



1 **Documenting the 2015-2017 freshening of the eastern Eurasian Basin of the**
2 **Arctic Ocean and evaluating its drivers and consequences**

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Abstract

12 The Arctic Ocean is undergoing rapid change, with freshwater playing a central role in shaping stratification,
13 vertical heat exchange, and sea-ice loss. Using long-term observations from the Nansen and Amundsen Basins
14 Observational System (NABOS), we document an extreme freshening event in the eastern Eurasian Basin
15 between late 2015 and early 2017. During this period, salinity in the upper 175 m decreased by ~0.5 psu,
16 equivalent to an additional ~0.6 m of freshwater, relative to the preceding (2013–2015) and following (2017–
17 2018) years. The anomaly originated on the Kara Sea shelves in 2014–2015, when exceptional Yenisey and Ob
18 discharge provided a combined freshwater surplus of ~0.78 m, sufficient to explain the observed freshening.
19 Trajectory analysis traced the freshwater anomaly to the Kara Sea, with transport times of 8–9 months to the
20 shelf and 22–23 months to offshore. The resulting enhanced stratification suppressed upper-ocean currents by
21 ~22% and vertical shear by ~50%, reducing vertical heat flux from the ocean interior. These changes enabled
22 thicker sea ice to persist through the summers of 2016–2017, in contrast to near-ice-free conditions in adjacent
23 years. While wind anomalies aided the retention of freshwater along the slope, river discharge was the dominant
24 driver of the event. Overall, the 2015–2017 event demonstrates how episodic river discharge events can
25 restructure upper-ocean stratification, reduce oceanic heat fluxes, and lead to delayed melt and increased
26 summer sea ice, highlighting the sensitivity of upper-ocean processes and sea ice to episodic freshwater forcing
27 in the Arctic.



28 **1. Introduction**

29 The Arctic is warming faster than any other region on Earth, with profound physical and ecological
 30 consequences. Rising air temperatures, declining sea ice, ocean warming, and intensified hydrological cycles
 31 define this transformation. Surface air temperature has increased by $\sim 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ per century since 1901, while the
 32 Arctic Ocean interior has warmed by $\sim 0.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ per century (IPPC, 2021). Sea-ice extent has declined by ~ 0.3
 33 million km^2 per decade since 1979 (Cavalieri et al., 2003), exemplifying the phenomenon of Arctic
 34 amplification (Kim et al., 2017; Overland and Wang, 2016).

35 Among the key consequences of this warming is the increasing input and redistribution of freshwater from
 36 rivers, glacial melt, and precipitation (Haine et al., 2015; Alkire et al., 2017). Although the Arctic Ocean covers
 37 only a small fraction of the global ocean area, it holds a disproportionately large share of the global ocean's
 38 freshwater (Serreze et al., 2006). Model projections suggest that Arctic River discharge could rise by 20–50%
 39 by 2100 (Haine et al., 2015; Stadnyk et al., 2021; Rawlins and Karmalkar, 2024). Surface freshwater
 40 accumulation strengthens upper-ocean stratification, forming a low-salinity cap that insulates sea ice from
 41 underlying Atlantic Water (AW) heat (Carmack et al., 2015; Polyakov et al., 2013, 2020b). Conversely, surface
 42 salinification weakens stratification, promotes vertical mixing, and accelerates sea-ice melt.

43 Recent observations highlight the strong control of freshwater on sea-ice variability. In the Canadian Basin,
 44 enhanced freshwater since 2007 suppressed oceanic heat fluxes and temporarily slowed summer ice loss in the
 45 late 2010s (Polyakov et al., 2023). Such episodes demonstrate how regional freshwater dynamics can modulate
 46 or even interrupt long-term sea-ice decline.

47 The Siberian Arctic plays a central role in these processes. About 11% of global river discharge enters the
 48 Arctic Ocean (Dai and Trenberth, 2002), and roughly 65% of this input comes from the Ob, Yenisey, and Lena
 49 Rivers (Haine et al., 2015; Shiklomanov et al., 2021). These rivers deliver freshwater and dissolved materials
 50 that influence stratification, nutrient distribution, and biological productivity on the Siberian shelves (Dittmar
 51 and Kattner, 2003; Yamamoto-Kawai et al., 2013). The deep Arctic basins, connected to these shelves, receive
 52 much of this freshwater through complex interactions among shelf–basin exchange, wind forcing, and the AW
 53 boundary current (Aksenov et al., 2011; Pnyushkov et al., 2015; Baumann et al., 2018).

54 Despite growing observations, the relative contributions of river discharge, shelf storage, and cross-slope
 55 transport to large-scale freshening events remain poorly constrained (Pemberton et al., 2014; Timmermans and
 56 Marshall, 2020; Laukert et al., 2025). Sparse sampling beneath sea ice limits our ability to track freshwater
 57 pathways and variability. Models often poorly resolve mesoscale processes that redistribute freshwater (Nguyen
 58 et al., 2011; Müller et al., 2024), leading to biases in simulated freshwater storage and export (Hoffman et al.,
 59 2023). Moreover, changes in river discharge timing and snowmelt patterns further complicate predictions of
 60 freshwater release and retention (Rawlins et al., 2010; Stroeve et al., 2014).

61 This study addresses these gaps by examining the 2015–2017 extreme freshening event in the eastern
 62 Eurasian Basin. The objectives are to (1) quantify how riverine freshwater from the Yenisey and Ob Rivers
 63 contributed to this event, (2) investigate its pathways, transport timescales, and shelf–slope retention processes,
 64 and (3) assess its impacts on upper-ocean stratification, halocline structure, and sea-ice persistence. Using long-
 65 term mooring records, hydrographic observations, and reanalysis products, we evaluate how enhanced
 66 stratification during this event suppressed vertical shear and reduced upward heat flux from AW, enabling
 67 thicker and longer-lasting sea ice. By linking freshwater sources to their physical impacts, this study provides



new insight into how episodic river-driven freshening modulates upper-ocean structure and sea-ice variability in the Eurasian Basin.

2. Data and Methods

2.1 Oceanic data

a) Mooring observations

Our analysis uses records from six moorings ($M1_1$, $M1_2$, $M1_3$, $M1_4$, $M1_5$, and $M3$) deployed in the eastern Eurasian Basin, spanning the continental slope from the shallower near-shelf region to the deeper offshore slope between September 2013 and September 2018 (Fig. 1; Table 1). Together, these moorings sampled depths from approximately 30 m to 2700 m (depth ranges for individual moorings are listed in Table 1). Most moorings conducted CTD (Conductivity–Temperature–Depth) observations using fixed-depth SBE37 microcat instruments, complemented by SBE56 thermistors. Two moorings ($M1_3$ and $M1_5$) were equipped with McLane Moored Profilers (MMPs; Table 1), which measured vertical profiles of temperature, salinity, and currents daily at a profiling speed of $\sim 25 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$, achieving $\sim 12 \text{ cm}$ vertical spacing with a 0.5 s sampling interval. The MMPs provided temperature and conductivity measurements with calibration accuracies of $\pm 0.002 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $\pm 0.002 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$, respectively. The SBE37 recorded data every 15 minutes with accuracies of $\pm 0.002 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for temperature and $\pm 0.003 \text{ mS cm}^{-1}$ for conductivity. The SBE56 temperature sensors had an accuracy of $\pm 0.002 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$.

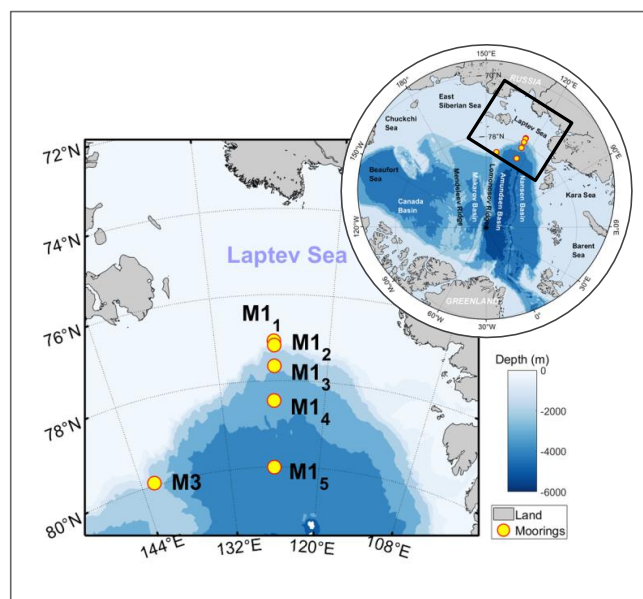


Figure 1: Bathymetry map of the eastern Eurasian Basin (shaded by depth, in meters) showing the locations of six NABOS moorings (yellow circles). The inset in the upper right shows the Arctic Ocean, with the Laptev Sea region outlined by a black box.



87 Table 1: Summary of the NABOS mooring data used in this study, including instrument details. For mooring
 88 locations, see Fig. 1.

Moorings	Latitude (°N), Longitude (°E)	Depth (m)	Instrument(s) ()	Depth range (m)	Beginning of record	End of record
M1 _{1a}	77, 04.221 125, 49.577	250	SBE37	53, 140, 240	26.08.2013	10 .09. 2015
M1 _{1b}	77, 04.221 125, 49.577	252	SBE37	53, 140, 240	21.09.2015	3 .09. 2018
M1 _{2a}	77, 10.373 125, 47.974	787	SBE37	70-754 53	26 .08. 2013	31 .08. 2015
M1 _{2b}	77, 10.373 125, 47.974	783	SBE37 SBE56	31,44,67,138,2 13,266,628 34, 37, 40, 47, 50, 53	21 .09. 2015	3 .09. 2018
M1 _{3a}	77, 39.234 125, 48.686	1849	MMP	64-750	7 .09. 2013	3 .09. 2015
M1 _{3b}	77, 39.234 125, 48.686	1866	MMP	70-1056	22 .09. 2015	15 .06. 2017
M1 _{4a}	78, 28.084 125, 57.679	2721	SBE37	62, 129, 214, 265, 617	5 .09. 2013	19 .09. 2015
M1 _{4b}	78, 28.084 125, 57.679	2700	SBE37	38, 107, 188, 240, 604	21 .09. 2015	18 .09. 2018
M1 _{5a}	79, 56.194 126, 01.228	3443	MMP	88-754	28 .08. 2013	21 .08. 2015
M1 _{5b}	79, 56.194 126, 01.228	3443	MMP	172-806	24 .09. 2015	29 .08. 2018
M3e	79, 56.136 142, 14.887	1335	SBE37	41, 45, 57, 64, 130, 270, 600	31 .08. 2013	7 .09. 2015
M3f	79, 56.194 142, 15.216	1357	SBE37	30, 50, 133, 217, 268, 614	7 .09. 2015	6 .09. 2018

89

90 To evaluate the potential effect of using fixed-depth SBE37 data, we performed a sensitivity test by
 91 subsampling the high-resolution MMP salinity data at typical SBE depths and recalculating freshwater content
 92 over the full MMP depth range. Differences between the original and subsampled freshwater estimates were less
 93 than 1%, indicating that interpolation of SBE data introduces negligible error.

94 Current measurements were obtained using 300 kHz Acoustic Doppler Current Profilers (ADCPs) and
 95 MMPs. ADCPs measured velocity in 2 m vertical bins with at least 1-hour time resolution and an accuracy of
 96 0.5% of measured speed and 2 degrees for direction. MMPs profiled from ~40 to 1000 m every two days at
 97 ~25 cm/s with a 0.5-second sampling rate, yielding vertical spacing of ~12 cm. The acoustic current meters on
 98 MMPs have a velocity error of ± 0.5 cm/s. Directional accuracy of the MMP compass is 2 degrees, but in the
 99 Arctic, errors can reach up to 30 degrees due to weak horizontal geomagnetic fields (Thurnherr et al., 2017).

100 For this study, we merged data from two consecutive mooring deployments (2013–2015 and 2015–2018) to
 101 create continuous temperature and salinity time series on a unified 2 m vertical grid using linear interpolation.
 102 All eastern Eurasian Basin mooring data were collected and made publicly available by the Nansen and
 103 Amundsen Basins Observational System (NABOS) at the University of Alaska Fairbanks ([https://uaf-](https://uaf-iarc.org/nabos/data/)
 104 [iarc.org/nabos/data/](https://uaf-iarc.org/nabos/data/)).

105 *b) Water mass fraction data*



Concentrations of meteoric water (MW) and sea-ice meltwater (SIM) fractions were derived from NABOS macronutrient observations described in Polyakov et al., (2020a) and available through the Arctic Data Center (Whitmore et al., 2023). The dataset includes discrete measurements of oxygen isotope composition ($\delta^{18}\text{O}$) and salinity collected during oceanographic cruises across the Arctic Ocean between 1981 and 2017, primarily during May–October at latitudes north of 60°N . Seawater samples were obtained using Niskin bottles at selected depths, and $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ and salinity were analyzed to calculate MW and SIM fractions. Temperature, salinity, and oxygen data from accompanying CTD profiles were matched to sampling depths, and discrete measurements were used to validate sensor accuracy. In this study, we used MW and SIM fraction data from 2013 and 2015 to examine changes in freshwater composition in the Kara and Laptev Seas preceding and during the onset of the 2015–2017 freshening event.

2.2. Sea ice concentration

Sea ice concentration data were obtained from the Advanced Very High-Resolution Radiometer satellite archive, which provides global daily sea ice concentration from 1981 to 2021 at $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ spatial resolution (Comiso, 2017). For this study, we used the data corresponding to the mooring deployment period (September 2013 to September 2018). Sea ice concentration values corresponding to each mooring site were obtained by sampling the dataset at the latitude and longitude coordinates listed in Table 1.

2.3. River discharge data

Daily discharge data ($\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) for the Yenisey, Ob, and Lena Rivers were obtained from the Arctic Great Rivers Observatory (ArcticGRO) archive (discharge product version 20220630; <https://arcticgreatrivers.org/discharge>). The dataset, compiled by Russia’s national hydrological agency (Roshydromet), covers the period 1979–2020 at daily resolution (Holmes et al., 2022). Published assessments indicate annual mean discharge uncertainties of approximately 1.5–3.5% for large Siberian rivers (Shiklomanov et al., 2006), with higher reliability during the open-water season. To minimize uncertainty, only May–October discharge data were used to estimate seasonal totals and analyze interannual variability (Section 5.2).

2.4. Reanalyses data

a) Ocean ORAS5 reanalysis

We used monthly salinity and ocean current data from the Ocean Reanalysis System 5 (ORAS5) and its near-real-time extension, Ocean5 (Zuo et al., 2019), produced by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). The ORAS5 product has a horizontal resolution of approximately $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ (about 25 km in the tropics and 9 km in the Arctic) and spans from 1979 to the present. It is generated using the NEMO v3.4 ocean model with the NEMOvar data assimilation system, which employs a 3D-Var FGAT (First Guess at Appropriate Time) scheme and assimilates both satellite and in situ observations to constrain ocean dynamics. For salinity, we used monthly mean values from the upper 0–5 m layer to examine surface salinity variability in the Kara and Laptev Seas. For currents, we used monthly averaged zonal and meridional velocity components from the same layer for January 2011–December 2018 in a back-trajectory tracer analysis to investigate freshwater transport pathways.

b) Atmospheric reanalysis data

Monthly surface wind fields from 2013 to 2018 were obtained from the ERA5 reanalysis, available via the Copernicus Climate Data Store (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu>). The dataset provides 10-meter wind



145 components at a horizontal resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ (Hersbach et al., 2020). These wind fields were used to
 146 evaluate the role of atmospheric forcing in the 2015–2017 freshening event in the eastern Eurasian Basin.

147 2.5. Defining the timing and vertical extent of the freshening event

148 *a) Defining the timing of freshening events using wavelet*

149 To determine the timing of the freshening event, we applied wavelet analysis to a salinity time series for
 150 each mooring location (Torrence and Compo, 1998). The study used DOG (derivative of the Gaussian) mother
 151 wavelet with 95% confidence intervals. Wavelet transforms were computed using a standard wavelet analysis
 152 package to isolate seasonal-scale variability and identify statistically significant low-salinity anomalies
 153 associated with the freshening event (Fig. S1). Based on these results, the event was defined as occurring from
 154 late 2015 to early 2017, with slight variations in onset and termination across mooring sites. Equal-duration
 155 reference periods before and after the event were selected for comparative analysis. The identified freshening
 156 period represents an anomalous decrease in salinity across the upper halocline layer, clearly resolved in the 65–
 157 100 m salinity wavelet signals (Fig. S1).

158 *b) Defining the freshening layer*

159 To define the vertical extent of the freshening layer, we computed a mean salinity anomaly profile at each
 160 mooring by subtracting the average salinity profiles from before and after the event from that during the event
 161 (Fig. S3). The upper limit of the freshening layer, z_l , corresponds to the shallowest reliable salinity record at
 162 each mooring. Two lower limits were identified from the salinity profile. The first, z_2 , is the depth where the
 163 anomaly amplitude decreased to 3% of its surface value (6% for M15). The second, z_2' , marks the depth where
 164 the anomaly became statistically indistinguishable from zero (≤ 0.003 psu, or 3% of the surface anomaly for
 165 M15; Table S1).

166 To evaluate the sensitivity of results to layer definition, freshwater content was integrated between z_l and
 167 each of the lower limits z_2 and z_2' (Fig. S4). The difference in mean freshwater content between the two
 168 thresholds was less than 3%, and the two timeseries were strongly correlated ($r \geq 0.99$) across all moorings,
 169 indicating minimal sensitivity to the choice of lower boundary. Based on this result, the shallower limit z_2 was
 170 used for further analysis (Fig. S3). For M15, wavelet analysis showed that the freshening signal became
 171 statistically significant below 75 m for the period before the event, supporting the use of 77 m as the upper limit
 172 (z_l) for defining the freshening layer.

173 2.6. Quantifying ocean responses

174 *a) Quantifying freshwater and heat content*

175 Freshwater content was calculated by integrating salinity anomalies over depth, following the approach of
 176 Aagaard and Carmack, (1989).

177

$$178 \quad \text{Freshwater content} = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \frac{1}{S_0} (S_z - S_0) dz$$

179 where $S_0 = 34.8$ psu used as reference salinity, z_1 and z_2 are depths of upper and lower boundaries, dz is the
 180 ocean layer thickness, and S_z is the observed salinity at depth z .



181 Ocean heat content (J/m^2) was calculated using temperature with the freezing point as the reference
 182 temperature at a given salinity (Polyakov et al., 2017).
 183

$$184 \quad Q = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} C_p \rho (T - \theta_f) dz$$

185 where θ_f is the freezing temperature, $(-0.054 \cdot S_z)$, with S_z the observed salinity at depth z , which is used as a
 186 good proxy for the seawater freezing point), ρ is water density, C_p is the specific heat of seawater, and z_1 and z_2
 187 are depths of upper and lower boundaries. Here, Q can be defined as the relative heat content, which measures
 188 the amount of heat that must be removed to create ice crystals at a given salinity and pressure.

189 *b) Available potential energy*

190 The available potential energy (APE) provides a measure of stratification and is used to quantify the strength
 191 of the surface mixed layer and halocline. APE was calculated following (Polyakov et al., 2018), by integrating
 192 the density anomaly relative to a reference from the surface to the base of the freshening layer, using the
 193 formula below.

$$194 \quad APE = \int_{z_1}^{z_2} g(\rho_i - \rho_{ref}) z dz$$

195 where z_1 is the surface, z_2 is the depth of the freshening layer, g is gravitational acceleration, ρ_i is the density of
 196 the water at a given depth, ρ_{ref} is the reference density (a constant depth density used for comparison), and z is
 197 the ocean depth.

198 2.8. Identifying freshwater sources and pathways

199 *a) Cross-slope salinity shifts across the Laptev Sea slope*

200 To assess whether cross-slope shifts of the Atlantic core of the boundary current could cause freshening
 201 across the eastern Eurasian Basin slope, we defined a proxy of the advective term between pairs of adjacent
 202 moorings (M11–M15). For each mooring, daily salinity and meridional velocity profiles were averaged over the
 203 50–150 m layer from September 2015 to September 2018 (excluding the freshening period from October 2015
 204 to September 2017). For each set of two adjacent moorings, the cross-slope salinity difference ΔS and mean
 205 meridional velocity $\bar{V}$ was computed. We used the product of the mean meridional velocity ($\bar{V}$) between the
 206 same two moorings and the salinity difference (ΔS) as a proxy of the advective term ($\bar{V}(\Delta S)$). A positive value of
 207 the proxy indicates potential salinification due to advection at the northern mooring, i.e., saltier water moving
 208 northward, while a negative value indicates freshening there.

209 *b) Defining connections between Kara and Laptev seas salinity*

210 Deseasoned monthly surface salinity time series from the Laptev and Kara Seas were compared using cross-
 211 correlation analysis to assess temporal relationships in salinity variability. The Kara Sea region was selected for
 212 this comparison based on back-trajectory results indicating the primary pathway of Yenisey and Ob River
 213 discharge through the Kara Sea. The lag corresponding to the maximum correlation was used to determine the
 214 timing of salinity signal propagation between the two seas.

215 *c) Tracer trajectory calculation*



To investigate the source of freshening in the eastern Eurasian Basin, we used a Lagrangian trajectory model developed by A. Pnyushkov and used in Polyakov et al., (2023). The trajectories were computed using the ORAS5 monthly velocity field, averaged over the 0–5 m depth layer, for the period 2013–2018. Parcels were initialized at each mooring position and integrated backward in time for 23 months, which corresponds to the maximum lag found between Kara and Laptev seas salinity anomalies (see Section 3.2). All tracers were assumed to have neutral buoyancy and were advected at a constant depth over the duration of their drift from the initialization point.

3. Results

3.1 Documenting the 2015–2017 freshening event

An extreme freshening event was observed across six mooring locations (M1₁ to M1₅, and M3) in the eastern Eurasian Basin from 2015 to 2017 (Fig. 2). At all these locations, the vertical structure of the salinity anomaly showed that the surface layers had the strongest freshening (up to 0.5 psu), and the freshening extended to depths up to 175 m (except for the M1₁ mooring location, where the anomaly extended deeper, to 220m; see Methods). The evolution of salinity and temperature anomalies from September 2013 to September 2018 is illustrated using a Hovmöller diagram (Fig. 3). For this purpose, salinity and temperature anomalies at 77 m, the shallowest level with continuous records with a few gaps across all moorings, were analyzed. Low salinity (fresher) anomalies (up to –0.4 psu) first appeared at the shallower moorings M1₁–M1₃ in late 2015, and were observed later at the offshore moorings M1₄–M1₅ and M3 by early 2016 (Figs. 3a and 3b). These anomalies added nearly 0.60 m of freshwater to the upper ocean layer (~ 30 m to 175 m), with freshwater content increasing from winter 2015 and reaching a maximum in 2016 at M1₂ and M1₃, followed by a gradual decline observed at all moorings after 2017 (Fig. 4). These anomalies persisted until early 2017 across all mooring sites. The added freshwater reduced near-surface salinity and density, thereby strengthening the vertical density gradient. This enhanced stratification was reflected in the pronounced increase in estimated available potential energy across all moorings (Fig. 5). For example, potential energy nearly doubled at M1₁ (from 0.66 x10⁴ to 1.24 x10⁴ J/m²), increased by ~70% at M1₃ (from 0.90 x10⁴ to 1.52 x10⁴ J/m²), and more than doubled at M3 (from 1.86 x10⁴ to 3.90 x10⁴ J/m²) during the event. This increased stratification is a potential contributor to reduced vertical heat exchange between surface waters and the underlying warm Atlantic layer over the freshening event.

The 2015–2017 freshening event spanned over three seasons: two winters (2015–2016, 2016–2017) and one summer (2016). To examine how salinity varied across seasons during the freshening event, we analyzed seasonal averages for winter (DJF) and summer (JJAS) periods. Fig. 6 shows that the event was not uniform across all locations and seasons. On average, salinity decreased by ~0.2 psu during winter 2015–2016, with the strongest anomalies at M3 (0.25 psu) and M1₄ (0.43 psu) mooring locations. In summer 2016, salinity increased slightly compared to the preceding winter. However, summer 2016 remained ~0.1–0.2 psu fresher than both summer 2015 and summer 2017, so that the freshening persisted over the three seasons despite seasonal variability.

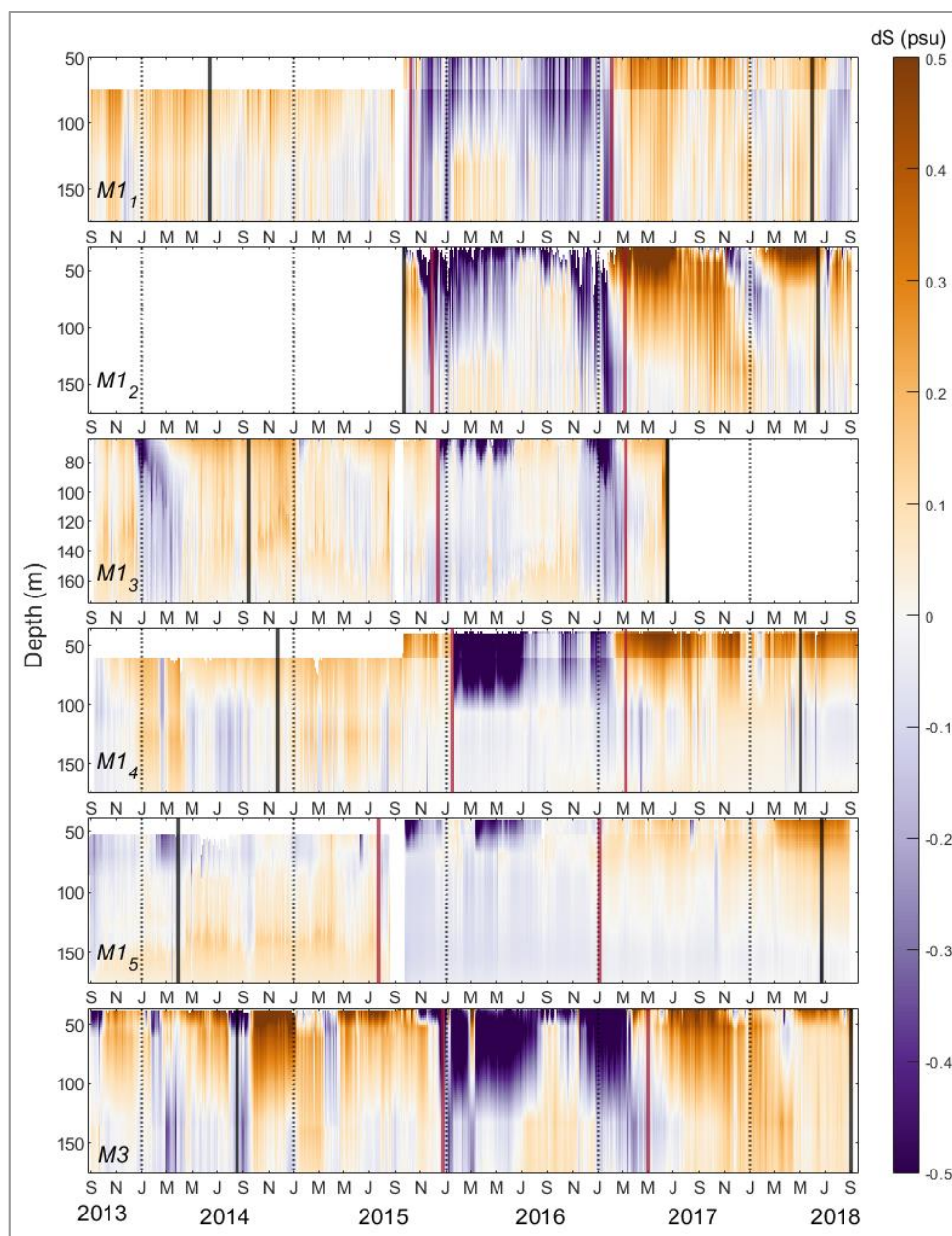


Figure 2: Depth–time distributions of anomalous (relative to the 2013–2018 mean) salinity from six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin up to 175m (see their positions in Fig. 2.1) from 2013 to 2018. Vertical red dashed lines indicate the freshening event (2015–2017), and solid red lines mark the periods before and after the event, used for comparative analysis. White gaps indicate missing data.

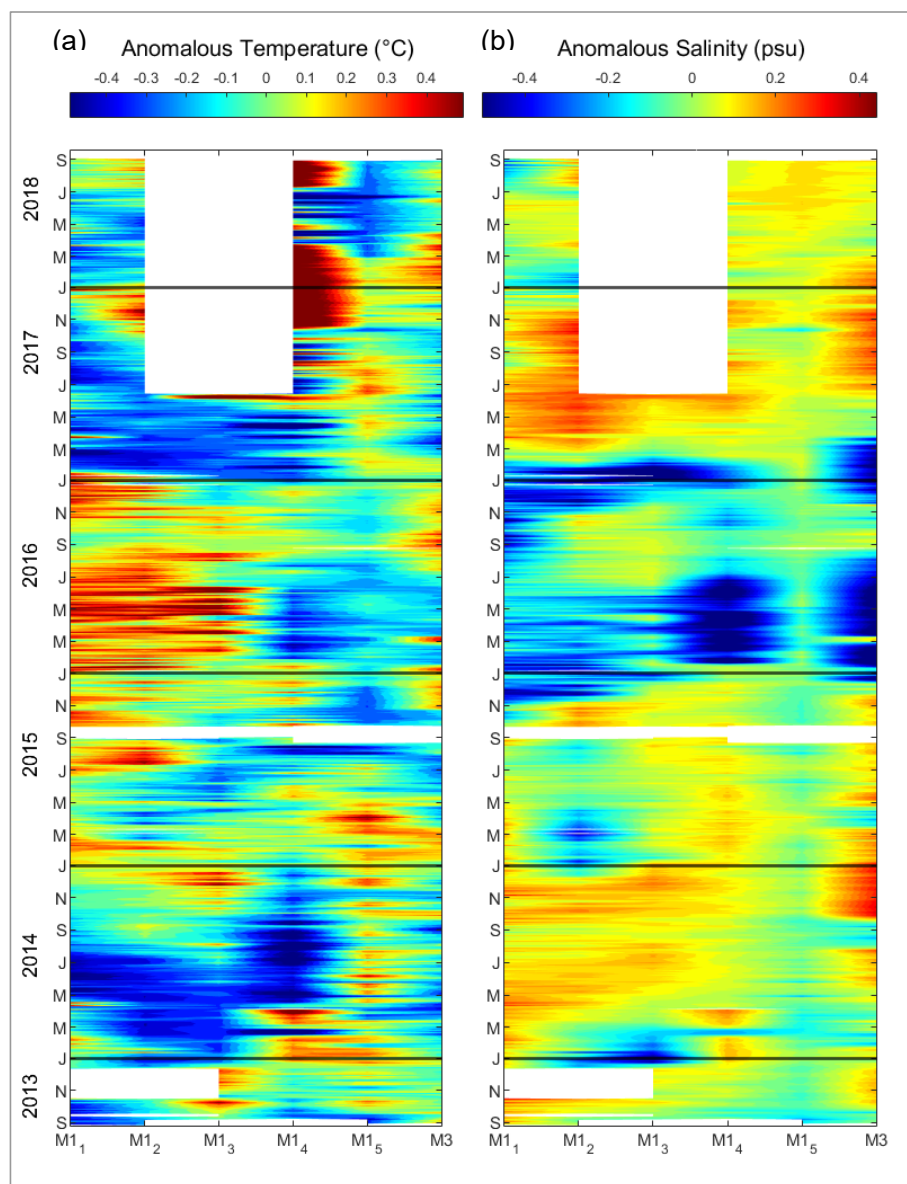


Figure 3: Hovmöller diagrams of temperature (a) and salinity (b) anomalies (relative to the 2013–2018 mean) at 77 m depth for six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin. The 77m depth was selected based on the shallowest continuous salinity record across all moorings. The horizontal axis represents mooring site labels, and the vertical axis shows time (September 2013 to September 2018). Horizontal black lines mark the start of each year. White gaps indicate missing data.

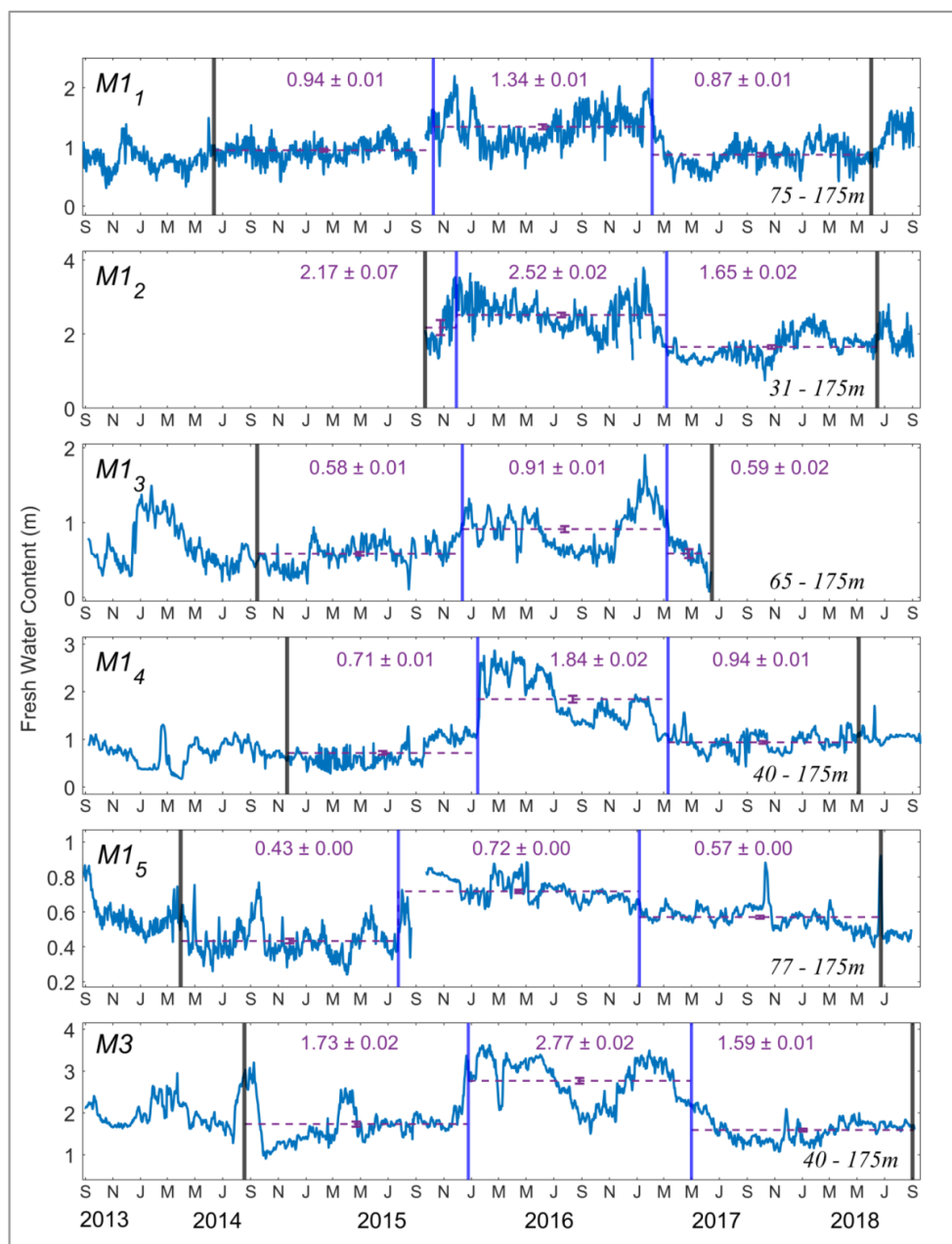


Figure 4: Time series of freshwater content for six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin, averaged over the depth indicated for each mooring individually (bottom right). Horizontal dashed lines represent the mean freshwater content, and the error bar denotes $\pm$ three standard errors. Vertical dark blue lines indicate the period of the freshening event; the vertical black lines mark the periods before and after the event.

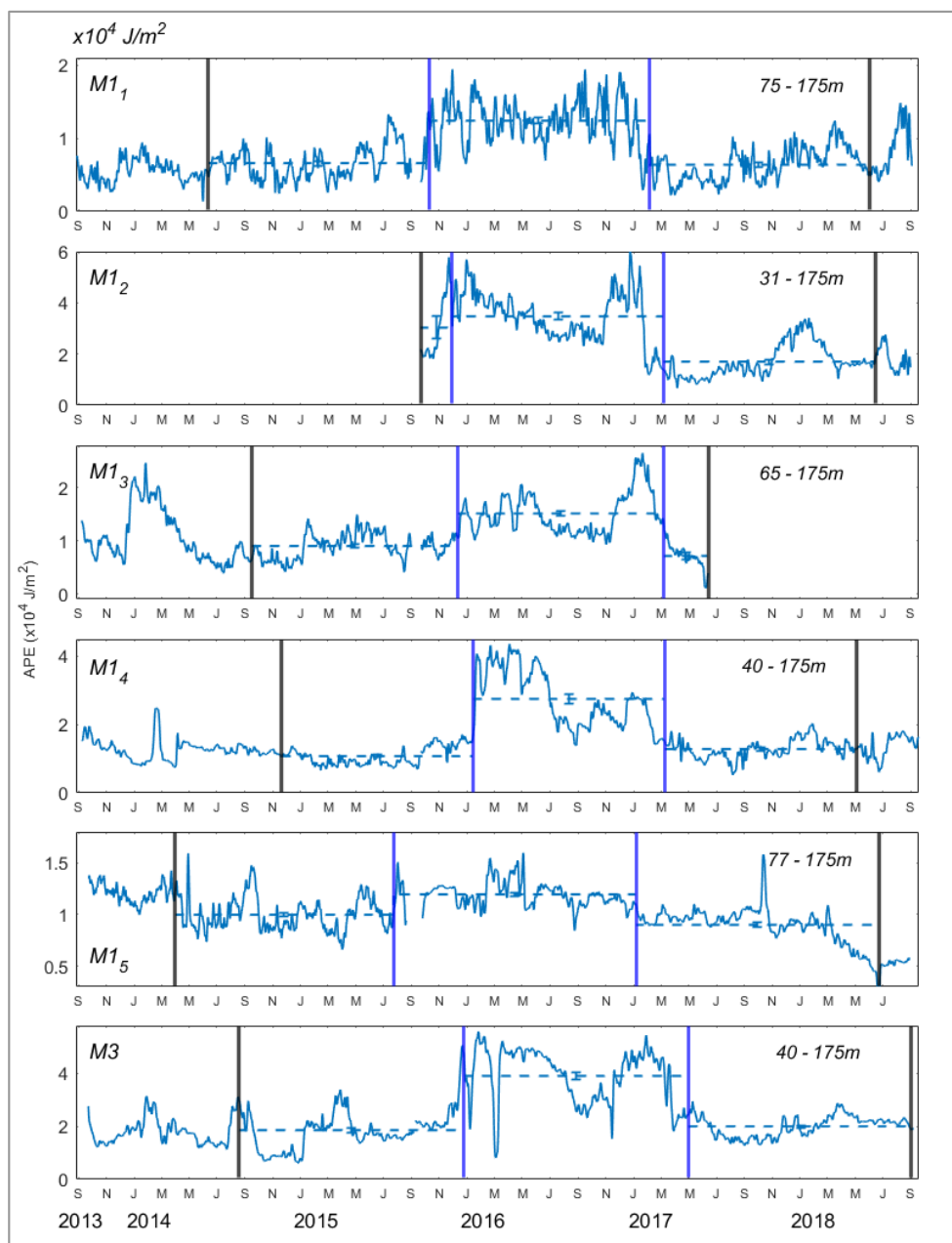
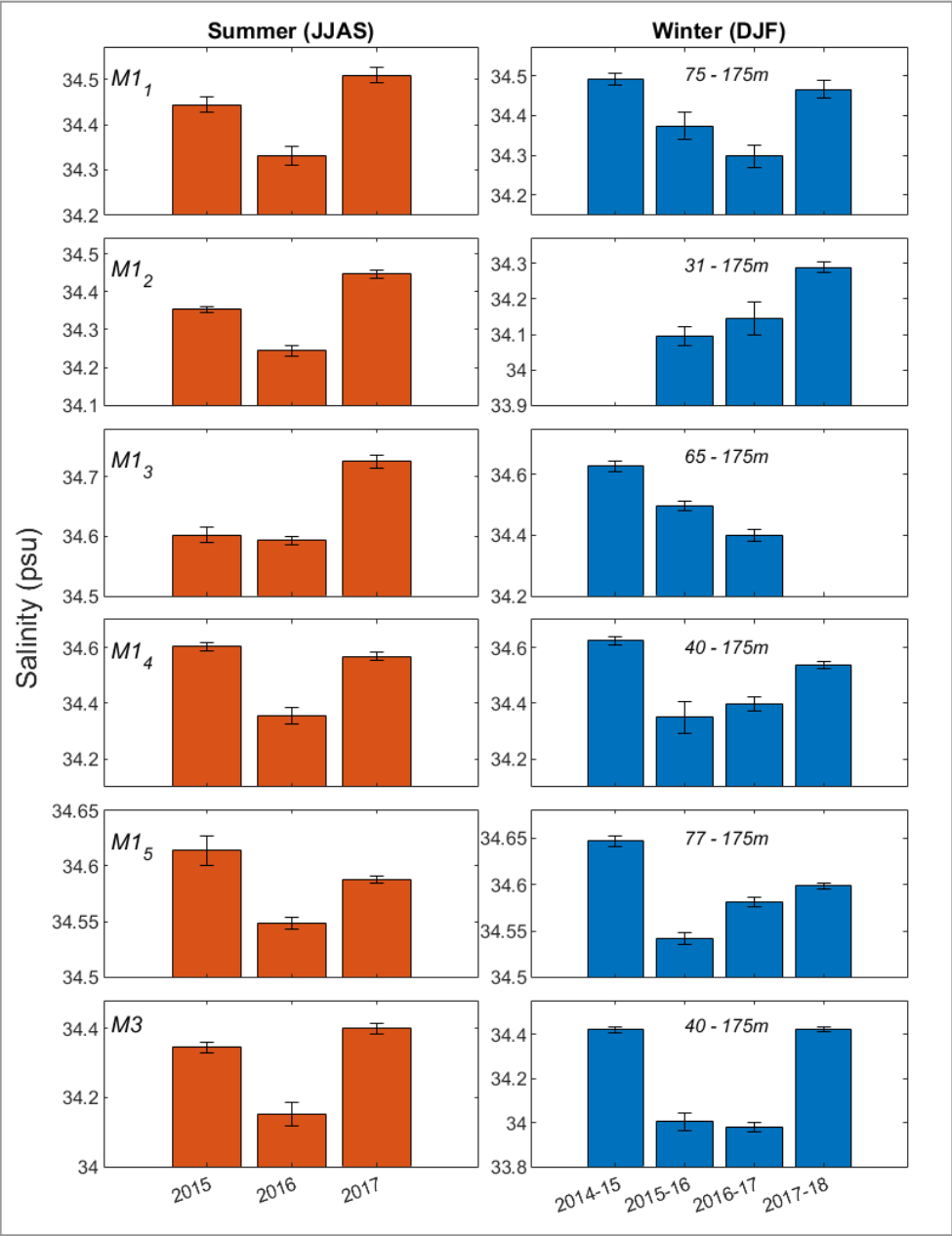


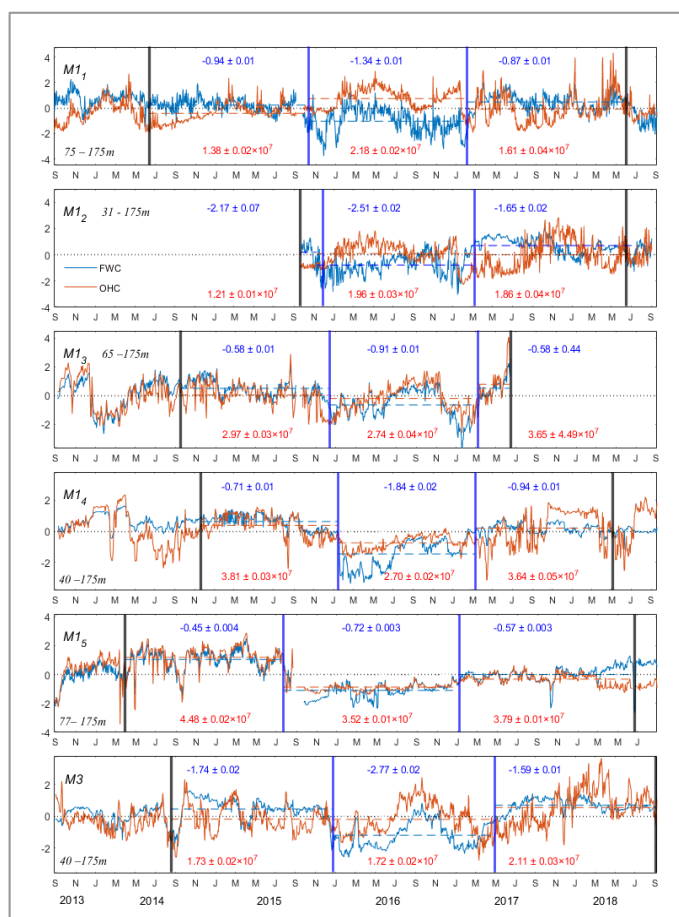
Figure 5: Time series of available potential energy (APE [J/m^2], blue) for six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin, averaged over the depth indicated for each mooring individually (top right). Horizontal dashed lines represent the mean APE, and the error bar denotes ± 3 standard errors. Vertical dark blue lines indicate the period of the freshening event; the vertical black lines mark the periods before and after the event.



273 Figure 6: Mean seasonal salinity averaged for summer (JJAS, orange) and winter (DJF, blue) from 2014 to 2018
274 from six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin. Salinity is averaged over the freshening depth
275 identified individually for each mooring record, as indicated in the right panels. Black error bars denote ± 3
276 standard errors.
277



278 The salinity anomalies were accompanied by positive (warmer) temperature anomalies of up to $+0.4^{\circ}\text{C}$ at the
 279 shallower moorings $M1_1$ – $M1_3$ and $M3$, while deeper offshore moorings $M1_4$ and $M1_5$ exhibited mixed
 280 temperature signals, lacking a clear tendency toward warming or cooling (Figs. 3a and S4). These anomalies
 281 persisted until early 2017 across all mooring sites. During the 2015–2017 freshening event, normalized
 282 freshwater content and ocean heat content exhibited contrasting tendencies across mooring locations (Fig. 7).
 283 The normalized values are unitless and represent the number of standard deviations (σ) above or below the
 284 mean. At the shallower moorings $M1_1$ and $M1_2$, freshwater content during the event increased by an average of
 285 0.52m , while ocean heat content increased by $0.56 \times 10^7 \text{ J/m}^2$. In contrast, at deeper moorings ($M1_3$ to $M1_5$ and
 286 $M3$), the freshwater content and the ocean heat content showed a strong opposite tendency. For instance, the
 287 freshwater content averaged over four deeper moorings increased by 0.67m , but ocean heat content declined by
 288 $0.60 \times 10^7 \text{ J/m}^2$. The potential underlying mechanisms for these contrasting signals are discussed in Section 6.



289 Figure 7: Normalized time series of freshwater content (FWC, m; blue) and ocean heat content (OHC, J/m^2 ;
 290 orange) averaged over the depth range (indicated in the bottom left of each panel) for six mooring locations in
 291 the eastern Eurasian Basin. FWC values are multiplied by -1 so that freshening appears as a negative anomaly,
 292 aligning visually with changes in OHC. Horizontal dashed lines represent the mean values for each period.
 293 Mean ± 3 standard errors are shown in dark blue for FWC and in red for OHC. Vertical dark blue lines indicate
 294 the period of the freshening event; the vertical black lines mark the periods before and after the event.



295 3.2 Sources and drivers of the 2015–2017 freshening

296 3.2.1 *Impact of cross-slope advection, precipitation, and ice melt*

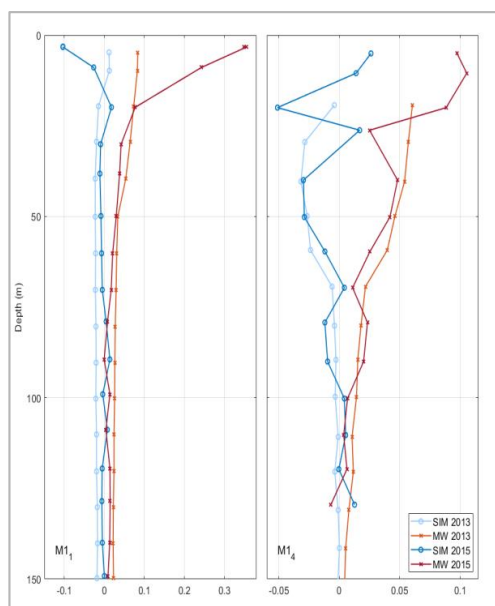
297 Variability in the position and strength of the front and boundary currents relative to the slope can
 298 significantly affect cross-slope exchanges of water masses, potentially influencing local salinity distributions
 299 (Pnyushkov et al., 2015). To evaluate the potential effects of cross-slope shifts of the boundary flow on the
 300 2015–2017 freshening, we examined the salinity distribution and the meridional component of the current within
 301 the 50–150m layer using data from moorings M1₁ to M1₅ (see Methods). Salinity averaged from September
 302 2015 to September 2018 (excluding the freshening period) shows a maximum of 34.55 psu at the mid-slope
 303 mooring M1₃, where the AW core is located, with lower salinities of 34.37 psu at shallower moorings M1₁–M1₂
 304 and 34.50 psu at outer-slope moorings M1₄–M1₅ (Table S2; Fig. S5). To translate these differences into a proxy
 305 of an advective term, we used the product of the mean meridional current velocity averaged over the adjacent
 306 mooring locations and the meridional salinity difference between these locations (see Methods for details). The
 307 meridional flow in the basin is predominantly northward. Consequently, the negative product of the advective
 308 proxy indicates northward advective flux of saltier water, implying salification at all moorings except M1₃
 309 (Table S2). However, observations in 2015–2017 show freshening at all mooring locations. Thus, the 2015–2017
 310 freshening cannot be explained by the advective cross-slope shift of the salty jet's core.

311 Therefore, processes other than cross-slope shifts of the AW core must have contributed to the anomalous
 312 freshening of the upper eastern Eurasian Basin in 2015–2017. Potential contributors are enhanced sea-ice melt,
 313 net precipitation, and increased inflow of river-derived meteoric water. Annual precipitation plays a minimal
 314 role in the Eurasian Basin, as it accounts for a small portion of the Arctic's yearly freshwater input (Serreze et
 315 al., 2006). Additionally, the increasing sea-ice melt is unlikely to explain the 2015–2017 freshening, since it has
 316 a relatively low impact on net freshwater content in the eastern Eurasian Basin (Bauch et al., 1995), as reflected
 317 by the negative values of sea-ice melt fraction (blue profiles) across all mooring locations (approximately –0.01
 318 to –0.02; Fig. 8). Meteoric water (primarily from riverine discharge), on the other hand, is the dominant
 319 contributor to freshwater content in the Laptev Sea and eastern Eurasian Basin as shown by the positive
 320 meteoric water fraction in the upper 0–50 m (Fig. 8; Bauch et al., 2013; Osadchiev et al., 2024). Notably, in
 321 2015, the meteoric water fraction at moorings M1₁ and M1₄ doubled to 0.12% from 0.06% in 2013, whereas the
 322 sea-ice-melt fraction remained unchanged, suggesting that anomalous Siberian River discharge may be the
 323 cause of the observed freshening in the eastern Eurasian Basin (Fig. 8).

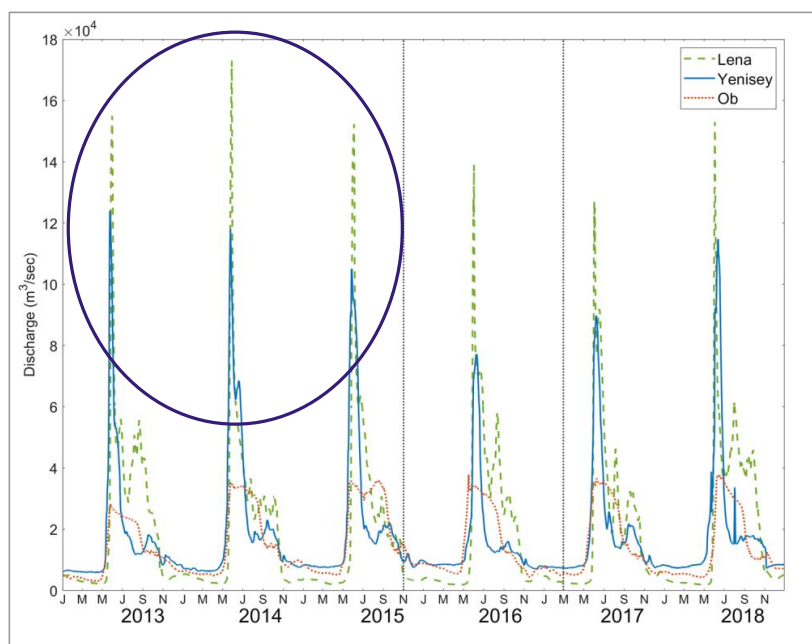
324 3.2.2 *Kara Sea as a driver of salinity change*

325 Checking records of the peak Siberian River discharges (May–October), we indeed found that the Yenisey
 326 and Ob rivers showed an anomalously high runoff peaking between 2014 and 2015 relative to 2013 (Fig. 9). In
 327 2014, the Yenisey delivered $+6.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3/\text{s}$, an excess equivalent to $\sim 0.19\text{m}$ of freshwater when spread over
 328 the area covered by mooring observations (roughly 77–82°N and 110–140°E; $5 \times 10^5 \text{ km}^2$), while the Ob
 329 delivered $+5.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3/\text{s}$, adding $\sim 0.16\text{m}$. In 2015, the Yenisey supplied $4.54 \times 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3/\text{s}$ ($\sim 0.14\text{m}$) and the
 330 Ob $8.48 \times 10^{-6} \text{ km}^3/\text{s}$ ($\sim 0.26\text{m}$). Combined, these anomalous $\sim 0.78\text{m}$ discharges from Yenisey and Ob over two
 331 years of 2014–2015 alone can account for the derived from the mooring records $\sim 0.60 \text{ m}$ freshwater content
 332 increase averaged over 2015–2017 (Fig. 4).

333



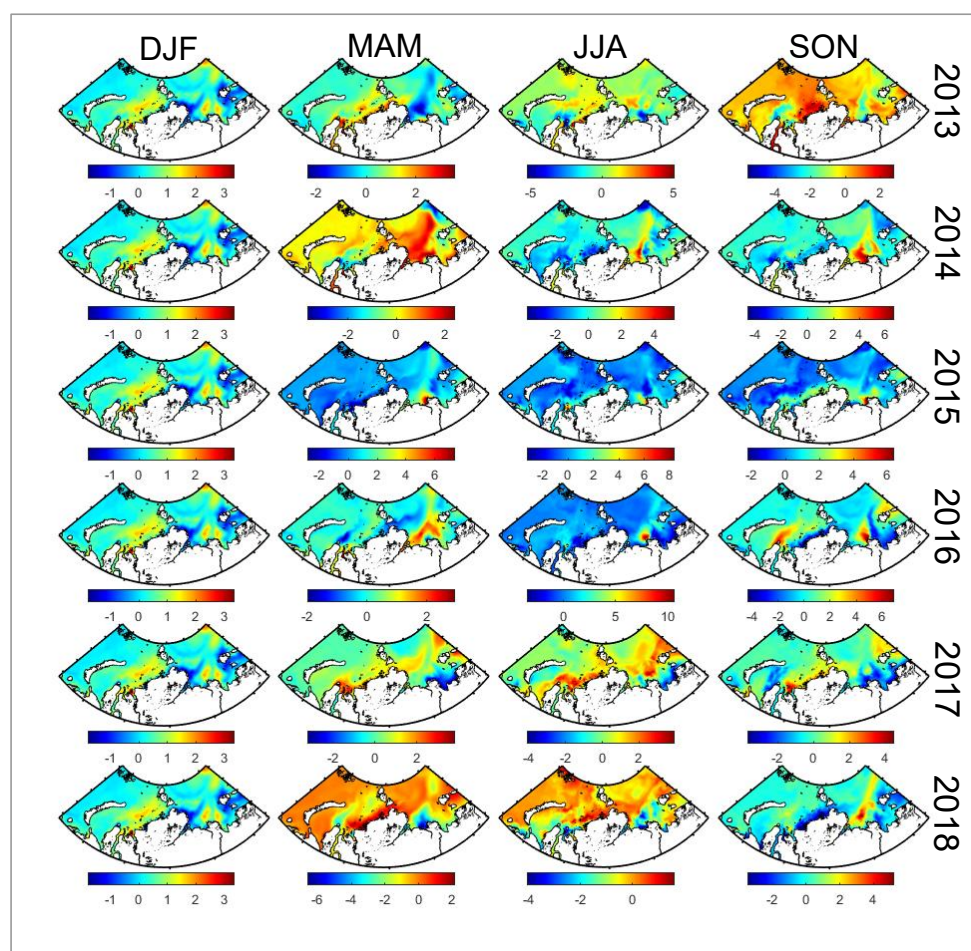
334 Figure 8: Vertical profiles of sea ice melt (SIM; blue) and meteoric water (MW; orange) fractions at M1₁ and
 335 M1₄ mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin for 2013 (lighter shade) and 2015 (darker shade).
 336
 337



338 Figure 9: Time series of river discharge from the Lena (green), Yenisey (blue), and Ob (orange) Rivers from
 339 2013 to 2018. Dashed black lines indicate the period of the freshening event in the Eurasian Basin. The purple
 340 ink circle highlights the increased freshwater discharge from the Lena and Yenisey Rivers before the event. Data
 341 source: The Arctic Great Rivers Observatory: <https://arcticgreatrivers.org/>.



342 The downstream impact of this anomalous freshwater input is evident in the progressive salinity decline
 343 observed across the Kara and Laptev Sea shelf and slope regions (Fig. 10). De-seasoned ORAS5 salinity
 344 anomalies, averaged over four-month seasons, reveal a basin-wide freshening that begins in the Kara Sea as
 345 early as spring (MAM) 2015 and extends into the Laptev Sea through fall (SON) 2016, indicating the
 346 propagation of freshwater from the Kara to the Laptev Sea. This pattern of salinity anomalies highlights the
 347 linkage between enhanced Siberian River discharge and the observed freshening in the eastern Eurasian Basin.



348
 349 Figure 10: De-seasoned ORAS5 surface (1 m depth) salinity anomalies across the Kara and Laptev seas region
 350 averaged over seasonal periods (December-February [DJF], March-May [MAM], June-August [JJA],
 351 September-November [SON]) from 2013 to 2018.

352 The cross-correlation analysis of de-seasoned time series of salinity anomalies from Kara and Laptev Sea
 353 provides further support to the findings above, showing a positive correlation with values ranging from $R = 0.39$
 354 at $M1_1$ to $R = 0.78$ for $M1_5$ (all statistically significant at 95% level, Fig. 11). It also indicates that freshwater
 355 transport takes between 8 and 23 months to reach the Laptev Sea from the Kara Sea. The lag varied from 7 to 9
 356 months at $M1_1$ and $M1_2$ to 22 to 23 months at $M1_3$ - $M1_5$ and $M3$, indicating that freshwater first reached the



shelf edge regions and then the offshore deeper slope areas. This pattern aligns with the different start dates of
 freshening at mooring locations shown in Fig. 3.

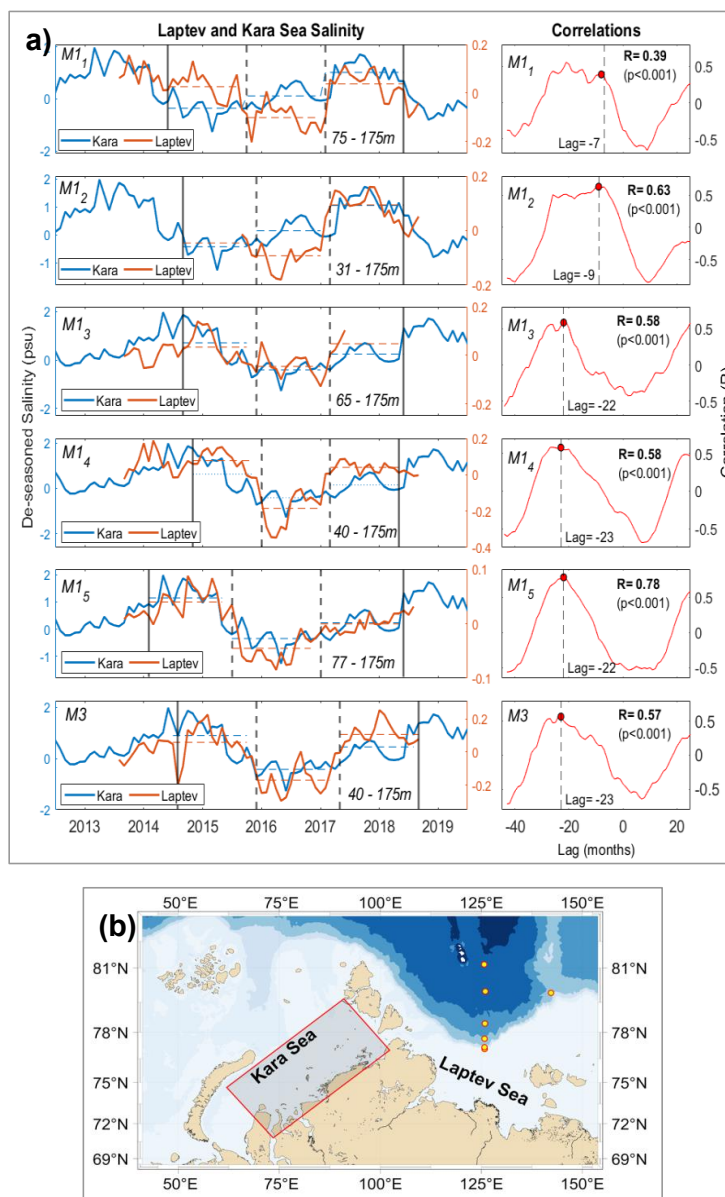
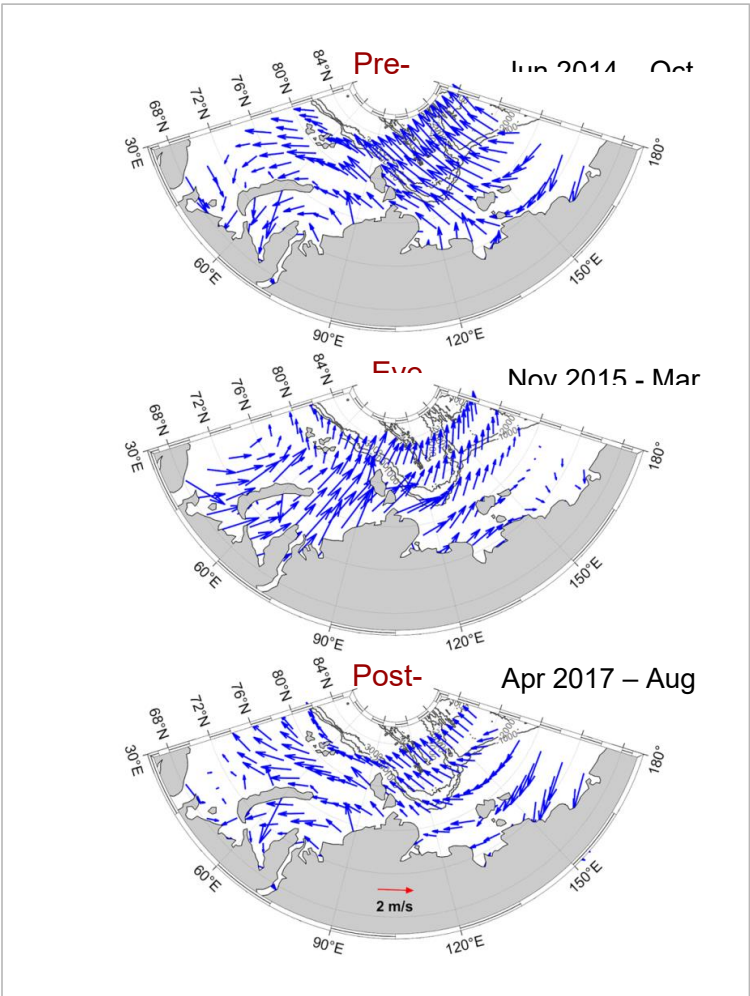


Figure 11: (a) Monthly time series of salinity anomalies averaged across the depth range (sub-surface to 175m) for the Laptev Sea (orange), derived from mooring records, and the Kara Sea (blue), obtained from ORAS5 1m surface salinity (the latter is lagged by maximum correlation). (b) The Kara Sea region (red box) was used to compute the Kara Sea time series. The region was selected based on trajectory analysis, which identified the source region for the Laptev Sea freshening event in 2016-2017.



365 The 2015–2017 freshening event in the eastern Eurasian Basin coincided with changes in wind conditions.
366 Winds from ERA5 reanalysis show pronounced changes over the Kara and Laptev seas during this event,
367 compared to before and after the event periods (Fig. 12). Before and after the event, winds were predominantly
368 southeasterly, however, during the event, the direction shifted to southwesterly (Fig. 12). These changes can
369 alter the direction of Ekman transport, shifting the accumulation of freshwater along the slope rather than
370 driving it into the basin and contributing to the observed freshening buildup. Thus, the timing and magnitude of
371 the Yenisey and Ob discharges, along with anomalous wind conditions, make them the most plausible drivers of
372 the 2015–2017 freshening observed in the eastern Eurasian Basin.



373
374 Figure 12: ERA5 10 m wind vectors averaged over three periods: pre-event (top), during (middle), and post-
375 event (bottom), the 2015–2017 freshening event in the Eurasian Basin.
376



To explore whether the surplus freshwater from the Yenisey and Ob discharges could reach the Laptev slope moorings under anomalous wind conditions, we conducted a Lagrangian tracer analysis. This involved using surface (0-5m) parcels from monthly ORAS5 reanalysis velocities (see Methods for details). These parcels were initialized at each mooring location and advected backward over 23 months, a duration selected to match the salinity lag observed between Kara and Laptev Sea salinity. The resulting trajectories reveal that upper eastern Eurasian Basin freshening originates in the Kara Sea (Fig. 13). Also, the trajectories show that no parcel originates from the Lena River delta, implying that its runoff did not contribute to the observed freshening. The anomalous discharge from the Kara Sea moves eastward as a coastal current, then enters the 10-20 km wide Vilkitsky Strait, and then flows eastward into the eastern Eurasian Basin, following the path identified in Janout et al., (2015). The trajectories remain very similar across all three periods – before, during, and after the freshening event. A negligible change in the trajectory pattern suggests that the direction of anomalous winds did not play a significant role in the freshwater transport. Instead, the large Yenisey and Ob River discharge between 2014 and 2015 (Fig. 9) was probably the dominant source of the freshening observed in the eastern Eurasian Basin.

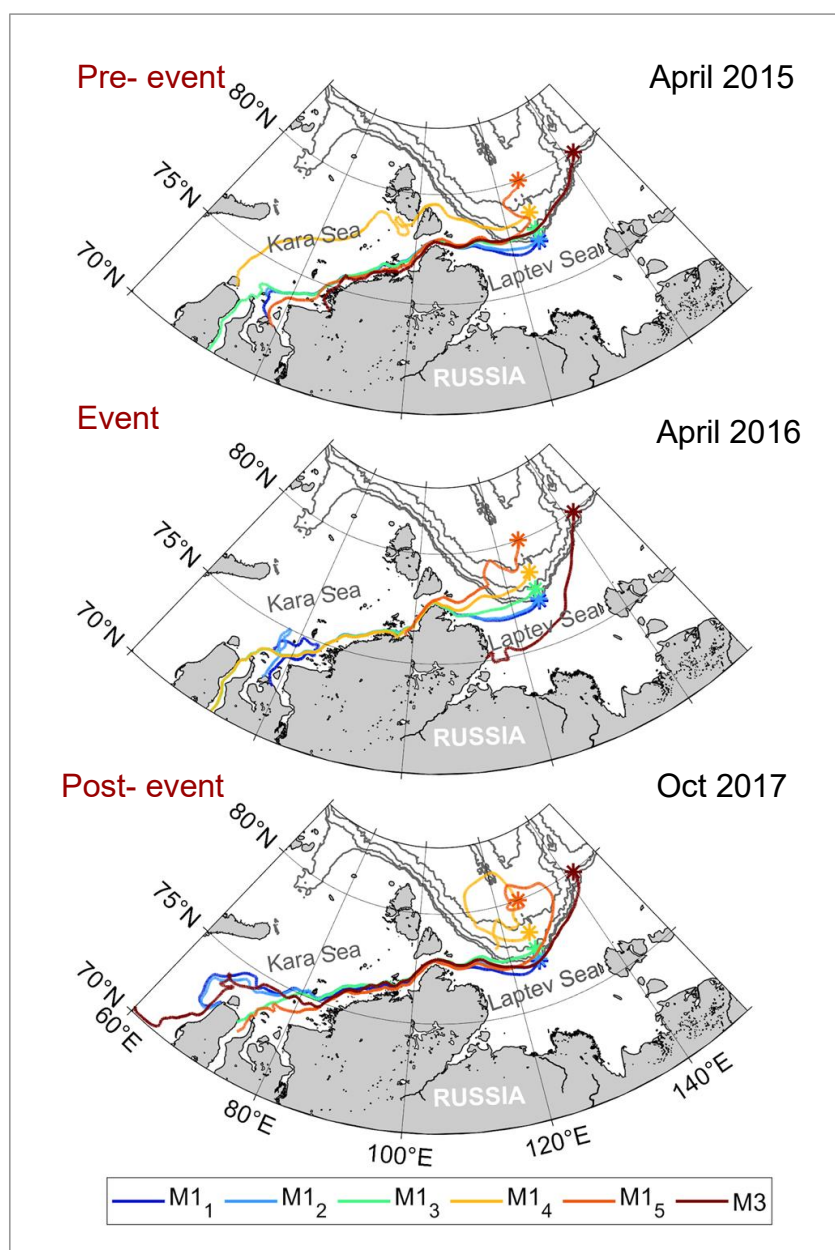
3.3. Consequences of the eastern Eurasian Basin freshening on ocean currents and sea ice

The 2015-2017 freshening event led to strong stratification in the upper ocean, as evidenced by an increase in the squared buoyancy frequency (N^2) down to 100m from late 2015 to 2017 (Fig. 14a). The enhanced upper ocean salinity gradient can significantly suppress vertical mixing and heat ventilation between the surface and the underlying AW (e.g., Miller, 1976; Polyakov et al., 2025). At the same time, the upper 10m current speed $|U|$ and vertical shear of horizontal current U_z were significantly suppressed during the same period, with maximum weakening observed in 2017 (Fig. 14b-c). The annual mean current speed decreased from ~ 7.3 cm/s in 2014-2016 to ~ 5.7 cm/s (a $\sim 22\%$ decline) in 2017, while the annual vertical shear declined from ~ 9.2 s $^{-1}$ in 2014-2015 to ~ 4.8 s $^{-1}$ ($\sim 47\%$ decline) in 2016 and ~ 4.1 s $^{-1}$ ($\sim 54\%$ decline) in 2017. However, as the impact of the freshening event subsided, both variables rebounded. In 2018, the annual current speed rose to ~ 8.4 cm/s, and the annual shear jumped to ~ 8.6 s $^{-1}$, implying a renewed strengthening of upper ocean currents.

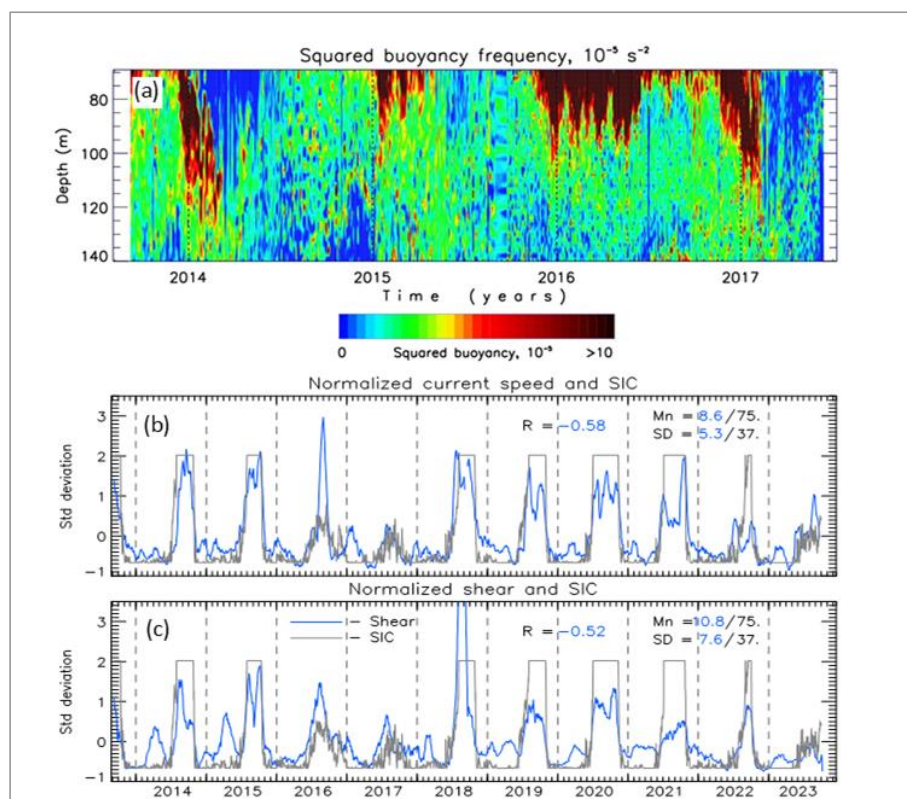
The reduced upper-ocean currents and shear in 2015 and 2016 were accompanied by a significant reduction in turbulent ocean heat flux, as shown in Fig. 4 from (Polyakov., 2020b). It shows that during the winters of 2015 and 2016, around the onset of the freshening event, the divergent heat flux across the halocline decreased from 20 W/m 2 to 3 W/m 2 . This weakening of oceanic heat flux was reflected in the sea ice concentration observed at all moorings during the following summers of 2016 and 2017 (Fig. 15). At moorings M1 $_1$, M1 $_2$, and M1 $_3$, the seasonal decline from June to September slowed in 2016-2017 compared to 2013-2015 and 2018, with sea ice concentration remaining much higher through late summer than in other years. At moorings M1 $_4$, M1 $_5$, and M3, summer SIC remained near 50–70 % in 2016–2017, whereas in other years before and after, it dropped to zero between August and October, highlighting the unusual presence of sea ice in offshore regions during the freshening event. Altogether, these findings provide strong evidence that the 2015–2017 freshening event altered upper-ocean stratification, resulting in reduced oceanic heat fluxes and leading to delayed melt and more summer sea ice, emphasizing the sensitivity of upper-ocean processes and sea ice to episodic freshwater forcing in the Arctic.



416



417 Figure 13: Twenty-three months back trajectories calculated from six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian
 418 Basin using ORAS5 current velocity fields (0-5 m) for a month of each period: April 2015 pre-event), April
 419 2016 (event), and October 2017 post-event). Each color line represents a Lagrangian path traced backward from
 420 a mooring location: M1₁ (dark blue), M1₂ (light blue), M1₃ (green), M1₄ (yellow), M1₅ (orange), M3 (red).



421

422 Figure 14: Consequences of the 2015-2017 freshening event in the eastern Eurasian Basin. (a) Time-depth
 423 section of squared buoyancy frequency N^2 for the M1₃ mooring location (Adapted from Polyakov et al., 2020b-
 424 J. Climate); (b,c) Time series of normalized (reduced to anomalies by subtracting means, Mn, and divided by
 425 standard deviations, SD) current speed $|U|$, vertical shear of horizontal current $|U_z|$ (both from 10m depth level),
 426 and sea ice concentration, SIC (the latter time series are multiplied by minus one) at M1 mooring location. Blue
 427 lines represent total current speed and shear, while grey lines indicate SIC. Mn and SD are provided for $|U|$ in
 428 cm/s , $|U_z|$ in 10^3 s^{-1} , and SIC in %. Correlations R between $|U|$ and SIC (blue digits) are statistically significant at
 429 the 0.05% level.

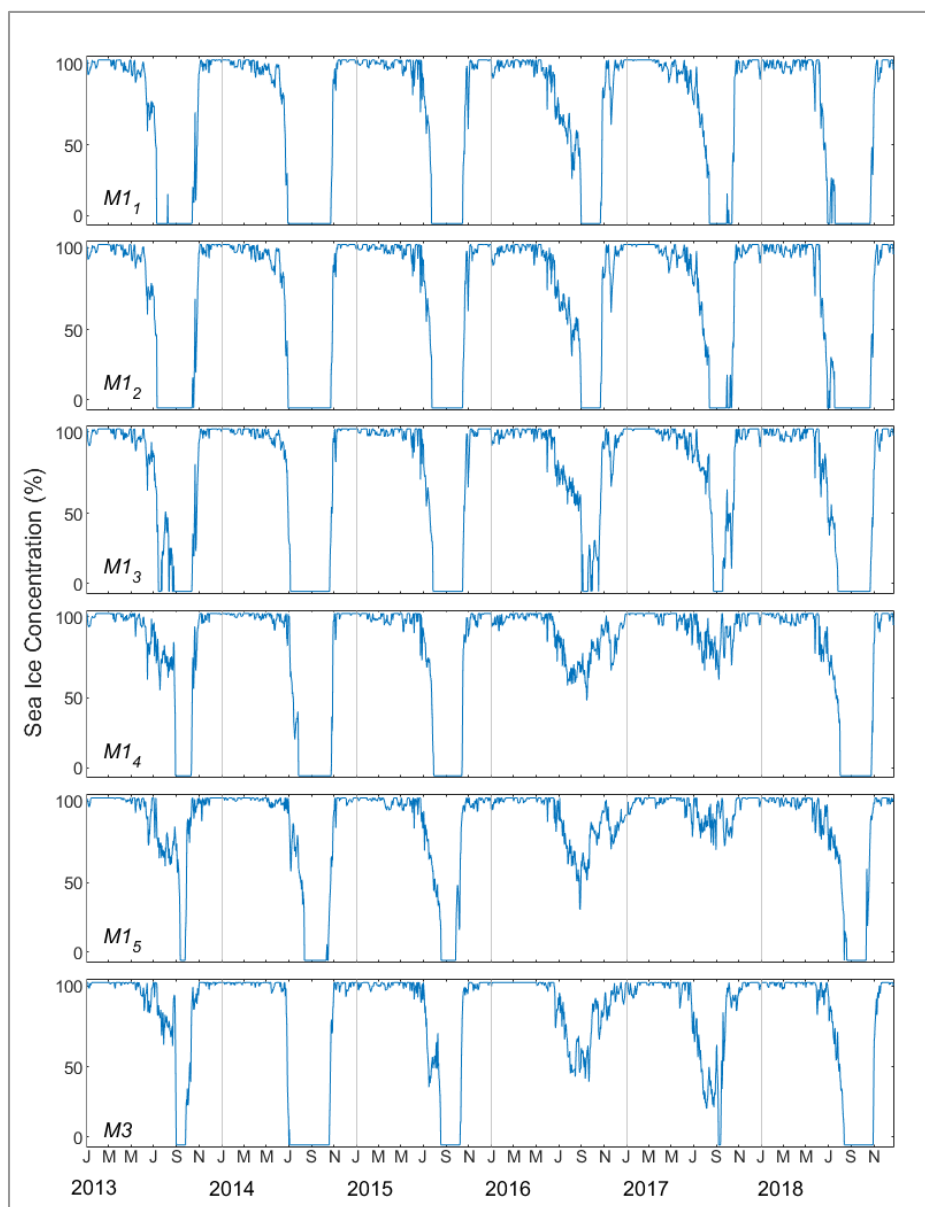


Figure 15: Time series of daily sea ice concentration (%) from 2013 to 2018 for six mooring locations in the eastern Eurasian Basin.



433 4. Discussion and Conclusions

434 4.1 Summary of findings

435 An extreme freshening event, spanning October 2015 – March 2017, was observed at six moorings (M1₁–M1₅,
 436 M3) in the eastern Eurasian Basin, beginning at the shelf moorings M1₁–M1₃ in late 2015 and reaching the
 437 offshore moorings M1₄, M1₅, and M3 by early 2016, persisting into early 2017 (Figs. 2 and 3). Salinity in the
 438 upper 175 m decreased by an average of 0.5 psu, which is equivalent to ~0.60 m of freshwater (Fig. 4), and
 439 nearly doubling the available potential energy at the shelf moorings, thereby enhancing stratification during the
 440 freshening event (Fig. 5). The observed freshening cannot be explained by the cross-slope shifts of the AW salty
 441 and warm core (Table S2; Fig. S5). Instead, chemical observations indicate that meteoric (river) water
 442 predominantly contributed to the freshwater content in the Eurasian Basin, doubled from 0.06% in 2013 to
 443 0.12% in 2015 (Fig. 8). Discharge records show an exceptional increase from the Yenisey and Ob rivers in
 444 2014–2015 relative to 2013 (Fig. 9), with Yenisey contributing ~0.34m and Ob contributing ~0.44m in 2014–
 445 2015 of freshwater when spread over the mooring domain, which together could supply enough freshwater to
 446 account for the observed freshwater in the eastern Eurasian Basin. Moreover, low-salinity anomalies detected in
 447 the Kara Sea in spring 2015 (Fig. 10) further supported the connection between Siberian River discharge and the
 448 freshening observed in the Eurasian Basin. The trajectory analysis reveals that the upper ocean freshening found
 449 in the mooring records indeed originated from the Kara Sea, emphasizing the Yenisey and Ob discharge as the
 450 primary source. Cross-correlation analysis between time series of Kara and Laptev Sea salinity shows that
 451 freshwater transport took about 8–9 months to reach shelf moorings M1₁ and M1₂ and about 22–23 months to
 452 reach offshore moorings M1₃–M1₅ and M3 (Fig. 11), which aligns with the varying start dates of freshening
 453 observed at the moorings (Fig. 3). Although ERA5 winds changed from southeasterly to southwesterly direction
 454 during 2015–2017 (Fig. 12), the trajectory pathways remained insensitive to these changes in wind direction.

455 The 2015–2017 freshening increased stratification, which can inhibit vertical heat ventilation from the AW
 456 below. Indeed, Polyakov et al., (2020b) showed that the divergent heat flux across the halocline declined during
 457 the winters of 2015 and 2016 from approximately 20W/m² to about 3W/m². This diminished upward transfer of
 458 heat allows the sea ice to grow thicker. Consequently, thicker ice persisted through the melting summer season
 459 and delayed sea-ice melt. As a result, the summer sea ice concentration at offshore moorings in 2016–2017
 460 stayed between 50–70%, instead of declining to near-zero as in 2013–2015 and 2018 (Fig. 15). At the same
 461 time, during the freshening period, surface current speed and vertical shear in the upper 10m experienced a
 462 significant weakening by as much as 90% (Fig. 14).

463 4.2 Broader climate implications

464 The observed freshening between 2015 and 2017, along with increased upper-ocean stratification, resulted in
 465 more stable halocline conditions. This freshwater, therefore, can slow down atlantification (a part of climate
 466 change associated with the advection of anomalous water properties from upstream basins), because the buoyant
 467 freshwater layer limits the upward ventilation from the Atlantic warm layer (e.g., Polyakov et al., 2017, 2023).
 468 Following the 2015–2017 event, Polyakov et al., (2020b) reported an intense release of accumulated subsurface
 469 heat in 2018, with vertical heat flux increased by almost a factor of two relative to the previous years, causing
 470 extensive sea ice loss. Modeling experiments also demonstrate that adding freshwater can delay ice melt by
 471 strengthening stratification (Zhang et al., 2023).



At much longer time scales, during the Younger Dryas and 8.2 ka events, large freshwater discharges strengthened Arctic stratification and expanded sea-ice cover, yet subsequent re-ventilation of oceanic heat produced rapid warming and long-lasting ice retreat (Fahl and Stein, 2012; Spielhagen and Bauch, 2015). This illustrate that freshwater perturbations can act first as a stabilizing barrier, then as a trigger for abrupt transitions in ocean–ice regimes once the barrier erodes. At present, riverine-driven freshening could operate similarly by alternately insulating and exposing the Arctic’s subsurface heat reservoir. Once extensive sea-ice loss occurs, positive feedback such as reduced albedo and enhanced ocean heat uptake reinforce the warming and hinder sea ice recovery (Dörr et al., 2021). Hence, existing observations, model studies, and paleoclimate examples together suggest that freshwater anomalies can exert a powerful control over Arctic stratification, sea-ice dynamics, and climate stability.

4.3 Uncertainties and Limitations

This study has a few limitations and uncertainties that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the mooring array provides reasonable multi-year coverage in the Eurasian Basin; however, mooring observations start at a depth of ~30 m or greater (see Table 1) to avoid ice keels. Consequently, the maximum freshening that often resides in the very top layer cannot be monitored, and the overall magnitude of freshening may be underestimated by the available mooring records. Vertical resolution varies among moorings: single-depth CTD sensors provide coarser resolution, while MMPs offer continuous vertical profiles. However, for integral characteristics like freshwater content, this had minimal effect (see Methods for details).

Another potential limitation comes from the assumption that the parcels remain at a fixed depth in our trajectory experiments using ORAS5 velocities, thus neglecting vertical motions that could alter their travel times or pathways. However, the freshwater pathway from the Kara Sea to the Laptev Sea identified in our analysis is well supported by observations (Janout et al., 2015; Osadchiev et al., 2023), reinforcing confidence in our result. Also, while ORAS5 performs better than several other reanalyses and model products in the Arctic (Hall et al., 2022), it still tends to overestimate sea-surface salinity and under-resolve currents in ice-covered regions (Jin et al., 2023). We used this reanalysis-based Kara Sea salinity data in the spatial distributions of salinities (Fig. 10) and for correlation analysis (Fig. 11). This bias may impact estimates of salinity in the Kara Sea, potentially reducing the observed correlations between the Kara and Laptev Sea time series.

Enhanced observations in the surface ocean layer and more sophisticated data assimilation in reanalysis models will help reduce uncertainties related to the above shortcomings. Despite these limitations, the core findings, including the anomalous freshening of the eastern Eurasian Basin and northern Laptev Sea driven by Yenisey and Ob dominated river discharge, and its impacts on sea ice and upper-ocean currents, are robust and well supported by extensive observations.

4.4. Final note

Understanding the role of episodic events is essential for assessing their influence on upper-ocean stratification, sea ice variability, and potential feedback within the Arctic climate system. This underscores the need for long-term sustained mooring deployments, with enhanced observations in the near-surface layer, and integration of these datasets with reanalysis to better understand and predict the cascading consequences of freshening events on Arctic climate and ecosystems. Our results demonstrate that extreme river discharge events can rapidly reorganize shelf–basin freshwater pathways, alter upper-ocean dynamics, and exert lasting influence



511 on regional sea-ice cover. Improved representation of such episodic events in coupled models will be essential
512 for predicting future Arctic climate variability.

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517 Author Contributions. All authors participated in preliminary analysis, data processing and analysis of mooring
518 data, interpretation of hydrographic data and formulating objectives of the study. All authors contributed to
519 interpreting the data and writing the paper.

520 Author Information. Correspondence and requests should be addressed to IVP (ivpolyakov@alaska.edu).

521 Data Availability Statement. All mooring data used in this study are available at
522 <https://arcticdata.io/catalog/#view/arctic-data>. The ERA5 reanalysis data is available from
523 <https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/home>. Sea ice concentration is available from
524 <https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/oisst>.
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