Ba, ^{226}Ra , and ^{228}Ra decreased eastward both at the surface as well 240 as at the mid-depth maximum. This is assumed to reflect the elevated flow rates, increasing distance from their source within the CAA, and proximity to the Ba- and ^{228}Ra -depleted ATL waters in Baffin

Bay (Figs. 2e, 3, Appendix 2 and 3) (Thomas et al., 2011). Most often, the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ ratio decreases with depth (Fig. 3c), but occasionally follows a more complex spatial pattern, which will be discussed later.

245 Positive relationships between DIC and AT vs. S_p (Figs. 4 and 5a for regression intercepts and error) indicate the importance of freshwater inputs from sea-ice melt (SIM) and Meteoric Water (MW, surface runoff and direct precipitation). These freshwater additions contribute to low AT and DIC found in the surface PML waters of the stations west of 96.5°W (Figs. 1, 2, 4, 5c). The highest DIC concentrations were observed at the pycnocline of the western most station (CB4) (Fig. 2, 4, 5a, and Appendix 2). This 250 maximum in metabolic (respiratory) DIC decreased slightly eastward due to the increasing contribution of low-DIC ATL waters (Fig. 5a) (Shadwick et al., 2011a). AT, lacking the metabolic maximum witnessed within the DIC samples, increased linearly with depth and eastward (Figs. 2d, g, 4). This is explained by the concomitant increase in AT and S_p values, rather than a decrease associated with metabolic activity, thus distinguishing AT from DIC (Burt et al., 2016a; Shadwick et al., 2011a; 255 Thomas et al., 2011).

Despite the intrusion of deep Atlantic Ocean waters throughout the CAA (Jones, 2003; Newton and Coachman, 1974), CB4 (in the Canada Basin) displays different ATL, UHL and PML water mass characteristics than those observed at stations within the CAA (Appendix 2 and 3). Hence, for the remainder of this study, we will omit data from CB4 in our discussion of the circulation in the CAA, 260 although we will return to the role and positioning of CB4 in relation to the CAA waters later, particularly in relation to the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ ratio.

In order to identify water mass distributions and mixing regimes within the CAA, DIC was normalized to a constant salinity (DIC_{norm}) (eq. 2). This approach accounts for the influence of fresh water inputs, thereby highlighting possible non-conservative behaviour related to biological processes 265 at the time scale of mixing (Friis et al., 2003; Shadwick et al., 2011b).

$$DIC_{norm} = ((DIC_{measured} - DIC_{S=0}) * S_{measured}^{-1}) * S_{reference} + DIC_{S=0} \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

270 DIC_{norm} decreases eastward in surface waters along the eastward bulk flow throughout the CAA, consistent with observations that surface DIC values were lowest in the western samples (Figs. 1, 2g, h, 5b, c). The reversal in trend reflects the decrease in accumulated respiratory DIC as waters flow eastward through the CAA. The presence of two distinct water masses was highlighted by the DIC_{norm}-
275 S_p relationship, distinguishing the surface (PML) from subsurface samples (Figs. 1 and 5c), within each of which mixing processes control the DIC_{norm} distribution. The two water masses themselves, however, hardly mix. A similar water mass grouping has been proposed, based on Ba distributions in waters above and below the UHL (Figs. 2, 5b, c) (Shadwick et al., 2011a; Thomas et al., 2011).

III.II. The use of Radium Isotopes as Water Mass Tracers

280 Radium isotopes, specifically ²²⁶Ra, ²²⁸Ra and their ratio (²²⁸Ra/²²⁶Ra), were used as proxies to reconstruct the water mass distribution throughout the CAA. Like the chemical constituents DIC, AT, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Ba, as well as the stable oxygen isotopic composition of waters, Ra isotope activity and ratios were found to vary between stations, with depth, as well as across water masses (Appendix 3). The highest ²²⁸Ra activities were observed at the surface, particularly at the shallow stations 312 and 314, located in the center of the CAA, indicating the ²²⁸Ra source in coastal sediments (Figs. 1, 6). Lower 285 ²²⁸Ra activities were found at higher salinities and depths, comparable to values reported by Burt et al. (2016b) in the North Sea, where elevated ²²⁸Ra activities were present within the shallow, lower salinity waters. Like the DIC_{norm}- S_p relationship, the ²²⁸Ra- S_p relationship (Figs. 5b, c, 6) reveals two distinct water masses that distinguish the surface (PML) from subsurface waters. For the surface sample grouping, a negative slope (²²⁸Ra-S_p) was obtained (slope= -2.5x467x), whereas for the deeper samples

290 | a less negative slope was found (slope= -0.5x~~4854x~~). The more negative slope, associated with the surface samples collected throughout the CAA, indicates that the system is heavily influenced by the influx of ^{228}Ra from the CAA shelf sediments (Fig. 6). In contrast, the slope derived from the ^{228}Ra activities recorded in the deeper waters of the CAA may imply that these samples originate from an open ocean setting, with minimal (or much less) contact with continental shelf or coastline sediments
295 over the past few decades. As noted earlier (Figs. 3, 6b), the ^{228}Ra activities decrease from west to east through the CAA in both the surface and deep samples. These values are interpreted as reflecting the mixing of Pacific waters with Atlantic (Baffin Bay) waters east of Barrow Strait. We provide a more detailed analysis of the ^{228}Ra activity distribution pattern below (section III.III.I.II).

300 III.III. Characterizing Water Masses and Isolating End-Members through Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

Further investigation of the dominant water mass patterns was undertaken through Principal Component Analyses (PCA). The first and second principal components (PCs) accounted for 59.1% and 17.5% (total 76.6%), respectively, of the variability in the data (Fig. 7, Table 1). The third PC
305 accounted for a further 13.2% of the variability (89.8% in total). The fourth and fifth PCs together accounted for less than 10% of the variability and were not included in subsequent analyses. PC1, in turn, was inverted to establish apparent end-members of the source waters found in the CAA (section III.III.II.I, see methods II.II).

310 III.III.I Qualitative Analysis of PCA

III.III.I.I Surface Water Mass Distinction

The first PC (PC1) loaded very heavily on salinity, AT, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, accounting for 94–97% of the variability in each (see Table 1). It also loaded heavily on DIC and ^{228}Ra (67% and 66% of variability)

and less heavily on Ba (37%). The latter five parameters were all inversely correlated with salinity (Fig. 315 7). The second PC (PC2) loaded heavily on temperature (83% of variability) and relatively weakly on DIC (a further 22% of variability for a total of 89% between PC1 and PC2) and Ba (34%, for a total of 71% between PC1 and PC2). There is a correlation between temperature and DIC (Fig. 7), so the 320 component of DIC accounted for by PC2 cannot be ascribed to temperature-dependent solubility. The third PC (PC3), which only accounted for 13.2% of the variability in the data, loaded on ^{226}Ra (74% of its variability) and was the only PC that did so.

The ordination of samples on PC1 and PC2 shows a strong separation between surface and mid-depth samples vs. deep samples (Fig. 7), reflecting the consistent differences in their parameter values (Figs. 2-6). Variability within surface and subsurface layers was examined by re-running the analysis, using only these data, to minimize the influence by the systematically-different deep-water data on their 325 ordination. The restricted analysis retained most of the parameter relationships observed in the full PCA (Fig. 7, 8). The first PC explained slightly more of the variability (63.5% vs. 59.15%), while the second PC explained slightly less (14.7% vs. 17.5%), for a total of 77.2% vs. 76.7%. There was strong loading of salinity, AT, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, DIC and ^{228}Ra on PC1, with the latter four being inversely correlated with salinity. In contrast, temperature was strongly correlated with salinity rather than orthogonal to it and 330 Ba was strongly loaded on PC2.

The re-ordination of the surface and mid-depth data indicates a strong geographic separation of the samples on PC1 (Fig. 8), which is also evidenced by temperature-salinity and $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ -DIC plots (Fig. 9). The first surface group comprises samples from the eastern edge of the CAA, under the influence of Atlantic waters, which enter the CAA via Baffin Bay and Lancaster Sound. The second 335 group comprises the PML-influenced surface samples from the two southern interior CAA stations (312 and 314) and the northwestern CAA stations (CAA4-CAA7), and the mid-water samples (also from stations 312 and 314). It is worth noting that the outer-most surface west samples, likely best

visible in the bottom left quadrant of Fig. 9b, came from station CB4. This attribution will be explained later with reference to the apparent end-member properties.

340

III.III.I.II Distinction of Deep-Water Masses and Indication of Flow

The ordination in the initial PCA is analogous to a T-S diagram, given that PC1 loads on salinity and its covariates and PC2 loads most heavily on temperature. There are very strong similarities between deep-water samples collected in Baffin Bay (Fig. 7; Deep ATL). The deep-water samples within the CAA are ordinated along a gradient between the Deep ATL samples and an end-member that would have negative factor loadings on PC1 and PC2. This would likely be Pacific water. The two deep samples from the westernmost station, CB4, are anomalous (Fig. 7). Their ordination suggests that they are an end-member for the Deep ATL water, likely Deep ATL waters that flow west past Svalbard, before crossing the Lomonosov Ridge and accumulating in the Canada Basin (Coachman and Barnes, 1963; Newton and Coachman, 1974).

Paradoxically, samples collected at Station CAA3 are found at both ends of this trend, having both the highest and lowest similarity to samples collected in the Deep ATL from within the CAA. The three deep-water samples collected at CAA5 are intermediate between the Deep ATL and deep CAA3 waters. The very strong similarity between the deep-water samples collected at CAA3 and those from Baffin Bay indicate that they are ATL water that recirculated counter-clockwise around Baffin Bay, combined with Arctic outflow through Nares Strait (Bâcle et al., 2002; Curry et al., 2011; Lobb et al., 2003). A third PCA was performed excluding the alkalinity (that clearly expresses the bulk eastward flow), to visualize the transition of Deep ATL water as it mixes with the UHL in the CAA (Fig. 10). Results of this analysis reveal that the Deep Arch water mass at stations CAA1, CAA3 and CAA5 are more closely linked to the Deep ATL group, implying that they are in fact part of the Deep ATL water mass (Fig. 10). This suggests that there is an intrusion of ATL water along the northern edge of the CAA.

This westward flow with a speed of 2.2 cm/s was observed by Prinsenberg and colleagues (2009) and is weaker than the dominant eastward current flow (15.3 cm/s). This mild inflow of water along the northern edge of the Archipelago is then assumed to be redirected and exits back to Baffin Bay through 365 the southern Archipelago station (CAA3).

There is further support from observations of dissolved Ba and the barite saturation states (Q_i) along the north-to-south transect across the eastern Lancaster Sound (CAA1, CAA2, 323, 324, CAA3) (Fig. 11a, b). An increase in Ba and Q_i was observed from north to south at the surface as well as at depth. Lower Ba concentrations and barite saturation states have been observed in Baffin Bay waters, which 370 are fed by the West Greenland Current. In contrast, the continentally-impacted waters of the CAA are characterized by significantly higher values for the two Ba properties, such that the origin of the waters from the Atlantic and the CAA can clearly be discriminated (Thomas et al., 2011). Furthermore, substantially lower values of the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ ratio at depth (Fig. 11c) indicate the inflow of Atlantic water on the northern side of Lancaster Sound as well as its outflow along its southern side.

375 Compatibly, the pattern is again revealed by the $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ (Fig. 11d), which is dominated by the ^{226}Ra variability (Fig 13b_c). The lowest $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ value reflects the inflow of low ^{226}Ra waters from the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 11d), as the observed ^{226}Ra activities (8-9 dpm 100L^{-1} , Fig. 3a) are in the same range as those measured in the surface waters of the Atlantic Ocean (Le Roy et al., 2018), part of which feed into the West Greenland Current. Since ^{226}Ra activities reveal a much larger north-to-south 380 gradient across Lancaster Sound than Ba does (Figs. 2e, 3a), the discrepancy in the gradients shown in Figs. 11c and 11d is dominated by changes in ^{226}Ra . The waters transiting through the CAA and exiting on its southern side are enriched with both ^{228}Ra and ^{226}Ra as they interact with the shallow sediments. The differential half-lives of the two isotopes generate the gradient in the ratio (Figs. 11c, 12) generally revealing higher ^{228}Ra fractions the more recent the contact of that particular water mass with shelf 385 sediments. The Ba and Ra data are consistent in revealing the bi-directional flow that links the northern

and southern stations along 80°W. This can be attributed to the counter-clockwise, cyclonic circulation found throughout Baffin Bay (Figs. 11, 13, and 14).

A closer look at the ^{226}Ra -Ba relationship reveals the association between water masses observed in the CAA and those of the surrounding oceans, in particular the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 13). ^{226}Ra and Ba

390 appear to vary without an apparent clear relationship. The highest surface values of the $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ are observed in the interior of the CAA, whereas the lowest are found in the Canada Basin and the eastern side of the CAA (Fig. 13d). The direct relationship between ^{226}Ra activities and Ba concentrations shows that the Arctic samples with a $S_p > 34$, i.e., waters of Atlantic origin, fall along the relationship

395 established by Le Roy et al. (2018) for the Atlantic, or reported by van Beek et al. (2007) for the Sargasso Sea (Fig. 13a). This relationship, in turn, is similar to the one for the world ocean established from the GEOSECS data-base (Le Roy et al., 2018). This implies that the deep Lancaster Sound

samples, as well as the deep Canada Basin samples, can similarly be linked to an Atlantic origin. The remaining CAA samples, with a $S_p < 34$ display a clear deviation from this relationship and towards higher Ba values (Fig. 13b), which can be attributed to the high Ba runoff from rivers draining into the

400 CAA (Guay and Falkner, 1997a). The open-ocean $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ has been reported to be relatively constant at about 2.2-2.5 dpm (μmol^{-1}), with elevated values observed only near deep-ocean sediments (van

Beek et al., 2007; Le Roy et al., 2018). In contrast, the CAA data show a wider range of $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ values, which appear to be strongly controlled by the ^{226}Ra activity, rather than variability of the Ba concentration (Fig. 13b,c).

405 The $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ in water masses of Atlantic origin ($S_p > 34$) are offset toward higher ratios for a given ^{226}Ra activity, a consequence of the relatively higher Ba content of the water masses transiting through the CAA. The highest $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ surface values were observed in the interior of the CAA, whereas the lowest ones were measured in the Canada Basin and the eastern side of the CAA (Fig. 13d).

III.III.II.I. Principal Component One: Advection / Land-Ocean Transition

PC1 was found to correlate significantly with S_p , DIC, AT, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^{228}Ra and Ba, suggesting that this axis represents the land-ocean gradient, i.e., the advective (estuarine) mixing regime of fresh and salt water (Table 1, Fig. 7). This interpretation is consistent with our previous attribution of the 415 longitudinal, eastward increase in S_p , DIC, and AT of surface waters through the CAA to a decreasing coastal influence (Figs. 3, 4, 5).

Here, the ^{228}Ra activity has to be viewed from a somewhat different perspective, as the sedimentary/shelf sources also reside in the low salinity range of our samples ($S_p \sim 25\text{-}30$), but does not align with any riverine source (e.g., Rutgers van der Loeff et al., 2003, see below). Therefore, in 420 regards to the PC1 axis, ^{228}Ra relative to ^{226}Ra , represents the coastal, shelf to open ocean transition, decreasing in activity laterally as waters primarily follow the bulk eastward flow and are transported away from the sedimentary source within the CAA (Figs. 12, 13, see also Charette et al., 2016).

Accordingly, the fresher ^{228}Ra end-member was defined with $S_p = 25$.

The loading of PC1 on $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and Ba is also high, particularly for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$. These variables allow us to 425 discriminate between freshwater sources (MW vs. SIM) while also demonstrating a clear mixing gradient along the land-ocean transition (Guay et al., 2009; Macdonald et al., 1999; Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2010).

We exploit the relationships of salinity to the individual properties derived from PC1 in order to define the freshwater and marine (saline) end-members (Table 2). Again, these end-members should be 430 considered as “apparent”, as these represent observed mean end-member properties, and not end-member water masses, for example, end-members of individual rivers. “Apparent” end-members for each of the significant loading variables associated with PC1 were calculated (Table 2). It should be noted that ^{226}Ra was included in the PC1 analysis even though it primarily weighs on the PC3 axis

(73.8%), not the PC1 axis. This is because salinity is not a significant loading factor on the PC3 axis

435 (Table 1). Therefore, with the exception of PC3, ^{226}Ra most closely associates with the PC1 axis (18.6%), thus allowing for PC1 to be used to establish the ^{226}Ra “mixing” end-member (Table 1).

The computed “apparent” end-members sit along the mixing curve, many located “halfway” between the SIM and MW values reported in the literature (e.g., Cooper et al., 2005; Guay and Falkner, 1998; Macdonald et al., 1989; Shadwick et al., 2011a; Thomas et al., 2011). These “apparent”

440 freshwater end-members ($S_p=0$) thus reflect the combination of freshwater sources. Since both the MW and SIM are equally represented in the “apparent” DIC, AT and Ba end-members, it can be assumed that the freshwater end-member is located within the western portion of the CAA, as the freshwater contribution to the eastern ATL water mass is dominated by SIM, with little to no MW (Shadwick et al., 2011a, 2011b). The “apparent” end-member surface values for $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ were found to closely resemble

445 MW (rather than the larger SIM values), with MW being, in essence, the dominant source of freshwater (Table 2) (e.g., Thomas et al., 2011). The end-members associated with the UHL and ATL were also found to be very similar to those reported in the literature, especially AT, Ba, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Guay and Falkner, 1997a, 1997b; Lansard et al., 2012; Macdonald et al., 1989; Shadwick et al., 2011a; Thomas et al., 2011; Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2010). The “apparent” DIC end-members for these water masses do

450 not closely concur with literature values, nor do those produced here (Fig. 5a), as the DIC end-member associated with the UHL is expected to be larger than that of the ATL (e.g., Lansard et al., 2012; Shadwick et al., 2011a). We argue that this is due to the impact of biological processes, which cannot be resolved solely from mixing-conservative properties. These characteristics will be discussed within the context of PC2 in section III.III.II.II. Furthermore, this result may be due to the normalization

455 required for the PCA linearization of the Deep ATL and Arch samples, thus diminishing the characteristic DIC maximum at the pycnocline. Lastly, we propose apparent end-members for ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra in the CAA. The highest ^{228}Ra and ^{226}Ra activities were found in the fresh(er) sources attributed to

the surface samples collected in the western CAA (Fig. 6). The $S_p = 0$ end-member for ^{226}Ra (25.2 dpm 100L^{-1}) is consistent with the effective ^{226}Ra end-member for the Mackenzie River (26.1 dpm 100L^{-1} ; 460 Kipp et al., 2019), which contributes to the freshwater budget of the CAA. Smith et al. (2003) reported a Beaufort shelf end-member with a ^{228}Ra activity of 12 dpm 100L^{-1} at $S_p = 2$ and a $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ of ~ 1 . Therefore, with a shelf apparent end-member for ^{228}Ra of 22.4 dpm 100L^{-1} at $S_p = 25$ (Table 2) and a $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ of ~ 2 , the shelf sediment influence of ^{228}Ra in the CAA is conclusive.

Similar apparent end-member ^{226}Ra activities were observed within the open waters of the UHL and 465 ATL, while substantially lower ^{228}Ra activities were recorded in the ATL (Table 2). Rutgers van der Loeff et al. (2003) reported high-salinity ^{226}Ra end-members in a similar range ($\sim 6\text{-}9$ dpm 100L^{-1}) to the apparent ones reported here, whereas the apparent ^{228}Ra end-members obtained in our study are clearly lower than those reported by Rutgers van der Loeff et al. (2003, $\sim 3.2\text{-}15.4$ dpm 100L^{-1}). An obvious explanation for this discrepancy may be the circulation history of the respective water masses, as the 470 Atlantic end-member reaches the CAA much later than the Eurasian sector of the Arctic Ocean. Thus the longer circulation history of the ATL waters observed in the CAA allows for a substantial decay of ^{228}Ra compared to the ATL waters observed on the Eurasian side. Furthermore, the salinity of the samples reported in this study are higher than the samples measured by Rutgers van der Loeff et al. 475 (2003), implying the presence of a stronger ATL component in our samples. The differences between the high salinity apparent ^{226}Ra and ^{228}Ra end-members might reflect their vastly different half-lives, allowing for an appreciable decay of ^{228}Ra at oceanic transport timescales in contrast to the “nearly 480 conservative” ^{226}Ra . Coinciding with the previous result, higher variability in ^{228}Ra was seen throughout the water column, whereas ^{226}Ra activities varied only slightly. Overall, the identification of Ra end-members in the region highlights the Ra sources and transport pathways throughout this complex coastal/shelf environment.

We use the derived apparent end-member properties of ^{228}Ra and ^{226}Ra to gain further insight into the

distributions of the two isotopes and thus the flow pattern within the CAA. The $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ was computed as a function of salinity [from the apparent end-members](#) and compared to the relationship between the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (Fig. 12a, b). The apparent $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ over S_p mixing ratio appears as 485 if the ratio was only affected by conservative mixing of the two respective end-members (Table 2). When relating this ideal behaviour to the ratios observed in our study, three main groups of samples can be identified. A: the higher salinity ($S_p > 32$, $\delta^{18}\text{O} > \sim -3$) samples, that more or less fall together with the mixing relationship. B: the samples characterized by substantially higher $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ ($\sim 27 < S_p < 30$, $\sim 5 < \delta^{18}\text{O} < -3$), and C: the second group of low-salinity samples with $\sim S_p < 31$ ($\delta^{18}\text{O} < \sim -3$), characterized by 490 a substantially lower $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ isotopic ratio. The spatial distribution (Fig. 12c) of these sample groups unravels processes that shape the Ra distributions, that, at the first view, did not seem to fit into the broader scheme described in Fig. 9. Samples with higher $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ than the mixing ratios are located within the CAA, at stations 312 and 314, and at the downstream stations along the southern 495 coast of the Northwest Passage, which in turn are under the strong influence of shelf/sediment derived ^{228}Ra accumulation as they flow eastward. This water mass mixes on the southern side of Lancaster Sound with the water from Baffin Bay, yielding a flow pattern highlighted by the higher $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ in the CAA (Fig. 11c, 12c). The stations with lower Ra isotopic ratios than the mixing ratios are located on the northern part of the Lancaster Sound and connect to the Canada Basin via McClure Strait and 500 Parry Channel (Figs. 1, 12c). The waters at stations with lower Ra isotopic ratios mix with (inflowing) water from Baffin Bay along the northern side of Lancaster Sound (Fig. 11c). The overall lower $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ waters reflect the long-term isolation of CB4 waters from their margin source (e.g., Kipp et al., 2018) such that the ^{228}Ra activities are diminished noticeably by radioactive decay. Consistent with this finding is the clear separation between water of the northern and southern sides of Lancaster Sound, as discussed in Fig. 11. We integrate the observations and findings featured in Figs. 11-13 into a 505 revised scheme, shown in Fig. 14, to reveal the main flow pattern.

This analysis can further be exploited to highlight the release of ^{228}Ra from shallow shelf sediments to waters in the lower salinity range rather than from rivers. Both the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ - S_p and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ reveal a non-conservative addition of ^{228}Ra to waters in the salinity range of $25 < S_p < 30$ (Fig. 12). Furthermore, when considering $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, conservative mixing from a riverine source can be excluded (see also Burt et al., 2016b; Kipp et al., 2018; Moore, 2000, 2007). On the other hand, the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ values of -3 to -4 ‰ imply that the ^{228}Ra source is under riverine influence, as the $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ signature of the sea-ice end-member is generally thought to be approximately -2‰ (e.g., Eicken et al., 2002; Thomas et al., 2011; Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2009, and references therein, see also Thomas et al., 2011 Fig. 5d).

515 III.III.II.II: Principal Component Two: Particle-related impacts (nutrient-type behaviour)

The correlation of Ba, DIC and temperature with PC2 is based on the hydrographic peculiarities of the CAA, where temperature displays a “classical”, inverse nutrient-type profile (Fig. 2), resulting from the presence of a temperature minimum in the UHL. As is the case for Ba and DIC, nutrient-type profiles are generally shaped by the interaction of biological (production/respiration, adsorption/desorption) processes and gravitational particle settling. Properties revealing such distributions are represented by PC2, with the temperature minimum coinciding with those minima found at the pycnocline depths.

520 **IV. Conclusions**

525 It is our hope that with a better understanding of the distributions of the long-lived Ra isotopes, coupled with other chemical constituents, future initiatives can be supported to investigate the changes in water mass distribution in this region. Given the results of the PCA as well as the distribution of ^{228}Ra , our data reveal the existence of a western flow of water along the northeastern edge of the CAA. This flow is a component of a cyclonic U-turn of Baffin Bay water, intruding westward into the CAA

530 | before being rerouted back to the east. The bulk eastward transport of water through the CAA was confirmed, highlighted by the distribution of Ra radioisotopes and chemical constituents in apparent end-members throughout the region. Overall, the results from this study provide the foundation for future GEOTRACES studies and other initiatives that focus on the sensitivity of trace element fluxes to changing environmental conditions by identifying and quantifying anomalies in the distribution of
535 radioactive isotopes in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. Furthermore, this study provides an additional tool to better understand and characterize water mass distributions, flow patterns, mixing and their respective time scales in challenging sampling areas such as the Arctic.

Acknowledgments:

540 We wish to express our sincere gratitude to Michiel Rutgers van der Loeff, Michael Böttcher and Amber Annett, whose constructive reviews helped greatly improve our manuscript. We wish to thank the captains and crew of the icebreaker CCGS Amundsen as well as the chief scientist, Roger Francois and his team, for their support at sea. We would also like to extend our appreciation to Jacoba Mol and colleagues on the ship for their collaboration. This study was financially supported by the Canadian
545 GEOTRACES program, as part of the NSERC-CCAR initiative. MAC and PBH were supported by U.S. GEOTRACES via the NSF Chemical Oceanography program (#OCE-1458305). FD is grateful to J. Navez, M. Leermakers and K.H. Niroshana for assistance during the Ba analyses in Brussels. HTH acknowledges support by the German Academic Exchange service (DAAD, MOPGA-GRI, #57429828) supported by funds of the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF).

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Figure Captions:

Figure 1: Map of the Canadian Arctic Archipelago (CAA) showing the 17 stations sampled during the 2015 GEOTRACES cruise aboard the CCGS Amundsen (red dots), where the two unlabeled stations along the Eastern CAA cross-channel transect are the surface stations 323 and 324, numbers refer to CAA stations (1-7). Nares Strait (NS), Barrow Strait (BS), McClure Strait (McS), Lancaster Sound (LS) and Parry Channel (PC) are denoted, the latter connecting the CAA from McS via BS to LS. Underway (UW) samples have been taken on the way from Baffin Bay (BB) into Lancaster Sound. Lastly, the blue and grey lines indicate the 200m and 100m isobaths, respectively.

Figure 2: Vertical distributions of practical salinity, temperature, density, AT, Ba, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, DIC and normalized DIC (DIC_{norm}) observed at stations CAA1 to CAA7 throughout the CAA.

Figure 3: ^{226}Ra (a), ^{228}Ra (b) and $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ (c) profiles ranging from surface to depth for stations CAA1 to CAA7 (where pink dots indicate station CAA2 which was only sampled at the surface and bottom) throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago.

Figure 4: Total Alkalinity (AT) versus salinity measured throughout the CAA with coloured depth (a) and longitude (b). [A linear regression analysis yields \$\text{AT} = 52.7 * \text{S}_p + 492.3\$ \(\$R^2 = 0.91\$ \).](#)

Figure 5: Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) (a) and salinity-normalized Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC_{norm}) (b) were plotted against salinity (S_p), with colours indicating depth (m) (a, b) and longitude (c). [The DIC vs. \$\text{S}_p\$ regression yields \$\text{DIC} = \(53.4 \pm 2.8\) * \text{S}_p + 371 \pm 89\$ \(\$R^2 = 0.86\$ \).](#) The [DIC_{norm} vs. \$\text{S}_p\$](#) plots were fitted with a piecewise regression analysis representing the surface, [DIC_{norm} = \$\(-19.7 \pm 3.9\) * \text{S}_p + 2681 \pm 120\$ \(\$R^2 = 0.5533\$ \)](#) and at depth; [DIC_{norm} = \$\(-34.2 \pm 3.5\) * \text{S}_p + 3282 \pm 117\$ \(\$R^2 = 0.76765\$ \)](#). In plots b & c CB4 was excluded from the

piecewise regression (represented by unfilled, crossed out grey circles), whereas stations 312 and 314 surface samples were excluded entirely. The black diamonds identify the average Atlantic deep-water samples from stations CAA1, CAA2 and CAA3.

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Figure 6: ^{228}Ra (dpm/100L) plotted against practical salinity with colour indicating depth (a) and longitude (b) fitted with a piecewise regression excluding the deep stations of the Canada Basin (grey circles) and yielding $^{228}\text{Ra} = (-2.5 \pm 0.8) * S_{pf(x)} - 2.47x + 86.4 \pm 23.6$ ($R^2 = 0.28284$) for the surface trend (0-80m) and $^{228}\text{Ra} = (-0.5 \pm 0.3) * S_{pf(x)} - 0.485x + 21.1 \pm 10.5$ ($R^2 = 0.07072$) for the deep trend ($>80\text{m}$). The average of Atlantic deep waters sampled from stations CAA1, CAA2 and CAA3 is defined by a black diamond.”

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Figure 7: Eight-variable Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of PC1 and PC2 for 64 samples from 17 stations throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, distinguished by depth groupings; Surface (0-20m; purple), Mid (20-80m; blue), Deep (Deep Arch, 80-500m; red) Archipelago and Deep Atlantic (Deep ATL, $>500\text{m}$; green). The sample collected at station CB4 at 200m depth was excluded from this plot. The ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals associated with each water mass grouping.

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Figure 8: Eight-variable Principal Component Analysis of surface samples (0-20m;) east (green, east of 85°W) and west (blue, west of 85°W) and mid-Depth (20-80m; red) samples collected throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago analyzing PC1 and PC2 for 27 samples from 17 stations, with the exception of the surface sample collected at station CB4 that was excluded from this plot. The ellipses represent 95% confidence intervals associated with each water mass grouping.

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Figure 9: Temperature-Salinity plots with colours indicating depth (a) and longitude (b) as well as the Radium Isotopic Ratio($^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$)-DIC plots with colour indicating depth (c) and Salinity (d), highlighting three water masses throughout the CAA, the two surface water masses the Western Surface (Surf W) and Eastern Surface (Surf E) waters and one water mass (Atlantic) at depth (Deep). In (c) and (d) station CB4 has been denoted with a circle and cross.

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Figure 10: Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of PC1 and PC2 for 64 samples from 17 stations

throughout the Canadian Arctic Archipelago, composed of the seven normalized variables Salinity (S_p), Temperature (T), DIC, Ba, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^{228}Ra , and ^{226}Ra , excluding AT. They are distinguished by depth groupings; Surface (0-20m; purple), Mid (20-80m; blue), Deep (Deep Arch, 80-500m; red)

835 Archipelago and Deep Atlantic (Deep ATL, >500m; green).

Figure 11: Cross section at stations CAA1-3, 323 and 324 for dissolved Ba (a) and barite saturation state (Q_i) (b), as well as $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ (c) and $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ (dpm μmol^{-1}) (d). The low values of both properties indicate the presence of Atlantic water (see Thomas et al., 2011).

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Figure 12: Relationship between the $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ as derived from the apparent end-members vs. salinity

(a) and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ (b). In insert in (a), the S_p vs. $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ relationship. Increasing fractions of sea-ice would cause a near-horizontal shift in that relationship (sea-ice $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ end-member = -2‰), whereas meteoric water would cause a “diagonal” shift (meteoric water $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ end-member = -20‰); see also Thomas et al.,

845 2011 for more details. $^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$ in surface samples across the CAA depict the different flow pass via

the CAA/northwest passage, and via McClure Strait, Parry Channel and Lancaster Sound (c). For

reasons of clarity, only the surface samples have been shown in (c). The colour coding groups the

samples into water masses with high salinity and low isotopic ratio (ATL), with low salinity and high

isotopic ratio (shelf waters near the ^{228}Ra source), and lastly with low salinity and low isotopic ratio

850 (waters in direction of CB4), respectively.

Figure 13: Relationships between ^{226}Ra and Ba (a), and between the $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ and ^{226}Ra and Ba concentrations (b), respectively (c). The red symbols indicate samples with $S_p > 34$ (Atlantic origin). In

(b) the linear regressions yield for samples with $S_p > 34$ $f(x) = 0.20x + 0.25$, $R^2 = 0.99$, and $S_p < 34$ $f(x) =$

855 $0.18x + 0.05$, $R^2 = 0.90$. Within (a) and (b), open circles are drawn from van Beek et al., (2007), whereas

the dashed line in (a) is redrawn from Le Roy et al., (2018). Panel (d) depicts the spatial distribution of the $^{226}\text{Ra}/\text{Ba}$ in surface waters across the CAA.

Figure 14: Sketch of proposed surface flow pattern as identified in the current study where dotted lines indicated reduced certainty of trends.

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Appendices:

Appendix 1: Equations used to normalize (X_0) the data distribution for Temperature, Salinity,

865 Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC, $\mu\text{mol/kg}$), $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, ^{226}Ra (dpm/100L), ^{228}Ra (dpm/100L) and Ba

(nM) and Ba collected throughout the CAA 2015 GEOTRACES cruise in preparation for Principal

Component Analyses.

Appendix 2: DIC ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$), AT ($\mu\text{mol/kg}$), AT, $\delta^{18}\text{O}$, and Ba (nM) plotted against depth for each

870 station including CAA1, CAA2, CAA3, CAA4, CAA5, CAA6, CB4, 312, and 314, where profiles

were taken throughout the 2015 GEOTRACES cruise in the Canadian Arctic Archipelago. Colours

indicate the water masses present at the sampled depth; red is the Polar Mixed Layer (PML), yellow is

the Upper Halocline Layer (UHL), and blue is the Atlantic Layer (ATL).

875 **Appendix 3:** ^{226}Ra (dpm/100L), ^{228}Ra (dpm/100L), ^{228}Ra , and Ra isotopic ratio ($^{228}\text{Ra}/^{226}\text{Ra}$) plotted

against depth for each station, including CAA1, CAA2, CAA3, CAA4, CAA5, CAA6, and CAA7,

where profiles were taken throughout the 2015 GEOTRACES cruise in the Canadian Arctic

Archipelago. Colours of depth indicate water masses at the sampled depths; red is the Polar Mixed

Layer (PML), yellow is the Upper Halocline Layer (UHL), and blue is the Atlantic Layer (ATL).