Role of tidal mixing on ocean exchange through the Strait of Hormuz

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Key Points:

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16	•	Simulations show that the presence of tides and its associated mixing suppresses
17		exchange through the Strait of Hormuz.
18	•	Bottom water flowing out through the Strait is fresher and warmer in the pres-
19		ence of tides.

Mixing reduces the lateral density gradient between the inner Gulf and outer Ocean, reducing exchange.

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22 Abstract

We investigate the influence of tides on the exchange of water between the Arabian Gulf 23 and the Sea of Oman through the Strait of Hormuz using a high-resolution numerical 24 model. Two numerical simulations are contrasted, one with and one without tidal forc-25 ing. We find that tides suppress exchange through the Strait, by $\sim 20\%$ in the annual 26 mean, being largest in the summer ($\sim 30\%$) and diminishing in the winter ($\sim 13\%$). Tides 27 enhance the parameterised shear-driven vertical mixing inside the Gulf and Strait, mix-28 ing warm, relatively fresh surface waters downward thus reducing the density of bottom 29 waters flowing outwards. This reduces the lateral difference of density between Gulf and 30 Sea of Oman and hence the exchange through the Strait. Maximum reductions occur 31

in summer when both the vertical stratification and mixing is the largest.

³³ Plain Language Summary

In a modeling study we explore how tides affect the exchange of water between the 34 Arabian Gulf and the Sea of Oman through the Strait of Hormuz. We find that tides 35 reduce the exchange by roughly 20% in the annual mean, the effect being greatest and 36 reaching 30% in the summer. Tides enhance the mixing of warm, fresh surface waters 37 downwards in the water column, reducing the density of bottom waters inside the Gulf. 38 This results in a diminution of the gross density difference between the Gulf and the Sea 39 of Oman and hence reduces the exchange. The effect is most pronounced in the sum-40 mer when Gulf waters are the most stratified and mixing the greatest. We conclude that 41 the realism of ocean models of the Gulf will be greatly enhanced if they explicitly rep-42 resent tides and their associated mixing. 43

44 **1** Introduction

The Arabian Gulf (AG) is a shallow basin located between the northern bound-45 ary of the Arabian Peninsula and Iran, Figure. 1a). Its ocean is one of the most saline 46 in the world (Figure. 1b,c). Due to its arid climate, evaporation exceeds freshwater in-47 put, and is compensated by a net surface inflow through the narrow Strait of Hormuz 48 (SH) (Alosairi et al., 2020; Privett, 1959; Johns et al., 2003; Xue & Eltahir, 2015). In 49 compensation, warm, saline and oxygenated waters residing at shallow depths of the AG, 50 exit lower down the water column through the Strait (Figure. 1b). These spread at in-51 termediate depths into the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal, ultimately significantly 52 affecting the hydrography of the north Indian Ocean (Jain et al., 2017; Sheehan et al., 53 2020; Pous et al., 2004a, 2004b). AG water plays a significant role in the ventilation of 54 the oxygen minimum zone of the Arabian Sea (McCreary et al., 2013). Understanding 55 the mechanism behind AG water outflow through the SH is thus of great importance. 56 An improved understanding of water mass transport between the AG and Sea of Oman 57 may also better inform efforts to preserve the marine environments of the region. 58

Many modelling and observational studies have addressed the circulation of the AG 59 and the characteristics of the water mass exchange through the SH (Thoppil & Hogan, 60 2010a; Johns et al., 2003; Pous et al., 2004a, 2015; Lorenz et al., 2021; Kämpf & Sadri-61 nasab, 2006; Reynolds, 1993a). The circulation of the AG is broadly cyclonic and the 62 SH plays an important role in restricting the exchange between the Gulf and Sea of Oman 63 (Reynolds, 1993a; Emery, 1956; Brewer & Dyrssen, 1985; Hunter, 1983; Reynolds, 1993a; 64 Chao et al., 1992; Johns et al., 2003). These studies have explored the various processes 65 at work that control exchange. Swift and Bower (2003) suggest that changes in sea sur-66 face slope between the Sea of Oman and the AG is the primary driving force of exchange 67 on synoptic time scales. Thoppil and Hogan (2010a) and Vasou et al. (2020) noted that such short timescale variability is set by the local winds. According to Vasou et al. (2020), 69 short-term variability (2 to 5 day) in transport shows a quasi-barotropic pattern affect-70 ing mostly the upper layers. On longer time scales (seasonal to interannual), exchange 71

through the SH is thought to be controlled by the horizontal density gradient between
the inner Gulf and the Sea of Oman (Pous et al., 2015; Chao et al., 1992; Yao & Johns,
2010. The angle & Lenger 2010a, Körner for Section and Pous et al., 2000)

⁷⁴ 2010; Thoppil & Hogan, 2010a; Kämpf & Sadrinasab, 2006).

Studies have suggested that mixing within the AG is associated with strong tidal 75 currents, topographic features and eddy activity (Lorenz et al., 2021; Swift & Bower, 2003). 76 However, previous studies of watermass exchange through the SH have disregarded the 77 role of tides in the time-mean general circulation, assuming that its affect is small when 78 averaged over periods longer than a few tidal cycles (Pous et al., 2012; Hughes & Hunter, 79 80 1979). The one exception of which we are aware is the recent study of Campos et al. (2022) who find, as here, that inclusion of tides significantly reduces exchange. However, they 81 did not explore underlying mechanisms. Studies in different straits indeed find that di-82 apycnal mixing and residual currents induced by tides can play a significant role in wa-83 ter mass modification and the large-scale circulation (Koch-Larrouv et al., 2007; Nagai 84 & Hibiya, 2015) by affecting inflow and outflow (Farmer & Armi, 1986; Naranjo et al., 85 2014; Sannino et al., 2004, 2015; Kurogi & Hasumi, 2019). In this study, then, we fol-86 low on from the work of Campos et al. (2022) and focus in on the underlying mechanisms 87 at work. We employ a high resolution 3D model of the AG previously reported in Al-88 Shehhi et al. (2021) and contrast solutions with and without tidal forcing. 89

⁹⁰ 2 A high resolution model of the Arabian Gulf based on MITgcm

We make use of a high-resolution configuration of the MITgcm (Marshall et al., 1997) 91 deployed for the Arabian Gulf as described in Al-Shehhi et al. (2021). The MITgcm has 92 been extensively used in studies of tides, internal tides, and residual currents in coastal 93 waters in the presence of complex topographies and geometries — see, for example, (Sannino et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). The model is configured for the AG and Sea of Oman 95 $(23.2^{\circ}N \text{ to } 30.7^{\circ}N \text{ and } 47.3^{\circ}E \text{ to } 62.3^{\circ}E)$ as shown in Figure 1a. It is driven by mete-96 orological forcing at its upper surface, from tides prescribed at its open-ocean lateral bound-97 aries and by river inflow along the coasts. It has a high horizontal spatial resolution of 98 approximately 2.5 km and 83 vertical levels ranging from 1 m in thickness at the sur-99 face to ~ 200 m at the bottom out in the Sea of Oman. More details can be found in Al-100 Shehhi et al. (2021). A high-resolution bathymetry data set derived from (Smith & Sandwell, 101 1997) is used with a resolution of 3 km. The model is adjusted so that evaporation over 102 the AG is compensated by freshwater fluxes from the lateral boundary (E-P-R; where 103 E is Evaporation, P is Precipitation and R River run-off). A standard configuration of 104 the nonlocal K-profile parameterization (KPP) (Large et al., 1994, 1997) is used to pa-105 rameterize ocean turbulent mixing. 106

The temperature, salinity and velocity components for initial and lateral boundary conditions are obtained from a $1/48^{0}$ MITgcm global model simulations known as LLC4320 (Rocha et al., 2016). The model was forced at the surface by 6-h European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) atmospheric operational model analysis at 0.148⁰ resolution (~15 km). A custom monthly river freshwater outflow dataset (capturing the discharge of the Shatt Al-Arab, Mand, Hindijan, and Hilieh rivers) is also included obtained from Large and Nurser (2001) and as described in Al-Shehhi et al. (2021).

The amplitude and phase of seven tidal constituents (M2, S2, N2, K2, K1, O1 and 114 P1) obtained from the Arabian Sea regional barotropic tidal model, OSU Tidal Inver-115 sion Software (OTIS) (Egbert et al., 1994; Egbert & Erofeeva, 2002), are prescribed along 116 the open boundaries. The model's fidelity in capturing tidal patterns and amplitudes is 117 assessed in the supplementary material, where it is compared with observations from tide 118 gauges. The spatial distribution of the four major tidal constituents is also presented there. 119 The model effectively captures tidal features, consistent with previous studies (Mashavekh Poul 120 et al., 2016; Pous et al., 2012; Hyder et al., 2013; Madah & Gharbi, 2022). The M2 tide 121 is the most dominant constituent in the Gulf and Sea of Oman, followed by K1, S2, and 122

O1. The co-tidal maps shows two amphidromic points for semi-diurnal tides: one in the southeastern Gulf near Abu Dhabi and another in the southwestern Gulf. Additionally, a diurnal tide amphidromic point is located in the south-central Gulf off Bahrain's coast (see supplementary). Here we focus on the impact of those tides on mixing and the general circulation, in particular exchange through the SH.

To study the effect of tides on the general circulation within the Gulf, we designed 128 two numerical experiments driven by: (i) atmospheric forcing with no tides and (ii) both 129 tides and atmospheric forcing. The model is integrated for the year 2012 in a repeating 130 cycle. The model is run on for 6 years with repeating surface forcing and boundary con-131 ditions and the final two years are used in analysis. We also carried out a multi-year cal-132 culation including tidal and atmospheric forcing from 2003 to 2018 to ensure that inter-133 annual variability does not affect our conclusion. We find that interannual variability in 134 exchange through the Strait is indeed small compared to the difference of transport due 135 to the inclusion of tidal processes. 136

- ¹³⁷ 3 Comparing simulations with and without tides
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3.1 The role of tides in the exchange through the Strait of Hormuz

We analysed our most realistic simulation which included tidal forcing (hereafter 139 "tidal run") and compared it to an additional calculation in which the tidal forcing is 140 removed (hereafter "non-tidal run"). The monthly volume transport through the cross-141 section CS (marked in Figure 1a) are computed by integrating positive (outflow) and 142 negative (inflow) values across the transect: see Figure 2g. In both tidal and non-tidal 143 simulations, the volume transport shows similar seasonal variation peaking during late 144 winter and again in summer. However, the magnitude of transport differs between them, 145 with a yearly-averaged 20% reduction in the tidal case: the average outflow (inflow) is 146 0.278 (.285) Sv and 0.357 (0.352) Sv for tidal and non-tidal runs respectively. Seasonal-147 average values show that the volume transport is reduced by 30% in summer and 13%148 in winter. The standard deviation of volume transport across the strait due to interan-149 nual atmospheric forcing is also indicated in Figure 2g. It is evidently small compared 150 to the difference between tidal and non-tidal transport. 151

The annual mean transport estimated from our tidal run is closer to observational 152 estimates than in the absence of tides. The annual mean volume transport through the 153 Strait inferred from mooring observations (Johns et al., 2003) is $\sim 0.23 \pm 0.04$ Sv (inflow) 154 and $\sim 0.21 \pm 0.05$ Sv (outflow). Thus, including tides reduces the tendency of our model 155 to over-estimate the exchange between the AG and the Sea of Oman. Other modelling 156 studies driven by tides from open boundaries are also broadly consistent with observed 157 estimates of inflow (outflow), e.g. Pous et al. (2015): 0.203 (0.194), Pous et al. (2004b): 158 0.21 (0.17) and Vasou et al. (2020): 0.22(0.15). That said, our results suggest that in-159 cluding tidal forcing is critical to obtaining a realistic representation of exchange through 160 the Strait. 161

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3.2 Circulation driven with tides and atmospheric forcing

We examined a vertical cross section of the model's currents through the Strait to 163 understand the change in volume transport in tidal and non-tidal simulations. The cur-164 rents are averaged for winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) and the zonal component of the 165 current velocity is shown (see Figure 2 a-d) along the line CS. Positive values show out-166 flow (red shading) and negative values inflow (blue). The inflow occurs through the north-167 ern half of the Strait and outflow through the southern half. In winter, the inflow is largely 168 barotropic, but the outflow occurs predominantly at depths below 60m, particularly in 169 the non-tidal run where bottom currents peak at order 30 cm/s. Without tides the out-170 flow is weak in the southern half of the Strait at depths shallower than 60m, even ex-171

hibiting slight inflow along the southern coast (largely absent from the tidal run). In summer, however, differences are more pronounced. Without tides, inflow remains fairly uniform in the vertical, while outflow is largest at depth. However, with tides both inflow and outflow are largest in the top 40m of the Strait. Note that the bottom-intensified outflow remains fairly constant throughout the year, implying that the summer exchange peak is largely associated with the barotropic component in the absence of tides, but is surface intensified in the presence of tides.

To further compare tidal and non-tidal runs, we show the difference in bottom cur-179 rents in a plan view of the AG (Figure 2 e-f). Tidal forcing suppresses currents at depth. 180 extending out to the Sea of Oman through the SH. We also analyzed the larger-scale cir-181 culation to determine whether tidal influences are restricted to the SH or whether there 182 are basin-wide changes — see the depth-averaged and surface currents plotted in Sup-183 plementary Fig. S6 & S7. It is found that the tide has impact throughout the Gulf, and 184 particularly along its northern coast. The largest difference between tidal and non-tidal 185 runs is found in the Gulf, to the west of Siri Island close to the SH, where depth aver-186 age speed differences reach $21 cm s^{-1}$ and $25 cm s^{-1}$ in winter and summer respectively. 187 The maximum residual current speeds in the SH during summer are $20 cm s^{-1}$ and $33 cm s^{-1}$ 188 for tidal and non-tidal runs respectively, during winter $29 cm s^{-1}$ and $32 cm s^{-1}$. In ad-189 dition to the effect of tides on current speeds, tidal forcing significantly affects flow pat-190 terns. The north-westward flowing Iranian Coastal Current (ICC), which is associated 191 with density gradients between the AG and the Sea of Oman (Swift & Bower, 2003; Thop-192 pil & Hogan, 2010b), is prominent during both winter and summer in the non-tidal run. 193 The weaker ICC in winter is attributed to the reduced density gradient between the Sea 194 of Oman and the AG due to winter cooling effects. The addition of tidal forcing weak-195 ens and modifies the ICC in all seasons. The summer and winter circulation patterns 196 (see Supplementary Figure S5) both show that the tide induces a large change in circu-197 lation. The addition of tides expands the gyre and its strength is significantly reduced 198 in winter. The major tidal modifications on circulation patterns occur within the Gulf, 199 predominantly to the north where the bathymetry is deeper and most sharply chang-200 ing. 201

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3.3 Effect of tides on hydrography

The above results show that tidal forcing significantly modifies the basin wide circulation, with substantial reduction in deep currents in the SH. As noted in previous studies, the density gradient between the AG and the Sea of Oman is the dominant force driving seasonal circulation in the Gulf (Yao & Johns, 2010; Kämpf & Sadrinasab, 2006; Thoppil & Hogan, 2010b). Any change in this gradient may affect the basin-wide circulation and exchange through the Strait. In order to understand whether tidal forcing has any role in hydrographic structure, and thereby circulation and exchange, we analyzed the temperature and salinity distributions in tidal and non-tidal simulations.

We first compared seasonal-means of temperature, salinity and density with his-211 torical observations from the Master Oceanographic Observations Dataset (MOODS) (Alessi 212 et al., 1999) which spans the 1940-1990 period. Al-Shehhi et al. (2021) compared the seasonal-213 average hydrography obtained from the tidal run used in this study with the same MOODS 214 observations. Here we extend this comparison to the non-tidal simulation. We take 18 215 boxes along the center of the AG from its north-west corner to the Sea of Oman, and 216 horizontally average the hydrography from the non-tidal run for summer (see Fig. 3) 217 and winter (see supplementary Fig. S8). The boundaries of the boxes (see Fig. 1a) are 218 defined following Swift and Bower (2003). Comparing tidal and non-tidal runs with ob-219 servations (upper rows of Fig. 3 & S8), we see that both have similar biases, specifically 220 a too warm and fresh bias toward the surface (i.e., too light) and too cold and salty at 221 depth (i.e., too dense). However, these biases are less pronounced in the tidal simula-222 tion. This can be seen most clearly when we compare the density (right column): the 223

tidal run remains modestly too light at the surface (i.e. remains too warm and fresh), but exhibits minimal bias at depth. The bottom water density is significantly reduced in the tidal run. During winter, the densities in both the tidal and non-tidal simulations are closer to observations. The non-tidal run shows a difference of $1 \ kgm^{-3}$ with observation in summer, whereas the bias is $0.3 \ kgm^{-3}$ in the presence of tides. In summary, summer biases in temperature, salinity and density are considerably reduced in the presence of tides.

The simulated spatial distribution of bottom temperature, salinity and density dif-231 232 ferences during DJF and JJA is presented in the supplementary materials (see Fig S9 in the Supplementary section). Tidal forcing is felt across the entire basin in both AG 233 and SH with a strong influence during the summer (JJA) months. The box-average dif-234 ference between tidal and nontidal runs over the AG $(47.3^{\circ}E:56^{\circ}E,23.2^{\circ}N:30.7^{\circ}N)$ 235 is found to be 0.25° C and 0.43° C during winter and summer respectively. The AG bot-236 tom water is freshened by 0.26 (0.5)psu in winter (summer) in the presence of tides. Wa-237 ters on the southern coast of the AG (UAE) are more saline, and dense water to the south 238 is more saline than dense water to the north. A similar observation was made by Swift 239 and Bower (2003). The decrease in salinity and increase in temperature decreases the 240 bottom density basin wide. The AG is strongly stratified by temperature during sum-241 mer, with a weaker salinity increase with depth (Al-Shehhi et al., 2021). In the presence 242 of tides, bottom temperatures in the SH $(56^{\circ}E: 57^{\circ}E, 25.8^{\circ}N: 27.5^{\circ}N)$ exhibit a larger 243 increase of $0.6^{\circ}C$ in winter and $0.9^{\circ}C$ in summer than without tides. The salinity in the 244 presence of tides is decreased at the bottom. In summary, tidal-induced mixing acts to 245 cool and increase salinity at the surface, and warm and freshen at depth. 246

3.4 Vertical Mixing

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To infer the vertical mixing due to tides, we compared the model-derived vertical 248 (diapycnal) mixing in the two simulations. The depth-averaged vertical mixing (Kv, Fig, 4. 249 a&b) is distinctly elevated relative to without tides in summer in the AG. The vertical 250 profile of mixing, Fig. 4c, shows a higher Kv with tides between depths of 20m and 110m 251 in summer and 60m to 100m in winter. In the SH, the Kv with tides is elevated by a fac-252 tor of 4 and 1.5 in summer and winter, respectively. This suggests that the vertical mix-253 ing of tracers is significantly enhanced in the presence of tides. Fig. 4 also shows the 254 ratio between the vertical mixing (tide and notide) for winter and summer. In summer 255 tidal mixing is found throughout the domain, i.e., it is more significant in the presence 256 of stratified waters and so summer water masses are more influenced by the tides than 257 in winter. The buoyancy frequency $(N = \sqrt{-\frac{g}{\rho} \frac{d\rho}{dz}})$, where ρ is the potential density) also documents the weakening of the stratification with tides (Fig. 4). The spatial distri-258 259 bution shows that the difference between the two simulations (tide - notide) is generally 260 negative everywhere in the AG and SH. The maximum weakening of the stratification 261 occurs during the summer period. 262

To study the impact of tidal mixing on horizontal density gradients we estimated 263 the average density between two boxes, one inside the AG (average of Boxes 10,11 & 12) 264 and a second box outside the SH, in the Sea of Oman (average of Boxes 17 & 18). Fig. 265 4 (e) shows the vertical profiles of this difference in the summer (JJA) and winter (DJF) 266 seasons, comparing tidal and non-tidal simulations. In the presence of tides we see a no-267 table reduction of this difference in the summer, particularly between depths of 40m and 268 90m. In contrast this effect is considerably weaker in winter. The mixing of lighter wa-269 ters downwards due to tides is thus seen to decrease the horizontal density difference. 270 In winter, the tide has little effect on these gradients. The reduced density gradient be-271 tween the AG and Sea of Oman in the presence of tides is likely an important factor in 272 the significant suppression of deep water outflow in summer. 273

²⁷⁴ 4 Summary and Conclusions

We have investigated the impact of tides on the exchange between the AG and the 275 Sea of Oman through the Strait of Hormuz (SH) by comparing high resolution numer-276 ical experiments with and without tidal forcing. The reliability of the tides simulated 277 in the model is assessed — as set out in the supplimentary material — by comparing the 278 model with time series observations from coastal tide gauges and current meters. We find 279 that the tide modifies basin-wide circulation and impacts the properties and volume flux 280 of deep water outflow through the SH (Fig. 2. f&g). The outflow (and compensating 281 282 inflow) is suppressed in the presence of tides by 20% in the annual mean, by 30% in summer and 13% in winter (Fig. 2a). This broadly confirms the recent study of Campos 283 et al. (2022) who used a different model. 284

Earlier studies have shown that barotropic tides can induce residual currents in the Gulf due to the non-linear interaction of large-amplitude tidal currents with bathymetry: the M2 residual itself can exceed $0.15ms^{-1}$ in the AG — see Poul et al. (2016). Some large-scale circulation changes found in our model may thus be associated with such residuals. However, the primary reason for large-scale changes, we believe, is due to the presence of enhanced vertical mixing induced by the tides.

We find that mean bottom currents are significantly suppressed in the presence of 291 tides due to the modification of the hydrographic structure inside the Gulf. The deep 292 waters in the SH are warmed by 0.7° C and freshened by 0.62 psu (average of summer 293 and winter months) when tides are included (see supplementary Fig. S8), indicative of 294 enhanced downward vertical mixing of lighter surface waters. The increase in bottom 295 temperature is larger in summer than winter, and is associated with stronger summer-296 time tidal mixing. The reduction of basin-wide stratification also confirms elevated ver-297 tical mixing rates with tides. Enhanced shear-driven mixing, especially in summer, re-298 duces the density of the bottom water within the AG, reduces the lateral density between 299 the AG and Oman Sea and, concomitantly, the rate of lateral exchange. The effect is weaker 300 in the winter than in the summer. Indeed the AG is well mixed in winter and so the role 301 of tides in setting deep water outflow is much reduced. 302

The spatial distribution of vertical mixing shows large values in the vicinity of to-303 pography features such as small seamounts and shelf-slope regions (Fig. 4). Tide-topography 304 interaction and generation of internal tides is one of the important processes of enhanc-305 ing mixing. The greater stratification in summer, together with the presence of many 306 topographic features, facilitates strong internal tides and enhanced mixing. The bottom 307 water modification due to tide-topography interaction also occurs elsewhere in the ocean 308 see, e.g., the Jithin and Francis (2020) study of warm bottom waters in the Andaman 309 Sea of the north-eastern Indian Ocean. Recently (Kurogi & Hasumi, 2019) also noted 310 the tidal suppression of through-flow in a narrow Strait of Seto Inland Sea, Japan. Our 311 key result should be contrasted with, for example, Naranjo et al. (2014) who found out-312 flow increases significantly in the Strait of Gibralter by 28% to 33% annually in the pres-313 ence of tides. 314

The AG is known for its markedly distinct winter and summer characteristics, pri-315 marily due to significant seasonal shifts in temperature and salinity (T/S properties). 316 Despite these marked variations in T/S properties, they are not prominently reflected 317 in the exchange rates through the SH (Johns et al., 1998; Swift & Bower, 2003). We find 318 that tidal suppression in summer is the major factor maintaining a steady exchange. Our 319 study suggests that both winter and summer water masses respond differently to tides. 320 The tide significantly suppresses the through-flow of stratified summer water and hence 321 controls the density driven circulation/exchange. 322

Climate change projections show that the AG may undergo substantial warming with perhaps adverse effects on marine ecosystems (Field & Barros, 2014; Paparella et al., 2022). The summer SST of AG could increase by perhaps $4^{\circ}C$ or so by 2100 (Noori et al., 2019), leading to an increase in stratification as the upper ocean warms. It would be interesting to know whether increased stratification due to this warming enhances the baroclinic tide and its associated mixing or reduces mixing due to the increased stratification. Whatever happens, future increased warming may affect exchange flows between the AG and the Sea of Oman due to the modulation of mixing from tides/internal tides acting on seasonally stratified Gulf waters.

332 Data Availability Statement

The Model (MIT-gcm) setup with compile-time and run-time parameters can be 333 found at http://wwwcvs.mitgcm.org/viewvc/MITgcm/MITgcm_contrib/llc_hires/llc 334 _4320/. The Master Oceanographic Observations Dataset (MOODS), utilized in this study, 335 originates from Alessi et al. (1999). Tidal amplitude and phase data, derived from tide 336 gauge observations, were obtained from Pous et al. (2012), with the original source be-337 ing the International Hydrographic Office. Current data from mooring stations, as cited 338 in Reynolds (1993b), are publicly available at NOAA National Oceanographic Data Cen-339 ter https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/archive/arc0001/9600082/1.2/data/. 340

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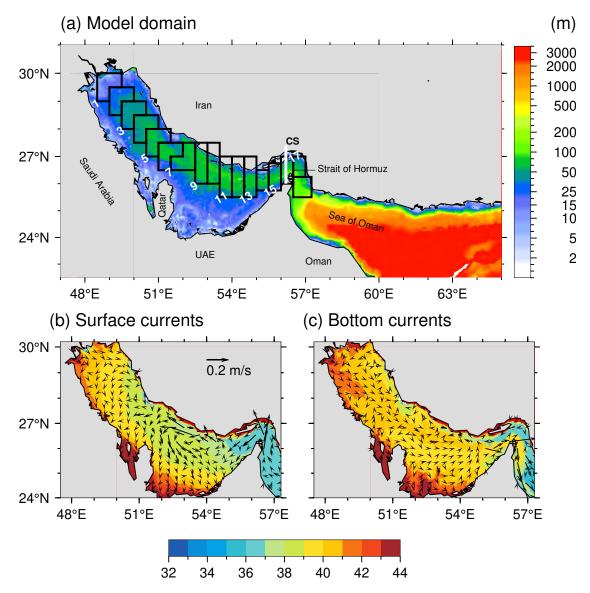


Figure 1: (a) Bathymetry of the study area (color scale in meters) together with the locations of 18 geographical regions — marked by the black boxes — adopted from the observational study of Swift and Bower (2003). Our numerical model is compared as a function of depth with horizontal averages of in situ observations within each box. The cross-section (CS), through which the inflow, outflow and exchange are calculated in the proximity of the Strait of Hormuz, is marked by the thick white line. (b,c) Annual average of surface and bottom current with the salinity (in psu) — scale at the bottom — shown in color. A reference vector showing the velocity scale is also marked.

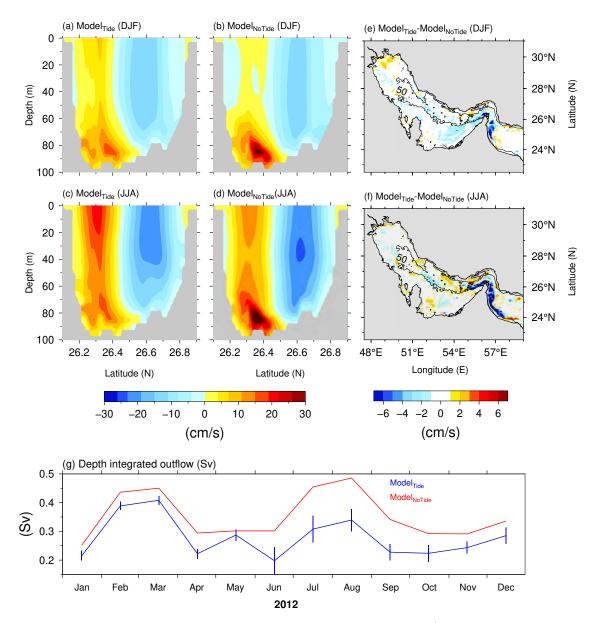


Figure 2: Seasonal average of model currents across the section CS (marked by the thick white line in Figure 1) with (left column) and without (middle column) tidal forcing: (a,b) show winter and (c,d) summer. The difference in bottom currents between simulations with and without tidal forcing during (e) winter and (f) summer. The color scale is in cm/s. (g) Monthly averaged volume transport (in Sverdrups) across CS, close to the Strait of Hormuz, estimated from simulations with (blue) and without (red) tidal forcing. The monthly standard deviation in transport during 2003-2018 including tides is indicated by the vertical bars. Positive values represent transport out of the Gulf.

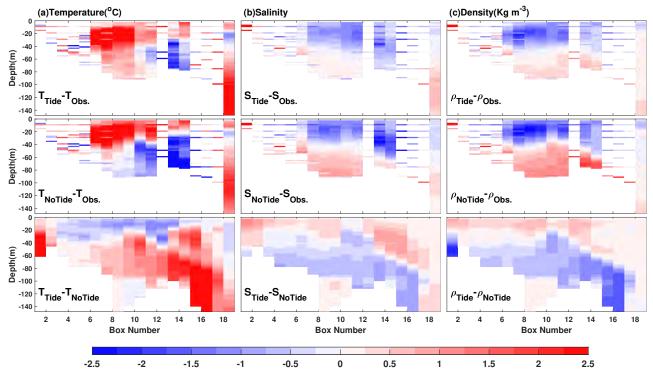


Figure 3: Comparison of summertime model solution with observations averaged over the 18 black boxes marked in Fig.1, plotted as a function of depth and box number. The box number increases moving eastward from the western-most box. Summertime differences in (a) temperature, (b) salinity and (c) density between the model solution with tides (labeled tide) and without tide (notide) and observations (MOODS) (Alessi et al., 1999). The bottom row of panels shows the summertime difference between the model with tides and without tides. The scale at the bottom is common to all plots.

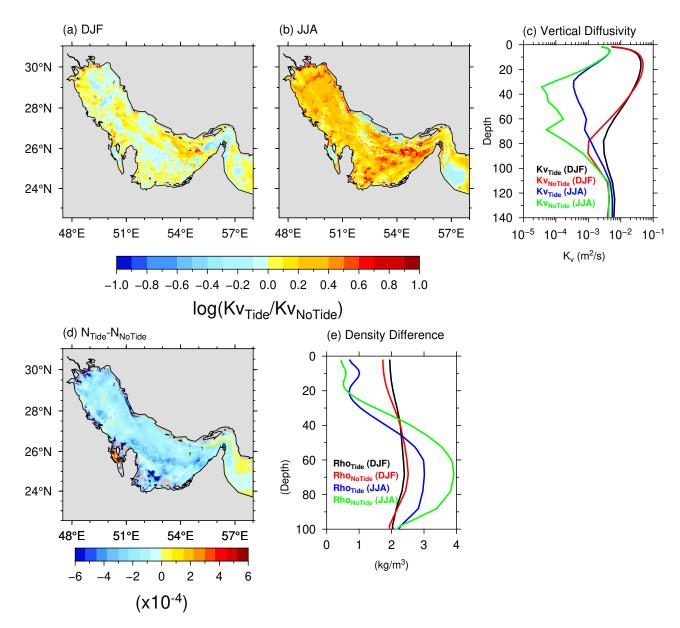


Figure 4: Depth-averaged spatial maps of vertical mixing ratio between tide and no-tide simulations using a logarithmic scale during (a) winter (DJF) and (b) summer (JJA). (c) Vertical profiles of spatially averaged vertical mixing (logarithmic scale) from simulations with and without tides during winter (DJF) and summer (JJA). (d) Difference between depth-averaged stratification, N, with and without tidal forcing during summer (JJA). (e) The vertical variation of density difference between AG (average of boxes 10,11 & 12) and the Sea of Oman (average of boxes 17 & 18) during winter (DJF) and Summer (JJA).

Supplementary: Role of tidal mixing on ocean exchange through the Strait of Hormuz

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15 1 Comparison of model with observations

1.1 Tidal elevation

16

Model performance to simulate tides is evaluated through comparison with major 17 tidal constituents (M2, S2, K1 and O1) at 37 tide gauge stations distributed over the Gulf 18 and Sea of Oman shown in Fig. S1. The tide gauge data are obtained from the Inter-19 national Hydrographic Office and published by Pous et al. (2012). Fig. S2 shows M2, 20 S2, K1 and O1 extracted from MITgcm versus the observed data. Close agreement be-21 tween the model and observed tidal elevations and phases is found. The corresponding 22 correlation (R2) values between modelled and observed tidal amplitudes are encourag-23 ing with values of 0.82, 0.84, 0.62, and 0.80, respectively. Similarly, high R2 values are 24 found between the modelled and observed tidal phases (0.92, 0.91, 0.93 and 0.96), for 25 M2, S2, K1 and O1. In addition, the model is able to reproduce the amphidromic points 26 caused by the diurnal and semidiurnal tidal constituents (Figure S5). To further quan-27 titatively assess predicted tidal amplitudes, the root mean square error (RMSE) for each 28 tidal constituent at each coastal tide-gauge station is estimated as follows: 29

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} (A_o \cos(\omega t - \phi_o) - A_m \cos(\omega t - \phi_m))}$$
(1)

where A and ϕ are the amplitude and phase respectively obtained from observed and modelled tidal levels and T is the length of the time sample. The model shows good agreement with the observations in both the Arabian Gulf and the Sea of Oman. The average RMSE values for tidal levels at M2, S2, K1 and O1 are 13.5, 8.08, 6 and 4.8cm, respectively. The RMSE of M2 is a maximum of 15cm or so at the 4 stations near Qatar and Bahrain where the water is very shallow. However, elsewhere in the Gulf, the RMSE does not exceed 10cm.

The spatial distribution of the amplitudes and phases of modelled tidal components 37 M2, S2, K1 and O1 are shown in Figure S5, and are consistent with the findings of Pous 38 et al. (2012), Madah and Gharbi (2022), Hyder et al. (2013) and Mashayekh Poul et al. 39 (2016). As can be seen, the most notable tidal feature are: (i) highest amplitudes of M2, 40 S2 and K1 in the Strait of Hormuz, and (ii) the presence of mixed semi-diurnal and di-41 urnal tides in the Gulf. There are two amphidromic points caused by the semi-diurnal 42 tides: one in the south-eastern region of the Gulf near the coast of Abu Dhabi and the 43 other in the south-western side of the Gulf. In contrast, there is an amphidromic point caused by diurnal tides in the south-central region of the Gulf off the coast of Bahrain. 45 Based on these patterns, the M2 tide is the most dominant constituent throughout the 46 Gulf and Sea of Oman, followed by K1, S2 and O1. The M2 tide reaches a maximum 47 amplitude of 149 cm in strongly shoaling and narrowing regions such as the north-western 48 end of the Gulf and near the Iranian coastal region off the Strait of Hormuz. Similarly, 49 K1 dominates over S2 in most of the Gulf, except the areas surrounding the Strait of Hor-50 muz and the diurnal amphidromic point. A maximum K1 amplitude of 48 cm is observed 51 on the western coast of UAE (Abu Dhabi) near Qatar and on the eastern side of the UAE 52 adjacent to the Omani coastal area of the Sea of Oman. The S2 tide reaches a maximum 53 value of 68 cm on the Iranian coast off Hormuz strait. The diurnal component O1 fol-54 lows the pattern of K1 but has a maximum value of 27 cm. 55

1.2 Tidal currents

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Instantaneous ocean currents u and v are compared with time series data obtained from five mooring stations are plotted in Figure S3 and S4 (Reynolds, 1993) at different depths (10m, 15m, 21m, 24m, 30m, 40m, 56m and 84m). The skill of the model is measured using Willmott's method (Willmott, 1981) as described by Warner et al. (2005). Skill values vary from 0, indicating complete disagreement, to 1, perfect agreement, be⁶² tween model and observation thus:

$$skill = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |Y_m - Y_o|^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (|Y_m - (Y_o)| + |Y_o - (Y_o)|)^2}.$$
(2)

The average model skill value at all mooring locations (MB2, MB3, MB4, MB5 and MB7) 63 with different depth levels was 0.7 for both u and v (Figure S4). The lowest skill val-64 ues of 0.5-0.6 for the v component are found at mooring MB2. The tidal current anal-65 ysis at MB2 shows that it is dominated by tidal currents. The maximum simulated u 66 and v values of the 10 m current are 22.7 cms^{-1} and 6 cms^{-1} , respectively, in good agree-67 ment with the observations $(22.6 \ cms^{-1} \ and \ 6.49 \ cms^{-1})$. The magnitudes of the cur-68 rents decrease with depth. For example, at 40 m the simulated u and v components at 69 MB2 are 14 and 10.1 cms^{-1} , respectively, which are close to the observed values of 13 70 cms^{-1} and 8.6 cms^{-1} . 71

72 References

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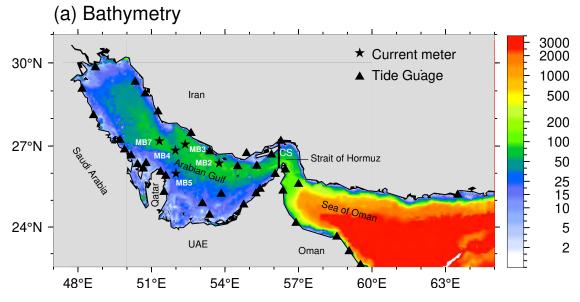


Figure S1: The bathymetry of the Arabian Gulf. The black triangles mark the location of tide gauges. The location of current meter moorings are marked by stars. The section across the Strait is also shown.

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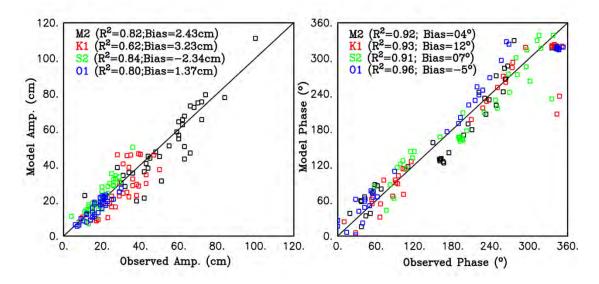


Figure S2: Observed vs model amplitude and phases of major tidal constituents (M2, S2, K1, O1) at the position of tide guages: color coding is black, red, green and blue squares for the M2, K1, S2 and O1 tidal constituents respectively.

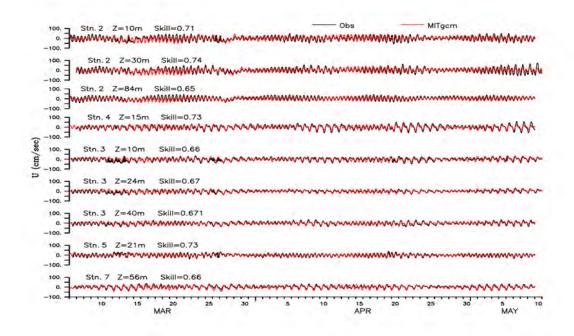


Figure S3: Comparison of modeled and observed zonal currents at chosen mooring locations and depths. The solid black line represents the observed currents and red lines are extracted from the model at corresponding locations.

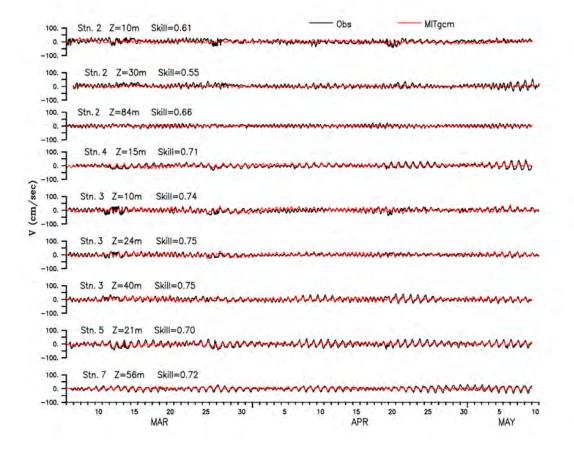


Figure S4: Comparison of modeled and observed meridional currents at chosen mooring locations and depths. The solid black line represents the observed currents and red lines are extracted from the model at corresponding locations. The scale of the vectors is indicated by the arrow at the top right.

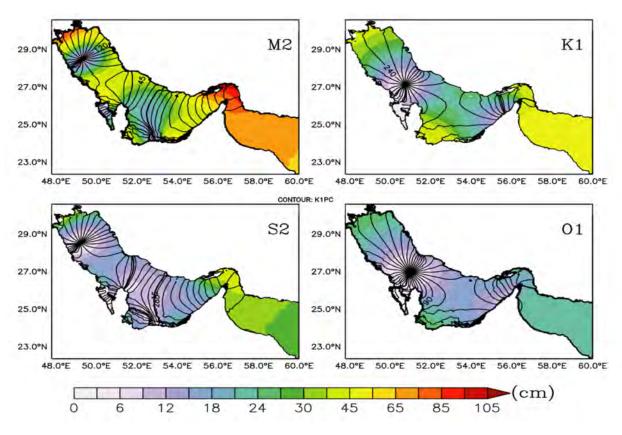


Figure S5: Co-Tidal chart for M2, S2, K1 and O1. Model derived amplitudes in cm (shaded in colors) overlaid with phase contours of major tidal constituents (M2, S2, K1 and O1).

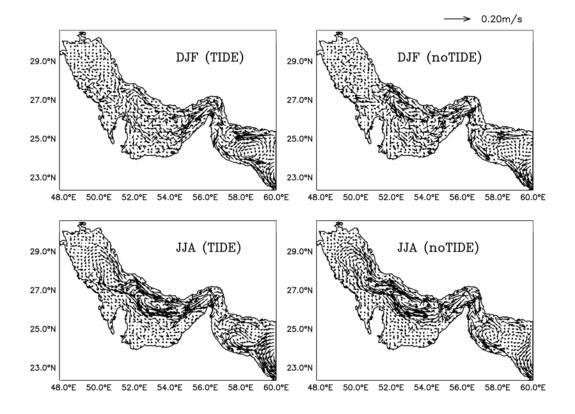


Figure S6: The panels on the left show modeled depth-averaged current vectors with tides during (top) winter and (bottom) summer. The panels on the right panel show the same but in the case of no tides. The scale of the vector is indicated at the top.

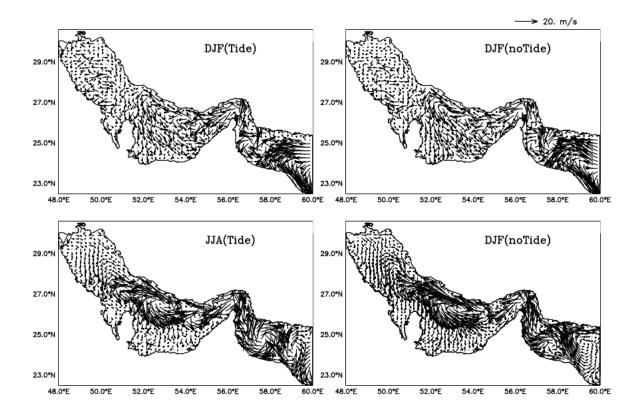


Figure S7: The panels on the left show modeled surface current vectors in m/s with tides during (top) winter and (bottom) summer. The panels on the right panel show the same but in the case of no tides. The scale of the vector is indicated at the top.

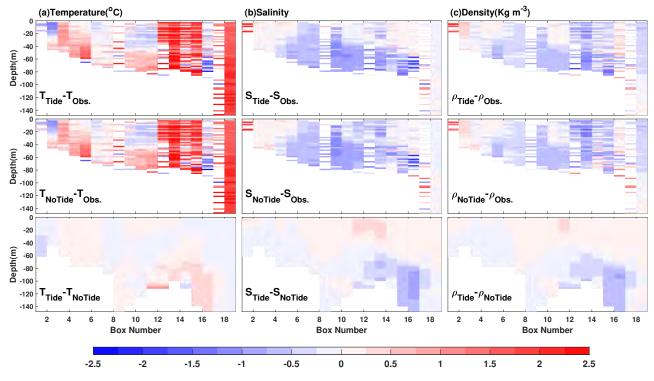


Figure S8: Comparison of wintertime model solution with observations averaged over the 18 black boxes marked in Fig.1, plotted as a function of depth and box number. The box number increases moving eastward from the western-most box. Wintertime differences in (a) temperature, (b) salinity and (c) density between the model solution with tides (labeled tide) and without tide (notide) and observations (MOODS) (Alessi et al. 1999). The bottom row of panels shows the wintertime difference between the model with tides and without tides. The scale at the bottom is common to all plots.

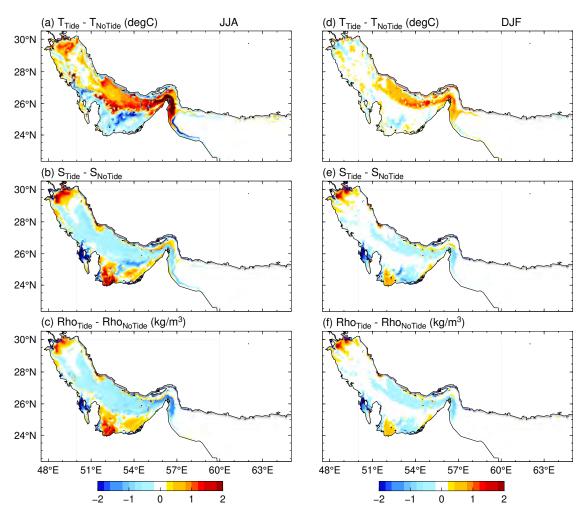


Figure S9: Differences between simulations with tide and without tide at the bottom of the model: (a) Temperature, (b) Salinity, (c) Density in JJA; (d), (e), and (f) show the same parameters during DJF.