

Anticyclones drive Beaufort breakout events

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Abstract

In winter 2013, a sea ice breakout in the Beaufort Sea produced extensive fracturing and contributed to record regional ice export. Rheinlænder et al. (2022) simulated this event using the neXtSIM sea ice model, reproducing a realistic progression of lead opening and ice drift following the track of an anticyclone. In their study, Rheinlænder et al. (2022) highlighted strong winds and thin ice as key factors for breakouts. We draw on observational records to provide additional context for the driving mechanisms of breakout events. We show that wind direction, rather than speed, was the primary control on patterns of lead opening and breakout timing in 2013. Records of similar events over previous decades demonstrate that breakouts are common under anticyclonic forcing, including during years when the ice was thicker. These additional events can be used to further validate models such as neXtSIM and improve predictive capabilities for future breakouts.

Anticyclones drive Beaufort breakout events

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Key Points:

- Observational data provide context for a 2013 Beaufort Sea breakout recently simulated with the neXtSIM model by Rheinländer et al. (2022)
- While the 2013 event was exceptional, winter breakouts are common under anticyclonic winds including in years when the ice was thicker
- Wind direction is the primary control on the location of lead opening and the transition to breakout in the Beaufort Sea

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12 Abstract

13 In winter 2013, a sea ice breakout in the Beaufort Sea produced extensive fracturing
14 and contributed to record regional ice export. Rheinländer et al. (2022) simulated
15 this event using the neXtSIM sea ice model, reproducing a realistic progression of lead
16 opening and ice drift following the track of an anticyclone. In their study, Rheinländer
17 et al. (2022) highlighted strong winds and thin ice as key factors for breakouts. We draw
18 on observational records to provide additional context for the driving mechanisms of break-
19 out events. We show that wind direction, rather than speed, was the primary control on
20 patterns of lead opening and breakout timing in 2013. Records of similar events over pre-
21 vious decades demonstrate that breakouts are common under anticyclonic forcing, in-
22 cluding during years when the ice was thicker. These additional events can be used to
23 further validate models such as neXtSIM and improve predictive capabilities for future
24 breakouts.

25 Plain Language Summary

26 In winter, the Beaufort Sea is covered by a layer of sea ice that is usually frozen
27 against its coastal boundaries. When winds continuously blow from east to west over the
28 sea, the ice cover can break apart and rapidly drift away from the coasts in what is called
29 a breakout event. The prediction of such dynamic events is important for those who nav-
30 igate the region. Rheinländer et al. (2022) recently used the neXtSIM sea ice model to
31 simulate and reproduce realistic ice cracking and drift during an exceptionally strong break-
32 out that occurred in 2013. Rheinländer et al. (2022) highlighted strong winds and thin
33 sea ice as key factors for breakout. We use observational records to provide additional
34 context for the drivers of Beaufort breakout events. Weather analysis shows that wind
35 direction, rather than wind speed, was the primary control on breakout timing in 2013.
36 Records of many similar events, including during years when the ice was thicker than
37 in 2013, demonstrate that breakouts are common under weather patterns that produce
38 east-to-west winds. These additional observed events can be used to assess and refine
39 the performance of models such as neXtSIM to improve predictions of future breakouts.

40 1 Introduction

41 In winter, the Arctic Ocean is covered by a consolidated ice pack bounded by the
42 Arctic coastline. The ice moves in response to winds and ocean currents, the response
43 being regulated by stress transmission in the ice itself due to ice-coast interactions. When
44 the ice pack moves away from the coast and experiences sustained drift out of the re-
45 gion and extensive lead opening, this is considered a breakout event. Predicting break-
46 outs is of importance to those navigating or working in the consolidated ice pack.

47 During 2013 a sea ice breakout in the Beaufort Sea attracted public attention when
48 it was reported in a popular blog (*The cracks of dawn*, 2013). This event has been sim-
49 ulated with the neXtSIM model by Rheinländer et al. (2022). They find the location
50 and timing of lead opening during the breakout is sensitive to choice of atmospheric model
51 used to provide forcing for the sea ice. To our knowledge this is the first time lead open-
52 ing and subsequent breakout of Beaufort Sea ice has been simulated with an accuracy
53 that may allow synoptic forecasts suitable for predicting risk of cracking and lead open-
54 ing around an ice camp, for example.

55 In this comment to Rheinländer et al. (2022) we highlight the atmospheric syn-
56 optic conditions that drive the breakout and explain the relationship between anticyclone
57 track and the formation of wide leads visible in satellite imagery. We point out that it
58 is primarily the wind direction, rather than wind speed, which controls the patterns of
59 lead opening and when breakout occurs. The 2013 event is put into the context of sim-

60 ilar events in the satellite record, including winters when the Beaufort Sea ice pack was
 61 thicker, identifying several case studies that could be used to verify models such as neXtSIM.

62 **2 Typical breakout sequence**

63 During winter and spring, anticyclones repeatedly travel eastward over the Beau-
 64 fort Sea activating leads from west to east along the Alaskan coast. The leads typically
 65 extend offshore toward the center of the passing anticyclone, bounding regions of enhanced
 66 fracturing (breakup) and ice drift where the ice pack loses contact with the coast.

67 Common lead patterns include small scale arches called Beaufort Arches (BA) (Fig-
 68 ure 1a) and large arched leads called Tangent Arcs (TA) (Figure 1b-d) that extend from
 69 Point Barrow, Alaska under northeasterly winds. Wide Angle (WA) (Figure 1f) then High
 70 Angle (HA) (Figure 1g) leads extend offshore from the central and eastern coast of the
 71 Alaska North Slope, respectively, as winds shift westward. If winds shift offshore, an East
 72 Coastal (EC) flaw lead (Figure 1e-h) opens parallel to Banks Island at the eastern bound-
 73 ary of the Beaufort Sea. This marks the transition to breakout. The entire ice pack de-
 74 taches from its coastal boundaries and accelerates until offshore wind forcing weakens.
 75 The relationship between opening of coast-originating lead patterns and anticyclone po-
 76 sition is further detailed in Supplementary Text S1.

77 As Beaufort breakouts are driven by easterly winds associated with high sea level
 78 pressure over the Beaufort Sea, a strong and persistent meridional pressure gradient can
 79 signal the forcing required to initiate most breakouts. Breakouts are characterized by
 80 large ice drift speeds, ice export from the Beaufort Sea, and extensive breakup of the ice
 81 pack. These metrics, as well as the opening and persistence of Alaska coastal then EC
 82 flaw leads, indicate that breakout has occurred.

83 **3 The 2013 Beaufort breakout**

84 From late February through early March of 2013, high sea level pressure and anti-
 85 cyclonic winds persisted over the Pacific Arctic. Under this continuous forcing, a se-
 86 ries of leads opened along the Beaufort coast and progressed eastward, resulting in a break-
 87 out event (Figure 1 and Supporting Information Movie S1).

88 Preceding breakout, an anticyclone over the East Siberian Sea opened BA leads
 89 from February 12 - 14 (Figures 1a, 2a). By February 15, the high pressure system moved
 90 south toward the Chukchi Sea, opening a TA lead that extended further offshore than
 91 the existing leads (Figure 1b). Most of the Beaufort Sea ice pack remained stationary
 92 while ice downwind of the lead accelerated and fractured. Ice drift temporary slowed as
 93 the high migrated northeastward, reducing wind speeds to near-zero over the lead. By
 94 February 20, the high stalled near $80^{\circ}N$, $160^{\circ}W$ and a northeasterly wind returned over
 95 the dormant TA lead (Figure 2b). Additional TA leads opened upwind as ice flushed from
 96 the Beaufort Sea (Figure 1c). On February 21, the longest TA lead of this event extended
 97 nearly 800 km offshore from Point Barrow, aligned with the northeast wind. Ice drifted
 98 southwestward along the lead, bounded upwind by a secondary lead extending north-
 99 ward nearly perpendicular to the primary fracture and the direction of ice drift. Addi-
 100 tional fractures extended westward, terminating near the center of the anticyclone and
 101 completing the characteristic arch shape of TA leads.

102 On February 24, the anticyclone's orientation began to shift. The wind speed and
 103 meridional pressure gradient remained constant (Figure 2b,c), but wind direction shifted
 104 westward. This increase in alongshore wind forcing overcame the strength of the ice pre-
 105 viously buttressed by the coast on the windward side of the TA lead. A cascade of WA
 106 and HA leads opened along the coast as the high continued to rotate then traveled east-
 107 ward (Figure 2d,e). Finally, on February 27, winds shifted slightly northward (Figure

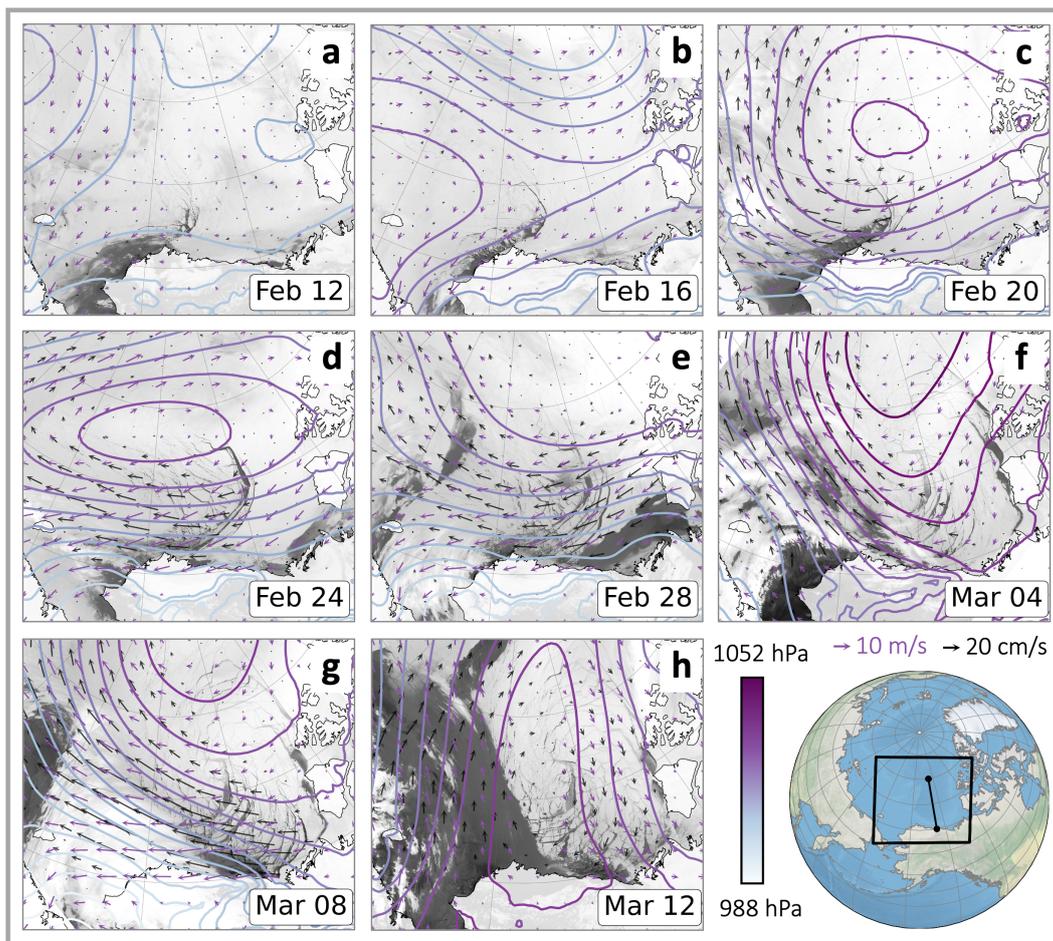


Figure 1. Thermal infrared MODIS imagery (Band 31) of Beaufort Sea during 2013 breakout (region outlined in black box on inset map). Daily average ERA5 10 meter winds shown as purple arrows and sea level pressure contours overlain every 4 hPa (Hersbach et al., 2018). Black arrows are NSIDC daily ice drift (Tschudi et al., 2019). Black line on inset map shows $70^{\circ}\text{N} - 80^{\circ}\text{N}$ along 145°W (used in calculations).

108 2b) and the remaining coastally-bound ice broke loose as an EC lead developed. A large
 109 sea level pressure gradient and easterly wind remained through March 9. Under this sus-
 110 tained forcing, the EC lead persisted for two weeks alongside heavy breakup and rapid
 111 ice drift (Figure 2a).

112 4 Is this an unusual event?

113 Breakouts are common in winter (here defined as January-April), and the sequence
 114 of lead opening and rate of ice flux during the 2013 breakout were comparable to events
 115 from other years. However, the record persistence of synoptic forcing in 2013 resulted
 116 in exceptional ice dynamics. The 2013 breakout produced the second most persistent win-
 117 ter EC lead of the previous two decades (Lewis & Hutchings, 2019) and contributed to
 118 the largest March ice flux out of the Beaufort Sea from 1979-2016 (Babb et al., 2019).

119 Beginning February 21, the meridional sea level pressure difference (ΔP) between
 120 $70^{\circ}\text{N} - 80^{\circ}\text{N}$ along 145°W exceeded 20 hPa for 10 consecutive days (Figure 2c). Fig-

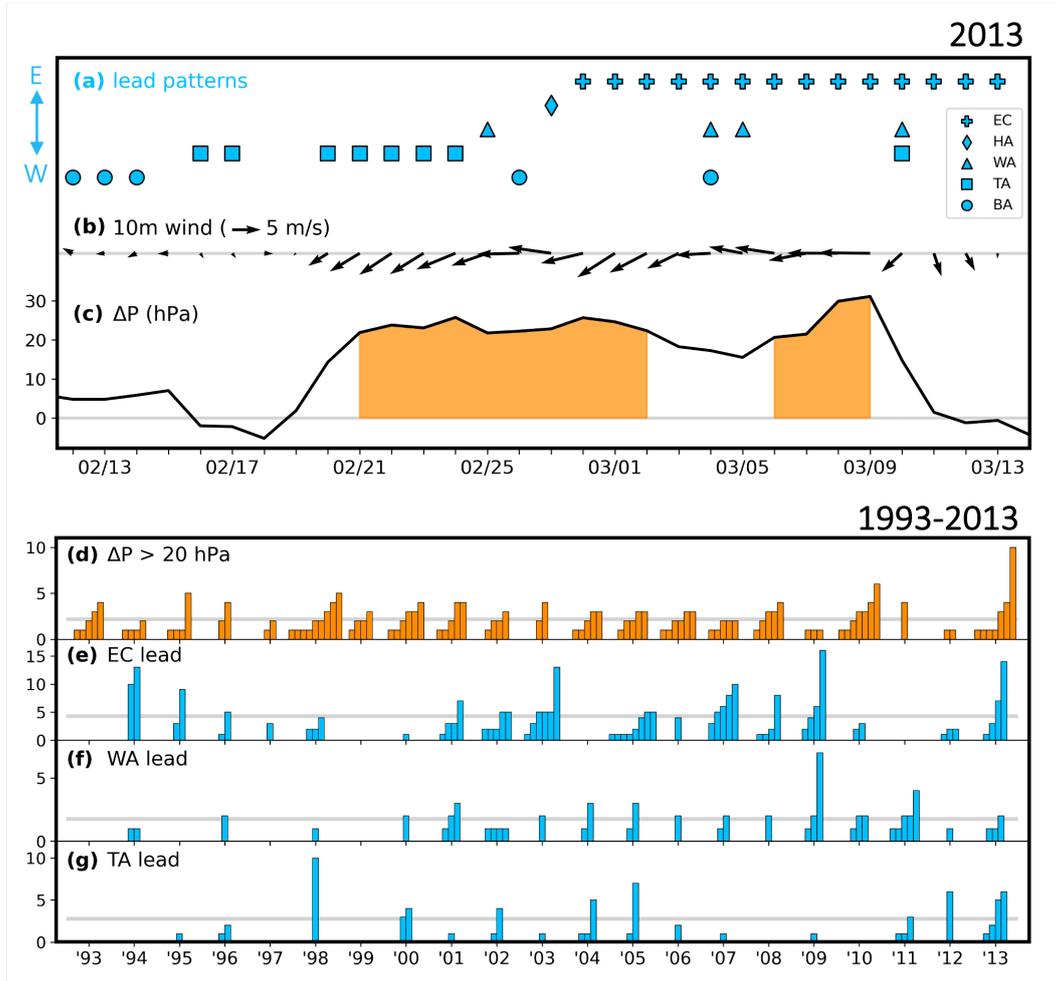


Figure 2. **Top:** 2013 breakout event. (a) Leads identified by Lewis and Hutchings (2019), arranged from westernmost to easternmost patterns. BA leads include Wide BAs and HA leads include HA fans, defined in Lewis and Hutchings (2019). Daily ERA5 atmospheric conditions along 145°W: (b) average 10 meter winds between 70°N – 80°N and (c) sea level pressure difference between 70°N – 80°N (ΔP). $\Delta P > 20 \text{ hPa}$ highlighted in orange. **Bottom:** Occurrence of $\Delta P > 20 \text{ hPa}$ (d) and specified lead patterns (e-g) from January-April 1993-2013 (Lewis & Hutchings, 2019). Each bar represents an occurrence. Bar height indicates duration. Grey lines show mean durations.

121 ure 2d shows the occurrence and persistence of $\Delta P > 20 \text{ hPa}$ during winters 1993-2013.
 122 While other winters exceeded the 20 hPa threshold for a comparable number of days over-
 123 all (e.g. 1998, 2010), the 2013 synoptic event lasted 5 times longer than average and was
 124 the longest of the last 4 decades (Supplementary Table S1 lists dates of comparable syn-
 125 optoc events 1979-2022). During the breakout, more than $100,000 \text{ km}^2$ of sea ice was ex-
 126 ported from the Beaufort Sea during the last week of February and the first week of March
 127 (Babb et al., 2019). The rate of ice flux during this period was comparable to events in
 128 earlier years (e.g. 1998 and 2008 in Figure 12 of Babb et al. (2019)). Thus, the excep-
 129 tional ice loss owed to the persistence of forcing over this period.

130 TA, WA, and EC leads were the most common lead patterns during the transition
 131 to breakout in 2013. While the WA lead was not especially persistent, both the TA and
 132 EC leads opened for longer than average (for 5 and 14 consecutive days, respectively).
 133 Comparable events have occurred throughout the satellite record including during years
 134 when the ice pack was thicker than in 2013 (Figure 2e-g). Supplementary Table S2 lists
 135 dates of comparable lead sequences from 1993-2013 as identified by Lewis and Hutch-
 136 ings (2019). These events could serve as similar cases for simulation with neXtSIM and
 137 other models.

138 Rheinländer et al. (2022) demonstrated that neXtSIM simulations initialized with
 139 thinner ice resulted in increased lead fraction and ice velocity. While this indicates that
 140 thinning ice increases the dynamic response of the ice pack to winds during breakout in
 141 the model, thin ice is not required to initiate breakout. When the initial ice thickness
 142 was doubled relative to the primary neXtSIM simulation, breakout still resulted under
 143 the same forcing (Supplementary Figure S4), though the ice drift speed decreased. Con-
 144 sidering this and similar events from previous decades when the ice was thicker, ice thick-
 145 ness likely influences breakout strength more so than frequency, which is primarily con-
 146 trolled by the frequency of anticyclonic forcing.

147 5 Discussion

148 While the synoptic conditions and ice dynamics of the 2013 breakout were excep-
 149 tional, periods of enhanced ice drift and breakup associated with lead opening or break-
 150 out events are frequent throughout winter. The location of lead opening determines the
 151 position of ice acceleration as the ice pack separates from the coast. Thus, lead location
 152 and the direction and speed of ice drift are each important metrics for assessing the skill
 153 of a sea ice model for use in forecasting ice conditions.

154 The neXtSIM model has demonstrated remarkable accuracy in simulating the dy-
 155 namics associated with the 2013 event. The model appears to produce a range of Beau-
 156 fort Sea lead patterns associated with breakout, and the episodic changes in ice drift across
 157 leads that are a defining characteristic of winter motion in the Beaufort Sea. Compar-
 158 isons between simulated and observed dynamics of the 2013 event are detailed in Sup-
 159 plemental Text S2 and Figures S1, S2, S3. We have collated records of events with simi-
 160 lar synoptic forcing and ice dynamics to winter 2013 that can be used to further assess
 161 the performance of models such as neXtSIM.

162 For a model to accurately simulate a Beaufort breakout event the atmospheric forc-
 163 ing must capture the location, track and extent of anticyclones well. Small offsets in the
 164 center of the high, differences in timing or persistence of the high, and errors in ridge
 165 orientations can result in large errors in the location of lead formation and hence ice drift.
 166 While this is challenging for models, the neXtSIM team have demonstrated it is possi-
 167 ble.

6 Open Research

The neXtSIM model output (Rheinländer, 2022) is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.5639492>. NSIDC Polar Pathfinder sea ice drift (Tschudi et al., 2019) is available at <https://doi.org/10.5067/INAWUW07QH7B>. Leads identified by Lewis and Hutchings (2019) are provided at <https://doi.org/10.1029/2018JC014898>. Leads derived from MODIS imagery (Willmes & Heinemann, 2015a, 2015b) are available at <https://doi.org/10.1594/PANGAEA.854411>. MODIS imagery (MODIS Characterization Support Team (MCST), 2017) available at <http://dx.doi.org/10.5067/MODIS/MOD021KM.061>. ERA5 atmospheric reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2018) available at <https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.adbb2d47>.

Acknowledgments

The authors have been supported by NASA grants 80NSSC18K1026 and 80NSSC21K1601. We thank Ben Lewis and Lew Shapiro for their conversations with us identifying correspondence between Beaufort lead patterns and the progression of anticyclones. We thank Jonathan Rheinländer and Einar Ólason for sharing model output and information that has furthered the discussion started in Rheinländer et al. (2022).

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Supporting Information for “Anticyclones drive Beaufort breakout events”

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Contents of this file

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2. Figures S1 to S4
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Additional Supporting Information (Files uploaded separately)

1. Caption for Movie S1

Text S1. Typical breakout event sequence: While breakouts can be driven by a range of anticyclonic forcing conditions, the typical sequence begins with a high pressure system residing north or west of the Alaskan coast. Northeasterly winds produce wide leads that extend northward offshore from Point Barrow, the headland that divides the Beaufort and Chukchi Seas. These leads include small scale arched patterns such as Beaufort Arches (BA) (Figure 1a), wider arches called Wide Beaufort Arches (WBA), or

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larger arched leads called Tangent Arc (TA) leads (Figure 1b-d) that extend hundreds of kilometers offshore tangent to the Chukchi coast (Lewis & Hutchings, 2019). If the anticyclone progresses eastward, wind direction over the Beaufort Sea shifts westward and additional leads open stepwise eastward along the Alaskan coast. Such leads include Wide Angle (WA) leads (Figure 1f) and High Angle (HA) leads (Figure 1g) which extend northward offshore from the central and eastern coast of Alaska, respectively. Once the anticyclone has traveled eastward over land, or its orientation has changed to sufficiently increase the alongshore-component of wind forcing over the Beaufort Sea, an East Coastal (EC) flaw lead (Figure 1e-h) opens parallel to Banks Island at the eastern boundary of the Beaufort Sea. The opening of this lead indicates the transition to a breakout event in which the entire ice pack breaks away from its coastal boundaries and accelerates. When EC leads are present, ice flux along the Alaskan coast is double its average magnitude (Lewis & Hutchings, 2019). As a breakout event continues, extensive fracturing and ice acceleration extend across the Beaufort Sea until the anticyclone exits the region or its orientation changes to reduce along-shore wind forcing.

Text S2.

Comparison of simulation to observations: Depending on the forcing used, neXtSIM captured the progression across all or some of the BA, TA, WA, HA, and EC lead patterns that occurred during the 2013 event (Figures S2 and S3). The occurrence of these coastal lead patterns is sensitive to the pattern of wind forcing near the coast. Given this sensitivity, the variability in the timing and progression of simulated lead patterns across simulations with different forcing models is to be expected. Across simulations,

neXtSIM consistently captured the expected structure of coastal lead patterns, including primary and secondary fractures of TA and WA leads, the ice motion along the fractures, and their termination in the center of the passing anticyclone. See in the ERA5 31-km and polarWRF 10-km simulations, for example, features resembling BA leads (Figures S3b and S2b-d) and TA leads (Figures S3c and S2d) that extend from Point Barrow, WA leads (Figure S2d) that extend from the central coast of Alaska, and EC leads (Figures S3d-h and S2e-h) along the eastern coast of the Beaufort Sea.

Differences between observed and simulated leads early in the event also speak to the strength of the model (Figures S3b and S2b). On February 16, a broad arched lead formed through a region of previously heavily deformed ice, reactivating a dormant TA lead that originally opened on February 10 (see Supplementary Movie S1). As this activity occurred before the simulation began on February 13, the observed impacts of these anisotropic features on subsequent ice dynamics was not present in the model, and none of the simulations captured this lead pattern.

Under a range of forcing conditions and initial ice thicknesses, neXtSIM also consistently represented the delineation of ice drift regimes along leads (Figures S1a,c,d, S2, and S3). As observed (Figure S1e), the ice pack was stationary upwind of the leads but accelerated immediately downwind where the ice lost contact with the coast. This structure was not captured in the mEVP and EVP simulations, which exhibited more smoothly-varying fields (Figure S1b).

The primary difference between the neXtSIM simulations and observations was an underestimation of ice drift speed downwind of the leads. The ratio of ice drift to wind speed

was consistently underestimated (Figure S1), even when forced with different atmospheric models across which the wind speed varied by ± 4 m/s.

Movie S1.

Three-daily animation of 2013 Beaufort breakout event from February 5 to March 20. Thermal infrared MODIS imagery (Band 31) from NASA/Terra (MODIS Characterization Support Team (MCST), 2017) shows sea ice (light shades) and open water or thin ice (dark shades). Land mask overlain in grey. Hourly ten meter winds (purple arrows) and sea level pressure (colored contours, hPa) from ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2018) overlain for nearest hour preceding each image. Daily sea ice drift from NSIDC Polar Pathfinder (Tschudi et al., 2019) overlain as black arrows.

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Table S1. Dates (month/day) of $\Delta P(70^\circ N, 80^\circ N) > 20 \text{ hPa}$ along $145^\circ W$ from January-April 1979-2022 from ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2018). Only sequences of 4 days or longer (one standard deviation above the mean duration of 2 days) displayed. Sequences 7 days or longer (3 standard deviations above the mean) are bold.

Year	Dates	Year	Dates
1979		2001	2/25-28, 3/2-5
1980	1/18-22	2002	2/28-3/3
1981	2/27-3/3, 3/15-20	2003	
1982		2004	
1983	1/31-2/8 , 4/18-22	2005	
1984		2006	
1985	1/17-20	2007	
1986	1/5-10, 4/14-17	2008	2/12-15
1987	2/19-24, 3/20-24	2009	
1988		2010	2/11-16, 3/27-30
1989		2011	1/3-6
1990		2012	
1991		2013	2/21-3/2 , 3/6-9
1992	1/8-11, 3/8-11, 4/16-19	2014	3/15-18
1993	2/26-3/1	2015	
1994		2016	1/25-28, 2/11-15, 2/25-3/2 , 4/6-12 , 4/21-24
1995	4/2-6	2017	
1996	4/5-8	2018	3/8-12
1997		2019	
1998	1/24-28, 2/19-22	2020	
1999		2021	1/8-13
2000	4/19-22	2022	

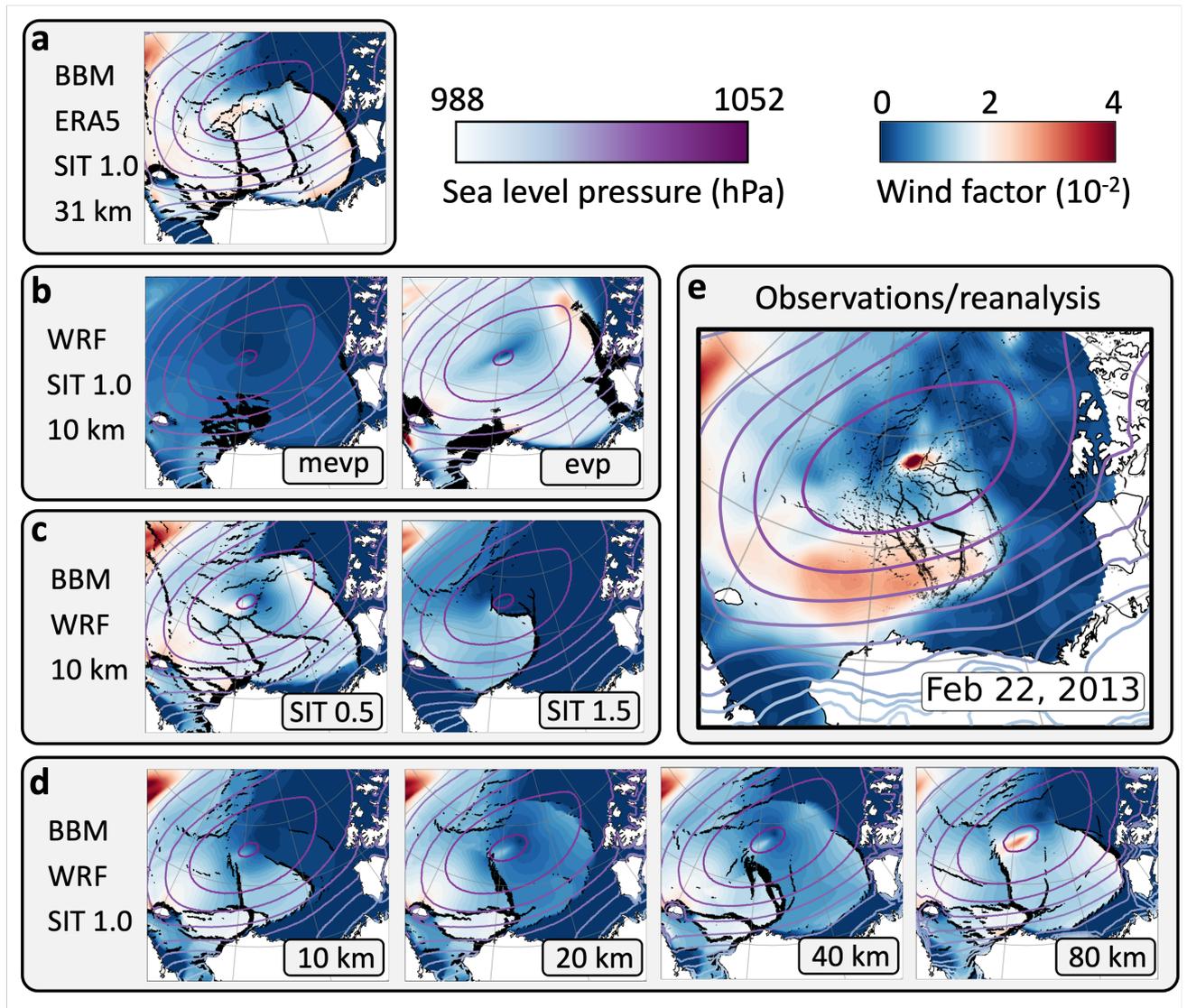


Figure S1. Daily wind factor (ratio of ice drift to wind speed) on Feb 22, 2013 for different neXtSIM simulation runs (a-d) (Rheinländer et al., 2022). Regions filled with greater than 1% open water or thin sea ice shown in black. Contours are sea level pressure from forcing product. Rheology (BBM, evp, mevp), forcing product (ERA5, polarWRF), forcing resolution (10 – 80 km), and initial sea ice thickness (SIT 0.5 – 1.5) labeled for each set of simulations. Runs with no dynamics and with SIT 2.0 not shown as both show little activity at this time. Panel (e) shows wind factor from daily ERA5 reanalysis (Hersbach et al., 2018) and NSIDC Polar Pathfinder sea ice drift (Tschudi et al., 2019). Observed leads from Willmes and Heinemann (2015) shown in black. Note that clouds obscure leads near the coast.

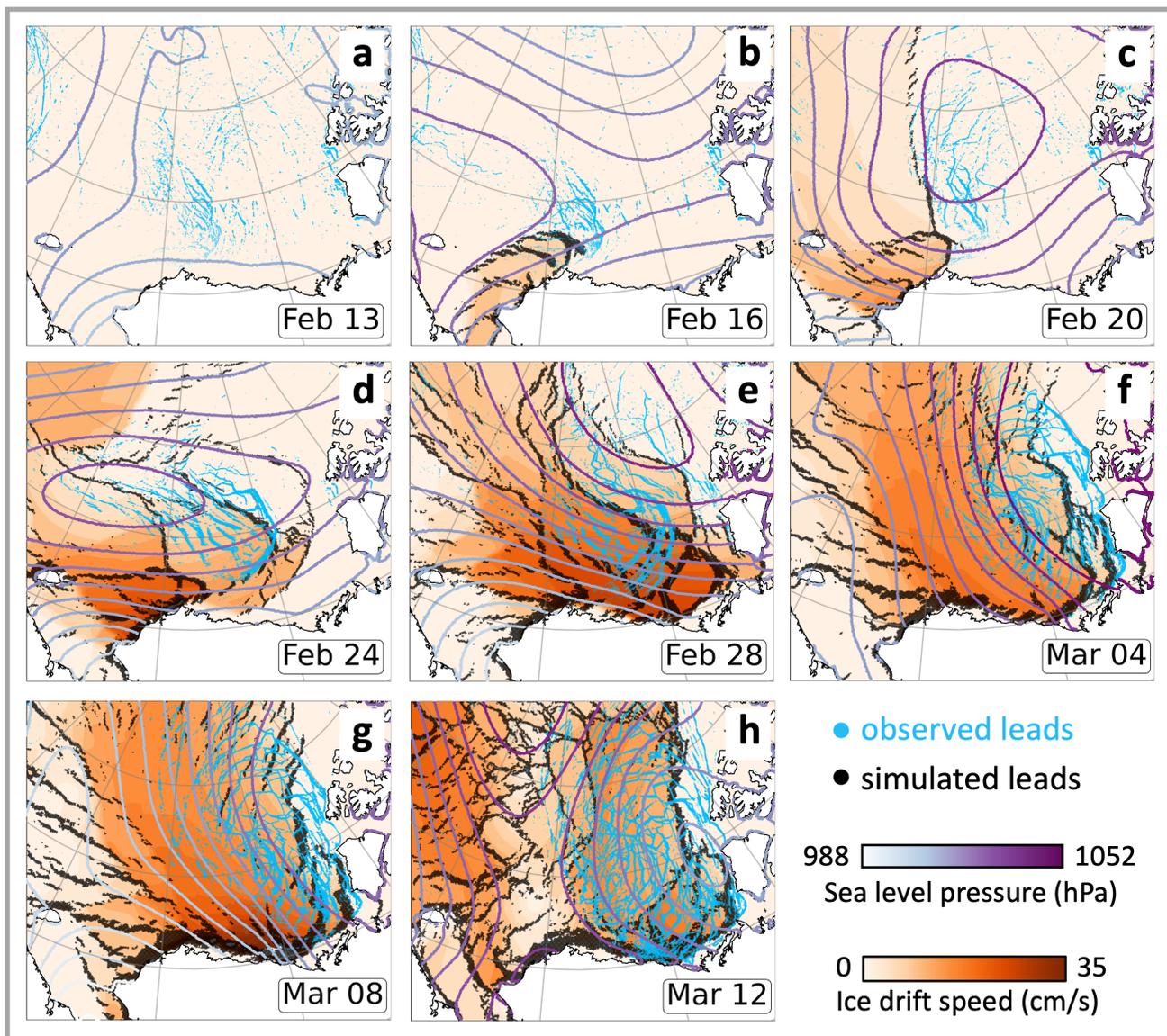


Figure S2. Daily average conditions from polarWRF 10 km resolution run. Color scale indicates ice drift speed. Regions filled with greater than 1% open water or thin sea ice shown in black. Contours are sea level pressure from forcing product. Observed leads from Willmes and Heinemann (2015) overlain in blue. Note that clouds sometimes obscure leads, particularly near the coast and in the west. Panels match dates of Figure 1, except the first panel starts on initial simulation date 2/13.

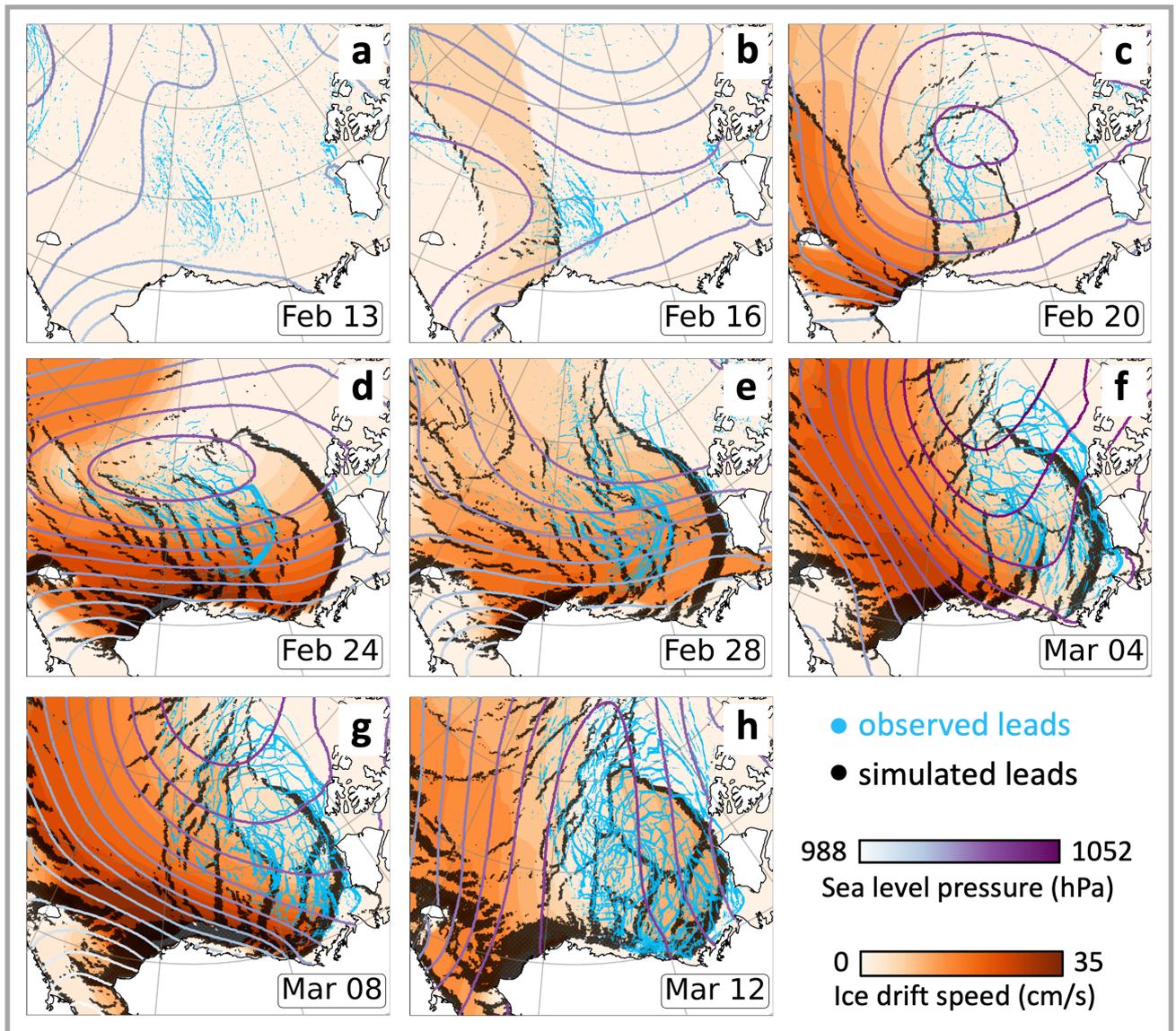


Figure S3. Same as Figure S2 but for the simulation forced with ERA5 (31 km).

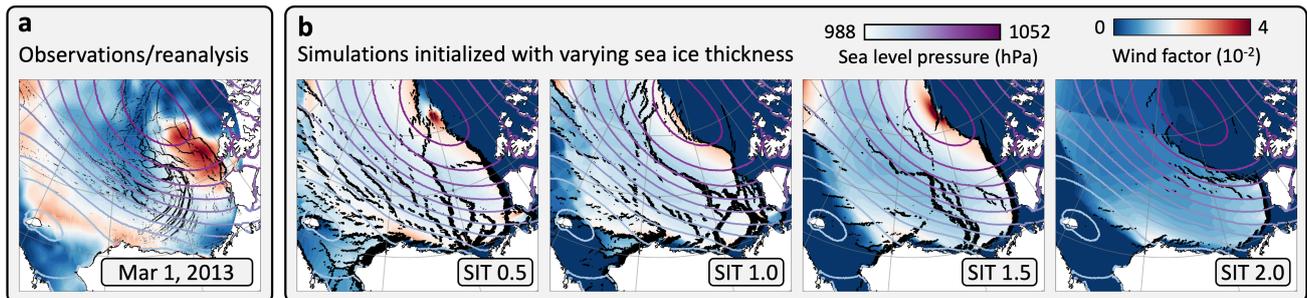


Figure S4. (a) Observed daily wind factor (ratio of ice drift to wind speed) on Mar 1, 2013 comparing polarWRF 10 km wind forcing to NSIDC observationally-derived drift speed (Tschudi et al., 2019). Observed leads from Willmes and Heinemann (2015) are overlain in black. Contours are sea level pressure from forcing product. (b) Mar 1, 2013 wind factor for different neXtSIM simulations forced with the same polarWRF 10 km model but initialized with different ice thicknesses relative to the observed thickness used in the primary simulation (SIT 1.0). Regions filled with greater than 1% open water or thin sea ice shown in black.

Table S2. Dates (month/day) of lead pattern sequences from Jan-Apr 1993-2013 identified by Lewis and Hutchings (2019). Only sequences of length greater or equal to mean duration displayed. Bold dates are sequences of length greater or equal to the duration of 2013 event patterns.

Year	EC	WA	TA
1993			
1994	1/1-10, 4/5-17		
1995	4/5-13		
1996	4/5-9	4/9-10	
1997			
1998	1/25-28		1/15-24
1999			
2000		4/11-12	2/12-15, 2/19-21
2001	1/9-15	3/20-22, 4/7-8	
2002	2/5-9, 2/27-3/3		2/16-19
2003	1/11-15, 1/17-21, 3/1-3/5, 4/16-28	4/11-12	
2004		1/25-27	1/20-24
2005	2/14-18, 4/13-16	3/22-24	4/10-16
2006	4/3-6	3/14-15	
2007	1/15-20, 2/14-18	4/18-19	
2008	4/5-12	3/30-31	
2009	2/7-12, 3/14-17, 4/11-26	1/1-2, 4/1-7	
2010		3/20-21, 3/23-24	
2011		2/16-19, 3/1-2, 3/4-5	4/9-11
2012			4/8-13
2013	2/28-3/13 , 3/20-26	3/4-5	1/30-2/4, 2/20-24
mean duration	4	2	3