

Dear Ilker,

Thank you very much for handling our manuscript. Our “final author reply to the editor” is structured as follows:

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Best regards,
Enrico and Marc

Updated response to reviewer comments by Igor Polyakov

Thank you very much for your very insightful review and very constructive comments. We repeat your comments (using a dark red font color) below. Our responses are given in black font. Please find a track changes version at the end of this document.

The manuscript proposes a new method for estimating the depth of the Cold Halocline Layer (CHL). The topic is important and warrants a lot of attention in the published paper. Thus, I am very positive that the authors have the potential to produce a nice publication.

However, at the current stage, the manuscript suffers from several major shortcomings:

- I did not find a convincing and satisfactory comparison of the three methods defining the halocline. The majority of the materials presented in the manuscript are about the illustration of the application of the methods and not their comparison. This comparison should include an evaluation of each method’s performance and an explanation of the benefits of using each method. Right now, the way it is done is not satisfactory. I would like to see, for example, individual temperature (T) and salinity (S) profiles where the authors show what each method provides and explain the physical reasons for that. I found Fig. 3, which is devoted to method comparison, to be hard to read and not informative.

We have analyzed individual profiles from ITP-74 and ITP-33. In response to a comment below, we have also re-processed the data at the native vertical resolution. Reprocessing the data at the native vertical resolution affected individual results (see e.g. Figs. 2 and 4 of the revised manuscript), but our overall conclusion regarding the robustness of the methods still holds. In Figure 2, we excluded profiles that started below 15 m. This strongly reduces the effect of noise in determining the SML base without affecting the overall result.

We find that investigating individual profiles does help to better understand the differences between the methods. Figure 3 shows profiles before winter convection, during winter convection, and after winter convection from ITP74. Figures 3a and c for 13 January 2014 show that the TD method misinterprets the halocline base. During winter convection (Figs 3e–h), no halocline was identified. This is because the threshold for identifying the halocline base was already exceeded at the SML base for the DR and the TD method (Fig. 3f and g), while the threshold was not reached for the ST method (Fig. 3h). Fig. 3i for 15 July 2014 (after winter convection) shows freshening and warming near the surface. This indicates that relatively fresh melt or shelf water may have been advected above a colder and saline layer, which had been preconditioned by winter convection. The freshening near the surface leads to a salinity gradient below, and also a stability maximum, which is captured by the ST method (Fig. 3h). This appears to be consistent with the mechanisms for halocline formation described by Rudels et al. (1996). Rudels et al. (1996) found new halocline formation taking place when relatively fresh shelf waters near the surface were advected above denser and saltier water below, limiting winter convection. Rudels et al. (2004) and Alkire et al. (2017) stressed the role of melt water in the warm Atlantic inflow through the Fram Strait and via the Barents Sea for halocline formation via this type of capping mechanism. Fig. 3h for 15 July 2014 (after winter convection) suggests that the ST method might indeed be useful for identifying the beginning new halocline formation via the Rudels et al. (1996, 2004) mechanism.

Figure 4 for ITP-33, which is a revised version of Fig. 7a (now including salinity and stability) shows isolated halocline base depth minima for the DR and the TD method, but not for the stability (ST) method.

Figure 5a–d shows a case from ITP-33 on 11 July 2010 in which the TD method produces an isolated halocline base depth minimum and Fig. 5e–f shows a case on 6 September 2010 in which the DR method produces an isolated halocline base depth minimum. In both cases, the isolated minima are related to the presence of a layer of warm Pacific Summer Water (PSW) around ~ 80 m (Figs. 5a and e). For 11 July 2010, the best estimate of the halocline base depth is provided by the DR method (Fig. 5b). The DR method correctly places the base of the halocline water at a depth, where the salinity gradient (Fig. 5a) changes. Stability (Fig. 5d) also decreases markedly at this depth, although the ST method identifies the base of the halocline base about 20 m below this location (Fig. 5d). The TD method (Fig. 5c) places the base of the halocline at about 80 m in a layer of warm water, although the salinity gradient below this layer still indicates the presence of a halocline and temperature decreases below this layer, indicating the presence of Pacific Winter Water (PWW). For 6 September 2010, the DR threshold is exceeded at a local maximum which is related to a very steep temperature gradient (Fig. 5f) at the base of the PSW. While all three methods rely on finding a threshold, the search direction differs. Because the ST method searches upward, the warm PSW layer does not result in isolated depth minima (Figs. 5d and h).

Overall, the analysis suggests that the search direction matters. With the DR and the TD method, we search downward, while with the ST method we search upward. This may help to explain why the ST method yields more robust results. We have emphasized this point in the revised version of our manuscript. The discussion of the seasonal cycle was removed. The revised manuscript focusses more on comparing the methods. Please refer to the track changes version for details and further information.

- It looks like the authors misinterpret the water structure of the Arctic Ocean, which has direct implications for their comparative analysis of the three methods used for the definition of the halocline base. In the Eurasian Basin, CHL is the layer where T is close to the freezing point (that is why it is called cold) and S rapidly increases. However, below the CHL, there is the second portion of halocline—the lower halocline water—in which T and S increase with depth. The authors should define

what they investigate. In the Canadian Basin, this structure is further complicated by the presence of two other halocline water varieties: Pacific summer and winter waters. Showing the Nordic Seas and Siberian shelves should be excluded from their analysis, for example.

We erroneously equated the CHL with halocline. In the revised version of our introduction, we explain the halocline, CHL, lower halocline waters (LHW), PSW and PWW and switched from CHL to halocline unless we are explicitly referring to the CHL. We revised the subsequent discussion of the results and the title of our manuscript accordingly. Please refer to the revised version of our manuscript for details.

In Fig. 6, which represents a revised version of Figs. 5 and 6, we excluded regions shallower than 100 m. Please let us know if you suggest to further adjust this threshold.

- By the way, it looks to me like the authors miss two golden opportunities to give a beautiful explanation to their methods. a) Fig. 2 from a single ITP record shows a mismatch of results between the authors' stability method (ST) and the density ratio (DR) method after winter convection. I may be wrong, but it is worth checking whether the ST method captures the beginning of the new halocline formation, which is not captured by the two other methods. The halocline formation is a very important topic of Arctic oceanography. b) When the authors analyzed halostad, a possible interpretation may be that they analyzed the boundaries of a variety (winter or summer) of Pacific water. It is worth checking, and if it is true, this may be a nice touch to "sell" the method.

Thank you very much for pointing this out.

a) In our response to your first major comment above, we argue that the ST method may indeed capture the beginning of the new halocline formation based on Figs. 3i and l. We added this point to the abstract of the revised version. Your reviewer comment is cited at the end of the introduction.

b) Shimada et al. (2005) explained that the cold halostad (CHS) is formed by Pacific Winter Water (PWW). In the revised introduction, we first introduce PWW and PSW and then explain the link between CHS

and PWW. Please refer to the revised version for details.

- The way materials presented is often not good enough – see my detailed comments provided to the authors.

Thank you very much for the suggestions. We revised the entire manuscript. Please refer to the track changes version at the end of this document.

Despite these deficiencies, I believe that the authors can improve the manuscript to the level suitable for publications. That is why I give a “major revision” to this manuscript.

We appreciate your patience.

Below are my specific comments.

Comments:

1. Line 16: As defined, it is not CHL, but CHL+Lower Halocline Water in the Eurasian Basin.

Yes, thank you very much for pointing this out. The cited values from Polyakov et al. (2018) refer to the base of the halocline and not the CHL. We revised the introduction based on comments by both reviewers. In the revised version, we introduce halocline, CHL, PWW, PSW, and LHW, and describe the structure of the halocline for the Eurasian Basin and the Amerasian Basin. Please refer either to the track changes version or to the revised manuscript for details.

2. Line 17: 300m may be correct for the Canadian Basin but not for the Eurasian Basin.

We now write that the Atlantic water is centered near 300 to 500 m in the Eurasian Basin and somewhat deeper in the Canada Basin, citing Macdonald et al. (2015) in addition to Aagaard et al. (1981).

3. Line 43: The halocline has a complex structure indeed, but this was first described long time ago – see papers by e.g. Rudels, Aagaard, Carmack, Steele.

We revised the introduction based on suggestions by both reviewers. We now first explain the structure of the halocline with CHL, PHW, and LHW, in the first paragraph of the introduction. We cite Bertosio et al. (2020) and Bertosio et al. (2022) for their methods used to determine the base of the LHW in the third paragraph.

4. Line 57: Same as for line 43, plus add here Pacific waters.

In the revised introduction, we explain the structure of the halocline in the Amerasian Basin at the end of the first paragraph, mentioning the origins of PSW, PWW, and LHW. We explain that according to Shimada et al. (2005) CHS is formed by PWW.

5. Data description.

- Please provide vertical resolution of original data, time covered by observations, show distribution of data coverage in time and space for annual and seasonal coverage, show separately spatiotemporal coverage provided by ITP and other sources. Provide accuracy of observations.

Figure 1 of the revised shows the spatiotemporal coverage provided by UDASH and ITP data. UDASH contains low resolution profiles. In the original version of our manuscript, we had erroneously taken even profiles into account, in which the resolution is clearly insufficient. As explained in the revised version, we now filter the data. In the revised version, only profiles with a vertical resolution finer than 2.5 dbar in the upper 300 m and a vertical resolution finer than 5 dbar elsewhere were used. The vertical resolution for ITP level III data is 1 ± 0.1 dbar. The accuracy of the sensors used for the ITP observations is 0.002°C for temperature and 0.002 for salinity (Polyakov et al., 2017). This is now stated in the revised manuscript.

The UDASH dataset (Behrendt et al., 2018) was assembled from a number different sources and platforms.

- I do not understand the need of this complex vertical data interpolation (lines 89-90). I suspect that the original (raw) data have 1 or 2m resolution which should be sufficient for the purposes of the study.

We re-processed the data without prior vertical interpolation.

- Exclude all points from the shelves where there is no typically halocline found. The same is true for the Nordic Seas.

We excluded regions shallower than 100 m (Fig. ??). Please let us know if you suggest to further adjust this threshold in case we are eventually granted a second round of reviews.

- Regions are shown in Fig 1 but not used. What is the purpose for that?

Thank you for pointing this out. We removed the regions from Fig. 1 in the revised version.

1. Line 101: Why T is given in K, not in C?

This was changed to °C in the revised version.

2. Line 113: Shallower, not smaller.

Yes, thank you. This was changed.

3. Section 2.2.4 and further discussion: All these methods should be illustrated using individual profiles where everything is clearly marked and

visible. Same section: You may use definition of the upper Atlantic Water layer by using 0°C isotherm.

Yes, please refer to Figs. 3 and 5 of the revised manuscript. We replaced the doubled DT-threshold by the 0°C isotherm.

4. Section 2.2.5: The authors may want to clearly define halostad by giving some physical interpretation for this layer.

In the revised version of our introduction, we associate the cold halostad (CHS) with PWW based on Shimada et al. (2005) and explain the origin of the term cold halostad (see above). We also explain that in the presence of a CHS, the underlying LHW accounts for a second stability maximum (compare Fig. 5a and e)

5. Line 144: Taking 0.001m threshold seems misleading since the original data have a 1m vertical resolution (or even coarser).

We use a vertical interpolation between points, and the 0.001m accounts for rounding errors. We revised our methods section for clarity.

6. Section 2.3. I found the use of kriging more misleading than helpful in this study. Actually there is no need in that at all since the authors used another much simpler method which serves for the purposes.

We removed the maps with the kriging results (see Fig. 6 of the revised manuscript).

7. Line 168: Filtration of outliers using such a severe threshold of 25/75% (which is less than 1.5 standard deviation) needs an explanation. Sensitivity study where the authors show how sensitive their estimates to different thresholds may be helpful.

Outliers were defined as values outside the interval $[Q1 - 1.5 IQR, Q3 + 1.5 IQR]$, where $Q1$ is the first quartile, $Q3$ the third quartile, and $IQR = Q3 - Q1$ is the inter-quartile range. The section on kriging was omitted.

8. Line 198: An example where the authors misinterpret water masses: I think they found that the CHL disappeared but the lower halocline water (not AW) is below the SML.

We omitted the sentence containing the reference to “warm Atlantic water” from the revised manuscript. In a sentence in Section 3.2 of the revised manuscript, we now refer to “large temperature gradients” found directly underneath the SML.

9. Line 202: Please provide specific for the cases when the criteria were not met: what criteria, why, etc.

Figure 3 was removed. Instead, we discuss individual profiles as suggested. The corresponding figures show thresholds used as criteria (Figs. 3, 5).

10. Line 204: I did not understand what is written there.

The sentence was removed. Sometimes, thresholds are exceeded already at the SML base. For these profiles, the halocline base depth is initially computed to be very close to zero (instead of exactly zero because of small rounding errors due to floating point operations). These near-zero values are excluded in the computation of average halocline base depth. When computing the occurrence frequency, these profiles are treated as “no halocline detected”. The occurrence frequency is defined as number of profiles in which a cold halocline was detected divided by number of profiles. We tried to explain this better in the methods section of the revised manuscript. We re-wrote the methods section to focus more on content and less on technical detail. Please refer to the track changes version for details.

11. Fig 2: I think this, plus Fig 7, is a good plot to be used for the method interpretation. I suggest to move line definition from the panel - the authors have space below the map. This case would be nice to illustrate further by using individual profiles of T & S for different regimes.

Thank you very much. Figures 2 and 7 were, of course, inspired by Polyakov et al. (2017). We moved the legend defining the lines and we followed your suggestion to analyze individual profiles (see above).

Similar plot for the Canadian Basin, plus individual profiles from there, would be a good illustration for regional halocline differences.

Please refer to Figures 4 and 5 of the revised manuscript and the corresponding discussion.

1. 3. Not a good figure. I would completely eliminate it since I found no information in the current version.

The figure was eliminated.

2. Section 3.2. What does “occurrence” mean in this context?

The occurrence frequency is defined as number of profiles in which a cold halocline was detected divided by number of profiles analyzed. When a threshold was either exceeded at the SML base or not exceeded at all, the profile was treated as “no halocline detected”. In the revised manuscript, we introduce the term occurrence frequency where it first occurs in Sect. 3.2.

3. Fig 4: Please eliminate point in the Nordic Seas and over the shelves. I suggest to eliminate panels with kriging. The point here is not to show the differences between spatial interpolation methods, but between halocline definition. So, I suggest to show additional panels for differences between methods: e.g. ST-DR and ST-TD. Again, please explain “occurrence”. I did not understand the “nearest-neighbor” method: If the nearest data point to the grid point is used, why there was averaging then?

In the revised version of Fig. 4 (now included in Fig. 6), we excluded points in regions shallower than 100 m, eliminated the panels with kriging, and included additional panels for differences between methods. Regarding the nearest neighbor method, we first define a grid. Then, all

the profiles which are closest to a given grid point are assigned to that grid point. We will explicitly explain this point in the revised methods section.

4. 5: The same as for Fig 4: Please eliminate estimates from kriging and compare methods of halocline definition and not the methods of spatial interpolation. I.e. show CHL-DR minus CHL-ST and CHL-TD minus CHL_ST.

We combined Figs. 4 and 5 of the original manuscript in Fig. 6 of the revised manuscript and followed your suggestions.

5. Lines 245-247: Often, some analysis of SML is given (like in this paragraph). This is not the topic of the study, first. SML parameters may be given, if they serve the purpose of illustrating the methods. Otherwise, please skip these places. As they are now, they raise questions about newness of these results (e.g. asking for comparison with the previous papers on the subject)

We eliminated the maps showing the SML depths and the corresponding discussion.

6. Fig 6: The caption is not clear – the difference is not defined. “(e) to (f)” is not clear. Cos fit is not illustrated.

The plot was eliminated. Difference referred to the difference between seasonal and annual mean.

7. Fig 7. Is good, but a) add T &S (like in Fig 2) b) move line definition from the panel.

Done.

8. Fig 8: What is the point of giving fraction of grid points? What is halostad depth? Give a physical interpretation (Pacific water?).

We reported the fraction of points because the spatial coverage varies with season, and we now also refer to this information in the discussion of the figure. CHS depth was defined here as the depth of the center of the CHS. The center was defined as the mean of the upper and the lower bound of the CHS. The upper and the lower bound of the CHS were defined by a threshold stability. This threshold stability was defined as the mean of the stability minimum in the CHS and the stability maximum in the LHW. We revised the methods section for clarity.

9. Line 314: What is “semi-saline”?

We replaced the expression “semi-saline” by “low salinity” based on a suggestion in the reviewer comment by A. Athanase.

10. Line 321: How can we see the point made for the Barents Sea?

This discussion will was removed from the revised manuscript. We should have written Nansen Basin.

11. Line 322: This discussion and comparison with Steele work needs much more thorough analysis – not just a single line.

We now discuss new halocline formation. We omitted the reference to Steele 1995. Instead, we simply point out that the methods produce qualitatively different results, with halocline base depth decreasing north of the Norwegian Sea for the TD method.

12. Line 325 – What does this “lack: mean?

The sentence was removed from the revised manuscript. We should have written absence instead of lack.

Thank you very much again. We very much appreciate your comments. Please refer to the track changes version for a detailed description of all the revisions. Because of the substantial revisions in almost all sections, this response is still limited to summarizing and outlining major changes. We have re-written

parts of the methods section for clarity, revised the results section based on the very constructive comments and suggestions by both reviewers, and also adapted the title, the abstract and the summary section accordingly. We did not attempt to describe and motivate each of the individual changes in this response. Instead, we marked the changes in the track changes version. In some cases, including cases in which we noted and removed errors, we also motivated and explained changes in the track changes version. In a few places, we changed the draft version of the revised introduction that was included in the original response to the reviewer comment by M. Athanase. However, we completely kept track only of the changes compared to the original manuscript and not to this draft. We very much appreciate your effort in reviewing this technical note and consider the suggestions from the reviews a key contribution to the revised manuscript.

Updated response to reviewer comments by **Marylou Athanase**

Thank you very much for your very insightful review and very constructive comments. We repeat your comments (using a dark blue font color) below.

Our responses are given in black font. Please find a track changes version at the end of this document.

Summary:

The present study proposes a new method for the detection of the cold halocline layer base depth in the Arctic Ocean. The authors define a new criterion based on vertical stability and compare the results to those obtained with two previously used methods: one based on the density ratio, and one based on temperature differences. Using the ITP and UDASH databases, they derive pan-Arctic maps of the cold halocline layer base depth using all three methods.

General assessment:

The topic is well within the scope of Ocean Science and is of particular importance given the complex and varying structure of the Arctic halocline throughout basins. However, several crucial points would need to be addressed, regarding the manuscript organization as well as the clarity of the method and completeness of the results. Below are listed my major and minor comments. For these reasons, I recommend that the manuscript undergo major revisions before being potentially suitable for publication.

Major comments:

- The manuscript lacks a clear, physical explanation of what the CHL and cold halostad are, and how the proposed method detects their boundaries. I would also suggest the authors emphasize the goal aimed to be achieved by defining a new criterion, e.g., enabling the robust detection of the CHL base depth across basins and seasons using only one criterion.

Thank you very much for this comment and the more detailed suggestions below. We have revised the introduction based on your comments and on the reviewer comments by I. Polyakov (please refer to the track changes version for

details). Regarding the organization of the revised introduction, we followed your detailed suggestions, with five paragraphs introducing concepts, listing criteria, underlining importance, explaining our motivation, and introducing the organization of the manuscript.

In the revised version of the introduction, we first introduce layers and water masses. We start with the surface mixed layer and the halocline. Then, we introduce major components of the halocline: the CHL in the Eurasian Basin, the Pacific Halocline Water (PHW) in the Amerasian Basin, and the Lower Halocline Water (LHW), following the nomenclature of Polyakov et al. (2018). We then introduce Pacific Winter Water (PWW), which forms the cold halostad (CHS), and Pacific Summer Water (PSW).

The more detailed description of the halocline including the introduction of PSW and PWW in the first paragraph of the revised introduction owes to comments and suggestions by I. Polyakov. We strongly agree that introducing these water masses is useful for interpreting the results. For details on this point please refer to the revised manuscript. We also provide additional detail on halocline formation mechanisms in the first paragraph because I. Polyakov suggested that the ST method may capture the beginning of new halocline formation. We now think that interpreting the results in the light of the Rudels et al. (1996) mechanism supports this idea. For details on this point please refer to the revised manuscript and also to our response to the reviewer comments by I. Polyakov.

In the second paragraph of the revised introduction, we underline the importance of the halocline for the present and future of the Arctic Ocean. In the third paragraph, we combined the paragraphs describing the existing criteria to define halocline and CHL base. In the fourth paragraph, we describe our original motivation for suggesting the stability (ST) method. Our original motivation was to use a threshold variable to define the halocline base which is more closely related to the role of the halocline as a stable layer which prevents warm Atlantic Water from reaching the SML and reducing sea ice than either the density ratio or the temperature difference. The analysis of individual profiles suggested by both reviewers indicates that the increased robustness of ST method derives mainly from the different search direction in the ST method

compared to the two existing methods: in the ST method we search upward instead of downward. This avoids isolated depth minima caused by near-surface features. We discussed this point in the revised version of our manuscript.

- It is my understanding that here, the authors equate the CHL base to the point of maximum stability. Wouldn't the point of maximum stability rather be within the "cline" you are considering, and not necessarily at its base? If I misunderstood, I would suggest the authors clarify their method and the physical reasoning behind it, as stated above.

We revised our methods section for clarity. As stated in lines 116f of the original submission, the stability threshold in the ST method was derived based on the density ratio threshold from the DR method. The original motivation behind devising the stability method was that a stable halocline prevents warm Atlantic Water from reaching the surface mixed layer, where it can either melt existing sea ice or prevent sea ice formation. We argue that stability is more closely related to vertical mixing than either the density ratio or the temperature difference.

- The manuscript still lacks an actual evaluation of the performance of each of the detection methods presented here. I like the large scales comparisons, but it lacks some quantitative estimates (which ideally would take into account the varying seasons and basins) and some idea of which method performs best. Because of the diversity of situations, different tests may lead to different rankings of the presented methods. And that is fine, as long as these various results are explicitly presented and discussed.

In order to evaluate the methods and to better understand the reason behind the different robustness, we investigated individual profiles as suggested by both reviewers. The analysis (please refer to the revised version for details) suggests that (a) the ST method captured the beginning new halocline formation directly underneath relatively fresh surface water in the Eurasian Basin, (b) the TD method overestimated the halocline depth in the Eurasian Basin, (c) in the Canadian Basin isolated

halocline base minima in the DR and the TD method occurred because of a layer of warm Pacific Water, and (d) the ST method slightly overestimated the depths of the halocline base in the Canada Basin. These findings are broadly consistent with summary statistics of halocline depth in Fig. 7 of the revised manuscript. In the Eurasian Basin, the ST method more frequently identifies a halocline base not far below the SML base compared to the DR method. Based on suggestions by I. Polyakov, we now interpret this as an indication of the ST method capturing the beginning of new halocline formation. The TD method overestimates the cold halocline base depth in the Eurasian Basin (Fig. 7b). In the Canada Basin (Fig. 7d), the DR method detected a halocline base shallower than 160 m for 10.2% of the profiles and the TD method for 3.5% of the profiles, indicative of isolated maxima due to the influence of near-surface warm Pacific water. These numbers differ from the numbers stated previously during the discussion in our response to your reviewer comment. This is because the numbers stated previously were accidentally based on a dataset which was meant for kriging, and from which outliers had been removed as described in the original version of the manuscript, and also because we omitted low resolution profiles from the UDASH data set as described in the revised manuscript. Using the correct data and omitting low resolution data from UDASH also changed Fig. 7 as stated in the track changes version of the manuscript in a note in the figure caption. Slightly increasing the stability threshold in the ST method may lead to a better match between the halocline base depths from the ST and the TD method by moving the halocline base estimated by the ST method upward and by decreasing the sensitivity of the ST method to new halocline formation.

- The organization of the manuscript lacks fluid connections, both in the introduction and in the presentation of the results. Subsections seem to be organized thematically but without a clear logical order. I would suggest the authors consider reorganizing the overall manuscript (introduction and results) and the abstract as follows:

- 1) Clear introduction of what SML, CHL, and cold halostad are, and why

they matter (as already done in part for the CHL).

- 2) Presenting the previous methods that have been used to define these layers, and underlining eventual (knowledge) gaps in these methods.
- 3) Introducing the new method, the physical reasoning behind its development, and the goal it aims to achieve.
- 4) Demonstrating how the results of the new method compare to results from previous methods (qualitatively and quantitatively, by adding some basin-wise statistics for example), and what are the gains of the new method.

We have revised the introduction, computed basin-wise statistics (see above), and now use individual profiles in our comparison of the results. For details, please refer to the revised version and/or the track changes version of our manuscript.

Minor comments:

In the introduction in general:

It would be good to improve logical connections between paragraphs. For example, L26-27: what is the connection between Atlantification discussions and CHL characteristics? You could finish the previous paragraph by commenting on possible changes in the strength of stratification within the CHL that could either boost or hinder further Atlantification.

We agree that it would be good to improve the logical connections between paragraphs. However, the first paragraph of the revised introduction is entirely devoted to introducing the different layers and water masses. Atlantification is now only mentioned in the second paragraph, which underlines the importance of these concepts. This provides a very nice and clear separation, but makes a smooth transition difficult.

In general, I would suggest reshaping your introduction as follows (as stated above):

- Defining the broad concepts of cold halocline layer and cold halostad

We followed this suggestion, but also introduce water masses such as PSW and PWW and discuss halocline formation mechanisms, especially the Rudels et al. (1996) mechanism, as explained in our response to your first major comment.

- Underlining their importance for our understanding of the present and future Arctic ocean characteristics

We now introduce layers and water masses in the first paragraph and comment on their importance in the second paragraph.

- Listing criteria for their definition used so far, and eventually pros and cons

We list the criteria. We found a comparison of halocline base depths computed with different methods in Bertosio et al. (2022). But as far as we know, there has been no systematic comparison of the pros and cons so far. We think that the devised methods are all very useful for the purpose they were designed for.

- Explaining clearly the motivation behind creating a new set of criteria, and the problem you aim to address

Regarding the halocline base, the existing thresholds are not as closely related to the role of the halocline as a stable layer which prevents mixing (although Section 2.2.4 of the original manuscript suggests that density ratio and stability are indeed related). But we consider this a feature of the methods, and not necessarily a problem. Each of the methods targets different aspects, which may be more or less relevant to the question at hand.

- Finally, introduce the organization of the manuscript (as you already do)

We revised the paragraph, and we also revised the rest of the manuscript.

L22–26: Remind the readers in 1-2 sentences what Atlantification is. In fact, you partly do so in the following sentence, but this should come earlier. And isn't ice loss a symptom/characteristic of Atlantification, too?

The revised sentence reads as follows: *Retreating sea ice, increased surface heat flux and the retreat of the halocline have been called atlantification of the Eurasian Basin (Polyakov et al., 2017).*

L38–39: Here, and generally throughout the manuscript, please define concepts as early as they appear. This sentence should come as you mention the density ratio, 2 lines above. In short, put the sentence line 37–38 at the end of this paragraph.

Thank you very much. We moved the sentence in lines 37-38 down, so that density ratio is introduced before mentioning studies which adopted the DR method. In the overview of halocline layers and waters in the first paragraph of the introduction, we provide short definitions of the Pacific Halocline Water (PHW) and the Lower Halocline Water (LHW) in parenthesis before expanding on details further below in the same paragraph.

L34–52: It would be best to reshape this series of 3 paragraphs into one, listing all existing used criteria to define the base of the CHL and eventually their pro and cons.

We combined the three paragraphs. Please refer to our response above regarding a discussion of the pros and cons already in the introduction. Thanks to the reviewers' suggestion to focus on individual profiles, we consider ourselves in a much better position to provide a more substantial discussion of the pros and cons in the results and the conclusion section of the revised manuscript.

L57: You already introduced this concept above when citing Bertosio (2020) and (2022). Would be best to merge the descriptions of upper and lower CHL into one paragraph here, keeping the relevant citations.

We merged the paragraphs and kept the citations. The relevant concepts are introduced in the first paragraph of the revised introduction.

L75: “Level III data”: This processing level naming convention is rather opaque for unfamiliar readers. State more clearly what this entails (visual inspection, vertical interpolation, salinity spikes or bias corrections... etc)

The data processing for the ITP data is described by Krishfield et al. <http://www.whoi.edu/files/server.do?id=35803&pt=2&p=41486>. Producing Level III

data included removal of corrupted data, corrections for the sensor response behavior, calibrations, and final screening of spurious outliers. We mention this in the revised version of our methods section.

L91: “Gaussian filter”: as above, please introduce each processing method explicitly.

We revised the sentence as follows: *In order to reduce noise, the data was smoothed using a standard one-dimensional Gaussian filter (convolution with a Gaussian function, e.g. Deng and Cahill, 1993) with a standard deviation of 2 dbar and a truncation at ± 10 dbar.*

Where the standard deviation and the truncation are in dbar instead of m because we have re-processed the data at the original vertical resolution without prior re-gridding and reduced the filter width and truncation.

Please note that Gaussian filters are a standard tool in signal processing (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gaussian_filter). Gaussian filters are generally more efficient at filtering high frequency noise compared to box filters (also known as running mean). Bourgain and Gascard (2001) used box filters of different widths for different variables.

L89: Is this reasonable for all profiles? Could some profiles, especially the oldest ones, have a vertical sampling of 5 to 10 m? If that is the case, please state so and briefly discuss why you think such a high-resolution interpolation is appropriate and reasonable. I would also suggest the authors consider a vertical resolution that is less fine and closer to the native profiles’ vertical resolutions.

We reprocessed the data at the native resolution and we also omitted low-resolution profiles. In the revised version, only profiles with a vertical resolution finer than 2.5 dbar in the upper 300 m and a vertical resolution finer than 5 dbar elsewhere were used.

L139: it seems this sentence has grammar issues.

Yes, thank you. In the revised version, this sentence reads:

A CHS will only be recognized by the algorithm if the vertical distance between the deeper stability maximum the first upper occurrence of that same stability

value is at least 50 m, and the difference of L between the lower stability maximum and the local minimum in the CHS is at least 0.2.

L141: . . . "only the lowest of these layers is identified as a cold halostad." Why is that, physically?

The sentence in the original manuscript stated that in *rare cases, in which more than one layer fulfills these conditions, only the lowest of these layers is identified as a cold halostad*, although we had not encountered any such cases, and only now added a few lines of code to identify and count such cases. It turned out that no such case occurred. We revised the statement accordingly.

L169: 25th/75th percentile: This is an extremely stringent test. Can you explain why you took such a high threshold? As the other reviewer stated, it would be good to know how sensitive your results are to the "outlier" threshold you chose.

Outliers were defined as values outside the interval $[Q1 - 1.5 IQR, Q3 + 1.5 IQR]$, where $Q1$ is the first quartile, $Q3$ the third quartile, and $IQR = Q3 - Q1$ is the inter-quartile range. The section on kriging was omitted.

L254: In general, I would try to limit references to previous specific figures from previous papers. It is easier if you directly remind the readers what were the findings shown that figure through text, citing the source paper, in discussing your results in light of it.

This discussion was removed. The revised version contains updated figures in which we removed the panels showing maps of the SML .

L314: If you mean "comparatively low-salinity" then use "low salinity".

Yes, thank you very much. We followed your suggestion and corrected this expression in the revised introduction.

Fig. 2 and 7: I like these figures, and it would be great to have one of such plots for -when possible- each subregion and season. Even on one ITP, you could for example indicate when the buoys are in Canada vs. Makarov vs. Amundsen / Nansen basins.

Thank you very much for liking these figures. They were inspired by Polyakov et al. (2017). The revised manuscript contains revised versions of Figs. 2 and 7. Fig. 7 shows statistics for selected basins. We cited your reviewer comment suggesting to include basin-wide statistics at the end of the revised introduction.

Fig. 3: This is an interesting visualization, but it is rather under-used in the manuscript. I would suggest the author consider replacing it with plots presenting the vertical profiles, either in the introduction to present your various concepts (SML, upper and lower CHL, cold halostad), or in your results by grouping profiles in similar regions or seasons.

We analyzed individual profiles (please refer to the revised manuscript). Fig. 3 was replaced. Fig. 7 of the revised manuscript shows summary statistics. The figure is discussed in Sect. 3.2 of the revised manuscript.

Fig. 4 and 5: I still do not quite get the goal of using 2 interpolation methods (NN and kriging). If there is no other objective that showing the pan-Arctic results in 2 different ways, I would suggest the authors pick one of these methods and eliminate the other, in order to make the manuscript more fluid.

The kriging was eliminated.

Thank you very much again. We very much appreciate your comments. Please refer to the track changes version for a detailed description of all the revisions. Because of the substantial revisions in almost all sections, this response is still limited to summarizing and outlining major changes. We have re-written parts of the methods section for clarity, revised the results section based on the very constructive comments and suggestions by both reviewers, and also adapted the title, the abstract and the summary section accordingly. We did not attempt to describe and motivate each of the individual changes in this response. Instead, we marked the changes in the track changes version. In some cases, including cases in which we noted and removed errors, we also motivated and explained changes in the track changes version. In a few places, we changed the draft version of the revised introduction that was included in the original response to your reviewer comment. However, we completely kept track only of the changes compared to the original manuscript and not to this draft. We very much appreciate your effort in reviewing this technical note

and consider the suggestions from the reviews a key contribution to the revised manuscript.

Technical note: Determining Arctic Ocean ^{I.P}cold halocline and cold halostad ^{I.P}layer depths based on vertical stability

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Abstract. The Arctic Ocean ^{I.P}cold halocline ^{I.P}layer (~~CHL~~) separates the cold surface mixed layer (SML) from the underlying warm Atlantic Water (AW), and thus provides a precondition for sea ice formation. Here, we introduce a new method in which the ^{I.P}halocline~~CHL~~ base depth is diagnosed from vertical stability and compare it to two existing methods. ^{M.A.}Our main motivation for diagnosing the halocline base depth based on vertical stability was that vVertical stability ^{M.A.}is closely
5 related todirectly affects vertical mixing and heat exchange^{M.A.}, and thus also to the role of the halocline in preventing vertical heat exchange and thereby protecting sea ice from warm AW. The second goal was to provide a particularly robust method. When applied to measurements from ice-tethered profilers, ships, and moorings, the new method for estimating the ^{I.P}halocline ~~CHL~~ base depth provides robust results with few artifacts. Comparatively large differences between ^{I.P}the our new method
10 and two existing methods for detecting the ^{I.P}halocline~~CHL~~ base depth were found in ^{I.P}warm AW inflow regions ^{I.P}for which climate models predict increased net surface energy fluxes from the ocean to the atmosphere, suggesting that these regions may be particularly sensitive to a halocline retreat most prone to a CHL retreat in a warming climate. ^{I.P}Analyzing a case in which water previously homogenized by winter convection was capped by fresh water at the surface suggests that the new method captured the beginning of new halocline formation in the Eurasian Basin. ^{M.A.} and ^{I.P}CHL base depth exhibits a seasonal cycle
15 with a maximum depth in winter and also spring, when the SML depth is also at its maximum, but the amplitude of the CHL base depth's seasonal cycle is lower than for the SML for all three methods as expected. We also propose a novel method for detecting the cold halostad ^{I.P}(CHS), which is formed by Pacific Winter Water (PWW) in the Canada Basin or by melt water
^{M.A.} and ^{I.P}layer and study the seasonal cycle employing conservative assumptions to avoid a misclassification (including a lower bound of 50 m for the thickness). Detection of a cold halostad layer was largely confined to the Canada Basin and to the regions
20 off the eastern coast of Greenland and also Svalbard.

20 1 Introduction

The Arctic Ocean outside the main Atlantic warm water inflow and the shallow marginal shelf seas is usually stratified into atthe cold and fresh surface mixed layer (SML), which is from ~5 to >100 m thick, depending on region and season (Peralta-Ferriz and Woodgate, 2015), ^{I.P}atthe cold halocline ^{I.P}(~~CHL~~) below the SML with a base depth ~40 to >200 m (Fig. 4 of Polyakov et al., 2018), ^{M.A.} and a layer of warm and saline Atlantic Water (AW) below the ^{I.P}halocline~~CHL~~ centered near 300 to 500 m ^{I.P}in
25 the Eurasian Basin and somewhat deeper in the Canada Basin (Aagaard et al., 1981; Macdonald et al., 2015)^{M.A.}, and deep

water below. Convection in the SML is driven by surface cooling and brine release during sea ice formation, with maximum SML depth in winter. River inflow and precipitation act as sources of fresh water. ^{M.A and I.P}Below the SML, salinity increases in the halocline. Within the halocline, one can distinguish between the cold halocline layer (CHL) in the Eurasian Basin, the Pacific Halocline Waters (PHW, modified Pacific Water which originally entered the western Arctic via the Bering Strait) in the Amerasian Basin, and the lower halocline waters (LHW, water of Atlantic origin which is less modified compared to CHL water) (e.g. Alkire et al., 2017; Polyakov et al., 2018; Anderson et al., 2013). In the CHL, the temperature remains close to the freezing point. Several processes have been suggested as contributors to LHW and CHL formation. Based on data from the *Oden* 1991 cruise, Rudels et al. (1996) found that new halocline formation was initiated by the advection of relatively fresh shelf waters near the surface above denser and more saline water below, when the advection of the fresh water limited winter convection. Support for the importance of such a capping process was provided by Ikire et al. (2017) and Rudels et al. (2004). They argued that capping by fresh water due to sea ice melting in the inflow from the Fram Strait and the Barents Sea can transform AW into halocline water. Another process which has been widely discussed, and which is thought to be especially important for the PHW is the advection of dense and saline shelf waters (where salinity increases due to brine release during sea ice formation especially in winter) below the SML (Aagaard et al., 1981; Jones and Anderson, 1986; Rudels et al., 2004). While halocline formation via capping does not require dense shelf waters, capping can also occur after (i.e. in addition to) the advection of dense shelf water (Steele and Boyd, 1998; Rudels et al., 2004). ^{M.A and I.P (added after discussion)}Steele and Boyd (1998) argued that seasonal capping by melt water in summer may not be overly important for insulating the SML from relatively warm AW. ^{M.A and I.P}The PHW in the Canada Basin originates from Pacific Water inflow, which is modified on the Chukchi Sea Shelf, but the LHW is of Atlantic origin also in the Canada Basin (e.g. Anderson et al., 2013). ^{I.P}Because of seasonal modifications on the Chukchi Sea Shelf, the PHW in the Canada Basin can be further subdivided into Pacific Winter Water (PWW) and less saline and warmer Pacific Summer Water (PSW) (e.g. Timmermans et al., 2014). The PWW could be referred to as a type of cold halocline water (Zhong et al., 2019), although compared to the CHL in the Eurasian Basin, in the PWW, the salinity is lower and the salinity gradient is smaller. This is why Shimada et al. (2005) called the layer which is formed by PWW a cold halostad (CHS). Similarly, interaction between glacial melt water and Arctic water north east of Greenland forms an intermediate ^{M.A.}low salinity ^{I.P}layer ^{M.A.}semi-saline layer of water ^{I.P}with small salinity gradient which is also called a cold halostad (Dmitrenko et al., 2017). Below, we argue that a lower salinity and a smaller salinity gradient in the CHS compared to the LHW below results in two distinct local stability maxima between the base of the LHW and the SML base: The upper stability maximum is associated with an increase of salinity in the upper PWW. The lower stability maximum is associated with another increase of salinity in the LHW. The lower one of these two stability maxima is absent in the presence of a CHL in the Eurasian Basin (except in regions off the eastern coast of Greenland and also Svalbard where melt water also forms a CHS).

^{M.A.}Because ~~The CHL is also a pycnocline~~ as density is more influenced by salinity than temperature if the temperature is low (Aagaard et al., 1981; Roquet et al., 2022) ^{M.A.} a configuration with warm AW underlying colder halocline water is stable. The presence of a (cold) halocline thus ~~insulates the SML from direct contact with~~ the warm ~~AW~~ Atlantic water ^{M.A.} and protects sea ice from the warm AW (Aagaard et al., 1981; Lind et al., 2016; Polyakov et al., 2017, 2020). Conversely,

But a retreat of the CHL in the Eurasian Basin leads to increased vertical mixing as observed and described by Steele and Boyd (1998); Björk et al. (2002); Polyakov et al. (2017). ^{M.A.} Retreating sea ice, increased surface heat flux and the This retreat of the ^{M.A.} halocline have been called ~~CHL has been interpreted as a key feature of the increasing~~ atlantification of the ^{M.A.} Eurasian Basin ~~Aretic Ocean~~ (Polyakov et al., 2017). Future climate model projections for a high emission scenario also showed ^{I.P.} very large temperature gradients directly below the ~~increasing atlantification with warm Atlantic water reaching the~~ surface mixed layer more frequently, especially during the cold season. ^{M.A.} The associated heating of the SML ~~This increasing atlantification~~ in combination with sea ice loss resulted in further increased annual mean upward net surface energy fluxes outside the Central Arctic along the main warm water inflow pathways (Metzner et al., 2020). ^{I.P.} While the halocline generally protects sea ice, PSW can be warm enough to participate in sea ice melting (e.g. Timmermans et al., 2014).

^{M.A.} The CHL is characterized by a strong salinity gradient while temperature stays near the freezing point of sea water. Only a small proportion of the CHL is formed due to convection of brine during sea ice formation (Rudels et al., 1996; Alkire et al., 2017). Most of it is mixed and transformed water advected into the Arctic Basin from the shelves (Aagaard et al., 1981; Steele et al., 1995; Mu et al., 2017). The properties of halocline water and the vertical hydrographic structures are mostly studied locally from separated observations near shelves (Lien and Trofimov, 2013; Janout et al., 2017; Baumann et al., 2018) or by models of varying complexity (Jensen et al., 2016; Metzner et al., 2020). A notable exception is the study by Polyakov et al. (2018), who derived a map of the Arctic CHL base depth based on observations.

Several methods have been proposed for identifying the ^{I.P.} halocline ~~CHL~~ based on observations. Steele et al. (1995) identified cold halocline water based on conditions for salinity ($34 < S < 34.5$ in the practical salinity scale) and temperature ($T < -0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$). Rudels et al. (1996) defined the boundaries of the CHL by using the 34.3 isohaline. Bourgain and Gascard (2011) used a density ratio threshold to define the base of the ^{I.P.} halocline ~~CHL~~. ^{M.A.} This density ratio method was adopted among others by Polyakov et al. (2017, 2018) and Metzner et al. (2020). The density ratio is the ratio of temperature and salinity contributions to the vertical stability. A large density ratio implies that the vertical stratification is dominated by temperature and a small density ratio implies that stratification is dominated by salinity. The density ratio threshold suggested by Bourgain and Gascard (2011) assumes that oceanic layers above the ^{I.P.} halocline ~~CHL~~ base are almost entirely salt-stratified with temperature contributing less than 5% to the total stratification (Polyakov et al., 2018). ^{M.A.} This density ratio method was adopted among others by others by Polyakov et al. (2017, 2018) and Metzner et al. (2020). ^{I.P.} Bertosio et al. (2020) and Bertosio et al. (2022) distinguished between an upper and a lower CHL. Using tracer observations in the western Eurasian Basin, Bertosio et al. (2020) found the base of the ^{I.P.} LHW ~~lower CHL~~ to be located at a density of $1027.85 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$. Analyzing salinity and temperature observations from the Makarov Basin and along the East Siberian continental slope, Bertosio et al. (2022) again defined the base of the ^{M.A.} and I.P. halocline using a upper and the lower CHL based on density thresholds and compared the results obtained with these ~~ese~~ definitions to those obtained with other definitions from the literature. ^{I.P.} neither ~~neither~~ fairly simple and robust method for computing the CHL base depth was proposed by Metzner et al. (2020). In this method, the base of the CHL is determined by a temperature difference of 1°C ~~CK~~ between water potential temperature and its freezing temperature. This temperature difference method is very sensitive to warming from below, while the density-ratio method of Bourgain and Gascard (2011) is very sensitive to the salinity profile. One drawback of the temperature difference method is a potential dependence of the

optimal threshold value on region (Metzner et al., 2020). Polyakov et al. (2018) proposed an indicator of the potential of the Arctic ^{I,P}haloclineCHL to prevent vertical mixing based on available potential energy, adapting the density ratio threshold of Bourgain and Gascard (2011) to identify the ^{I,P}haloclineCHL base.

100 ^{M.A.}Here, we propose a new method to identify the halocline base using a vertical stability threshold and compare it to two existing methods using measurements from ice-tethered profilers, ships, and moorings. Our main objective was to devise a method that uses a threshold value of a variable which is closely related to the role the halocline plays for insulating the SML from the warm AW. The choice of a vertical stability threshold wasHere, we define the CHL base based on vertical stability, motivated by the argument that vertical stability is more directly related to vertical mixing than either density, temperature, or the density ratio. ^{M.A.}Our second goal was to devise a particularly robust method to detect the halocline base. Based on the 105 argument that the presence of PWW forming a CHS on top of LHW creates a stability profile with two distinct local stability maxima, we also propose a method for estimating the boundaries and the center of the CHS. ^{M.A.}In the western Arctic, the CHL splits into an upper CHL and a lower CHL. In between lies water of Pacific origin entering the Arctic Ocean via the Bering Strait. This Pacific water is characterized by lower salinity than Atlantic water, but significantly higher salinity than fresh Arctic surface water (Lin et al., 2021). This leads to an intermediate layer called cold halostad layer (Shimada et al., 110 2005). Similarly, interaction between glacial melt water and Arctic water north east of Greenland forms an intermediate layer of semi-saline water with low salinity gradient which is also called a cold halostad (Dmitrenko et al., 2017). Consistent and robust descriptions of the ^{I,P}haloclineCHL and cold halostad layer boundaries are important to understand the evolution of the structure of the upper Arctic Ocean in the past and the future.

115 ^{M.A.}In the next section, we first describe methods to determine the halocline base depth, starting with two existing methods which are used for comparison, i.e. the density ratio (DR) method by Bourgain and Gascard (2011), and the temperature difference (TD) method by Metzner et al. (2020). We then introduce our new stability (ST) method for determining the halocline base depth. In Section 2.2, we propose a new method for estimating the CHS upper and lower boundaries and the CHS center, which is based on vertical stability as well. In Section 2.4, we describe a method for estimating the SML base depth because the downward search for the DR and the TD threshold starts at the SML base and because the top of the halocline is assumed 120 to coincide with the SML base. In Sect. 2.5, we introduce observational datasets used for comparison and testing. In Sect. 3, we compare the new ST method for determining the halocline base depth to the existing methods and test the new method for determining the CHS depth and extent. We first compare the methods to determine the halocline base using case studies and investigate whether the ST method captures the beginning of new halocline formation based on a suggestion in a reviewer comment on the original submission by Polyakov in Sect. 3.1. We then use maps and basin-wise statistics (based on a suggestion 125 in a reviewer comment by Athanase, 2023) in Sect. 3.2. The performance of the CHS algorithm is discussed in Sect. 3.5. The results are summarized and discussed Sect. 4. Here, we propose new diagnostics for the CHL base and the cold halostad layer boundaries and compare our results for the CHL base to the result from two previously suggested methods. The observational datasets on which our analysis is based are introduced in Sect. 2.5. Details of the density ratio (DR) method by Bourgain and Gascard (2011), the temperature difference (TD) method by Metzner et al. (2020), and the new stability (ST) method 130 are provided in Sect. ???. The top of the CHL is assumed to coincide with the base of the SML (see Sect. ???). We use the

kriging method to produce continuous maps of CHL and cold halostad layer boundaries (as explained in Sect. ??). Results are discussed in Sect. 3.

Please note: We re-arranged the following section to introduce methods before introducing data.

2 ~~Materials and Methods~~

135 2.2 ~~Determining the vertical structure~~

2.1 ~~Methods for estimating the halocline base depth~~

2.1.1 ~~DBase depth estimate by the density ratio (DR) method~~

^{M.A and I.P}In a halocline, the density gradient due to temperature must be small compared to the density gradient due to salinity by definition (Bourgain and Gascard, 2011). The density ratio (DR) method by Bourgain and Gascard (2011) therefore identifies
140 the halocline base by the requirement that the ratio R_ρ between the density gradient due to temperature and the density gradient due to salinity must remain below a certain threshold. The density ratio is defined as ~~The base of the CHL was estimated with three different methods. The first method (Bourgain and Gascard, 2011) uses the density ratio~~ $R_\rho = \left(\alpha \nabla_z \theta_{\text{pot}} \right) / \left(\beta \nabla_z S \right)$
Please note: The track changes package we use does not handle subscripts correctly. The subscript "pot" was removed and not added. with potential temperature θ_{pot} in ^{°C}~~K~~**Please note: This does not make difference for the gradient**, salinity
145 S in the practical salinity scale and depth z in m. $\alpha = -\rho^{-1}(\partial\rho/\partial\theta_{\text{pot}})$ **Please note: Sign of α corrected** and $\beta = \rho^{-1}(\partial\rho/\partial S)$ are the thermal expansion coefficient and the haline contraction coefficient, respectively. Bourgain and Gascard (2011) empirically estimated that searching downward for the depth, in which R_ρ exceeds 0.05, provides a reasonable estimate for the base of the ^{I.P}~~halocline~~**CHL**. The search starts at the base of the SML (here determined as described in Sect. 2.4 below), which is defined to be the top of the halocline layer
150 ~~The density ratio represents the slope in the temperature(θ)-salinity(S) diagram sealed by α and β and is a proxy for the transition between a halocline and a thermocline. This method will subsequently be referred to as the density ratio (DR) method.~~ ^{M.A}If the density ratio threshold is exceeded already directly at the base of the SML, then no halocline was detected for the corresponding profile. Such profiles are excluded when computing statistics of halocline base depths. Similarly to Bourgain and Gascard (2011), we smoothed the S and θ prior to computing the density ratio as explained in Sect. 2.5.

155 2.1.2 ^{I.P}~~TCHL base depth estimate by the temperature difference (TD) method~~

The ~~temperature difference (TD)~~^{second} method (Metzner et al., 2020) uses the difference ΔT between the ocean temperature T_θ and the sea water freezing temperature T_{freeze} ^{M.A}to estimate the cold halocline base depth. The freezing temperature was calculated from Gill (1982). ^{M.A and I.P}Searching downward, starting at the SML base, ~~t~~^{the} base of the ^{I.P}~~halocline~~**CHL**
160 core of the ^{I.P}~~cold halocline layer~~**CHL** is detectable, and low enough to separate the CHL from the ~~AW~~^{Atlantic} water with

core temperature approximately 1.5°C to 3°C ($T_{\text{freeze}} \approx -2^\circ\text{C}$ leads to $\Delta T \approx 3.5^\circ\text{C}$ to 5°C at the core). In cases in which the temperature threshold was first exceeded in a depth ^{1.P}shallower than 80 m, the search was continued 0.5 m below this depth. ^{1.P}If the temperature threshold was exceeded already at the SML base, no halocline was detected. The algorithm was applied to smoothed temperature data (see Sect. 2.5). This method will be referred to as the temperature difference (TD) method.

2.1.3 ^{1.P}SCHL base depth estimate by the stability (ST) method

The new stability (ST) method prescribes a threshold for the local vertical stability in order to estimate the halocline base depth. Vertical stability is more closely related to vertical mixing than either the density ratio or the temperature difference. Because the search direction was found to affect the robustness of the method, and because stability is decreasing with depth between the AW and the core of the halocline, we search upward instead of downward for the stability threshold as a parameter, which is directly linked to vertical mixing. The stability was computed from $L = \log_{10}(N^2)$, where $N = \sqrt{-(g/\rho)(\partial\rho/\partial z)}$ is the Brunt-Väisälä-frequency (with density computed from pressure, smoothed S , and θ as described below). The stability threshold was approximated based on the density ratio threshold $R_\rho = 0.05$ assuming an approximately constant salinity gradient near the halocline base in the LHW. It was derived starting from the following relationship:

$$\rho^{-1}\nabla_z\rho = \beta\nabla_zS - \alpha\nabla_z\theta_{\text{pot}} = \beta\nabla_zS(1 - R_\rho) \quad (1)$$

With stable $\beta = (7.82 \pm 0.03) \cdot 10^{-4}$ over a wide range of temperature, salinity and pressure values ($-1.2 \dots 2.0^\circ\text{C}$, $32 \dots 37$, $50 \dots 350$ dbar) and the salinity gradient in m^{-1} :

$$L = \log_{10}(-\nabla_zS) - 2.137 \pm 0.002 \quad (2)$$

Expecting the salinity gradient to be around 0.01 m^{-1} near the base of the halocline, the resulting stability threshold should be $L \approx -4.14$.

This threshold is searched from 600 m or at the lowest point (at least 500 m deep outside the shallower regions according to the conditions for including profiles in the analyses described below in Sect. 2.5 above) to the surface, as no CHL base was observed deeper than that and stability is mostly decreasing with depth below the CHL and SML. Seldom, the first estimate is in warm AW at $T > 0^\circ\text{C}$ water (detected by $\Delta T > 2\text{K}$, doubled DT-threshold for safety) due to measurement uncertainties in the temperature and salinity profiles. In such cases, a second search for the stability threshold is started slightly above. ^{M.A}If the stability threshold is never exceeded or only exceeded where $T > 0^\circ\text{C}$ in a given profile, then no halocline base was detected for this profile. When the maximum stability is lower than the threshold, which can happen in shallow regions, the temperature difference ΔT at the base of the SML was checked against the threshold from the TD method. If ΔT is greater than 2K, the water mass was considered Atlantic water and the CHL thickness was set to zero. Otherwise, the algorithm failed and a fill value was returned. This method will be further referred to as stability (ST) method. **Please note: We simplified the explanation. Whether the halocline thickness was set to zero or treated as a missing value does not make a difference because in the end, both are treated as “no halocline detected”.**

2.2 Cold halostad (CHS) boundary and center estimates

^{1.P}A CHS is formed by PWW in the Canada Basin and also by melt water off the eastern coast of Greenland and Svalbard. Compared to the CHL in the Eurasian Basin, a CHS is characterized by a smaller salinity gradient because of the different water origins. As demonstrated below, this leads to one local stability maximum at the top of the CHS (at the transition between SML or PSW and PWW) and a second stability maximum associated with the transition between CHS and the LHW. The stability minimum between these two local stability maxima is associated to the CHS. Therefore, as a first condition for identifying a CHS, we require that more than one local stability maximum must be present between the base of the SML and the base of the halocline as identified by the ST algorithm described above. **Please note: We failed to mention the following point in our original manuscript. The operation described below is applied in addition to the requirement that the vertical extent of the local minimum must be at least 50 m**.^{M.A.} Because the stability profiles computed from temperature and salinity observations contain small scale fluctuations even after smoothing the S and θ data that is used for computing density as described below, we identify local maxima by first computing a “moving” stability maximum for a 50 m vertical box surrounding each observation. This moving stability maximum is computed from $L_m(z) = \max(L(z'))$ for $|z' - z| < 25$ m, where z is depth. This moving maximum operation was defined in analogy to a moving average. The result is a profile of stability maxima $L_m(z)$ with few local maxima. ^{1.P}We then compute the mean of the lower stability maximum, which is associated with the transition between CHS and LHW, and the stability minimum between the upper and the lower stability maximum, which is associated with the CHS. In case of multiple stability maxima in the vertical profile, the thickness and the depth of the cold halostad are estimated. The cold halostad separates the CHL into an upper and a lower branch. It is associated with a stability minimum between two stability maxima. In order to estimate the thickness of the cold halostad, we first compute the mean of the stability minimum and the stability maximum associated with the lower branch of the CHL. This value is used ^{1.P}as a threshold to define the ^{1.P}upper and the lower boundary of the CHS the boundaries of the cold halostad. The depth of the ^{1.P}center of the CHS cold halostad is ^{1.P}defined as the mean of the upper and lower boundary of the CHS. A CHS cold halostad will only be recognized by the algorithm if the vertical distance between ^{M.A.}the deeper stability maximum the first upper occurrence of that same stability value is at least 50 m, and ^{M.A.}the difference of L between the lower stability maximum and the local minimum in the CHS is at least 0.2 ^{M.A.}this stability layer has at least a relative depth of 0.2 in $\log_{10}(N^2)$. ^{M.A.}With this definition, we never identified more than a single CHS per profile. In rare cases, in which more than one layer fulfills these conditions, only the lowest of these layers is identified as a cold halostad.

2.3 Occurrence frequency of the CHL and cold halostad

Please note: We now explain more explicitly what it means that no halocline was detected for a given profile above, omitting technical details, especially the treatment of rounding errors in floating point operations. Based on this, the occurrence frequency is now defined below in the results section. ^{1.P}Occurrence frequencies of the CHL were computed for each method individually based on whether the criteria for estimating the CHL base depth were satisfied. Furthermore, a lower threshold of 0.001 m was used for the CHL thickness, below which no distinctive layer is assumed to exist. Cases in

which either the criteria was not satisfied or else the thickness was computed to be less than 0.001 m were the classified as “no CHL”. This includes cases in which the CHL and the SML bottom coincide within numerical accuracy and cases in which we initially computed a value for the CHL base depth that was smaller than the value for SML base depth.

230 ^{I.P}The depth of the cold halostad layer was computed whenever data was available and the conditions for identifying a cold halostad layer as described above were fulfilled. The occurrence frequency for the cold halostad layer was only computed for a region in the Canada Basin. Outside this Canada Basin region, the occurrence frequency was not computed due to the sparsity of observations in these regions.

2.4 SML depth estimate

235 The SML depth was estimated by a change in potential density of 0.125 kg m^{-3} at the surface as in Polyakov et al. (2017). In cases, in which a CHL is detected, the depth of the SML corresponds to the top of the CHL. [Potential density was computed from smoothed \$S\$ and \$\theta\$.](#)

M.A and I.P 2.3 Kriging

240 ^{M.A and I.P}The estimates of the SML thickness, the CHL base depth and the occurrence frequency of the CHL are inter- and extrapolated with kriging. Kriging (e.g. Deutsch, 1994) is a tool from geostatistics for interpolation, extrapolation and smoothing at locations without direct measurements by data from surrounding observations. Those observations are weighted together depending on the local variability estimated by a multidimensional autocovariance function. The latter is approximated with a so called semi-variogram model. In this analysis only the spherical semi-variogram model is used (Mert and Dag, 2017; Reshid, 2019). The weights take into account the clustering of the observations as it uses the inverse of the correlation distance matrix between input points and the correlation distance vector between input points and the point of interest. All inter-/extrapolation weights are calculated from the location and distribution of given information without prior knowledge of ocean currents.

245 ^{M.A and I.P}Here, kriging was performed on an azimuthal-equidistant projection. The North Pole was used as the central reference point. 0° E , 90° E , 180° E and 90° W are on negative y-axis, positive x-axis, positive y-axis and negative x-axis respectively. The resolution is 0.46875° or roughly 52 km at the North Pole. The year was equally separated into 12 periods to simplify calculations and time averaging afterwards. This lead to $36 \times 12 = 432$ time steps and a temporal resolution of about 30.4 days.

250 ^{M.A and I.P}Each quantity was prepared for kriging in three steps:

1. ^{M.A and I.P}A spatial trend of the time mean was computed.
2. ^{M.A and I.P}Outliers were removed for each season separately. Data values were identified as outliers if the difference to the spatial trend was lower (higher) than the 25th(75th) percentile decreased (increased) by 1.5 times the inter quartile range.
3. ^{M.A and I.P}The spatial trend was subtracted from the raw data. The resulting anomalies were normalized to ensure a nearly constant variance for the entire Arctic.

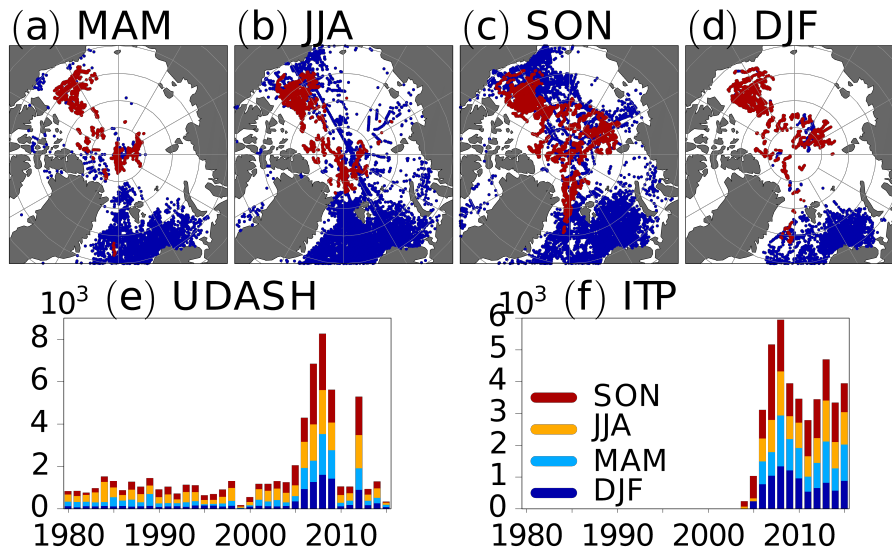


Figure 1. Please note: Revised figure. The figure differs from the corresponding figure in our response to the reviewer comment by I. P. because we omitted low resolution profiles from the UDASH data set as described in the revised manuscript. ^{I.P.}Map of data locations of observations for each season ^{I.P.}(starting with MAM for March, April, and May) with blue dots for UDASH profiles and red dots for ITP profiles (a–d). Temporal coverage for UDASH (e) and ITP (f) observations. Background is separated into similar regions as in the UDASH dataset (Behrendt et al. (2018): Amerasian Basin (light blue), Eurasian Basin (light red), Barents Sea (light green), Shelf regions (light yellow), North Atlantic (orange) and Canadian Shelf (white)).

^{M.A. and I.P.}After kriging, the results were rescaled back to local variance and the spatial trend was added to retrieve the original local value range. Removing outliers and subtracting spatial trends are common practice in kriging. The code, which was used in this study, is available on GitHub with version v0.0.5 from <http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7572759>.

260 2.5 Data and preprocessing

^{I.P.}In this study, temperature and salinity observations were taken from the ice tethered profiler (ITP) project (Krishfield et al., 2008; Toole et al., 2011) and the Unified Database for Arctic and Subarctic Hydrography (UDASH, Behrendt et al., 2018). The ITPs measured temperature, salinity, and pressure twice a day while drifting with the ice floe they were tethered to. ^{Moved down, Rev. #2}ITPs deployed in the Arctic Ocean before 2018 were included here. ^{M.A.}Data processing for the ITP data is ^{Moved here, Rev. #2}described by Krishfield et al. (<http://www.whoi.edu/fileserver.do?id=35803&pt=2&p=41486>). Here, we used processed ITP ^{Moved here, Rev. #2}Level III data. Producing Level III data included removal of corrupted data, corrections for the sensor response behavior, calibrations, and final screening of spurious outliers. ^{I.P.}The vertical resolution for ITP level III data is 1 ± 0.1 dbar. The accuracy of the sensors used for the ITP observations is 0.002°C for temperature and 0.002 for salinity (Polyakov et al., 2017). ^{Moved here, Rev. #2}Level III data was binned to two-day intervals in order to reduce noise and to reduce the number of missing columns in favor of a continuous time series. ^{The}

UDASH data set contains data from ships, ice-tethered profilers, profiling floats and other platforms (Behrendt et al., 2018).
From the UDASH data set, only profiles, for which both temperature and salinity were available, were analyzed here.
^{1.P}Furthermore, only profiles with a vertical resolution finer than 2.5 dbar in the upper 300 m and a vertical resolution finer than 5 dbar elsewhere were used. ^{Moved up, Rev. #2}Of this subset of profiles, all profiles were used, which start closer to the surface than 5 m
275 in order to obtain a stable estimate for the SML. The UDASH data set contains data from ships, ice-tethered profilers, profiling floats and other platforms (Behrendt et al., 2018). We also required that the deepest point in a profile must reach at least 500 m or 90% of the basin depth. Our analysis was limited to profiles that reach at least a depth of 500 m except in shallower regions, where the condition was that the profiles must reach down to 90% of the ocean bottom depth. This choice addresses the issue of potential sampling biases due to limited vertical extent^{td} of the observed profiles. ^{1.P}Regions shallower than 100 m were always excluded from the analysis. Bathymetry data was taken from the General Bathymetric Chart of the Oceans (GEBCO) dataset (GEBCO Bathymetric Compilation Group 2021, 2021). ^{1.P}This filtering left a total of 43715 ITP and 62012 UDASH profiles. Fig. 1 provides an overview of the spatio-temporal coverage of the data. This resulted in 116814 (pairs of) temperature and salinity profiles whose locations are shown in Fig. ?? **Please note: This fairly small difference between the total number of profiles compared to the original manuscript stems from a compensation between additional filtering (decreasing the number of profiles analyzed) and no longer binning the ITP data to two-day intervals as before (increasing the number of profiles analyzed).** Most measurements are concentrated in the Barents Sea and only few were taken in the Central Arctic during winter. For the East Siberian Sea and the interior of the Laptev Sea, no data was available for winter and spring. Salinity was given in the practical salinity scale.

Depth was computed from pressure using the hydrostatic equation. Density was computed based on salinity, temperature, and pressure. For profiles, for which only depth was reported, pressure computed iteratively based on temperature, salinity and depth as in Metzner et al. (2020). For profiles, for which only pressure was reported, depth was computed. **Please note: All observations used here were reported on pressure levels. Mentioning iterations was an error. An iterative approach was only applied to model data, which we did not use here.** ^{1.P}All values were regridded to the same vertical high-resolution grid with 0.5 m resolution in the first 50 m of the upper ocean and 1 m resolution down to 200 m depth, and 2 m between 200 and
295 400 m depth. Below this, the resolution decreased to 2.5 m at 772.5 m depth. This results in 500 vertical grid points. ^{M.A.}In order to reduce noise, S , T , and/or θ were smoothed using a standard one-dimensional Gaussian filter (convolution with a Gaussian function, e.g. Deng and Cahill, 1993) with a standard deviation of 2 dbar and a truncation at ± 10 dbar. After regridding, a Gaussian filter with a standard deviation of 5 m and a truncation at ± 15 m was applied. When using thresholds to estimate the SML or CHL base depth, variables were linearly interpolated between two adjacent depths. Consequently, the SML or CHL
300 base can be located between two vertical ^{1.P}observation grid points and the SML and CHL base depths do not necessarily have to coincide with the depths of the ^{1.P}observations grid points.

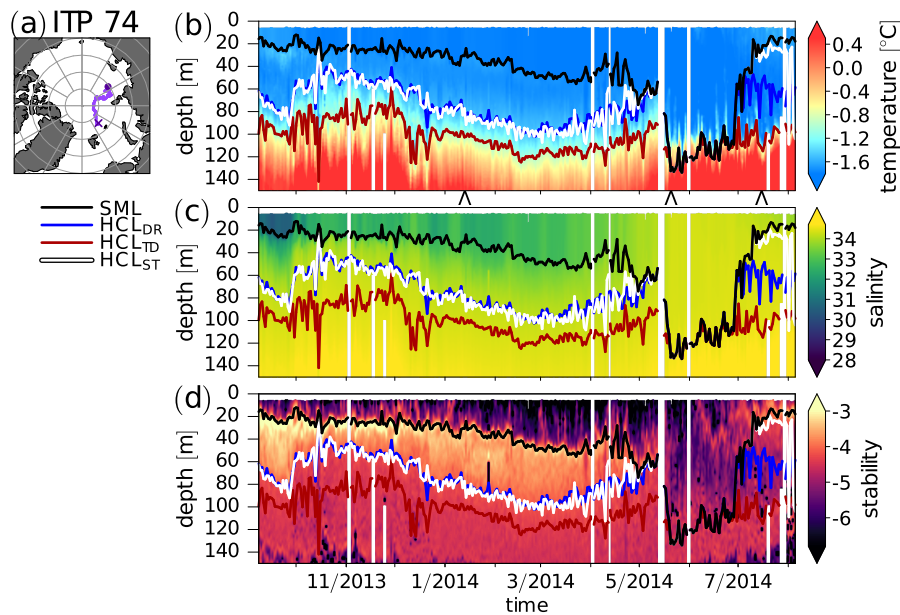


Figure 2. Please note: Revised figure using level III data without regridding. ITP-74 location of measurements (a) and time series of (a) temperature (b), (c) salinity (c), and (d) vertical stability (d) along the path of ITP-74. The circle and the cross in (a) mark the beginning and the end of the ITP-74 track, respectively. The colored lines in (b–d) are the base of the SML (black) and the ^{L1P}halocline (HCL) base depths derived by the DR method (blue), the TD method (red) and the ST method (white). Salinity is given in the practical salinity scale. Individual profiles at the location of the wedge symbols (Δ) below the x-axis in (b) are shown in Fig. 3. Profiles that started below 15 m were excluded (only) in this figure (but nowhere else), because this increased readability by reducing the effect of noise in determining the SML base without affecting the overall result.

3 Results

3.1 ^{L1P}Comparison of methods for deriving halocline (HCL) base depth using case studies

In Figure 2, we compare three different methods for determining the ^{L1P}halocline (HCL) base depth for ITP-74. Starting from the Laptev Sea in September/October 2013, ITP-74 drifted across the Central Arctic, almost reaching the East Greenland Sea (Fig. 2a). Until May 2014, Fig. 2b–d show there is evidence of a well-defined and stably stratified CHL below the SML. The vertical stratification observed by ITP-74 prior to May 2014 and the performance of the three methods for determining the halocline base depth are further analyzed in an individual profile from this period in Fig. 3. Individual profiles of salinity and temperature for 13 January 2014 in Fig. 3a show the base of the SML at about ~30 m. Between the SML base and ~80 m a strong salinity gradient and temperatures close to the freezing point indicate a well defined CHL, which is ~60 m thick. Between the CHL and the AW, temperature and salinity increase in the LHW. Below ~170 m warm and saline AW is found (please note that at ~170 m, the temperature and salinity slopes in Fig. 3a both change). Figs 3b–d show the density ratio, the temperature difference, and the stability for the observations on 13 January 2014 together

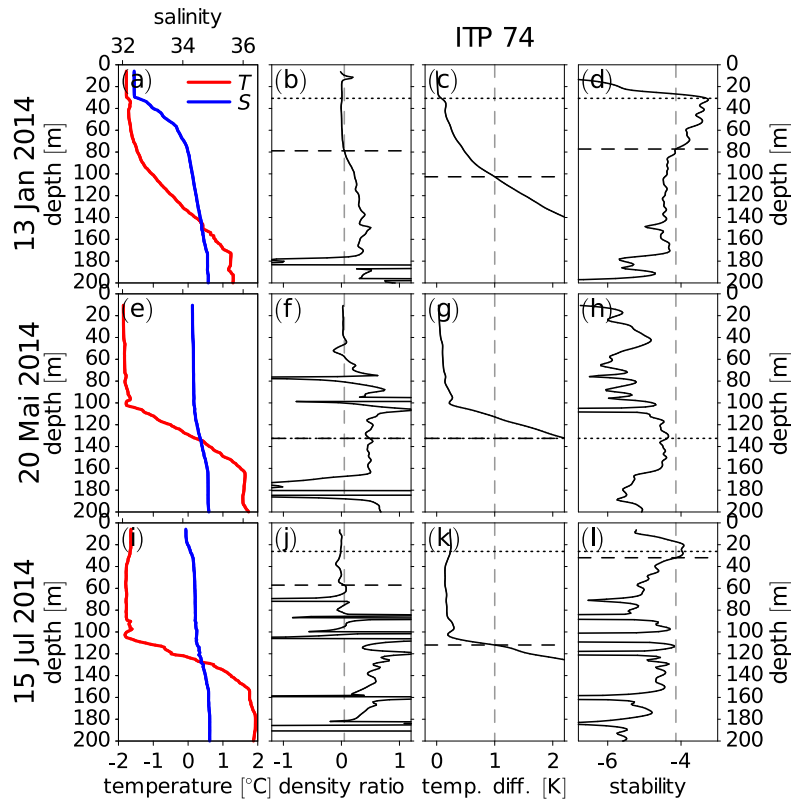


Figure 3. Please note: Figure added based on suggestion by both reviewers. In our response to the reviewer comment by M. A. Figure 3h accidentally showed a dash-dotted instead of a dotted line. This was corrected.^{M.A and I.P} Temperature T and salinity S , density ratio, temperature difference, and stability from ITP-74 before winter convection on 13 January 2014 (a–d), during winter convection on 20 May 2014 (e–h) and after winter convection on 15 July 2014 (i–l). Vertical dashed lines indicated threshold values. Horizontal dashed lines indicate the halocline base determined by the three different methods. Dotted lines indicate the SML base. Dash-dotted lines in (f) and (g) indicate that a threshold for identifying the halocline base was exceeded at the SML base.

with the threshold values used to identify the halocline base with the DR, the TD, and the ST method. For the profile observed on 13 January 2014, the DR method (Fig. 3b) and the ST method (Fig. 3d) identify the CHL base, while the TD method (Fig. 3c) places the halocline base in the LHW, somewhere between CHL and AW. The stability profile in Fig. 3d yields distinctly different stabilities for the SML, the CHL, the LHW, and the AW separating the less stably stratified Atlantic water from the SML.

In May 2014, the SML deepens and the CHL disappears (Figure 2), as previously noted by Polyakov et al. (2017).^{M.A and I.P} During this convection event, neither of the three methods identified a halocline. Figs 3e–h show profiles for 20 May 2014 after the onset of convection. On this date, the threshold for identifying the halocline base was already exceeded at the SML base for the DR and the TD method (Fig. 3f and g), while the threshold was not reached for the ST method (Fig. 3h). After July, the situation becomes^{I.P} particularly interesting less clear. The stability at about 80 m depth remains low, possibly pointing to the

residual of a mixed layer well below the diagnosed SML base ^{1P}(Figure 2). Fig. 3i for 15 July 2014 (after convection) also
325 shows freshening and warming near the surface. This indicates that relatively fresh melt or/and shelf water may have been
advected above a colder and saline layer, which had previously been homogenized by winter convection. The freshening near
the surface leads to a salinity gradient below, and also a stability maximum, which is captured by the ST method (Fig. 3h). This
appears to be consistent with the mechanism for halocline formation described by Rudels et al. (1996). As stated above, Rudels
et al. (1996) found new halocline formation taking place when relatively fresh shelf waters near the surface were advected
330 above denser and saltier water below, limiting winter convection, while Rudels et al. (2004) and Ikire et al. (2017) stressed the
role of melt water in general (including non-shelf water) in the warm Atlantic inflow through the Fram Strait and the Barents
Sea for halocline formation via this type of capping mechanism. Fig. 2 suggests that in this particular case, the convection
affected halocline water. This is also consistent with a study by Steele and Boyd (1998), who suggested that the capping
mechanism can act in addition to the advection of dense and saline shelf waters. In the Steele and Boyd (1998) mechanism,
335 which combines findings by Rudels et al. (1996) with earlier findings (e.g. Aagaard et al., 1981), high salinity in the capped
water derives from advected cold and dense shelf water, which may previously have been affected by brine release in shelf seas,
and not directly from AW. Here, the origin of the halocline water is unclear. However, Fig. 3h for 15 July 2014 (after winter
convection) suggests that the ST method might indeed be useful for identifying the beginning of new halocline formation via
the Rudels et al. (1996, 2004) capping mechanism or the Steele and Boyd (1998) mechanism which essentially assumes that
340 the Rudels et al. (1996) capping mechanism acts in addition to the advection of dense shelf water (e.g. Aagaard et al., 1981).
Below this layer, warm Atlantic water is found (Fig. ??b, compare also figure 3b of Polyakov et al., 2017). The origin of the
fairly stable intermediate layer centered at about 20 m is less clear.

^{1P}The CHL base depth as diagnosed by the DR and the ST method agree well until May 2014. Both methods trace the
pronounced stability gradient at the CHL base (Fig. ??d). The TD method, which is less sensitive to the salinity gradient by
345 design, instead traces the temperature gradient in Fig. ??b and places the CHL base about 20 m below the base as identified
by the DR and the ST method. Neither the ST nor the TD method show spurious depth minima reaching the SML for this
particular ITP.

^{1P}During the final months, when the SML is diagnosed to be rather shallow, the DR method diagnoses a somewhat thicker
CHL compared to the ST method. The TD method again traces the temperature gradient in Fig. ??b. The CHL base diagnosed
350 with the DR method during the final months is ~20 m below that diagnosed by Polyakov et al. (2017) using the same method
and the same input data, albeit without prior temporal averaging and vertical smoothing. Before the deepening of the SML in
May 2014, the CHL base depth from the DR method agrees well with Polyakov et al. (2017), except noise. On the one hand,
binning the data in to two-day intervals results in a smoother CHL base compared to figure 3 of Polyakov et al. (2017). On the
other hand, spurious depth minima still occur. As in Polyakov et al. (2017) and Metzner et al. (2020), such spurious minima
355 can reach all the way to the SML. Spurious minima are also found for other ITPs, but not for all ITPs. Furthermore, not only
the DR method but also the TD method occasionally yields spurious minima (Supplement 1, see also discussion of Fig. RM3
below). However, for the model data analyzed in Metzner et al. (2020), warm Atlantic water was indeed often found directly

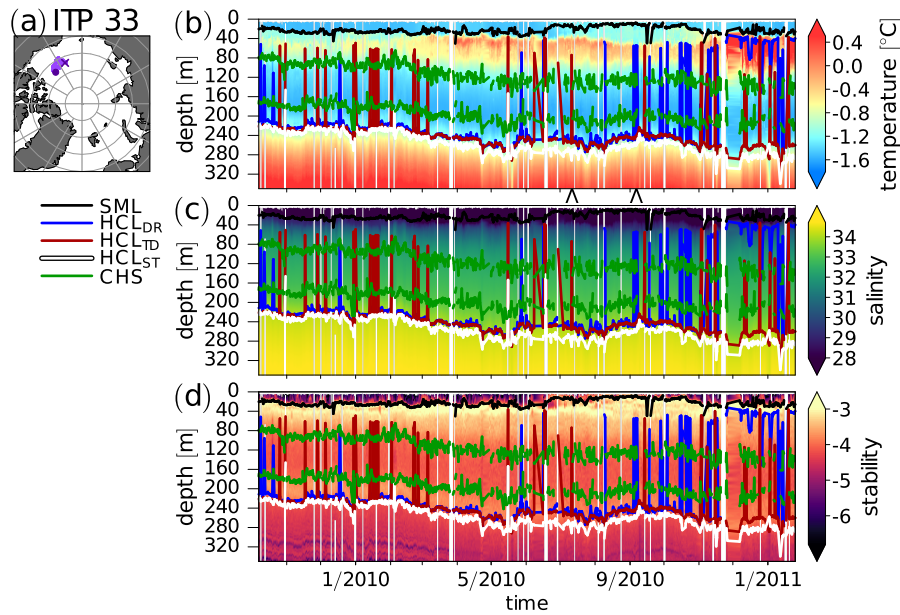


Figure 4. Please note: Revised version of figure 8 moved to here [A](#) Same as Fig. 2^{M.A and LP} but ~~and d~~ for ^{M.A and LP} (top) ITP-33^{M.A and LP} and (base) ITP-29. Additionally, the results of the cold halostad bound estimation are shown in dark green.

underneath the SML during halocline thinning events. Artifacts such as the spurious CHL base depth minima found in Fig. ?? for the DR method are nevertheless a reason for concern.

360 ^{M.A and LP} Figure 4 again compares the three different methods for determining the halocline base depth, but this time for ITP-33, which drifted in the Canada Basin between October 2009 and January 2011, where it encountered PSW on top of PWW. In addition to the halocline base depth, Fig. 4b–d shows the CHS boundaries which have been estimated based on stability as described above. The performance of the new algorithm for identifying the CHS will be discussed further below. For now, the main focus will be on isolated spurious minima of the halocline base depth. As evidenced by the spikes in Fig. 4b–d, such isolated spurious base depth minima occur for the DR and the TD algorithm, but not the ST algorithm. Reasons for the occurrence of these artifacts will be further analyzed based on Figure 5. Figure 5a–d shows a case from ITP-33 on 11 July 2010 in which the TD method produced an isolated halocline base depth minimum and Fig. 5e–f shows a case on 6 September 2010 in which the DR method produced an isolated halocline base depth minimum. In both cases, the isolated minima are related to a layer of warm PSW around ~80 m (Figs. 5a and e, compare also Fig. 4b). For 11 July 2010, the best estimate of the halocline base depth is provided by the DR method (Fig. 5b). The DR method correctly places the base of the halocline water at a depth, where the salinity gradient (Fig. 5a) changes. Stability (Fig. 5d) also decreases markedly at this depth, although the ST method identifies the halocline base about 20 m below this location (Fig. 5d). The TD method (Fig. 5c) places the halocline base at about 80 m in the layer of warm PSW, although the salinity gradient below this layer still indicates the presence of a halocline and temperature decreases below this layer, indicating PWW. For 6 September 2010, the DR threshold is exceeded at a local

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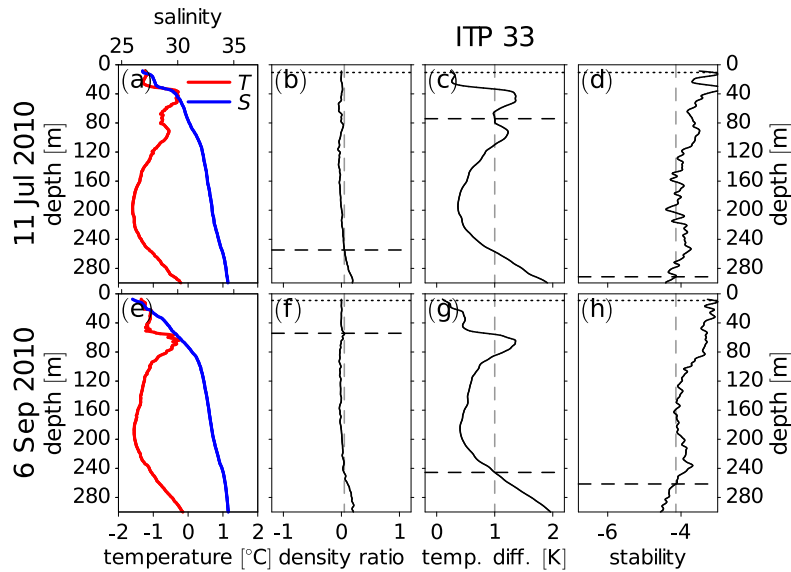


Figure 5. Please note: Figure added based on suggestion by both reviewers ^{M.A and I.P} [As Figure 3, but for two profiles from ITP-33. For 12 July 2010 \(a–d\) the TD method shows an isolated minimum of the halocline base depth, and for 6 September 2010 \(e–f\) the TD method shows an isolated minimum of the halocline base depth.](#)

375 [density ratio maximum](#) which is related to a very steep temperature gradient (Fig. 5f) at the base of the PSW. While all three methods rely on finding a threshold, the search direction differs. Because the ST method searches upward, the warm PSW layer does not result in isolated depth minima (Figs. 5d and h). Overall, this analysis suggests that the search direction matters. With the DR and the TD method, we search downward, while with the ST method we search upward. This helps to explain why the ST method yields more robust results with fewer unexpected depth minima appearing in the basin-wise statistics discussed

380 [below](#). For the DR method, on the other hand, Fig. 3a shows that the DR threshold is exceeded also far below the halocline base. Such local DR maxima below the halocline base were also found in the presence of thermohaline staircases (not shown here). Additional DR maxima below the halocline base, such as the one in Fig. 3, prevent us from simply reversing the search direction in the DR algorithm.

^{M.A and I.P} Figure RM3 shows profiles of temperature, salinity, Turner angle, and stability sorted by the CHL base depth from the DR, the TD, and the ST method in a 3° radius around 74°N 145.5°W in the Beaufort Sea. Cases in which the criteria for detecting the CHL were not met were excluded. This resulted in a different number of profiles for each method. Included in Fig. RM3 are, however, cases in which the base depth of the CHL was set to the SML depth because the CHL base was diagnosed to either be above the SML base or coincided with the SML base to within 0.001 m, and which are otherwise also classified as “no CHL”. The latter is rather often the case for the DR method, as evidenced by the numerous points in the upper left part of Fig. RM3b where the SML and CHL_{DR} base depth coincide. In between, there are many cases in which the CHL_{DR} base is located less than 30 m below the SML base, as evidenced by the numerous almost vertical lines in the upper

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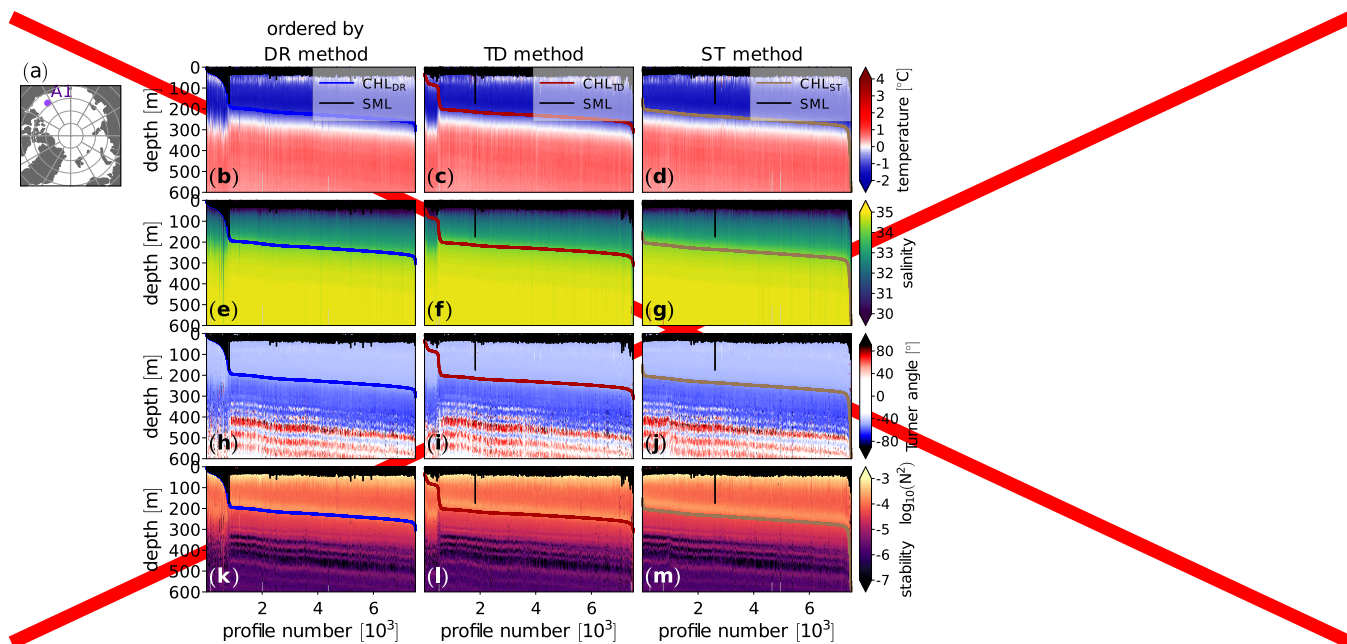


Figure RM3. Please note: This figure was removed. ^{M.A and I.P} All used profiles of (b,c) temperature, (d,e) Turner angle and (f,g) stability profiles within 3° radius around 74°N - 145.5°W (A1, shown in a) in the Beaufort Sea ordered by estimated cold-halocline base depths (left CHL_{DR} , right CHL_{ST}). Lines are base depths of SML (black), cold-halocline layer derived with DR-method (blue), TD-method (dark red) and ST-method (brownish-gray).

right corner of Fig. RM3b. For the first few hundred profiles in Fig. RM3b, a cold and stable layer (CHL) that separates the mixed layer from the warmer water below is found underneath the line indicating the CHL base depth that was identified using the DR-method (CHL_{DR}), indicating the occurrence of spurious CHL base depth minima.

395 ^{M.A and I.P} The TD-method also shows artifacts (Fig. RM3c). But compared to the DR-method, it is somewhat less prone to locating the CHL base close to the SML in the presence of clear indications of a CHL in the temperature and salinity fields. In particular, there are nearly no cases in which the CHL_{TD} base coincides with the SML base, and which would erroneously be classified as “no CHL”. While none of the three methods is completely free of artifacts, the ST method (Fig. RM3d) appears to perform best under these particular conditions.

400 3.2 Statistical comparison of the halocline base depth and occurrence frequency from different methods CHL-occurrence frequency

^{M.A and I.P} In order to identify differences between the methods used for halocline base detection regarding the geographical distribution of halocline base depth and halocline occurrence frequency (i.e. number of profiles for which a halocline base was detected divided by number of profiles analyzed) we used a simple nearest-neighbor (NN) averaging to produce maps (Fig. 6).
 405 The underlying grid uses an azimuthal-equidistant projection with $\sim 0.47^\circ$ resolution at the North Pole. ^{M.A} In addition to these

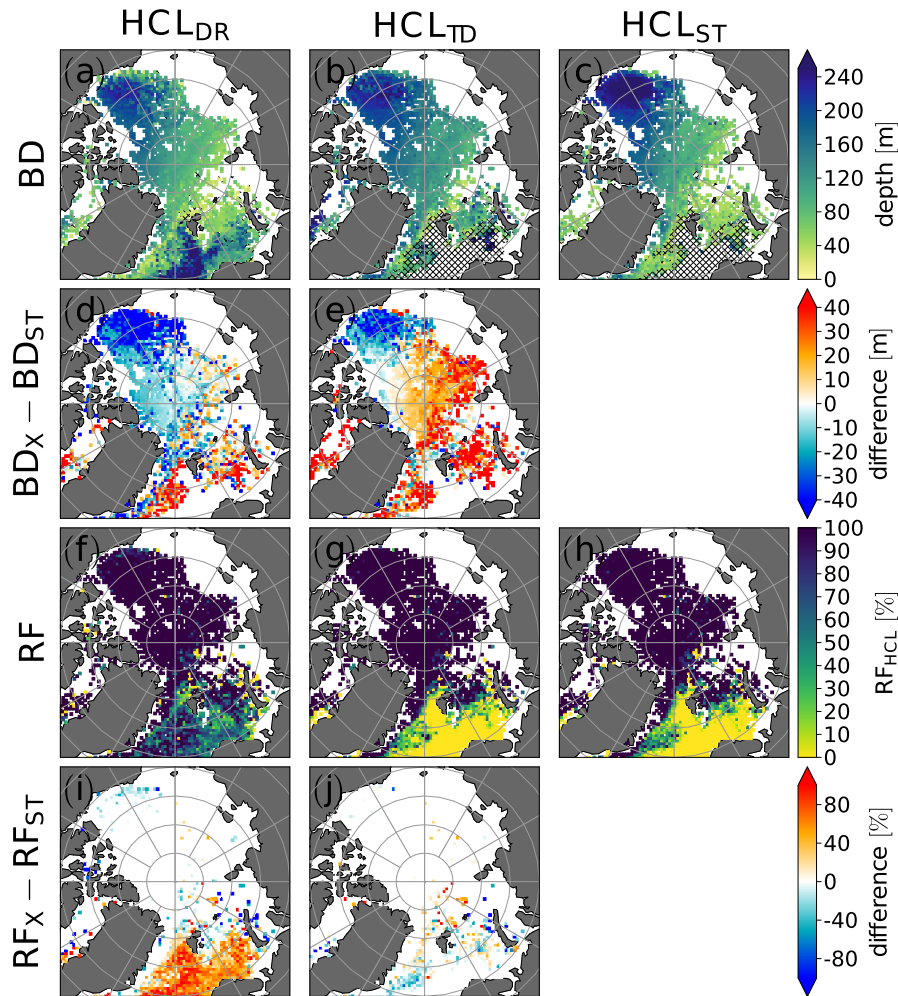


Figure 6. Please note: Revised and combined figure, based on figures 5 and 6 of the original manuscript. Kriging and SML maps are now excluded. We also excluded regions shallower than 100 m. The figure differs from the corresponding figure in our response to the reviewer comment by I. P. because we omitted low-resolution profiles from the UDASH data set as described in the revised manuscript. ^{M.A and I.P} Halocline base depth (BD) Map of occurrence frequency of cold halocline derived by ^{M.A and I.P} the (a,d) density-ratio ^{M.A and I.P} (DR) algorithm ^{M.A and I.P} (a), ^{M.A and I.P} the (b,e) temperature-difference ^{M.A and I.P} (TD) algorithm ^{M.A and I.P} (b), and ^{M.A and I.P} (c,f) the new stability ^{M.A and I.P} (ST) algorithm ^{M.A and I.P} (c). Difference of HCL BD between the DR and the ST algorithm (d) and between the TD and the ST algorithm (e). Relative frequency (RF) of HCL occurrence (i.e. number of profiles for which a halocline was detected divided by number of profiles analyzed) (f-h) and differences (i-j) as in (a-e). In (a-c), Those were calculated by (a-c) simple nearest-neighbor averaging and (d-f) kriging points where the relative occurrence frequency of the ^{1P} HCL was CHL is below 1% were masked out. Hatching indicates regions where the ^{1P} HCCHL occurrence frequency is below 25%. ^{1P} Points where the ocean floor depth is below 100 m were masked out.

maps (which in data-rich regions show a time mean halocline base depth), we computed basin-wise statistics of halocline base depths. Figure 7 shows relative frequencies of halocline base depth diagnosed with the three methods for the Eurasian Basin, the Makarov Basin, and the Canada Basin.

^{M.A and I.P} As expected, all three methods yield a similar overall spatial distribution of halocline base depth (Fig. 6a–c) with shallower halocline base in the Eurasian Basin and the Makarov Basin compared to the Canada Basin. This spatial pattern is consistent with Polyakov et al. (2018). In the Eurasian Basin, the time averaged halocline base depth diagnosed with the DR method (Fig. 6a) and the ST method (Fig. 6c) agree relatively well, while the TD method overestimates halocline depth relative to both other methods (Fig. 6b). For the elliptical area covering the Eurasian Basin in Fig. 7a, the mean base depth was 85.9 m for the DR method and 92.3 m for the ST method vs. 116.1 m for the TD method. This overestimate of the halocline base depth by the TD method compared to the other two methods is consistent with the previous result for ITP-74. Unlike the DR and the ST method, which both correctly identified the CHL base during the first months of ITP-74, the TD method placed the halocline base somewhere in the LHW. In addition to the moderate difference in the mean base depth between the DR and the ST method, the relative frequency of halocline base depth (Fig. 7b) in the Eurasian Basin reveals differences between the DR and the ST method, which are not reflected by the difference of the mean base depths. The ST method more often identifies a shallow halocline base (< 60 m) in the Eurasian Basin compared to the DR method, which is consistent with the finding that the ST method apparently captures the start of new halocline formation from Sect. 3.1. More frequent detections of halocline bases not only above 60 m but also below 120 m with the ST method compared to the DR method account for a slightly wider halocline base depth distribution in the Eurasian Basin in the ST method compared to the DR method (Fig. 7b). The more frequent halocline base depths larger than 120 m in the ST method are likely related to an overestimate of halocline base depth similar to the one found for the ST method for ITP-33 above. Slightly increasing the stability threshold in the ST method may lead to a better match between the halocline base depth estimate from the ST and the TD method by moving the halocline base estimated by the ST method upward and by decreasing the sensitivity of the ST method to new halocline formation. For the elliptical area covering the Makarov Basin in Fig. 7b, the DR method yielded a mean halocline base depth of 112.3 m, the ST method of 118.1 m, and the TD method of 133.5 m. For the elliptical area covering the Canada Basin, on the other hand, the ST method yielded the largest mean halocline base depth. The mean halocline base depths for the Canada Basin corresponding to Fig. 7d are 191.4 m for the DR method, 206.6 m for the TD method, and 219.1 m for the ST method. In the Canada Basin (Fig. 7d), the ST method detected a halocline base shallower than 160 m for 0.05% of the profiles, while the DR method detected a halocline base shallower than 160 m for 10.2% of the profiles and the TD method for 3.5% of the profiles, indicative of isolated base depth minima due to the influence of warm PSW above PWW. Isolated minima very likely also contribute to a more variable (noisier) halocline base depth in the Canada Basin in the map for the DR method in Fig. 6a and to a lesser extent also in the map for the TD method in Fig. 6b compared to the ST method (Fig. 6c). The larger average base depth in the Canada Basin in the ST method compared to both other methods (see also Fig. 6d and e) is, however, not only explained by the isolated depth minima in the DR and the TD method in Fig. 7d. Instead, more frequent depths greater than 260 m in the ST method compared to the other two methods (Fig. 7d) contribute to the greater average halocline base depth diagnosed with the ST method, again indicating that a slight increase of the stability threshold in the ST method would lead to a better agreement

between the halocline base depth from the ST and the DR method. While a halocline was almost always detected in the Canada Basin by all three methods, the relative occurrence frequency (defined as the number of profiles in which a halocline base was detected divided by the total number of profiles which were analyzed) varies strongly in the Norwegian Sea (Fig. 6f–h). While the ST method and also the TD method very rarely detected a halocline base in the Norwegian Sea, the DR method frequently detected a halocline base in the Norwegian Sea. Furthermore, the DR method suggests a transition from a deeper halocline in relatively warm water inflow to a shallower halocline further north, which is absent in the other two methods (Fig. 6a–c). When using the DR method for analyzing halocline retreat in these warm water inflow regions, this may lead to different results compared to the two other methods. One reason for the DR method detecting a halocline base at depth could be thermohaline staircases. Overall, the largest differences in halocline detection frequency between the methods (Fig. 6i and j) were found in regions which are prone to sea ice retreat and, according to global climate model results, may also be particularly prone to events, in which large temperature gradients are found directly underneath the SML, and which mainly occur during winter (Metzner et al., 2020).^{M.A and I.P} The occurrence frequency of the CHL is analyzed in Fig. 6. Figure 6a to c shows occurrence frequencies based on simple nearest-neighbor (NN) averaging, and Fig. 6d to f time-averaged kriging results. As expected, all three methods detect a CHL in the Arctic Basin in most cases. However, even in the basin, the DR method yields numerous isolated minima in the nearest-neighbor map (Fig. 6a). The occurrence frequency in the basins in the smoothed map from the DR method (Fig. 6d) is also lower compared to the other two methods.^{M.A and I.P} Overall, the CHL occurrence frequency from the DR method shows evidence of noise. On the one hand, the observations from ITP 74 in Fig. ?? suggest a rather variable CHL base depth in the parts of the Central Arctic on the way towards the East Greenland Sea. On the other hand, Fig. RM3 and Supplement 1 suggest that some of the “no CHL” cases in which the CHL base was above the SML base are related to spurious minima in the CHL base depth.^{M.A and I.P} The potential role of spurious minima in the DR method can perhaps be best assessed by comparing the results from different methods. Because the ST and the TD method produce less artifacts while still capturing cases like the one in Fig. ?? for ITP 74, in which the SML deepened all the way to the Atlantic water, we deem the higher occurrence frequencies in the Arctic Basin based on the ST and the TD method more realistic compared to those based on the DR method.^{M.A and I.P} The situation outside the Central Arctic is more complicated, and not surprisingly, large differences between the three methods are found in the East Greenland Sea, the Barents Sea and the Atlantic. Two of the three methods occasionally detect a CHL in the Northern Atlantic, where only the TD method shows a near zero occurrence frequency (please refer to Supplement 2 for additional discussion of this issue). In order to prevent the DR and the ST method from identifying a^{I.P} halocline base CHL in relatively warm water, one could either limit the region to which the method is applied (as Polyakov et al., 2018) or else introduce additional constraints on the water temperature. Limiting the region is clearly a sensible choice in a stable climate. However, limiting the region to a region in which a stable^{I.P} (cold) halocline CHL is found at most times limits us in studying regional shifts. With regard to shifts due to climate change, one should be aware that methods differ regarding requirements for halocline base identification and results show cold the CHL must be.

3.3 ^{M.A and I.P} Maps of CHL boundaries

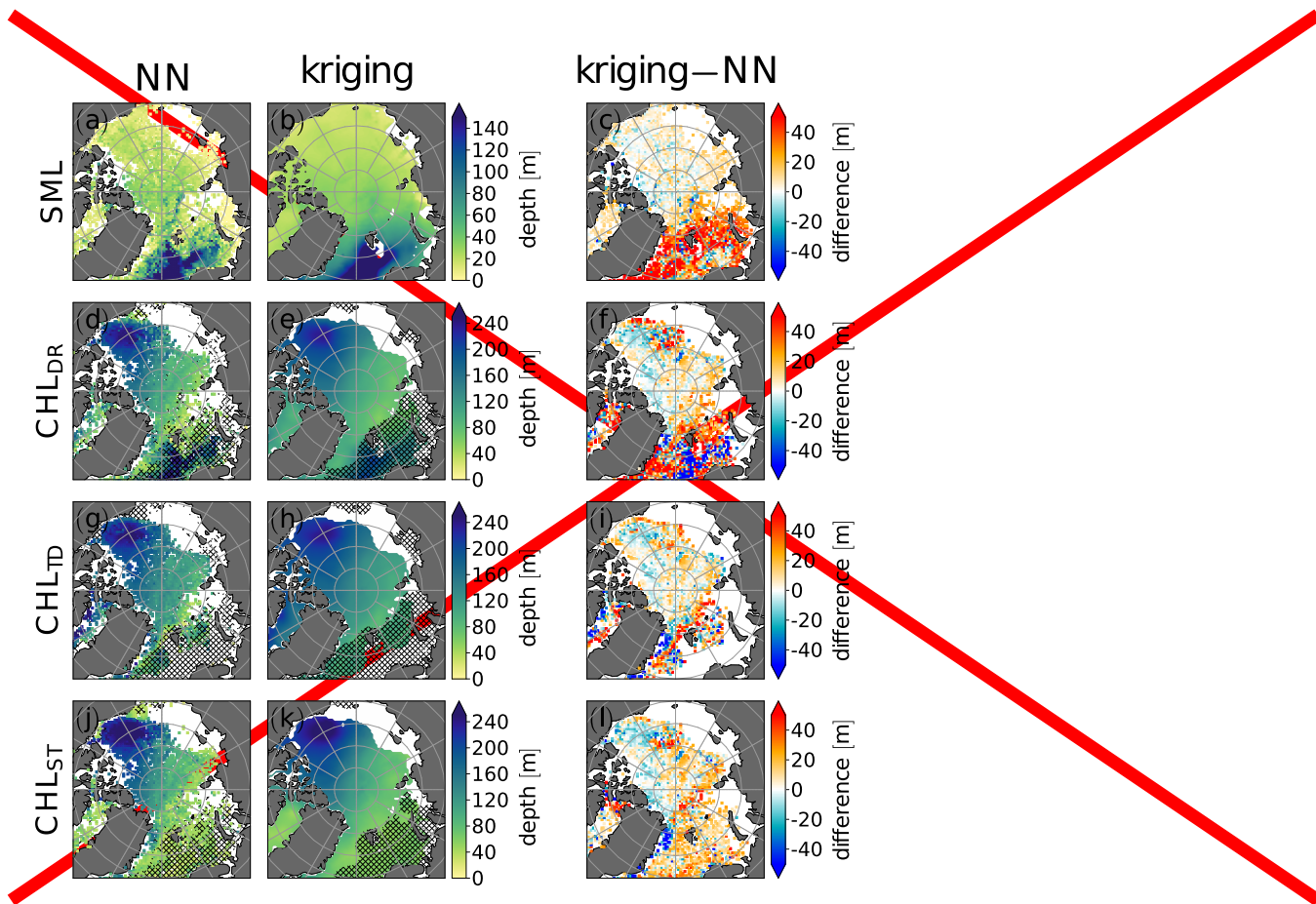


Figure RM5. Please note: This figure was revised and combined with the preceding figure.^{M.A and I.P} Comparison of (left) simple nearest-neighbor averaging to (center) kriging results with (right) difference plot for (a–c) thickness of SML and CHL base depth derived by (d–f) DR method, (g–i) TD method and (j–l) the new ST method. Points where the relative occurrence frequency of the CHL is below 1% were masked out in (d–e). Hatching indicates regions where the CHL occurrence frequency is below 25%. The SML depth in the East Siberian Sea and the interior of the Laptev Sea is based on observations in summer and fall.

^{M.A and I.P} Figure RM5a shows the mean base depth of the SML (top of the CHL) as identified by a change in potential density of 0.125 kg m^{-3} based on NN-averaging. The map that results from kriging and the difference between the two maps are shown in Figures RM5b and c. The annual mean SML depth in the East Siberian Sea and the interior of the Laptev Sea in Fig. RM5a and b is most likely underestimated because of a lack of data in winter and spring.

^{M.A and I.P} The SML depth gradient with a comparatively deep annual mean SML in the Barents Sea, intermediate values in the Eurasian basin, and a comparatively shallow annual mean SML in the Amerasian Basin and the Chukchi Sea in Fig. RM5a and b is in line with Fig. 14 of Peralta-Ferriz and Woodgate (2015).

M.A and I.P Although kriging acts to smooth the field, Fig. RM5b still shows some small scale variability in the Central Arctic, which may result from relatively sparse observations in winter and spring (Fig. ??) in combination with a fairly pronounced seasonal cycle (Fig. RM6).

485 M.A and I.P The time mean CHL base depths determined from the DR method (Fig. RM5d, e), the TD method (Fig. RM5g, h), and the ST method (Fig. RM5j, k) show a similar overall pattern. Comparatively deep time mean CHL bases below 200 m are found in the Canada Basin. The CHL base depth decreases as one moves from the Canada Basin through the central Amerasian Basin and then across the North Pole into the Eurasian Basin. This overall pattern is consistent with figures 4g and h of Polyakov et al. (2018). This CHL base depth gradient is roughly opposite to the gradient of the SML depth.

490 M.A and I.P There are, however, several notable differences between the methods to determine the CHL base depth. For example, the TD method yields somewhat larger CHL base depths over the Central Arctic compared to the DR and the ST method. A particularly striking difference in Fig. RM5 is found for the CHL base depth in the Barents Sea. While CHL occurrence frequencies in the Barents Sea are fairly low for all three methods, they differ notably, depending on which method is used to detect the CHL base (Fig. 6). For the DR method, the CHL base depth decreases from the Barents Sea toward the Central Arctic. This contrasts the finding by Steele et al. (1995) that the CHL forms in the Barents Sea and deepens where Atlantic water sinks at the slopes north of the Barents Sea into the Eurasian Basin. On the other hand, complex situations similar to the one observed by ITP 74 are difficult to capture by methods that to some extent rely on simplification. We nevertheless chose to include the Atlantic and the Barents Sea in our comparison, in part because it helps to highlight problems, which with increasing atlantification may also occur in other regions.

500 M.A and I.P Furthermore, as indicated above, the CHL occurrence frequency in the Barents Sea is generally low. Especially for the TD method, a CHL is rarely detected in the Barents Sea (Fig. 6b). Because the CHL base depth is only computed for cases in which a CHL is detected, the time mean SML depth in Fig. RM5 often exceeds the time mean depths of the CHL in the Atlantic and also the Barents Sea.

505 M.A and I.P The kriged CHL base maps (Figures RM5e, h, k) are smoother compared to the kriged SML map (Fig. RM5b), in part because of a smaller seasonal cycle (Fig. RM6). Artifacts in the DR method are partially filtered out here because spurious depth minima in the CHL base often reach the SML, so that these cases are not taken into account in computing the mean CHL base depths.

3.4 M.A and I.P SML and CHL base depth seasonality

510 M.A and I.P The seasonality of the SML and the CHL base depths are investigated in Fig. RM6. Insufficient data availability is an issue especially in the East Siberian Sea and the interior of the Laptev Sea, where both the seasonal cycle of the SML depth and the CHL base depth are most likely underestimated because of the absence of observations in winter and spring. The SML base depth varies more strongly with season than the CHL base depths for the East Greenland Sea, the Barents Sea, and the Atlantic. Together with the different spatial gradients in annual mean depths, this presumably makes the CHL in these regions more prone to ventilation events in winter, such as the ones investigated by Polyakov et al. (2018). This stronger seasonal cycle

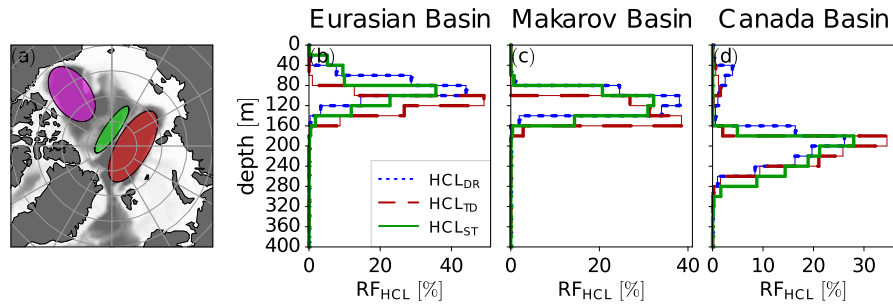


Figure 7. Please note: Figure added based on suggestion by M.A. This plots differ from the corresponding plots in our response to the reviewer comment by M. A. mainly because the version of the plots in the discussion was accidentally based on a dataset which was meant for kriging, and from which outliers had been removed as described in the original version of the manuscript, and also because we omitted low resolution profiles from the UDASH data set as described in the revised manuscript.^{M.A.} Map showing elliptical areas over the Canada Basin (purple), the Makarov Basin (green) and the Eurasian Basin (dark red) and ocean floor depth (grey shading) (a). Relative frequency of halocline (HCL) base depth determined with the density ratio (DR), temperature difference (DR) and the stability (ST) method for the elliptical areas over the Eurasian Basin (b), the Makarov Basin (c), and the Canada Basin (d).

of the SML is also generally consistent with our finding from models that CHL thinning events were most frequent in winter and spring, when the SML is deep (Metzner et al., 2020).
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^{M.A and I.P.} In the Amerasian Basin and the Chukchi Sea, the seasonal cycle of the SML depth is much smaller, often with maximum depths in March and April (Fig. RM6u). The CHL base depth on the other hand, shows a seasonal cycle also near the Chukchi Shelf in the Canada Basin (e.g. Fig. RM6h, l, p, and t), which could be an effect of Pacific water entering through the Bering Strait. In parts of the East Siberian Sea, the maximum SML thickness is reached in autumn (Fig. RM6u), but this is probably an artifact due to insufficient data availability.
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^{M.A and I.P.} Differences between methods in CHL base depth for the individual seasons occur mainly in regions in which also the CHL occurrence/detection frequency varied. This again warrants a note of caution when applying these methods in the regions which are most prone to changes in the CHL occurrence frequency. Outside these regions, the seasonal cycle of the CHL base depth is largely consistent across the methods.
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^{M.A and I.P.} For example, in winter, the CHL base depths increases almost across the entire Arctic. Only the TD method shows moderate decreases in the East Greenland Sea and north of the Barents Sea. A reason for the decrease might be that the TD method is more prone to not detecting any CHL at all in winter either because the SML base is below the CHL base that would otherwise have been detected or else because the condition on the water temperature is not met. For the cases in which a CHL is detected, it is shallower. Furthermore, because of the kriging, regions with near-zero CHL occurrence frequency can be more strongly affected by neighboring regions.
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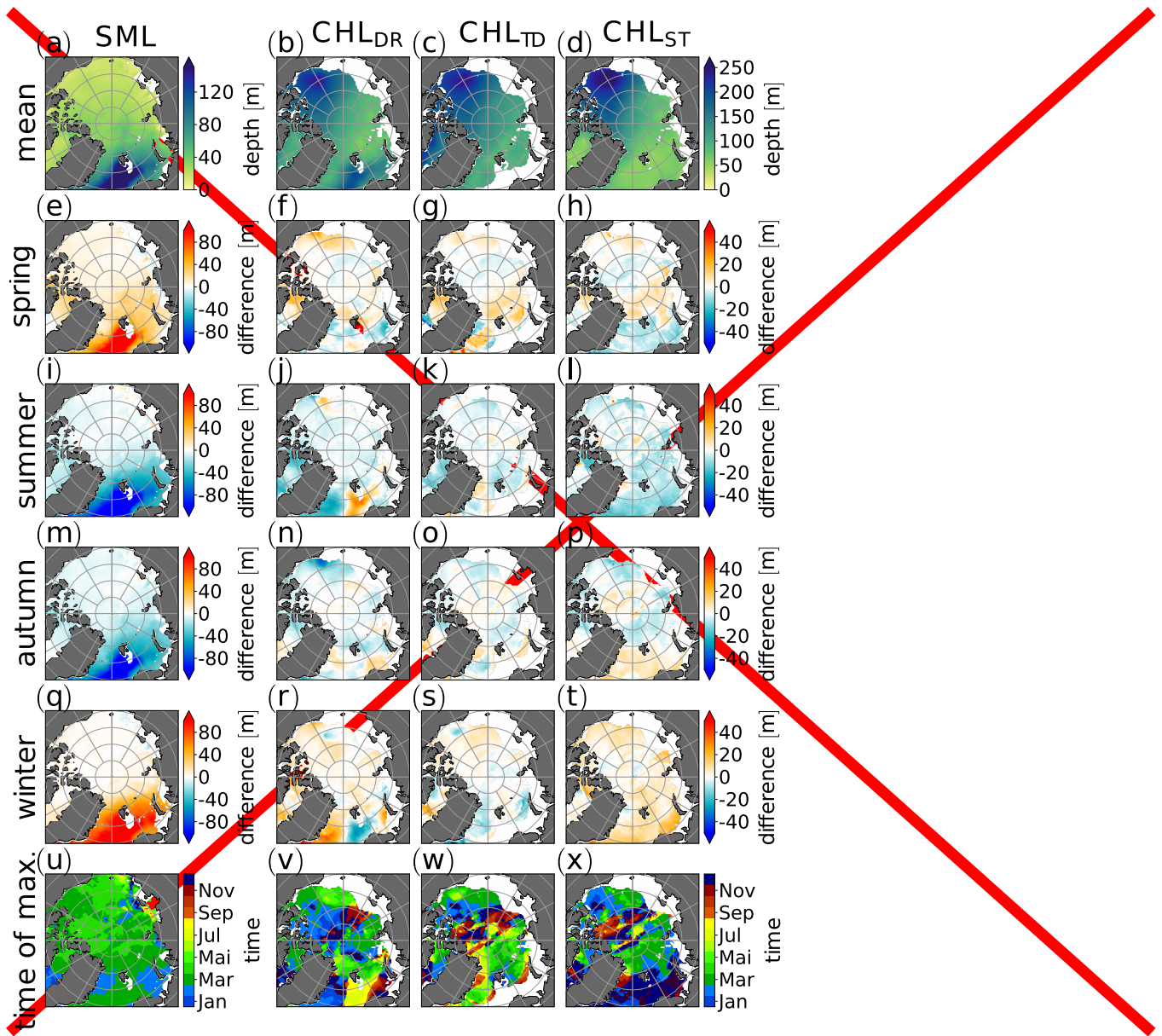


Figure RM6. Please note: This figure was deleted. ^{M.A and I.P.} Annual mean of (a) SML depth, CHL-base depth derived by (b) the density-ratio method, (c) the temperature-difference method, and (d) the new stability method. The corresponding seasonal means are shown in (e) to (f). The phase of the seasonal cycle in (u) to (x) is estimated via a cosine fit.

3.5 Estimation of cold halostad boundaries

In the Canada Basin, the PWW forms a so-called cold halostad, while the LHW is modified water of Atlantic origin. This leads to a local vertical stability minimum between two local vertical stability maxima (Fig. 5d and h). The upper vertical stability maximum is associated with an increase of salinity near the top of the PWW and the lower stability maximum is associated with an increase in salinity between PWW and LHW. The local minimum of vertical stability between these two local maxima is associated with a small salinity gradient around the core of the PWW (Fig. 5a and e)the CHL structure is more complex and features an upper layer and a lower layer (Shimada et al., 2005). This is for example reflected by the bimodal vertical stability profile in Fig. ?? along the track of ITP-33. The new algorithm described in Sect. 2.2 was designed to provide estimates for the location of the cold halostad layer ^{I.P}boundaries and the center, where the center is assumed to be the mean depth between the upper and the lower boundary. Twhich lies between these two halocline layers. The top and base depth timeseries derived with the new algorithm are shown by dark green lines in (Fig. 4). TAt the moment the algorithm wasis designed to avoid misclassifications of the cold halostad by requiring the difference betweenvertical extent of the lower stability² maximum valley' and the stability minimum (i.e. the depth of the 'stability valley') to be (a) at least 0.2. Furthermore, the vertical extent of the 'stability valley' was requiredorders of the squared Brunt-Väisälä frequency and (b) to be greater than 50m. This leads (a) to occasional discontinuitiesbreaks in the cold halostad boundary. Lines Fig. 4 shows such discontinuities as evidenced by the breaks in the dark green lines. Furthermore, the requirement of a minimum depth leads tovisible for ITP-29 in Fig. ?? and (b) shallow halostad layers not being detected.

Collecting all available observations with detected cold halostad boundaries per grid cell leads to the map^{I.P}_s of ^{I.P}CHS center depth and CHS thickness~~the cold halostad~~ shown in Fig. 8^{I.P}_{a and b}. The main occurrence region of the cold halostad is the Canada Basin, where Pacific water circulates between the SML and water of Atlantic originAtlantic water (Shimada et al., 2005). Employing conservative assumptions to avoid a misclassification (including a lower bound of 50 m for the thickness), we detect a cold halostad layer in the Canada Basin region in Fig. 8b ~70–90% of the time, except in August, September, and October when the occurrence frequency is slightly below 70% (Fig. 8c). In August, September, and October the fraction of grid points for which observations were available within the Canada Basin region was also particularly high (red line in Fig. 8c). Based on Fig. 1Therefore, more points at the edge of the Canada Basin region in region in Fig. 8b, where the occurrence frequencies decrease, may have been included in the analysis during these month. Furthermore, a cold halostad was detected near the coasts of Greenland where glacial cold water acts similar to the Pacific ^{M.A and I.P}low salinitysemi-saline water (Dmitrenko et al., 2017).

4 Summary and discussion

We introduced a new method for determining the ^{I.P}haloclineCHL base depth based on vertical stability and, compared it to ^{M.A}the density ratio and the temperature difference method. Our main motivation for using a vertical stability threshold instead of a DR or TD threshold was that vertical stability is more closely related to the role of the halocline as a stable layer which separates the SML from warmer AW below and thus acts to protect sea ice. Another objective was to design a particularly

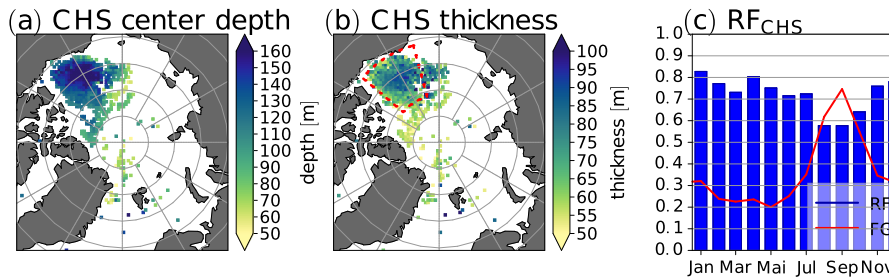


Figure 8. Map of mean (a) ^{1P}CHS center depth and (b) ^{1P}CHS thickness ^{1P} of derived cold halostad. (c) Monthly relative occurrence frequency fraction (RF_{CHS} , blue bars) of the CHS old halostad in the Canada Basin region (area enclosed by red dashed lines in (b) and fraction of grid points (FG) for which at least one observation was available in the respective month (red line).

robust method. We also devised a new stability-based method to identify the CHS, which is formed by PWW in the Canada Basin and also by melt water off the eastern coast of Greenland and Svalbard. two existing methods, and combined two existing comprehensive observational datasets to study the upper layers of the Arctic Ocean, generating maps of SML depth, CHL base depth, and also cold halocline depth and thickness for cases in which the cold halostad is thicker than 50 m and an additional requirement for the vertical extent of the stability minimum is fulfilled. To our knowledge, this is the first time that such a method for detecting the CHS has been devised and tested applied to a comprehensive dataset.

^{M.A and I.P} We found that the DR and the new ST method both correctly identified the base of the CHL in the Eurasian Basin during the first months of ITP-74, while the TD method placed the halocline base somewhere in the LHW. Furthermore, the analysis of individual profiles after convection in ITP-74 indicated that the new ST method captured the beginning of new halocline formation via the convective homogenization and subsequent fresh water capping mechanism proposed by Rudels et al. (1996). In the Canada Basin, the new method overestimated the halocline base depth compared to the DR method, which correctly identified the halocline base for ITP-33. This disagreement between the DR and the ST method could be reduced by slightly increasing the stability threshold in the ST method. Slightly increasing the stability threshold (which is at present based on an approximate relationship between density ratio and stability) may lead to a better agreement of halocline base depth between the DR and the ST method not only by moving the halocline base from the ST method upward but also by decreasing the sensitivity of the ST method to new halocline formation.

Unlike the two existing methods, the new ST method to detect the halocline CHL base yielded few artificial halocline CHL base depth minima. ^{1P} In the two existing methods, such artifacts were found to be associated with warm PSW on top of cold PWW in the Canada Basin. Because the new method searches for the halocline base from below, such artifacts were avoided, leading to a more robust method, especially compared to the widely used DR method. Unfortunately, because of DR maxima below the cold halocline base (which are for example associated with thermohaline staircases), the search direction in the DR method cannot simply be reversed in order to increase the robustness also of the DR method.

A particularly striking difference between the DRnew method and the other two existing methods was found in the ^{LP}Norwegian Barents Sea. ^{LP}While the ST and the TD method almost never detected a halocline in the Norwegian Sea, the DR method frequently detected a halocline base in the Norwegian Sea. Remarkably, the halocline in the DR method decreased north of the Norwegian Sea. This intriguing difference between the methods should be taken into account, for example when studying the effects of warm AW inflow on the cold halocline, especially because warm water inflow regions are particularly prone to react to anthropogenic warming (although the effects of warming on either accelerating or preventing new halocline formation are manifold and changing over time, and destabilization of an existing stable halocline by warming from below is only one potential contributor to increased annual mean net surface heat fluxes from the ocean to the atmosphere in warm water inflow regions found in climate models) For the DR method, the CHL base depth decreased from the Barents Sea toward the Central Arctic. This contrasts the finding by Steele et al. (1995) that the CHL forms in the Barents Sea and deepens where Atlantic water sinks at the slopes north of the Barents Sea into the Eurasian Basin.

^{M.A and I.P}The lack of a requirement for water temperature in the DR and the new ST method was found to be problematic as one approaches the Atlantic and may be problematic when applying these methods in a warmer climate. Although an additional constraint on the water temperature could be applied in combination with the DR and the ST method in order to decrease the number of false CHL detections in comparatively warm water, it would come at the cost of decreasing the sensitivity to the vertical salinity gradient. The problem of detecting a CHL base in comparatively warm water is altogether avoided by the TD method, which is highly sensitive to warming from below, but not directly (or only implicitly) to changes in salinity.

^{M.A and I.P}Because differences between the methods to detect the CHL bottom exist, one should always strive to ensure that the outcome from such methods is consistent with the raw data and beware of limitations in different regions. Unfortunately, our study suggests that the results from different methods to determine the CHL base depth tended to differ most in those regions in which the CHL was expected to be most affected by current climate change. Better understanding the properties of different methods can help to choose between more and less appropriate methods, based on the specific scientific question.

^{M.A and I.P}Regarding the new method for CHS detection, a case study and an application to a comprehensive dataset yielded encouraging results. The case study suggested that the method correctly identified a layer with a small vertical salinity gradient formed by PWW. This small salinity gradient led to a stability minimum between two local stability maxima which was captured by the new stability method for CHS detection. We also suggested a method that attempts to identify the cold halostad based on stability. To our knowledge, this is the first time that such a method has been devised and applied to a comprehensive dataset. Because we found it necessary to introduce a constraints on the cold halostad thickness and to set a threshold requirement for the magnitudethe depth of the stability minimum, our method suffers from a low detection sensitivity and altogether misses cold halostad layers that are thinner than 50 m. Nevertheless, a cold halostad was frequently detected in the Canadian Basin throughout the year and the number of missed detections tended to be small as for ITP-33, while some other ITPs yielded almost perfect results and some other ITPs slightly worse results (not shown). This suggests that a stability-based method for CHS detection could be useful for future studies exploring variability and changes of the CHS in the Canada Basin.

620 One method to advance cold halostad and ^{I.P}halocline base~~CHL~~ detection in the future may lie in the application of artificial intelligence. This would require a-priori manual classification applied to a training and an evaluation dataset. In the absence of objective criteria that work under most circumstances, such manual classification would ultimately have to rely on expert judgment, which may in turn introduce a different set of problems. Given the various shortcomings of traditional threshold methods, AI-based methods could nevertheless be useful.

625 *Code and data availability.* The Ice tethered profiler data (Krishfield et al., 2008; Toole et al., 2011) used in this paper are taken from the website of the Ice-Tethered Profiler program based on Woods Hole Oceanic institution via <https://www2.whoi.edu/site/itp/> (last access 23 January 2022). The UDASH-dataset (Behrendt et al., 2018) is available from the PANGAEA data archive at <http://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.872931>. ^{M.A and I.P}The Java code for the kriging software developed by E.P.M is available at <https://github.com/spatzewind/JKriging/releases/tag/v0.0.5> in version 0.0.5 (doi:10.5281/zenodo.7572759).

630 *Author contributions.* E.P.M. devised the new method for determining the Arctic Ocean cold halocline and cold halostad layer depths and performed the data analysis. Both authors contributed equally to writing the manuscript.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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