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## Greenland Ice Sheet late-season melt: Investigating multi-scale drivers of K-transect events

10 Thomas J. Ballinger<sup>1</sup>, Thomas L. Mote<sup>2</sup>, Kyle Mattingly<sup>2</sup>, Angela C. Bliss<sup>3</sup>, Edward Hanna<sup>4</sup>, Dirk van As<sup>5</sup>, Melissa Prieto<sup>1</sup>, Saeideh Gharehchahi<sup>1</sup>, Xavier Fettweis<sup>6</sup>, Brice Noël<sup>7</sup>, Paul C.J.P. Smeets<sup>7</sup>, Mads H. Ribergaard<sup>8</sup>, and John Cappelen<sup>8</sup>

Correspondence to: Thomas J. Ballinger (tballinger@txstate.edu)

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<sup>1</sup>Department of Geography, Texas State University, San Marcos, TX, USA

<sup>2</sup>Department of Geography, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA

<sup>3</sup>College of Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR, USA

<sup>4</sup>School of Geography and Lincoln Centre for Water and Planetary Health, University of Lincoln, Lincoln, UK

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<sup>5</sup>Geological Survey of Denmark and Greenland, Copenhagen, Denmark

<sup>6</sup>Laboratory of Climatology, Department of Geography, University of Liège, Liège, Belgium

<sup>7</sup>Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research, Utrecht University, Utrecht, the Netherlands

<sup>8</sup>Danish Meteorological Institute, Copenhagen, Denmark

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**Abstract.** One consequence of recent Arctic warming is an increased occurrence and longer seasonality of above-freezing air temperature episodes. There is significant disagreement in the literature concerning potential physical connectivity between high-latitude open water duration proximate to the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) and unseasonal (i.e. late summer and autumn) GrIS melt events. Here, a new date of sea ice advance (DOA) product is used to determine the occurrence of Baffin Bay sea ice growth along Greenland's west coast for the 2011–2015 period. For the unseasonal melt period preceding the DOA, northwest Atlantic Ocean and atmospheric conditions are analyzed and linked to unseasonal melt events observed at a series of on-ice automatic weather stations (AWS) along the K-transect in southwest Greenland. Mesoscale and synoptic influences on the above and below freezing surface air temperature events are assessed through analyses of AWS wind, pressure, and humidity observations. These surface observations are further compared against Modèle Atmosphérique Régional (MAR), Regional Atmospheric Climate Model (RACMO2), and ERA-Interim reanalysis fields to understand the airmass origins and (thermo)dynamic drivers of the melt events. Results suggest that the K-transect late season, ablation zone melt events are strongly affected by ridging atmospheric circulation patterns that transport warm, moist air from the sub-polar North Atlantic toward west Greenland. While thermal conduction and advection off south Baffin Bay open waters impact coastal air temperatures, consistent with previous studies, marine air incursions from Baffin Bay onto the ice sheet are obstructed by barrier flows and the pressure gradient-driven katabatic regime along the western GrIS margin.



## 1 Introduction

45 Significant mass losses in Arctic sea ice and the Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) have been observed for the last four decades (e.g. Serreze and Stroeve, 2015; Bamber et al., 2018). Under sustained climate warming, sea and land ice have become increasingly sensitive to changes in the frequency and duration of anomalous weather patterns (e.g. Overland and Wang, 2016; Hanna et al. 2014, 2018b). The Greenland Ice Sheet (GrIS) surface mass balance (SMB) decrease has contributed roughly  $0.5 \text{ mm year}^{-1}$  to global mean sea level rise since the early 1990s (van den Broeke et al., 2016), with about 60% of the mass loss attributed to a decline in SMB and 40% associated with increased ice  
50 discharge (van den Broeke et al., 2017). Observed warming of near-surface west Greenland waters since at least the early 1990s is linked to accelerated submarine melt and outlet glacier retreat (Holland et al., 2008; Straneo and Heimbach, 2013) concurrent with a rise in summer warm air temperature extremes along the coast (Hanna et al., 2012, Mernild et al., 2014). These findings raise the question of whether Baffin local ocean conditions play a key role in the spatial extent and temporal variations in GrIS melt.

55 Scholarship published during the past decade has presented conflicting evidence regarding the importance of the warming of the nearby ocean on GrIS surface melt. Regional modeling experiments have suggested that local sea surface temperature (SST) impacts on GrIS climate and SMB are negligible due to offshore flow arising from a prevailing katabatic wind regime (Hanna et al., 2014; Noël et al., 2014). Using a statistical approach, Rennermalm et al. (2009) found contemporaneous Baffin open water (<15% sea ice concentration (SIC)) and western GrIS melt to be  
60 positively correlated in late summer (1979–2007). The authors noted the strongest, statistically significant correlation ( $r=0.71$ ) was observed in August near the K-transect (**Fig. 1**), which was attributed, in part, by wind-driven onshore transport of warm marine air. Hanna et al. (2009) evaluated lagged correlations between July coastal air temperatures at Ilulissat and Nuuk (~200 north and south of Kangerlussuaq) from Danish Meteorological Institute (DMI) weather stations and adjacent, offshore HadISST1 SST values in the preceding and following 2 months. The authors noted a  
65 simultaneous, positive SST relationship with Ilulissat temperatures ( $r=0.56$ ), while Nuuk temperatures were significantly coupled with offshore May–July SSTs ( $r>0.50$ ) over the 1977–2006 record. Ballinger et al. (2018a) found robust interannual correlations ( $r>0.40$ ,  $p\leq 0.05$ ) during 1979–2014 between Baffin freeze onset dates (from the Markus et al., 2009 product) and September–December surface air temperatures (SAT) at most DMI stations found along the west Greenland coastline. The authors found significant, positive Baffin and Labrador SST and coastal SAT  
70 correlations often persist through December after the commencement of freeze onset. Applying a similar correlative approach and melt/freeze product, Stroeve et al. (2017) showed Baffin and GrIS melt and freeze behaviors to be synchronous. The authors noted that years with anomalously early sea ice melt tended to have strong, upward turbulent heat fluxes and westerly winds atop developing open water that transported surplus heat and moisture onto the ice sheet. Both studies indicate that the synoptic, upper-level circulation pattern is critical for modulating poleward heat and moisture transport and the surface warming/melt processes at the limits of the melt season. Ballinger et al.  
75 (2018a) proposed a sea ice-heat flux feedback whereby upward turbulent heat fluxes from Baffin Bay help maintain the high-pressure block aloft, with anticyclonic southerly winds both inhibiting the autumn/winter ice pack formation and transporting warm marine air onto the western Greenland coast. This potential mechanism may have contributed



80 to record Greenland Blocking events that occurred in successive years in October during the early-to mid-2000s (Hanna et al., 2018a).

85 A paucity of research studies focused on the Baffin Bay open water influence on GrIS melt and SMB has left open the question of potential physical linkages. Our primary goal in this paper is to evaluate and determine whether the local ocean-atmosphere interactions have played a role in recent, temporally-anomalous GrIS late melt events spanning the end of summer to freeze-up of adjacent ocean waters. Ice sheet analyses are geographically  
90 focused on the western slope of the GrIS with emphasis on the K-transect (**Fig. 1**) as this area – with its two on-ice automatic weather station (AWS) networks (described in Section 2.1) – is rich with in situ records relative to the remainder of the ice sheet. We analyze meteorological data from these in situ sources and additionally from regional climate models and global meteorological re-analyses to address potential links between GrIS late season melt and the local-scale Baffin marine layer for the period of overlapping data, 2011–2015. For completeness, we subsequently  
95 expand the scale of meteorological analyses to consider the influence of greater northwest Atlantic synoptic patterns on the melt episodes. The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 outlines data sources, Section 3 describes methods employed, Section 4 covers the local and synoptic scale atmospheric interactions with GrIS melt, Section 5 discusses key results, and Section 6 offers concluding remarks and makes suggestions for future research.

## 2 Data

### 95 2.1 Passive microwave records

Sea ice data are from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/National Snow and Ice Data Center (NSIDC) Climate Data Record of Passive Microwave SIC v3r1 product distributed by NSIDC (Meier et al., 2017). We use the “Goddard Merged” SICs that are produced using a combination of the NASA Team and Bootstrap algorithms applied to satellite passive microwave brightness temperatures (Peng et al., 2013). The data are available  
100 daily, 1979–2015, at a 25 km by 25 km nominal grid spacing. The time series of daily SIC at each grid cell were used to identify the date of sea ice advance (DOA) when SIC increases to 15% for the first time following the sea ice extent (SIE) minima after Peng et al. (2018). Regional mean DOAs for Baffin Bay were obtained from Bliss et al. (2018, in review). The local DOA was determined from the time series of SICs between 1 October and 31 March at each grid cell, then the local mean DOA was computed from 13 grid cells within the domain 66.5 to 67.5°N and 53 to 55°W.  
105 SIE was computed by summing the area of grid cells (in km<sup>2</sup>) where SIC ≥ 15%. At the same spatial resolution as the SIC product, the passive microwave daily GrIS melt time series of Mote (2007, 2014) is also used to classify the ice surface environment in a binary manner (i.e. melt/no melt). Following the Ohmura and Reeh (1991) topographic regions, we assess GrIS melt conditions on the west-central portion of the ice sheet bounding the K-transect.

### 2.2 K-transect station data

110 Meteorological conditions from two AWS networks, the Programme for Monitoring of the Greenland Ice Sheet (PROMICE; stations prefix “KAN”) and Utrecht University Institute for Marine and Atmospheric Research (hereafter IMAU; stations prefix “S”), are used in this study. In order to include the westernmost PROMICE station KAN\_B, analyses begin in 2011 and conclude with the end of the DOA record in 2015. Data are obtained and analyzed from seven weather stations distributed across the K-transect at ~67°N during this period. The transect spans an area  
115 from low-elevation tundra, approximately 1 km inland from the ice sheet glacier terminus (KAN\_B), to the lower



accumulation zone (~1800 m) at >140 km from Russell Glacier terminus (KAN\_U; see **Fig. 1 & Table 1**). AWS data used here are recorded at a height of approximately at 2–3 m above the tundra (KAN\_B only) or glacial ice surface. Daily mean air temperature (°C), wind speed (ms<sup>-1</sup>), and wind direction (0–360°) are obtained from IMAU and PROMICE station networks. Most data series are complete for the study period, but missing or erroneously low values are filtered out prior to analyses. Additional details on the respective PROMICE and IMAU AWS programs can be found in van As et al. (2011) and Smeets et al. (2018).

### 2.3 Atmospheric reanalysis and regional climate model fields

A number of ERA-Interim reanalysis (Dee et al., 2011) variables are selected for the analysis of atmospheric conditions across Greenland and the northwestern Atlantic Arctic sector. ERA-Interim surface and upper-air temperatures, wind speeds, and moisture conditions have been shown to exhibit relatively small biases compared to Arctic observations (Bromwich et al., 2016). MAR and RACMO2, summarized in this section, are also forced with ERA-Interim fields at their lateral boundaries. Tropospheric winds and specific humidity from 1000–200 hPa are used to calculate a moisture flux variable known as integrated water vapor transport (IVT); IVT is then classified using a self-organizing map (SOM) approach (see formal description in the Methods section below). Surface-atmosphere features and regional circulation are further evaluated using latent and sensible heat flux data, 500 hPa geopotential heights (GPH), and 1000–700 hPa mean winds at the native 80 km resolution.

Model output u,v wind speed and direction at 10-m and 850 hPa from MAR and RACMO2 are evaluated to understand low-level flow over ocean-land-ice sheet areas surrounding the K-transect. Secondly, we briefly discuss inter-model differences within the planetary boundary layer and biases against AWS observations. Both regional climate models are specifically developed for simulating polar weather and climate, in particular over the Greenland ice sheet (e.g., Fettweis et al., 2011; Noël et al., 2018). MAR v3.9 fields at 15 km are used here (see Fettweis et al. 2017 for a detailed model description). Relative to MAR v3.8 used in Delhasse et al. (2018), the main changes to MAR v3.9 consist of enhanced computational efficiency, adjustments to some of the snow model parameters to better compare with in situ observations, and improved MAR dynamical stability by increasing the atmospheric filtering. RACMO2.3p2 fields at a horizontal resolution of 5.5 km are also used (Noël et al., 2018). Model physics have not changed relative to the previous 11 km version described in Noël et al. (2018). The refined spatial resolution of the host model improves the depiction of topographically complex terrain at the GrIS margins such as small peripheral glaciers and ice caps, improving the representation of near-surface, local winds.

### 2.4 North Atlantic atmospheric indices

Daily atmospheric indices are examined to characterize surface and upper-level conditions within a historical context. The Greenland Blocking Index (GBI) (Hanna et al., 2018) describes daily mean 500 hPa geopotential height values from 60–80°N and 20–80°W. The North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) index used here is adapted from Cropper et al. (2015) and represents station-based daily mean sea-level pressure differences between Iceland and the Azores. Both versions of the respective indices are normalized by their day of year means and standard deviations for the common 1951–2000 base period.

## 3 Methods



A composite approach is applied to characterize atmospheric conditions underlying unseasonal GrIS melt events, defined here as occurring at the conclusion of boreal summer (i.e. late August) and during autumn preceding sea ice advance on Baffin Bay (**Table S1**). Two constraints are placed on the composite analyses. First, the technique is intended to isolate regional meteorological processes during KAN\_B air temperature events of  $\geq 0^{\circ}\text{C}$  (T+) versus  $< 0^{\circ}\text{C}$  (T-). KAN\_B is selected to build composite sizes as this location experiences more T+ events annually than any other PROMICE or IMAU AWS on the K-transect, and due to station's location near the ice margin along the transect (**Table 1**). T+ comparisons between the KAN\_B and other K-transect stations are provided in **Table 2**. The second limit involves the length of the analysis period prior to DOA. Through lead/lag correlations of recent data series of  $\geq 30$  years, Hanna et al. (2009) and Ballinger et al. (2018a) noted Baffin ice coverage and sea surface temperatures in the preceding two months to be positively and significantly correlated with west Greenland coastal air temperature variations. Composites here are constructed over a similar two-month (60-day) period with data additionally sub-divided into 60-31 day (i.e.  $D_{60}$ ) and 30-1 day (i.e.  $D_{30}$ ) bins preceding each Baffin DOA from 2011 to 2015. A paucity of T+ events over the 30 days post-Baffin DOA limits analyses to the aforementioned periods before the development of extensive, seasonal sea ice coverage.

In a similar fashion to Carr et al. (2017), a Wilcoxon test is utilized to evaluate differences in atmospheric variables and indices between T+ versus T- events. This nonparametric test is intended for continuous data series that do not follow underlying assumptions of the normal distribution making it appropriate for comparative analyses between extreme and non-extreme conditions. The null hypothesis of no difference in atmospheric conditions between cases is rejected at the 95% confidence level when  $p \leq 0.05$ .

Following Mattingly et al. (2016, 2018), daily atmospheric moisture transport about Greenland is resolved by calculating integrated water vapor transport (IVT) as in Eq. (1):

$$IVT = \frac{1}{g} \int_{1000 \text{ hPa}}^{200 \text{ hPa}} qV dp \quad (1)$$

where  $g$  is gravitational acceleration,  $q$  is specific humidity,  $V$  is the vector wind ( $\text{ms}^{-1}$ ), and  $dp$  represents the difference between atmospheric pressure levels. The percentile rank of IVT (IVT PR) within a 30-day moving window is calculated to account for the seasonal cycle of IVT, and IVT PR is then classified using the SOM technique to produce a matrix of moisture transport patterns, or nodes, that typically occur over the Greenland region. As in Mattingly et al. (2016), similar wet (anomalously high), neutral (near climatological median values), and dry (anomalously low) IVT patterns are aggregated, then their frequencies are composited and tested following methods previously summarized.

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Characteristics of Baffin and west Greenland late season melt

Perspectives on the end of the Northwest Atlantic melt season area are shown in **Fig. S1**. Slow, upward change signifying later sea ice formation is shown in the DOA series, particularly from around 2000. Meanwhile, the start of the last  $\geq 3$ -day sequence of Region 3 (west-central Greenland; see inset in **Fig. 1**) 2% or 4% melt area also suggest progressively later melt (and a later onset of the freeze season). A significant break in the 2% series is highlighted by a drastic increase in variability from 1979–1999 ( $\sigma=21.17$ ) to 2000–2015 ( $\sigma=44.25$ ) that also presents in the annual discharge records from the nearby Watson River and Tasersiaq ice sheet catchments (Ahlstrøm et al.,



2017; van As et al., 2018). Differences between the beginning of Baffin Bay sea ice advance and the end of the ice  
190 sheet melt season has clearly narrowed, and some GrIS melt events since 2000 have occurred after seasonal sea ice  
formation (i.e. 2002, 2004–2005, 2010).

Relative to the climatology defined as 1981–2010, sea ice advanced ~11d earlier in 2011 and ~6d later than  
the mean date in 2012–2015 (**Table S1**). Inspection of DOA for individual grid cells adjacent to the Sisimiut AWS  
(WMO code 4234 in **Fig. 1**), located ~150 km west of the K-transect ice sheet margin, reveals a northward-extending  
195 notch where ice forms ~30–60d later than the Baffin-wide DOA (**Fig S2a-e**; **Fig S3**). Interannual differences in ice  
cover advance often depend on factors including regional winds, ocean heat transport, and water-mass changes (Myers  
et al., 2009; Ribergaard, 2014). For instance, strong offshore winds and poleward circulation of warm water from the  
West Greenland Slope Current (WGSC) often contribute to the local open water persistence, while southward Arctic  
Water transports support earlier ice formation patterns found in the east and north (Curry et al., 2014).

#### 200 **4.2 Local meteorology of melt versus non-melt cases**

The spatial coherence of observations across the K-transect along with inhomogenous GrIS Region 3 spatial  
melt patterns and satellite pixel contamination issues at the tundra-ice interface, lead us to assess the melt events at  
the station level. Composites of air temperature, wind speed and direction by KAN\_B T+ and T- events are shown in  
**Fig. 2**. Across the transect, composite air temperature differences (T+ versus T- events) are warmer by roughly 7 to  
205 8°C in the D<sub>60</sub> window and 12 to 13°C in the D<sub>30</sub> period (**Fig. 2a**). These differences tend to be least near the coast  
and increase to S6 in the mid-ablation area (~1000 m asl) where contemporaneous melt occurs ~14–16% of the time  
(**Table 2**).

Wind direction for T+ events is consistently SSE (<150°) in D<sub>60</sub> and comparatively becomes slightly more  
southerly in the D<sub>30</sub> period (**Fig. 2c**) regardless of the wind speed (**Fig. 2b,d**). Differences in wind direction do not  
210 strongly change by temperature regime, but there is evidence of slight wind speed intensification during D<sub>60</sub> T+ events  
(~1–2 ms<sup>-1</sup>) and to a lesser magnitude similar relationships hold during the D<sub>30</sub> period (**Fig. 2b**). Increased winds  
reflect strengthened ESE katabatic flows as the result of seaward enhancement of the pressure gradient (not shown)  
from nearshore open water persistence, increased synoptic cyclone activity, and lower MSLP over Baffin Bay during  
the summer-autumn season transition (McLeod and Mote, 2015). Wind speed increases also initiate positive (upward)  
215 sensible heat fluxes and convective boundary layer intensification associated with low elevation ice melt (**Fig. S4**).  
Just offshore, sensible and latent fluxes are generally negative in T- events and near zero to slightly positive in melt  
occurrences with large, positive differences in T+ vs T- events apparent in oceanic areas from the Labrador Sea  
extending up to the WGSC (**Figs. S4 and S5**).

Offshore flows appear to represent a dynamic barrier to Baffin marine layer intrusions. To further examine  
220 lower tropospheric flow across the ocean-land-ice interface, we similarly composite MAR and RACMO2 winds at  
10-m and 850 hPa (**Figs. 3 and 4**). In general, the MAR and RACMO2 winds show directional consistency with  
overlaid PROMICE and IMAU winds with a slight southerly bias in both products for D<sub>30</sub> at KAN\_M and S9.  
Modeled wind speeds are more intense during T+ versus T- events as corroborated in observations with pressure  
gradient enhancement, positive surface radiative balance, and katabatic (or glacier) wind presence near the ice margin  
225 in summer and early autumn (van den Broeke et al., 2009). T+ events in RACMO2 and MAR generally capture AWS



observed wind speeds in the upper ablation zone at KAN\_M ( $r^2 \geq 0.77$ ) and lower accumulation zone at KAN\_U ( $r^2 \geq 0.77$ ) with low root mean squared errors (not shown). A slight, positive bias in both models is evident at the ice sheet edge near KAN\_B (MAR  $r^2 = 0.33$ , RACMO2  $r^2 = 0.58$ ). Height differences between the AWS measurements (2–3 m) and model outputs (10-m) may explain a portion of the bias at KAN\_B. Except during D<sub>30</sub> T+ events, the 10-m winds extending about the transect from the west coast tundra just offshore and into eastern Baffin Bay are notably calm and alongshore (i.e. northerly in T- and southerly in T+; **Figs. 3 and 4**).

#### 4.3 The role of North Atlantic atmospheric patterns

Composites of the AWS K-transect observations and complementary regional model output suggest that late season melt inferred from T+ events may be driven by synoptic patterns as opposed to local marine forcing. Overplots of 500 hPa GPH, 1000-700 hPa mean wind, and IVT for the North Atlantic region are shown in **Fig. 5**. Whereas T- events (left panels) tend to be characterized by northerly winds over the 1000-700 hPa layer, the T+ events (right panels) indicate southerly, on-ice transfer of subpolar air aided by the presence of an upper-level trough over Baffin Island and downwind ridging over Greenland. Comparatively higher GPH values are found over ice sheet with the 540 dam (i.e. 5400 m) contour extending across central Greenland in T+ events, but located south of the island in T- events. In both T+ cases, low-level winds circulate poleward over north Labrador Sea areas of upward, turbulent heat flux (**Figs. S4 and S5**), aiding the heat and moisture transfer (as shown by heightened IVT values in T+ relative to T-) over western Greenland during D<sub>60</sub> and D<sub>30</sub> (**Fig. 5**). Local IVT maxima in both events are concentrated over the southwest tip of the island, but remain  $\sim 100 \text{ kg m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  or higher near the K-transect. Comparatively, depth integrated moisture flux over much of the west coast increases by a factor of 2–3 (4–5) during D<sub>60</sub> (D<sub>30</sub>) T+ versus T- events signaling a concentration of moist, onshore flow that drives the above-freezing air temperatures.

To further characterize and differentiate weather conditions by T± event, we composite SOM-classified daily IVT wet, dry, and neutral patterns identified by Mattingly et al. (2016). Analyses of the aggregated frequencies suggest that the wet patterns (with anomalously high IVT versus climatology) occur significantly more often in T+ versus T- events, and such nodes are more common by a factor of  $>4.5$  in the D<sub>30</sub> period. (**Fig. 6a**). While some caution should be exercised as the absolute frequency of these patterns decreases from roughly early (D<sub>60</sub>) to late (D<sub>30</sub>) autumn, humid atmospheric conditions appear to enhance unseasonal melt. Increased incidence of wet patterns coincides with negative (positive) NAO (GBI) (both  $>|0.50|$  in T+ events; **Fig. 6b**), and a synoptic environment characterized by high surface (upper-level) pressure anomalies. This is confirmed by **Fig. 5** whereby the higher 500 GPH values and on-ice lower tropospheric mean winds in T+ events transport moist air masses from Labrador Sea and southerly maritime latitudes to much of the western slope of the ice sheet to facilitate ablation-area melt.

#### 5 Discussion

West Greenland summer and autumn air temperature variability and trends during the last 3–4 decades have shown strong response to increased Greenland high-pressure blocking intensity and North Atlantic SSTs aided by background anthropogenic forcing (Hanna et al., 2016; McLeod and Mote, 2016; Ballinger et al., 2018a; Graeter et al., 2018). The current North Atlantic “warm period” since the mid-1990s is characterized by a positive Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation phase and rising SSTs around southwestern Greenland (Myers et al., 2009; Ribergaard, 2014), including just offshore of Sisimiut (WMO code 4234 in **Fig. 1**) (orthogonal trend =  $+0.03^\circ\text{C year}^{-1}$ ,  $p < 0.05$ , for



1995-2015 period using SST product described in Ballinger et al., 2018b). Warming waters around the island are influencing Baffin sea ice and west GrIS melt processes (Hanna et al., 2013; McLeod and Mote, 2015; Ballinger et al., 2018a) and seasonality toward earlier (later) melt (freeze) (Stroeve et al., 2017). This hotspot of melt about K-transect suggests local low SIC and/or open water and inferred upward turbulent heating atmospheric could influence nearby terrestrial melt events. As shown in **Fig. S6**, Sisimiut SSTs fluctuate with air temperatures (over the 60 days preceding DOA) in a statistically significant fashion for 2013-2015 at most K-transect stations with some distance decay noted toward the edge of the ablation zone at S9. Summer and autumn west Greenland near-coastal air temperatures have been shown to be modulated by the thermal properties of bordering SSTs (Hanna et al., 2009; Ballinger et al., 2018a). Interannual differences in the strength of SST-air temperature relationships (i.e. 2013–2015 versus 2011–2012) suggest: 1) processes driving warming ocean waters and air temperatures over the GrIS are independent when disparate wind directions occur at or near the ocean-tundra-ice sheet boundaries in years of weak-to-zero correlation (e.g. katabatic flows contrasting near-coastal barrier flows (van den Broeke and Gallée, 1996)), or alternatively 2) strong large-scale atmospheric circulation forcing in years of positive, often statistically robust co-variability (i.e. near-surface and upper-level meridional winds) modulates the near-shore surface open water and ice sheet air temperatures (Stroeve et al., 2017). We recognize that synoptic patterns may not necessarily be mutually exclusive in these examples, but the manuscript objectives do not include comparison of high and low pressure features around Greenland for specific melt and non-melt events.

A number of studies have suggested that Baffin marine layer interaction with the ice sheet boundary layer is obstructed by zonal and meridional flows such as the west coast plateau jet feature and katabatic winds (Hanna et al., 2009; Moore et al., 2013; Noël et al., 2014). Moore et al. (2013) noted a directionally consistent southerly 10-m wind field extending over the western half of Greenland in summer and winter, while observational studies similarly indicate a high frequency of southerly-to-southeasterly winds over the K-transect (van den Broeke et al., 2009). Southerly (easterly) 10-m winds are strongly linked to melt across two thirds (the southern third) of the ice sheet (Cullather and Nowicki, 2018). For an expanded spatial perspective, we briefly examine air temperatures at the next PROMICE station installment north at Upernavik (UPE; 72.89°N). We find UPE\_L (220 m asl on the ice sheet) melt occurs the day of KAN\_B T+ events on >50% of occasions in both D<sub>60</sub> and D<sub>30</sub> windows (not shown). This suggests that above-freezing near-surface air penetrates at least to PROMICE station UPE\_L with a relatively warm air mass engulfing much of the west coast. Our observational and regional model analyses further show that homogenous low-level winds extend coastward at least to the tundra-ice sheet interface near KAN\_B (see **Figs. 2c, 3, and 4**) and produce a “blocking effect” that inhibits the inland penetration of near-surface Baffin air (Noël et al., 2014). Of note, the katabatic wind mechanism becomes stronger and therefore more preventative of local marine influence with increased radiative cooling toward the Baffin DOA and continuous freeze period in climatological winter (van As et al., 2014).

If late season K-transect melt does not appear to be driven by a local Baffin influence, then what physical mechanisms drive the melt events? We show that T+ events by D<sub>60</sub> and D<sub>30</sub> partitions are characterized by southerly flows of more warm, moist maritime air of lower latitude origins relative to T- cases. As shown in **Fig. 5**, during the former event period, air is transferred off northern Labrador Sea to the west coast, while a path of more southerly flow directs moist North Atlantic air masses onto Baffin Bay and southwestern Greenland in the period immediately





300 preceding DOA. These “wet” synoptic patterns occur frequently under anomalous ( $>|1\sigma|$ ) positive (negative) GBI  
(NAO) values (**Fig. 6a, b**). We surmise from Mattingly et al. (2018) that such patterns are particularly moisture-rich  
( $\geq 85^{\text{th}}$  percentile IVT climatological values) and often accompanied by atmospheric rivers impacting Greenland, and  
their occurrence causes ablation zone melt in non-summer months through cloud radiative effects, condensational  
latent heat release, and liquid precipitation (Doyle et al., 2015; Binder et al., 2017; Oltmanns et al., 2018). The  
305 southerly winds that propagate moisture northward are a product of amplified upper-level heights in T+ versus T-  
events extending from Denmark Strait and Irminger Sea onto the ice sheet (**Fig. 5**). Mid-tropospheric ridging, which  
is more pronounced in  $D_{30}$  events, supports southerly winds that funnel heat and moisture across Baffin Bay and  
southwest Greenland to stimulate sea ice and GrIS ablation area melt conditions (Ahlstrøm et al., 2017; Ballinger et  
al., 2018a,b; Hanna et al., 2018). Cullather and Nowicki (2018) similarly find collocated, positive surface and 500  
310 hPa GPH anomalies over Denmark Strait and Irminger Sea tend to be associated with melt events in the basin  
encompassing the K-transect. Our analyses support North Atlantic-air-ice sheet coupling, rather than localized Baffin  
ocean-atmosphere processes, as a strong driver of transition season melt before sea ice advances south of the K-  
transect. Synoptic patterns associated with negative summer NAO and positive GBI incidence strongly influence  
these melt events (**Fig. 6**), prompting decreases in SMB, and increase in the K-transect equilibrium line altitude over  
315 the last 10-15 years (Hanna et al., 2013; Smeets et al., 2018).

## 6 Conclusions

Temporal co-variability between GrIS and Arctic sea ice mass loss suggests a possible feedback whereby  
adjacent open water conditions, ocean-to-atmosphere heat flux, and on-ice winds affect inland melt during summer  
(Rennermalm et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2016) and around the limits of the melt season (Stroeve et al., 2017). In our  
320 2011–2015 analyses bridging the end-of-summer/early autumn melt to the date of first-year Baffin sea ice advance,  
we find no evidence to support the hypothesis that local open water and resultant turbulent heating has a demonstrable  
impact on inland ice melt events. These thermodynamic processes directly influence coastal air temperatures and have  
a fingerprint on marine outlet glacier behaviors (Carr et al., 2017), but are shown here to be inhibited by  
topographically-influenced flows and synoptic patterns whose interactions are not mutually exclusive. Furthermore,  
325 Baffin Bay warming coupled with a longer autumn open water period has been hypothesized to stimulate and  
invigorate upper-level, high-pressure blocking that promotes southerly air advection over the west Greenland coast  
(Ballinger et al., 2018a). This is consistent with the main conclusions of Noël et al. (2014), which suggest that while  
warming waters around Greenland minimally effect SMB beyond enhancing tidewater glacier retreat rates SST forcing  
may indirectly effect GrIS SMB changes through impacts on atmospheric circulation. Thus in terms of direct forcing,  
330 beyond a near-coastal influence, we find that Baffin Bay does not represent an advective heat and moisture source to  
the ice sheet during our 5-year analyses.

Future late season analyses, perhaps reconstructing K-transect meteorological conditions back to the origins  
of the modern sea ice record, might be insightful in comparing local ocean-ice sheet interactions spanning the 1990s  
shift from colder to warmer Baffin summer SSTs (Ballinger et al., 2018a). Temperature and pressure gradients derived  
335 from retrospective analyses would also be useful to categorize the magnitude and direction of regional winds,  
including the katabatic regime, in attempting to provide a longer-term perspective of analyses presented in this paper.



Noël et al. (2014) hypothesized that future sea-surface warming may exacerbate the division between local ocean and ice sheet by intensifying the temperature and pressure gradient and hence resulting katabatic winds. Baffin Bay climate and cryospheric changes in the last two decades suggest such an increased “blocking” mechanism may already  
340 be underway. Moreover, stronger katabatic winds might be enhanced further by an increasing intensity of autumn mid-troposphere high-pressure over Greenland (Hanna et al., 2018a, see their Fig. 1e). Synergistic future research should continue to monitor the spatial extent, drivers, and physical effects of unseasonal melt through observational products and regional modeling tools, including quantification of late season K-transect mass loss and runoff through the Watson River, contributions to subsurface/firn processes, and preconditioning effects on the following year’s melt  
345 season.

*Author Contributions.* TJB and TLM conceived the study. TJB analyzed the observational data, with assistance from MP and SG, and led the writing of the manuscript. TLM developed and processed the satellite-derived GrIS melt data. KSM conducted the IVT classification and assisted with the creation of several figures. ACB developed the DOA series and contributed related figures. EH provided the daily GBI series, and DvA, PCJPS, MHR, and JC  
350 provided AWS or oceanographic data and support. BN and XF developed and processed regional model wind fields for RACMO2.3p2 and MAR v3.9, respectively. All authors provided valuable insights, feedback, and editing on manuscript drafts.

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### Tables

AWS Station	Network	Latitude (°N)	Longitude (°W)	Elevation (m asl)	Distance to/from terminus (km)
KAN_B	PROMICE	67.13	50.18	350	1
S5	IMAU	67.08	50.10	500	6
KAN_L	PROMICE	67.10	49.95	670	12
S6	IMAU	67.07	49.38	1000	37
KAN_M	PROMICE	67.07	48.84	1270	61
S9	IMAU	67.05	48.22	1500	88
KAN_U	PROMICE	67.00	47.03	1840	142

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**Table 1.** Summary details of the PROMICE and IMAU AWS stations utilized in this study, including their approximate geographic position (in decimal degrees), elevation, and distance from the ice sheet terminus moving west to east. KAN\_B is located on the tundra, roughly 1 km east of the terminus. Distances are rounded to the nearest km as AWS sites are known to move ~50-150 m year<sup>-1</sup> (van de Wal et al., 2015).

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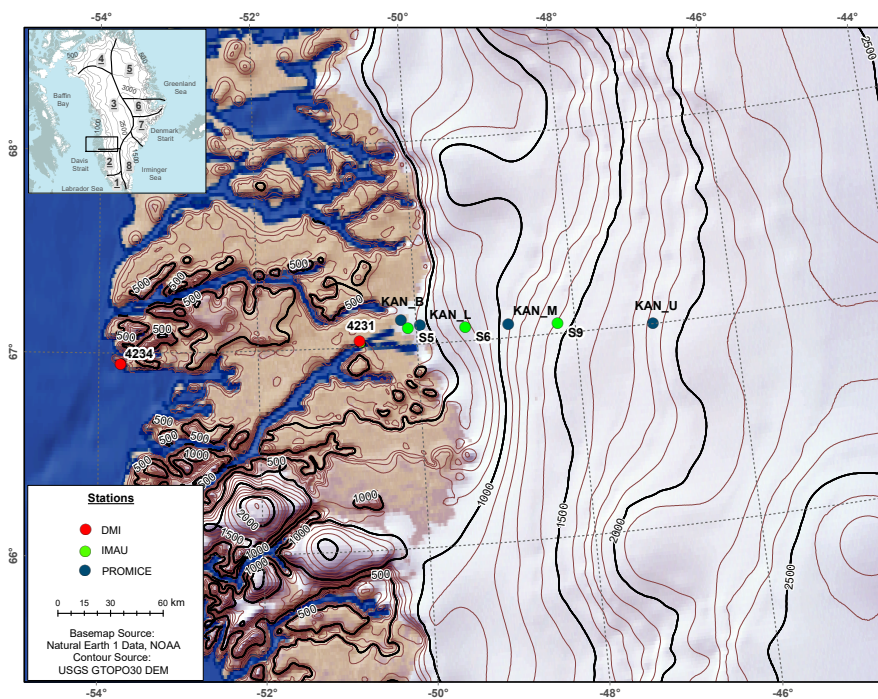


AWS T Compare	T+ n[-60,-31]	T+ %[-60,-31]	T+ n[-30,-1]	T+ %[-30,-1]	T+ %[-60,-1]
S5 vs KAN_B	53	77	9	69	76
KAN_L vs KAN_B	32	46	8	62	49
S6 vs KAN_B	10	14	3	23	16
KAN_M vs KAN_B	2	3	1	8	4
S9 vs KAN_B	1	1	0	-	1
KAN_U vs KAN_B	0	-	0	-	-
Σ KAN_B T+ events	69	-	13	-	-

**Table 2.** Number of events (n), 2011-2015, and percent overlap (%) when KAN\_B and S5, KAN\_L, S6, KAN\_M, S9, or KAN\_U measured  $T \geq 0^\circ\text{C}$  (i.e. T+). For example, 77% of the time in the 30 to 60-day window preceding ice cover the  $T \geq 0^\circ\text{C}$  air temperature threshold at KAN\_B is also observed at S5. The [-60,-31] and [-30,-1] periods cover the reference time windows before respective annual dates of sea ice advance (DOA).

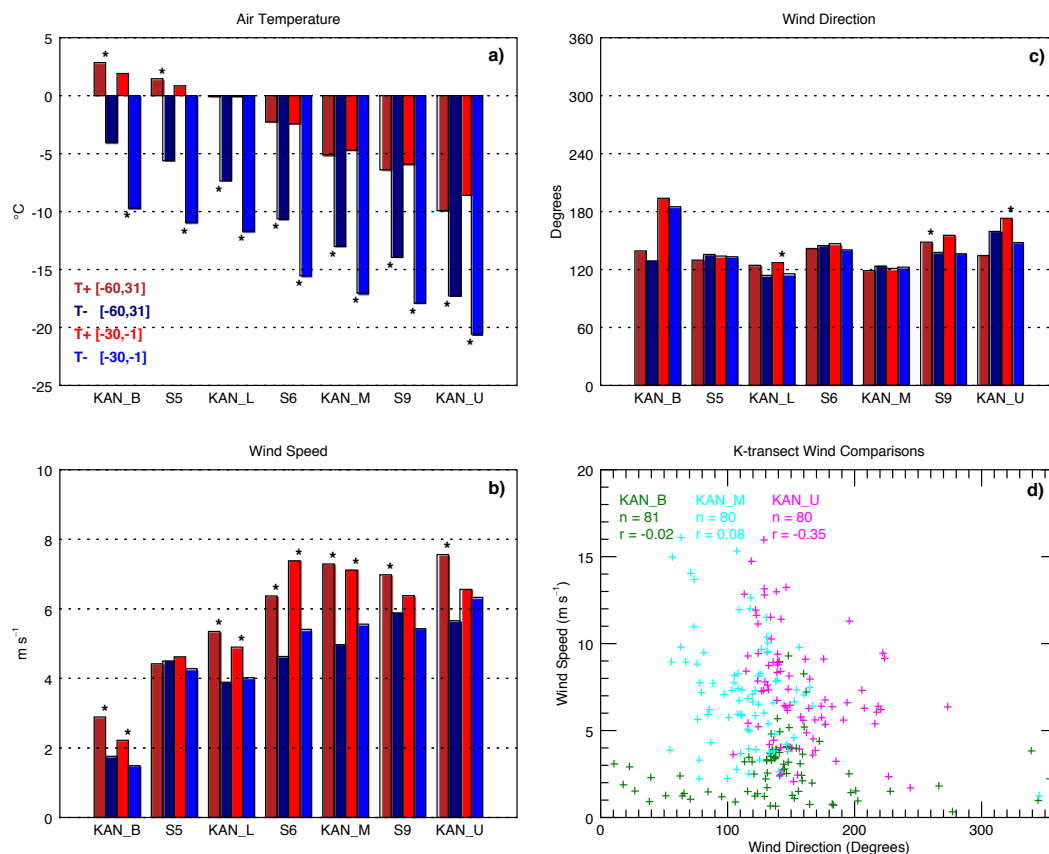


## Figures



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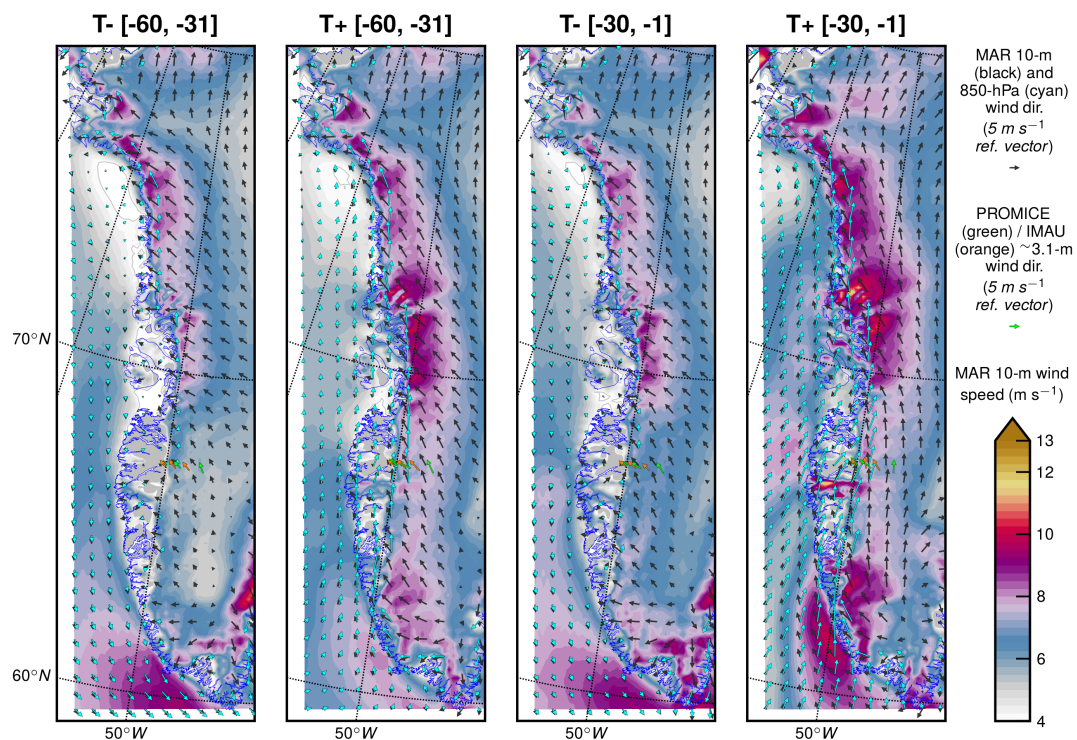
**Figure 1.** Study area map with PROMICE and IMAU K-transect sites and adjacent terrestrial DMI stations (Kangerlussuaq (WMO code 4231) and Sisimiut (WMO code 4234)). The inset displays the northwest Atlantic Arctic region with superimposed GrIS topographically-defined boundaries, adopted from Ohmura and Reeh (1991).



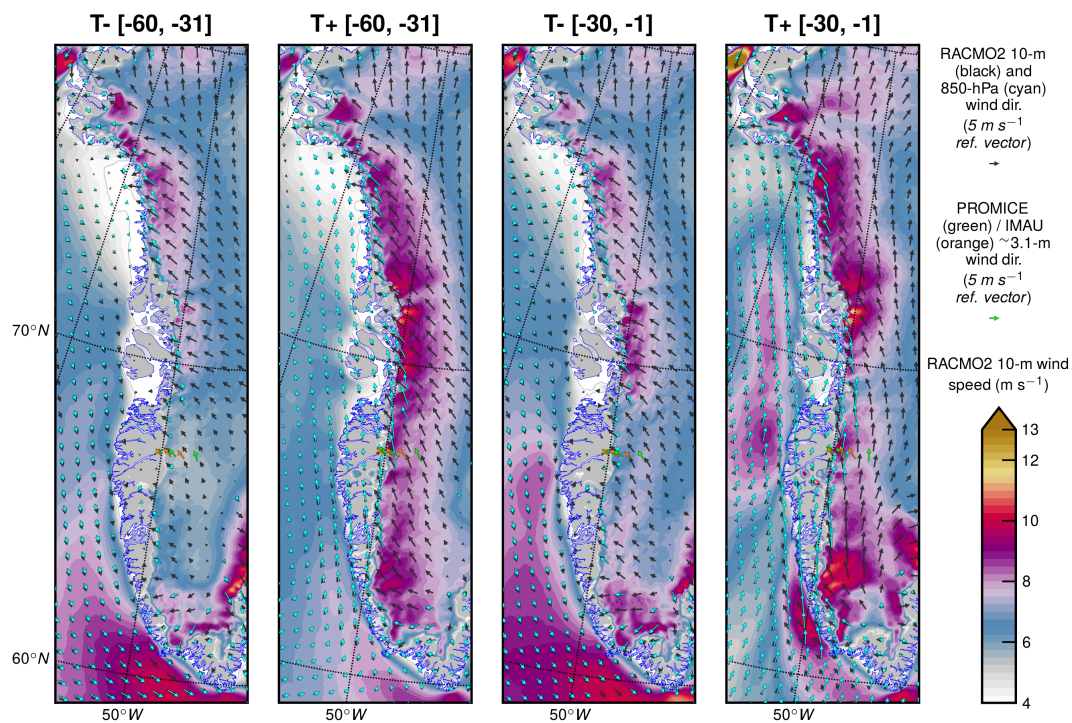
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**Figure 2.** Composites of a) near-surface air temperature, b) wind speed, and c) wind direction for the T+ and T- events at KAN\_B preceding Baffin DOA, 2011-2015. Significant differences ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) between T+ and T- composites by time bins are shown by asterisks (\*) between the bars. Panel d) shows wind speed as a function of direction for select, roughly equidistant K-transect PROMICE stations.

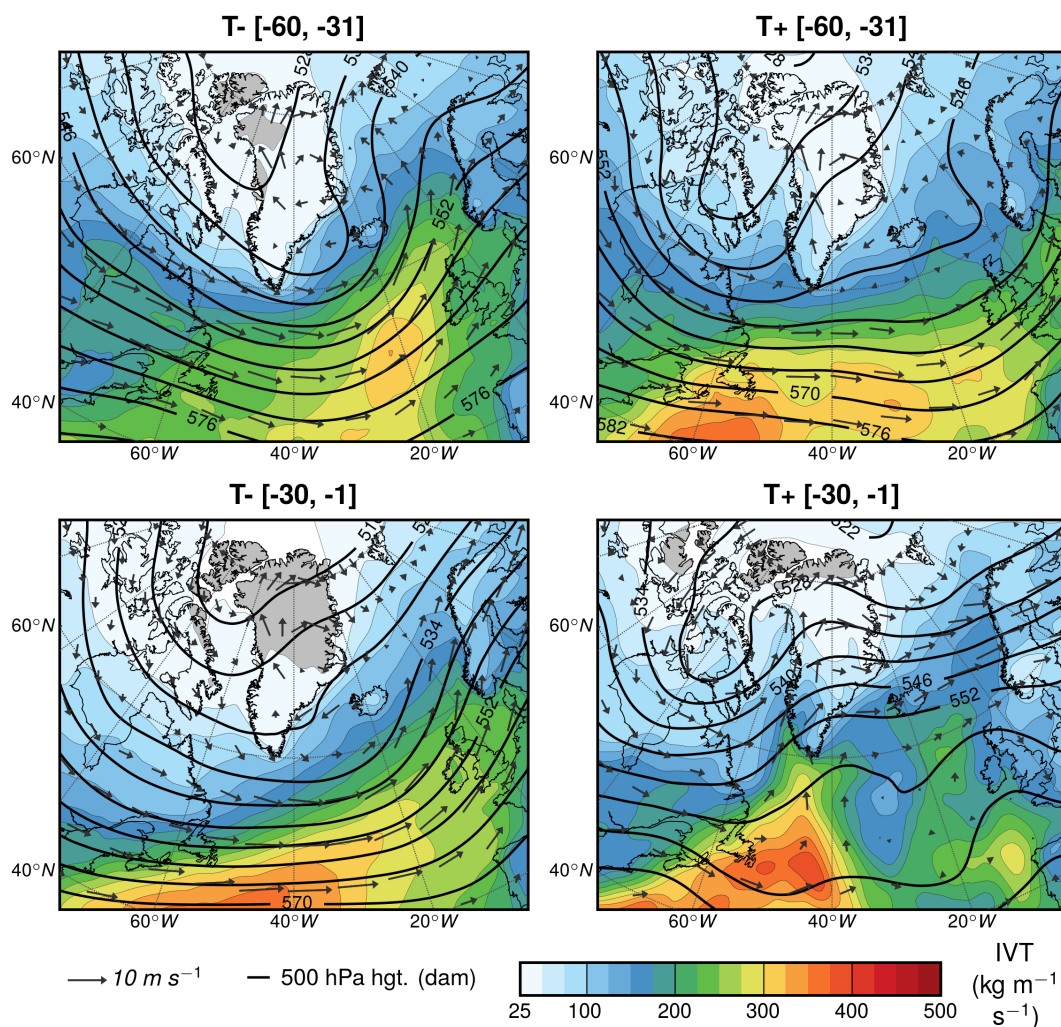
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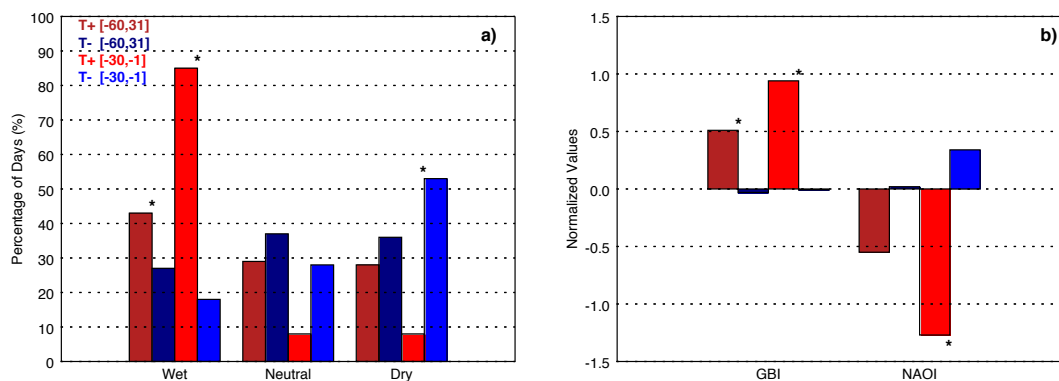
560 **Figure 3.** Composites of MAR 10-m (black arrows) and 850 hPa (cyan arrows) vector winds for the T+ and T- events  
at KAN\_B preceding Baffin DOA, 2011-2015. Wind observations from PROMICE (green arrows) and IMAU  
(orange arrows) are overlaid for reference.



**Figure 4.** Composites of RACMO2 10-m (black arrows) and 850 hPa (cyan arrows) vector winds for the T+ and T- events at KAN\_B preceding Baffin DOA, 2011-2015 (refer to methods for details). Wind observations from PROMICE (green arrows) and IMAU (orange arrows) are overlaid for reference.



**Figure 5.** Composite plots of IVT, 1000-700 hPa winds, and 500 hPa GPH for T+ and T- events at KAN\_B for the two periods preceding DOA.



**Figure 6.** Composites of a) self-organizing map (SOM) nodes by wet, neutral and dry types (%) and b) normalized GBI and NAO values (unitless) for T+ and T- events at KAN\_B for the two periods preceding DOA. SOM aggregates represent the ratio of each pattern's occurrence to the sum of all patterns for each time period and similarly colored bars sum to 100%. Significant differences ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) between T+ and T- composites by time bins are shown by asterisks (\*) between the bars.