

# <sup>1</sup> Investigation of the causes of historical changes in the <sup>2</sup> sub-surface salinity minimum of the South Atlantic

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3 **Abstract.**

4 In this study we investigate the sub-surface salinity changes on decadal  
5 timescales across the Subtropical South Atlantic Ocean using two ocean re-  
6 analysis products, the latest version of the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation  
7 and the Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean, Phase II , as  
8 well as with additional climate model experiments. Results show that there  
9 is a recent significant salinity increase at intermediate levels. The main un-  
10 derlying mechanism for this sub-surface salinity increase is the lateral ad-  
11 vective (gyre) changes due to the Southern Annular mode variability, which  
12 conditions an increased contribution from the Indian Ocean high salinity wa-  
13 ters. The global warming signal has a secondary but complementary contri-  
14 bution. Latitudinal differences at intermediate depth in response to large-  
15 scale features are in part caused by local variation of westward propagation  
16 features, and by compensating contributions of salinity and temperature to  
17 density changes.

## 1. Introduction

18 Modulation and stability of the South Atlantic meridional overturning circulation are  
19 dependent on salinity changes [*Weijer et al., 2002; Peeters et al., 2004*], and an improved  
20 understanding of the mechanisms behind these salinity variations, especially the signature  
21 of change below the ocean surface, is essential for better monitoring and prediction of  
22 long-term climate change.

23 Long-term changes in ocean salinity are a function of large scale atmospheric forcing as  
24 well as regional freshwater fluxes. In the South Atlantic Ocean significant ocean warming,  
25 driving trends in freshwater fluxes, has been documented from observations and is the  
26 subject of much research [*Gille, 2002; Curry et al., 2003; Boyer et al., 2005; Grodsky*  
27 *et al., 2006; Boning et al., 2008; Schmidtko and Johnson, 2012; McCarthy et al., 2012*].  
28 Ocean salinity changes are in general depth and latitudinally dependent [*Curry et al.,*  
29 *2003*]. They are larger in the top 500 m of the ocean because of the direct effect of  
30 atmospheric fluxes. In comparison to earlier data on record (1960–1970s), more recent  
31 years (1990s) have shown salinity increases in the tropical-subtropical latitudes due to  
32 warming and increased evaporation [*Boyer et al., 2005*], and salinity decreases in the  
33 extratropical regions due to increased precipitation and runoff (including ice melting).

34 However, these long-term changes are subject to intense interannual and decadal vari-  
35 ability [*Grodsky et al., 2006*], and more recent data show an actual decrease in surface  
36 salinity in the tropical Atlantic due to increased precipitation and upwelling. This impacts  
37 the mixed layer depth, and therefore the formation of subsurface water masses. Water  
38 masses that are formed on the base of the mixed layer are in contact with the atmosphere

39 for a relative short period during their formation. They are eventually subducted into the  
40 ocean interior following mostly an adiabatic pathway along neutral density surfaces. At  
41 depth they are also modified by mixing which acts on much longer timescales. Below the  
42 surface, the signature of salinity changes in the ocean is subject to higher uncertainty than  
43 at the surface, since salinity is dynamically entangled with the temperature field, which  
44 together determine the density [*Pierce et al.*, 2012]. Therefore, understanding salinity  
45 changes in the South Atlantic at intermediate depths requires understanding the rela-  
46 tive contribution of the associated processes [*Durack and Wijffels*, 2010], such as surface  
47 atmospheric forcing, circulation changes, changes due to mixing along the water-mass  
48 pathways, and vertical movements of isopycnals due to wind field effects. In the South  
49 Atlantic, an important wind effect can be related to changes in the Southern Annular  
50 Mode (SAM) through variations in sea level pressure (SLP), which in turn would impact  
51 on the surface wind leading to a broad-scale surface warming associated with the pole-  
52 ward migration of isopycnal outcrops [*Durack and Wijffels*, 2010; *Schmidtko and Johnson*,  
53 2012].

54 Although frequent in situ salinity data are scarce in the South Atlantic before 2002,  
55 several studies have used historical ship-based conductivity–temperature–depth (CTD)  
56 along with more recent Argo floats data to investigate long-term changes in the Sub-  
57 Antarctic Mode Water (SAMW) and in the Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) salinity  
58 minimum layer underneath. Their results indicate cooling and freshening of the SAMW,  
59 and warming and salinification associated with the AAIW [*Bindoff and McDougall*, 1994;  
60 *Boning et al.*, 2008; *McCarthy et al.*, 2011; *Schmidtko and Johnson*, 2012], in addition to  
61 a statistically significant strong circumpolar AAIW isopycnals shoaling, accompanying a

62 decrease in density, and an equatorward spreading of the salinity anomalies at the sub-  
63 surface [*Durack and Wijffels, 2010; Schmidtko and Johnson, 2012*]. A further decrease in  
64 the AAIW density is also projected for the 21st century in climate models [*Goes et al.,*  
65 2008].

66 Further analysis of Argo observations reveals the variability of the AAIW salinity in the  
67 South Atlantic on interannual and intradecadal timescales. Westward propagating salinity  
68 anomalies at 30°S show that Rossby wave mechanisms are important for the interpretation  
69 of salinity changes associated with the hydrological cycle of the AAIW at these timescales  
70 [*McCarthy et al., 2012*].

71 In this study we investigate changes in the sub-surface salinity minimum of the South  
72 Atlantic and its relation to large-scale trends such as those related to global warming  
73 via greenhouse gases and the Southern Annular Mode (SAM). For this we use a blend of  
74 ocean reanalyses and process oriented climate model experiments. This paper is outlined  
75 as follows: Section 2 describes the two ocean reanalyses used in this study; Section 3 shows  
76 the results of the examination of the two reanalysis data, followed by the analysis of the  
77 climate model experiments. The setup of the climate model experiments is presented in  
78 an Appendix; Sections 4 and 5 contain a discussion of the results and the conclusion of  
79 this study.

## 2. Data

80 The first part of this study utilizes temperature and salinity data from the Simple Ocean  
81 Data Assimilation (SODA) version 2.2.6 [*Ray and Giese, 2012*], and from the Estimating  
82 the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean, Phase II (ECCO2). They can be described as  
83 follows:

## 2.1. SODA 2.2.6

84 SODA 2.2.6 uses the Parallel Ocean Program (POP) model [Smith et al., 1992] at  
85 a  $1/4^\circ$  horizontal resolution, which is publicly available at an interpolated  $0.5^\circ \times 0.5^\circ$   
86 horizontal resolution, and 40 vertical levels at monthly averages, spanning the period of  
87 1871 to 2008. Vertical diffusion of momentum, heat, and salt are carried out using K-  
88 profile parameterization (KPP) mixing with modifications to address issues such as diurnal  
89 heating, while lateral subgrid-scale processes are modeled using biharmonic mixing.

90 Surface boundary conditions used are from eight ensemble members of the NOAA at-  
91 mospheric Twentieth Century reanalysis 20Crv2 [Compo et al., 2011]. SODA 2.26 as-  
92 simulates only sea surface temperature (SST) data using a sequential estimation data  
93 assimilation method [Carton and Giese, 2008]. The SST data comes from the ICOADS  
94 2.5 SST product (<http://icoads.noaa.gov>), which is based purely on in-situ observations  
95 (e.g., XBT, CTD, bottle, Argo) and reached 2 million data report per year in 1960s. Heat  
96 and salt fluxes in SODA are calculated from bulk formulae using 20CRv2 daily variables.  
97 By not assimilating in-depth hydrography and only SST, the model is more dynamically  
98 consistent over different decades than alternative versions. A complete overview of the  
99 ocean-reanalysis process is detailed by Carton and Giese [2008].

## 2.2. ECCO2

100 The Estimating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean, Phase II (ECCO2) project  
101 [Menemenlis, 2008] An ECCO2 data synthesis is obtained by least-squares fit of a  
102 global full-depth-ocean and sea-ice configuration of the Massachusetts Institute of Tech-  
103 nology OGCM (Marshall et al. 1997) to the available satellite and in situ data. This  
104 least-squares fit is carried out for a small number of control parameters using a Green's

105 function approach [Menemenlis, 2005]. The solution requires the computation of a  
106 number of sensitivity experiments that are free, unconstrained calculations by a forward  
107 model. The experiments are designed to adjust the model parameters, forcing, and initial  
108 conditions. Then the model is run forward again using the adjusted parameters, free of  
109 any constraints, as in any ordinary model simulation. The model employs a cube-sphere  
110 grid projection with a mean horizontal grid spacing of 18 km and 50 vertical levels. Surface  
111 forcings such as wind and precipitation are from the JRA25 reanalysis [Onogi, 2007].

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. AAIW properties in SODA and ECCO2

112 As stated in the previous section, SODA 2.2.6 assimilates only SST data. This allows  
113 the model to be more dynamically consistent over time, although larger differences may  
114 exist with respect to actual hydrographic data. Salinity data in the South Atlantic are  
115 historically sparse, mostly available in a more consistent way since the 2000s from Argo  
116 floats measurements. ECCO2 uses a Green functions method, which also allows a smooth  
117 salinity path over time, and allows a stronger hydrographic constraint with depth. We  
118 estimate the differences in the representation of the AAIW in both reanalyses by com-  
119 paring their salinity properties with an Argo climatology [Roemmich and Gilson, 2009],  
120 which is available at a 1 degree horizontal resolution starting in 2004, for a similar pe-  
121 riod. The Argo climatology exhibits a minimum salinity tongue in the central basin (at  
122 25 °W; Figure 1c) extending from its formation region (between 45 and 60°S) across the  
123 mixed layer to a maximum depth of 600–1200 m at 35–40°S. The salinity minimum follows  
124 closely the depth of the isopycnal  $\sigma_\theta = 27.2 \text{ Kg/m}^3$ , which is approximately 1000 m deep  
125 in this region. Previous studies have associated the depth of the salinity minimum with

126 the  $\sigma_\theta = 27.2 \text{ Kg/m}^3$  isopycnal surface, and also with the neutral density surface  $\gamma_n = 27.4$   
127  $\text{Kg/m}^3$  [You, 2002]. North of  $20^\circ\text{S}$ , the  $\sigma_\theta = 27.2 \text{ Kg/m}^3$  density surface levels out to  
128 a depth of 700 m, and the salinity minimum flows underneath a salty surface region of  
129 maximum evaporation minus precipitation (E-P).

130 SODA shows features analogous to the observations over a similar period (i.e., 2004–  
131 2009; Figure 1a). In SODA, the isopycnals south of  $40^\circ\text{S}$  are much more inclined than  
132 observations, and the maximum depth of the  $\sigma_\theta = 27.2 \text{ Kg/m}^3$  is approximately 1200 m  
133 deep, 200 m deeper than the observations. The salinity minimum in the South Atlantic  
134 is also deeper in SODA than in the observations. This causes a maximum anomaly of  
135 salinity on  $40^\circ\text{S}$  of up to 0.6 psu at 500 m depth (Figure 1d). At  $\sim 7^\circ\text{S}$ , SODA shows  
136 a strong near-surface upwelling region, characterized by an uplifting of the isopycnals.  
137 This feature is not evident in the ARGO climatology. ECCO2 shows a more consistent  
138 structure than SODA, the minimum salinity is well constrained at approximately 800  
139 m, and the differences of salinity with depth are therefore much reduced ( $< 0.2$  psu) in  
140 comparison to SODA (Figure 1e).

141 Next, we compare the regional features of the salinity minimum in the South Atlantic  
142 between the reanalyses and Argo, doing so after interpolating all products to the Argo  
143 resolution. The salinity minimum surface in the South Atlantic is shown in Figure 2.  
144 SODA shows a stronger Subantarctic Front (STF;  $\sim 45^\circ\text{S}$ ) than in observations (Figure  
145 2a, c), which agrees with the larger isopycnal slopes in that region, as revealed in Figure  
146 1a. For this reason the STF region shows the largest salinity differences ( $\sim 0.3$ ) between  
147 SODA and Argo (Figure 2d). In the other regions salinity differences are smaller, and  
148 can reach approximately 0.1 in magnitude. ECCO2 (Figure 2b) shows an improvement in



149 the STF region in comparison to SODA, and the biases are below 0.15 psu in the region.  
150 North of 30°S, biases in ECCO2 and SODA show similar magnitudes. *Although there*  
151 *are differences between the two reanalysis products and observations, their similarities,*  
152 *and specially the dissimilarities with respect to the model assimilation schemes they are*  
153 *based on, show that their temporal and spatial variability, once they agree between the*  
154 *products, must be robust with respect to the variability of the AAIW in the region.*

### 3.2. Regional trends in the AAIW

155 In the South Atlantic, changes in the relationship of temperature and salinity along  
156 isopycnals show latitudinal dependence. The time and latitude distribution of the South  
157 Atlantic salinity at various density levels from the 1960s to 2000s is here inferred from  
158 Temperature-Salinity ( $\theta/S$ ) diagrams for four latitudes (35°S, 30°S, 20°S, 10°S; Figure 3).

159 At 35°S (Figure 3a), there is an increase in salinity in the latter years in the thermocline  
160 waters. This increase is not monotonic over time, instead alternating, with the 1970s and  
161 1990s having lower salinity values, and the 1960s, 1980s and 2000s having higher salinity  
162 values. Similar alternating patterns are found along 30°S and 10°S (Figures 3b and 3d,  
163 respectively). At 10°S, which is located in the tropical region of high E-P, salinity increases  
164 by 0.2 in the upper tropical waters, which *is related to an increase in the hydrological*  
165 *cycle in the region [Curry et al., 2003; Helm et al., 2010].* At 20°S (Figure 3c), the  
166 2000s have lower salinity values at the thermocline, and higher values in the 1970s. The  
167 smallest differences in  $\theta/S$  over time are achieved at 20°S in the whole profile. The central  
168 and intermediate water levels generally have opposing signs of changes at all latitudes.  
169 Central waters show a recent cooling and freshening along isopycnals, as is apparent in the  
170 density layer between  $\sigma = 26.5$  and  $27.0 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , whereas intermediate waters generally

171 show warming and increased salinity between  $\sigma = 27.2$  and  $27.4 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  (highlighted in  
172 the insets of Figure 3).

173 To investigate the time variability of the ocean properties at the salinity minimum  
174 position, we produce a time series of the salinity, potential density ( $\sigma_\theta$ ) and temperature  
175 anomalies relative to the average over the whole time series period at the depth of the  
176 salinity minimum, for two locations in the central part of the basin, at  $25^\circ\text{W}/30^\circ\text{S}$  and  
177  $25^\circ\text{W}/35^\circ\text{S}$  (Figure 4). At both latitudes, there is an increase in salinity and temperature  
178 in the late 1980s/beginning of 1990s until the end of the series (Figure 4a,c,d,f). This  
179 joint effect of warming and salinification produces a reduction in density during this  
180 period (Figure 4b,e); a feature that agrees with climate projections of the AAIW [*Goes*  
181 *et al.*, 2008]. The effect of the density decrease at the minimum salinity depth is more  
182 prominent at  $35^\circ\text{S}$  than at  $30^\circ\text{S}$ . There is strong decadal variability at both latitudes,  
183 although fluctuations appear in different periods: at  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , there is a general freshening  
184 trend from the 1960s to the 1970s, and an increase in salinity after 1976. The rate of  
185 salinity increase from the mid-1970s to the mid-1990s is the highest with about 0.01 per  
186 decade, while it levels out considerably in the late 1990s and 2000s. At  $35^\circ\text{S}$  there is a  
187 significant positive salinity anomaly in the 1970s, followed by an also significant negative  
188 salinity anomaly in the 1980s. A linear trend of about 0.05 per decade is apparent after  
189 that. Trends observed after 2000 in all analyzed parameters exceed 3 standard deviations  
190 (red dashed lines in Figure 4) calculated for the whole time series period, showing that  
191 these trends are likely to be statistically significant.

192 These interannual-to-decadal salinity changes are consistent with recent findings that  
193 changes in the rate of global surface temperature increase have occurred in previous

194 decades, such as in the mid-1970s [*Levinson and Lawrimore, 2008; Trenberth and Coau-*  
195 *thors, 2007*], and that these changes can potentially produce signals in density and salinity  
196 at depth [*Durack and Wijffels, 2010*].

### 3.3. Density changes in the subtropical Atlantic

197 According to *Bindoff and McDougall [1994]*, salinity changes at depth **have three main**  
198 **causes:** i) freshening/salinification on isopycnals, ii) warming/cooling on isopycnals and  
199 iii) heave, which is related to vertical displacements of isopycnals without changes in  
200 salinity and temperature. Therefore, knowledge of these salinity changes requires under-  
201 standing the causes of density changes at intermediate levels.

202 We investigate the causes of variability of density around the salinity minimum depth  
203 ( $\sim 1140$  m) by estimating the thermopycnal and halopycnal changes at that depth. For  
204 this we keep the salinity or temperature constant at their climatological means, and let the  
205 other component vary over time. This way, we are able to estimate the main contribution  
206 of density changes, which drive the large-scale meridional water displacement in the ocean.

207 We calculate the temperature and salinity contributions to density changes for the  
208 latitudes of  $30^\circ$  and  $35^\circ\text{S}$  at  $25^\circ\text{W}$  (Figure 5). At  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , SODA shows an increase in  
209 potential density from  $\sim 27.29$   $\text{kg m}^{-3}$  in the 1960s to  $\sim 27.32$   $\text{kg m}^{-3}$  in the 1970s. A  
210 subsequent increase in potential density at 1140 m is manifested after 1985 and continues  
211 until 2008, where it assumes a value of  $\sim 27.28$   $\text{kg m}^{-3}$ . These potential density changes  
212 are driven mostly by temperature changes (red line) at this latitude. At  $35^\circ\text{S}$  (Figure 5b),  
213 there is a similar increase in potential density in the 1970s and a decrease afterwards.  
214 Interestingly, the total density behavior does not closely follow the changes driven only by  
215 temperature. Instead, there is a strong compensation between temperature and salinity

216 at 35°S. This behavior can explain the larger variability of salinity values on isopycnals  
217 at 35°S than at 30°S, shown in Figure 4.

### 3.4. Subtropical Gyre variability

218 An AAIW layer, which encompasses the the salinity minimum surface depths ( $\sim 800$ –  
219 1100 m), is constructed by defining two neutral density surfaces as the upper and lower  
220 boundaries, the  $\gamma_n = 27.1$  and  $\gamma_n = 27.6$ , respectively. Within this layer, there is a  
221 signature of the inflow of salty Indian Ocean waters through the southeastern tip of the  
222 Atlantic. The high salinity Indian Ocean waters at intermediate levels are formed in the  
223 Red Sea [Talley, 2002]. After entering the South Atlantic, these waters lose their signature  
224 through mixing along their trajectory westward. A **minimum on the salinity minimum**  
225 **surface** is obvious at about 30°S (Figure 6a), crossing the basin from east to west following  
226 the Benguela Current Extension [Schmid and Garzoli, 2009], which feeds into the Brazil  
227 Current (BC) along the western boundary. BC waters encounter the Malvinas Current  
228 waters between 35°S and 40°S, resulting in a westward inflow of low salinity waters along  
229 the South Atlantic Current.

230 SODA shows decadal changes in salinity between the 1960 and 2000 (Figure 6b–e).  
231 Compared to the 1960s, the 1970s **and 1980s** show a slight decrease in the minimum  
232 salinity in most parts of the South Atlantic. A noticeable feature in the 1970s and later  
233 on **in the 1990s and 2000s** is the southward shift of the Brazil-Malvinas confluence **up to**  
234 **about 3 degrees**, in comparison to the 1960s. **The 1980s, in opposition, shows a northward**  
235 **migration of the confluence, which can explain some of the decadal variability shown in**  
236 **Figures 4)**. The 1990s show reduced salinity in the center of the salinity minimum south  
237 of 35°S, and a general increase of salinity in the rest of the basin. Of great importance

238 is the increased inflow of higher salinity waters from the Agulhas Current retroflexion  
239 region in the southeastern part of the basin, which increases the signature of these waters  
240 toward the northwestern part of the basin. In the 2000s, this trend of increasing salinity  
241 in the basin continues, and increased salinity values are found also on the western side  
242 of the basin. This can have implications for the interhemispheric transport through the  
243 North Brazil Undercurrent.

Advective mechanisms within the gyre have potential to drive a large part of the salinity increase displayed in SODA. This can be quantified by potential vorticity (PV) maps for the defined intermediate layer (Figure 7). The Ertel's PV is calculated as:

$$PV = \frac{f}{\rho_0} \frac{\Delta\gamma_n}{\Delta z} \quad (1)$$

244 where  $f$  is the Coriolis parameter,  $\rho_0$  is the mean density of the ocean, and  $\Delta z$  is the  
245 layer thickness. It is clear from the PV maps (Figure 7) that the PV has become more  
246 negative inside the subtropical gyre at the AAIW layer, which characterizes a spin-up  
247 of the anticyclonic gyre recently. Additionally, there has been an expansion of the gyre  
248 southward, in agreement with observational results of the surface subtropical gyre [Roem-  
249 mich *et al.*, 2007; Goni *et al.*, 2011], and poleward migration of the ACC [Gille, 2008].  
250 This would preclude waters flowing from the Drake Passage and ACC from entering the  
251 southern boundary of the South Atlantic, and would also reduce the mixing between the  
252 Agulhas and SAC waters, making higher salinity waters prevail in the gyre.

### 3.5. Westward propagating Rossby Waves

253 As noted by McCarthy *et al.* [2012], salinity anomalies can be generated at intermediate  
254 depths in the eastern side of the basin, and propagate westward with a second mode Rossby

255 wave speed. *McCarthy et al.* [2012] suggests that this can be an important mechanism to  
256 explain the variability of the salinity minimum across the basin on interannual timescales.  
257 In Figure 6, there is a clear extension of the subtropical gyre and increase in the Agulhas  
258 leakage at intermediate depths. The Agulhas leakage is well correlated with the strength of  
259 the westerlies [*Durgadoo et al.*, 2013] in the eastern part of the Atlantic basin. Similarly to  
260 *Durgadoo et al.* [2013], we define an index for the strength of the westerlies in the eastern  
261 part of the basin as the average zonal wind stress within 35°S–65°S and 0°W–20°E.

262 To investigate how salinity anomalies originated in the Agulhas leakage region and forced  
263 by the westerly winds spread over the South Atlantic, we apply a lagged correlation of  
264 the westerly wind stress index in the eastern side of the basin to the salinity minimum  
265 surface. The time series are previously smoothed with a 9-month Boxcar window to filter  
266 the seasonal variability. The maximum lagged correlations and their lags are shown in  
267 Figure 8. The lag of the maximum correlation over space shows the propagation patterns  
268 of the salinity anomalies. Small lag values, close to zero or even negative, are observed  
269 in the eastern side of the basin. Negative lag values in the southeastern tip of the basin  
270 show that the flow in the Agulhas leakage is driven in great part by the wind stress  
271 anomalies east of Africa. Where the lag shows smaller values, the correlation of the  
272 westerlies and the salinity anomalies is highest, above 0.6. Anomalies propagate along a  
273 northwestern trajectory, following the ocean circulation at that depth (Figure 7). This is  
274 also characteristic pattern of a Rossby wave signal, which phase speed decreases poleward.  
275 A larger extension of anomalies propagation is revealed along 29°S. South of 30°S the lag  
276 increases considerably up to 200 months, i.e., about 17 years.

277 To investigate whether Rossby wave propagation is a plausible dynamical mechanism  
278 for the variability of the AAIW on interannual to decadal timescales, we produced time-  
279 longitude plots (Hovmoller diagrams) at two latitudes, 30°S and 35°S (Figure 9). Hov-  
280 moller diagrams allow us to determine zonal propagation patterns along a given latitude.  
281 In these diagrams, propagating waves appear as diagonal bands across the basin, and  
282 the slopes of these patterns are equal to the phase speed ( $c_p$ ) of the waves. Here, wave  
283 characteristics are assessed objectively using the Radon Transform (RT) applied to the  
284 Hovmoller diagrams [*Challenor et al.*, 2001; *Polito and Liu*, 2003; *Barron et al.*, 2009].  
285 This method rotates the coordinate system of the zonal-temporal diagrams in order to  
286 find the patterns that best align with the rotated axis.

287 The Hovmoller diagrams are for salinity anomalies (calculated with respect to the an-  
288 nual mean climatology) projected onto the  $\gamma_n=27.4$  neutral surface. Zonal means are  
289 subtracted from the anomalies field to filter decadal trends [*Barron et al.*, 2009], thus  
290 highlighting the interannual timescales. West-to-east propagating anomalies spread along  
291 30°S. The optimal propagation speed is  $cp = 1.79 \pm 0.48$  cm s<sup>-1</sup>, at which anomalies  
292 travel across the basin in approximately 10 years. A similar result is obtained in the lag  
293 correlation maps shown in Figure 8. These speeds strongly agree with those obtained by  
294 *McCarthy et al.* [2012], who estimated a propagation speed of  $cp = 1.7$  cm s<sup>-1</sup>, which  
295 is characteristic of a second baroclinic mode wave propagation. At 35°S, the situation  
296 is different. Propagation speeds of  $0.47 \pm 0.06$  cm s<sup>-1</sup> are much slower than the one  
297 predicted by the Rossby wave theory. In fact, the pattern of the variability in the eastern  
298 part of the basin (east of 15°W) seems to be unrelated to the one further west. From the  
299 lag correlation maps, we observe that the correlations decrease considerably from east to

300 west at this latitude, and therefore mixing and advective mechanisms must play a larger  
301 role in the regional dynamics.

### 3.6. Wind x CO<sub>2</sub>

302 In the previous sections we show that SODA 2.2.6 exhibits changes in the subsurface  
303 salinity minimum and circulation patterns at intermediate layers. These changes include  
304 decadal variability overlapping a background low frequency variability, which becomes  
305 stronger after the 1970s. Other studies confirm that similar subsurface changes have  
306 occurred since 1950 [e.g., *Levitus et al.*, 2000; *Gille*, 2002; *Levitus et al.*, 2005; *Domingues*  
307 *et al.*, 2008; *Levitus et al.*, 2009; *Durack and Wijffels*, 2010; *Gille*, 2008; *Lyman et al.*,  
308 2010].

309 In order to examine the possible causes of the salinity minimum variability, we perform  
310 idealized experiments with an Earth System Model of Intermediate Complexity in which  
311 two possible forcings, the wind stress curl changes in the Atlantic and the global warming  
312 due to CO<sub>2</sub> are separated. In these experiments, we use the University of Victoria Earth  
313 System Model of Intermediate Complexity (UVic 2.9) [*Weaver et al.*, 2001]. This model  
314 has been widely used in climate simulations and model comparison studies. We separate  
315 the influences of the wind stress on the advective mechanisms in the South Atlantic into  
316 northern and southern hemispheric forcings, by defining the first hemispheric modes of  
317 variability, which are related to the North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO) and SAM, to the  
318 north and south respectively. A description of the model experiments can be found in  
319 Appendix A.

#### 3.6.1. AAIW changes in the intermediate complexity model



321 Similarly to Figure 4, we show the time series of salinity and temperature at the location  
322 of the salinity minimum at 30°S and 25°W (Figure 10). For each index, four time series are  
323 shown, which represent the index calculated for the experiments described in Appendix  
324 A. The CONTROL simulation, without transient forcing (red curve), shows a salinity of  
325  $\sim 34.57$  and temperature of  $\sim 4.39$  °C from 1870 to 2009. Salinity changes, relative to  
326 the CONTROL simulation, driven by wind changes in response to atmospheric pressure  
327 changes due to the SAM (green curve in Figure 10a) are negative from 1870 to 1950 in  
328 the model. Changes in the SAM phase after the 1960s drive positive salinity anomalies,  
329 modulated by decadal variability. In 2008, the salinity is 0.015 above the pre-industrial  
330 level. When a NAO-like forcing is considered in addition to the SAM forcing (blue curve  
331 in Figure 10), additional changes are minor, and the trends due to wind variability in the  
332 model resemble strongly the SAM-only experiment. Finally, when CO<sub>2</sub> forcing is added  
333 on the top of SAM and NAO forcings (turquoise curve in Figure 10), there is an increased  
334 positive trend in AAIW salinity after 1950 in comparison to the SAM-only experiment.  
335 This trend driven by the CO<sub>2</sub> load in the atmosphere is strongly linear, and the 2008  
336 salinity anomaly relative to the pre-industrial values is 0.025. Therefore, the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing  
337 on AAIW salinity anomalies is responsible for 50% of the changes due to SAM in the  
338 2000s. Although secondary in driving historical salinity anomalies in the AAIW, CO<sub>2</sub>  
339 forcing is the main contributor for the increase in temperature anomalies at the depth of  
340 the salinity minimum (Figure 10b). While SAM-like forcing accounts for 0.1°C relative  
341 to the CONTROL run, adding the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing increases the temperature anomalies to  
342 0.3°C, a contribution of 2/3 of the recent warming of the AAIW, while SAM accounts for

343 just 1/3. NAO-like forcing is again a minor contribution to the AAIW variability in the  
344 South Atlantic.

345 Salinity minimum changes in UVic are heterogeneous over the **spatial** domain (Figure  
346 11). This feature agrees with those features manifested in SODA (Figure 6). Here we  
347 separate the recent (2000s) effects of the considered external forcings on the salinity mini-  
348 mum by subtracting hierarchically a simulation with that forcing from another simulation  
349 without it.

350 Adding SAM as a forcing mechanism produces salinity anomalies with a dipole pattern  
351 (Figure 11b), in which there is a salinity increase north of 35°S and mostly a decrease south  
352 of 35°S. Anomalies generated by an NAO-like pattern (Figure 11c) are much reduced with  
353 respect to the SAM or CO<sub>2</sub> forcings, and show mostly negative salinity anomalies within  
354 the subtropical gyre. Forcing due to increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the 2000s produce  
355 a salinity increase in the subtropical South Atlantic, and negative anomalies along the  
356 South Atlantic Current. The CO<sub>2</sub> response is similar but weaker than the response forced  
357 by SAM, although south of 45°S the CO<sub>2</sub> response exhibits an increased salinity on the  
358 northern edge of the ACC.

#### 4. Discussion

359 Many physical processes can cause changes in the South Atlantic variability in partic-  
360 ular, and in the Southern Hemisphere climate in general. These range from greenhouse  
361 gases concentrations in the atmosphere (CO<sub>2</sub>), to the major modes of coupled variability.  
362 These atmospheric patterns can cause non-monotonic interdecadal fluctuations in the  $\theta/S$   
363 relationships at depth, as revealed in previous studies [e.g., *Garabato et al.*, 2009]. SODA  
364 and the climate model experiments performed here show that the largest changes in the

365 salinity minimum are associated with changes in the gyre, and with trends in SAM, which  
366 in turn will impact water mass formation processes through its relationship with the as-  
367 sociated surface winds. NAO variability largely affects Labrador Sea and Greenland Sea  
368 water formation, which in turn affects water properties in the North Atlantic, especially  
369 the North Atlantic Deep Water [*Arbic and Brechner Owens, 2001*]. According to our  
370 results, air-sea climate modes in the North Atlantic do not seem to affect the spread of  
371 the salinity minimum in the South Atlantic. The positive trend in SAM is associated  
372 with cooling at high southern latitudes and strengthening of the latitudinal temperature  
373 gradient, leading to stronger subtropical and westerly winds [*Hall and Visbeck, 2002; Sil-*  
374 *vestri and Vera, 2003; Lefebvre et al., 2004; Sen Gupta and England, 2006; Gillett et al.,*  
375 *2006; Toggweiler et al., 2009; Thompson et al., 2011*]. The reader is referred to *Thompson*  
376 *et al. [2011]* for an extensive review. In addition, *Durgadoo et al. [2013]* show from a hier-  
377 archy of models that an equatorward (poleward) shift in westerlies increases (decreases)  
378 the Agulhas leakage. This occurs because of the redistribution of momentum input by  
379 the winds. It is concluded that the reported present-day leakage increase could therefore  
380 reflect an unadjusted oceanic response mainly to the strengthening westerlies over the last  
381 few decades. *Bindoff and McDougall [1994]* analyze salinity and temperature changes in  
382 isopycnals as pure heating, pure freshening and heave. More recent studies call attention  
383 to the lateral advection of these properties along isopycnals, and therefore, circulation  
384 changes would be a source of salinity changes on isopycnals [*Durack and Wijffels, 2010*].  
385 Here we confirm the role of lateral advection in reducing the low salinity waters from  
386 the Drake Passage due to the Atlantic subtropical gyre expansion, as well as increasing  
387 leakage of salty Agulhas waters at intermediate levels.

## 5. Conclusions

388 By investigating the decadal changes in the minimum salinity layer for the subtropical  
389 South Atlantic we have established the relationship between density changes with large  
390 scale climate trends. Significant trends are observed in SODA since the late 1990s in salin-  
391 ity, temperature and density at intermediate levels. We found a latitudinal dependence  
392 on the contribution of temperature and salinity to density changes that would ultimately  
393 drive the meridional water displacement in the ocean. South of 35°S there is strong com-  
394 pensation between salinity and temperature, which may drive larger trends in those fields  
395 because of the dynamical influence of salinity. North of 35°S, temperature is by far the  
396 largest driver of density changes.

397 In SODA we determined two main dynamic factors for the salinity increase in the South  
398 Atlantic salinity minimum region: i) the expansion and spinup of the subtropical gyre re-  
399 duces the influx of the low salinity waters from the Pacific, which follow a path through  
400 the Drake Passage into the South Atlantic; and ii) the strengthening of the westerlies  
401 forces an increase in the Agulhas leakage, and, therefore, the input of high salinity wa-  
402 ters at intermediate depths into the South Atlantic. Different dynamic mechanisms are  
403 also present at different latitudes which determine the spread of the high salinity waters  
404 from the southeast boundary into the Atlantic. At 30°S, the anomalies generated by the  
405 westerlies in the southeastern Atlantic follow a path defined by the Benguela Current and  
406 the Benguela Current Extension, in which changes in salinity at this latitude are highly  
407 driven by ocean adjustment through a second mode Rossby wave mechanism. This result  
408 is in agreement with previous studies [e.g., *McCarthy et al.*, 2012]. At 35°S, mixing is  
409 the main mechanism to carry anomalies from the east, since propagation times are much

410 larger than what linear wave theory suggests, and the correlation with the eastern source  
411 of anomalies is decreased.

412 The sensitivity studies with the UVic2.9 model indicate that the SAM is the predomi-  
413 nant forcing of salinity changes in the sub-surface South Atlantic when compared to the  
414 NAO and GHG forcing. GHG was shown to represent 50% of the changes due to SAM,  
415 and therefore about 1/3 of the total magnitude of the salinity changes of the AAIW,  
416 although GHG produces most of the temperature changes in the AAIW level.

## Appendix A: The climate model of intermediate complexity

417 In the present work we use the latest version of the University of Victoria Earth System  
418 Model (UVic 2.9). The ocean component of UVic 2.9 [Weaver *et al.*, 2001] is MOM2  
419 [Pacanowski, 1995] with a  $1.8^\circ \times 3.6^\circ$  resolution in the horizontal and 19 depth levels.  
420 Diapycnal diffusivity is parameterized as  $K_v = K_{tidal} + K_{bg}$ , which consists of the mixing  
421 due to local dissipation of tidal energy ( $K_{tidal}$ ) [Laurent *et al.*, 2002; Simmons *et al.*, 2004]  
422 plus a background diffusivity  $K_{bg} = 0.3 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The atmospheric component is a one-  
423 layer atmospheric energy-moisture balance model, which does not apply flux correction  
424 and is forced by prescribed winds from the NCEP/NCAR climatology. Also included in  
425 the model are a thermodynamic sea ice component, a terrestrial vegetation (TRIFFID),  
426 and an oceanic biogeochemistry based on the ecosystem model of [Schmittner, 2005]. The  
427 model is spun up for 3000 years, and then four experiments are performed (Table 1).  
428 First, the CONTROL experiment is a non-transient experiment forced with atmospheric  
429 forcings from the 1800 levels. The second to fourth experiments use, in addition to the  
430 NCEP/NCAR wind stress climatology, wind stress anomalies calculated from the first  
431 empirical mode (EOF1) of sea level pressure (SLP) anomalies in the northern and southern

432 hemispheres (Figure 12). These modes are a good approximation of the North Atlantic  
433 Oscillation (NAO), in which the positive phase is characterized by low SLP anomalies  
434 over Iceland and high SLP anomalies over the Azores, and the Southern Annular Mode  
435 (SAM), which is characterized by low SLP anomalies over Antarctica, respectively. More  
436 specifically, the second experiment uses the SAM EOF forcing only, the third experiment  
437 uses the NAO EOF forcing only, and the fourth experiment uses both the SAM and the  
438 NAO forcings plus historical global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, under which the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>  
439 concentration levels reach 384 ppmV in 2009. The hemispheric SLP modes are calculated  
440 from the *Compo et al.* [2006] dataset and start in the year 1871. When the SLP anomalies  
441 related to the hemispheric modes of variability are added to the model, the associated wind  
442 stress anomalies are calculated using a frictional geostrophic approximation [*Weaver et al.*,  
443 2001]. This wind stress is also converted to wind speed for the calculation of the latent  
444 and sensible heat fluxes from the ocean [*Fanning and Weaver*, 1998]. All experiments are  
445 run from 1800–2008, keeping the other atmospheric forcings (e.g., sulphate and volcanic  
446 aerosols) at the 1800 level.

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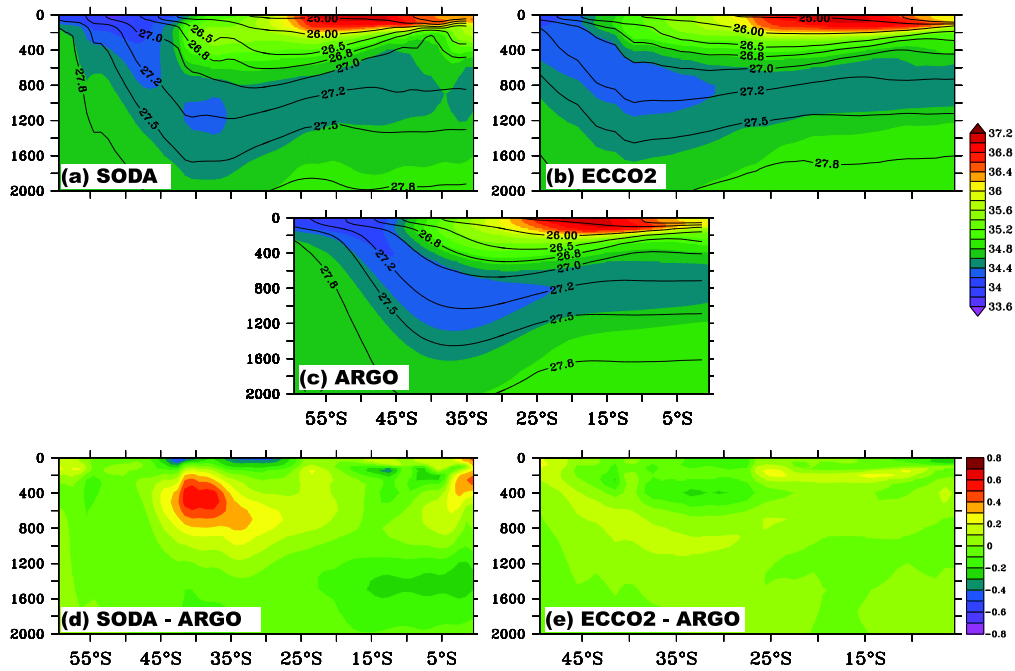
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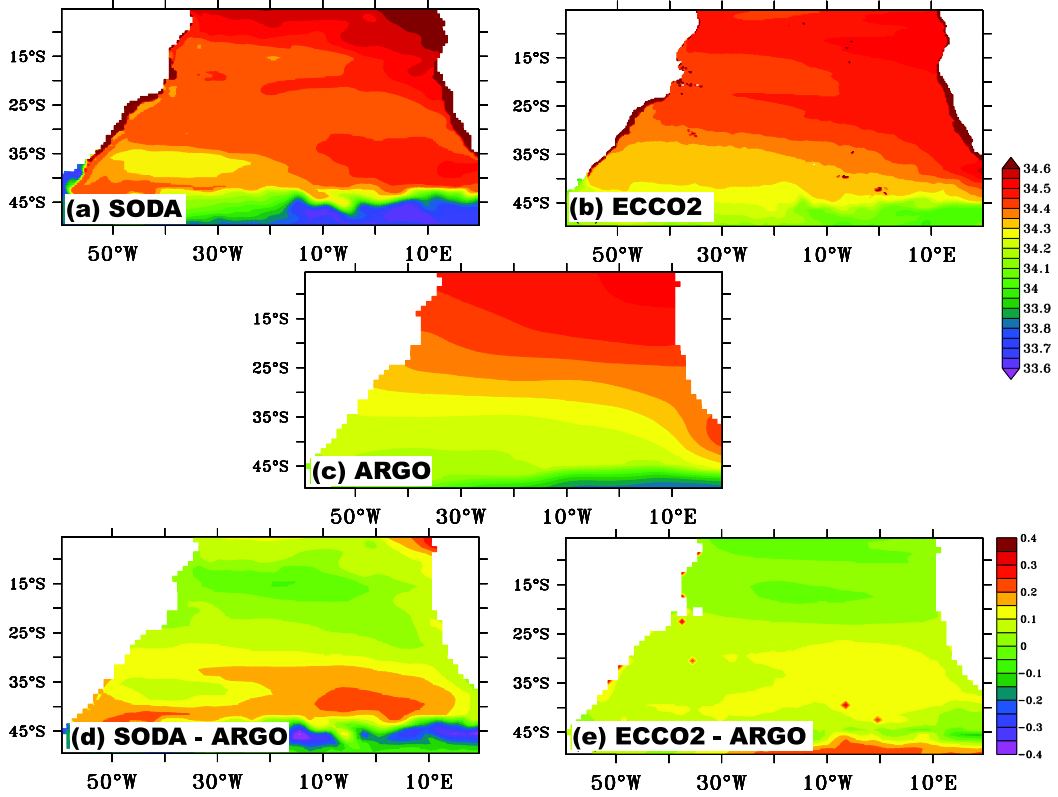
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**Table 1.** Summary of the climate model experiments.

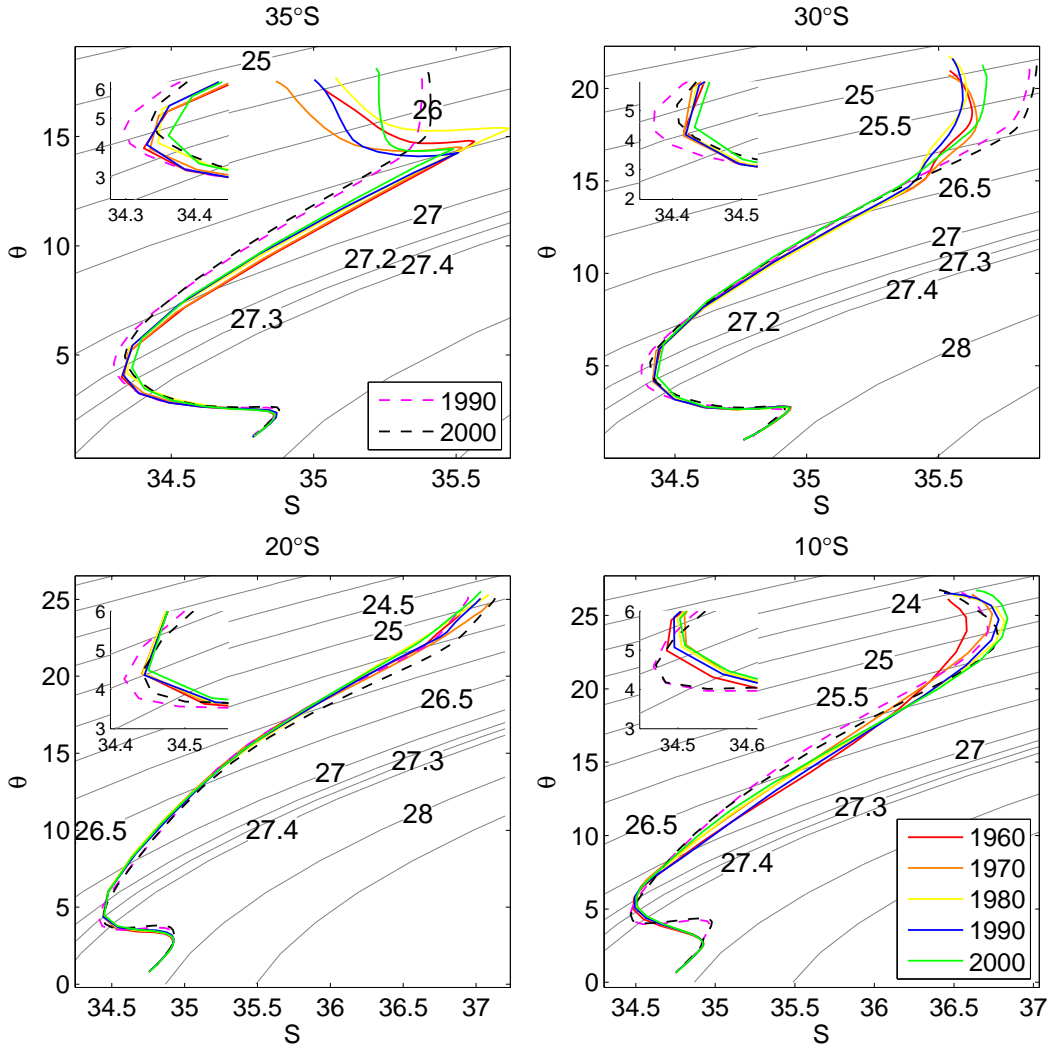
<b>Experiment</b>	<b>Wind Forcing</b>	<b><math>CO_2</math> Forcing</b>
CONTROL	NCEP climatology	1800 level
SAM	NCEP clim plus SAM	1800 level
SAM + NAO	NCEP clim plus SAM plus NAO	1800 level
SAM + NAO + $CO_2$	NCEP clim plus SAM plus NAO	Transient to 384 ppmV in 2009



**Figure 1.** Meridional section of the climatological average (after 2004) of salinity at  $25^{\circ}\text{W}$  in the South Atlantic. Depth is in meters. Relevant potential density surfaces ( $\sigma_{\theta}$  in  $\text{Kg}/\text{m}^3$ ) are overlaid. Panel a) is for SODA, b) for ECCO2, c) for Argo climatology [Roemmich and Gilson, 2009], d) SODA - Argo and e) ECCO2 - Argo.



**Figure 2.** Maps of the climatological average (after 2004) of the salinity minimum surface in the South Atlantic. Panel a) is for SODA, b) for ECCO2, c) for Argo climatology [Roemmich and Gilson, 2009], d) SODA - Argo and e) ECCO2 - Argo.



**Figure 3.**  $\Theta/S$  diagram for the South Atlantic Ocean at  $25^\circ\text{W}$  for a)  $35^\circ\text{S}$ , b)  $30^\circ\text{S}$ , c)  $20^\circ\text{S}$  and d)  $10^\circ\text{S}$ . Solid colored lines represent SODA's decadal averages for the 1960s (red), 1970s (orange), 1980s (yellow), 1990s (green) and 2000s (blue). Dashed colored lines represent ECCO2's decadal averages for 1990s (magenta) and 2000s (black).



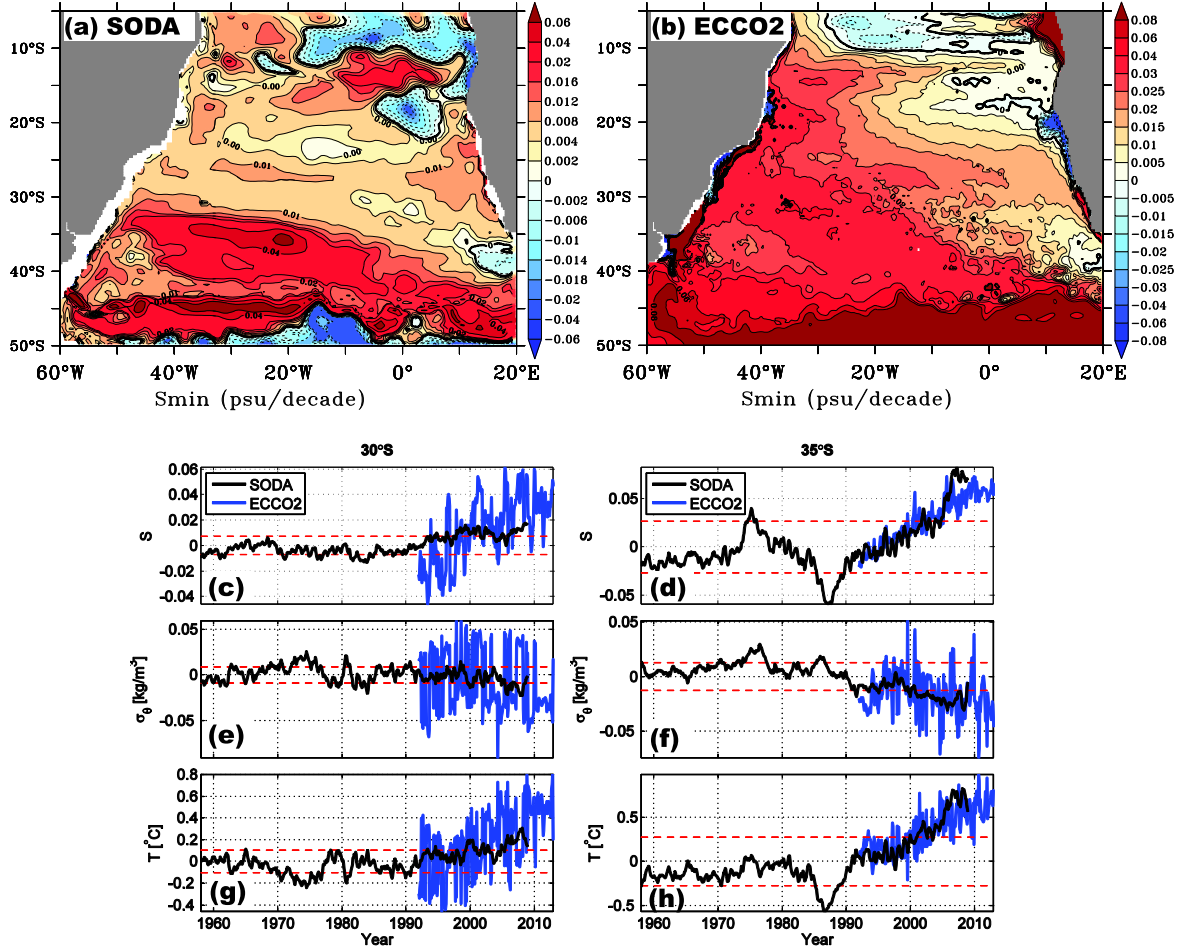
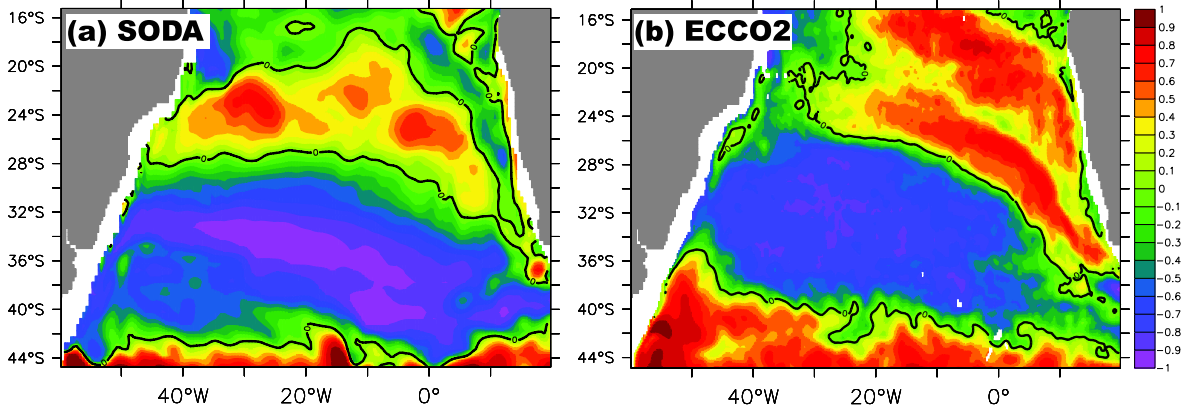
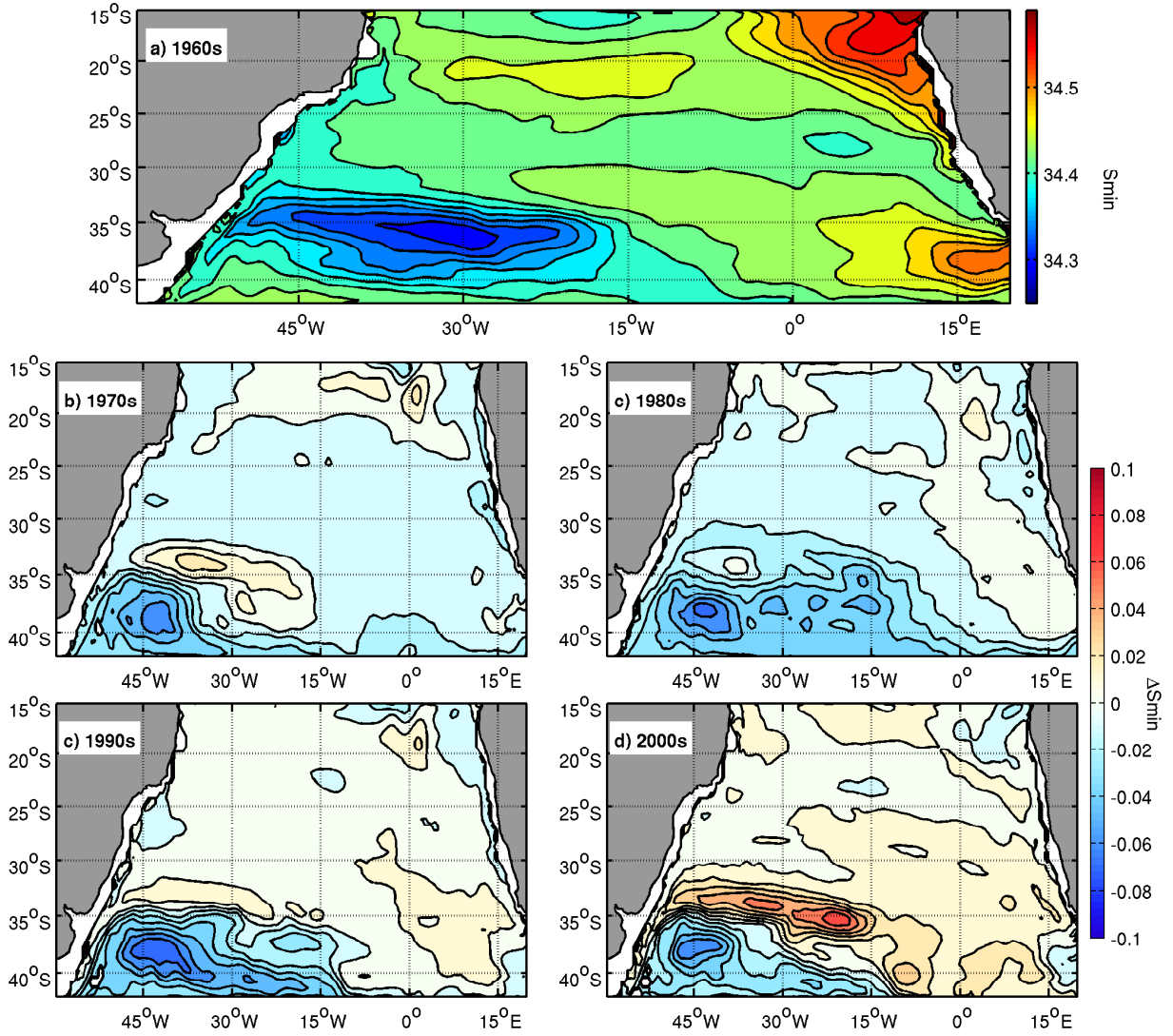


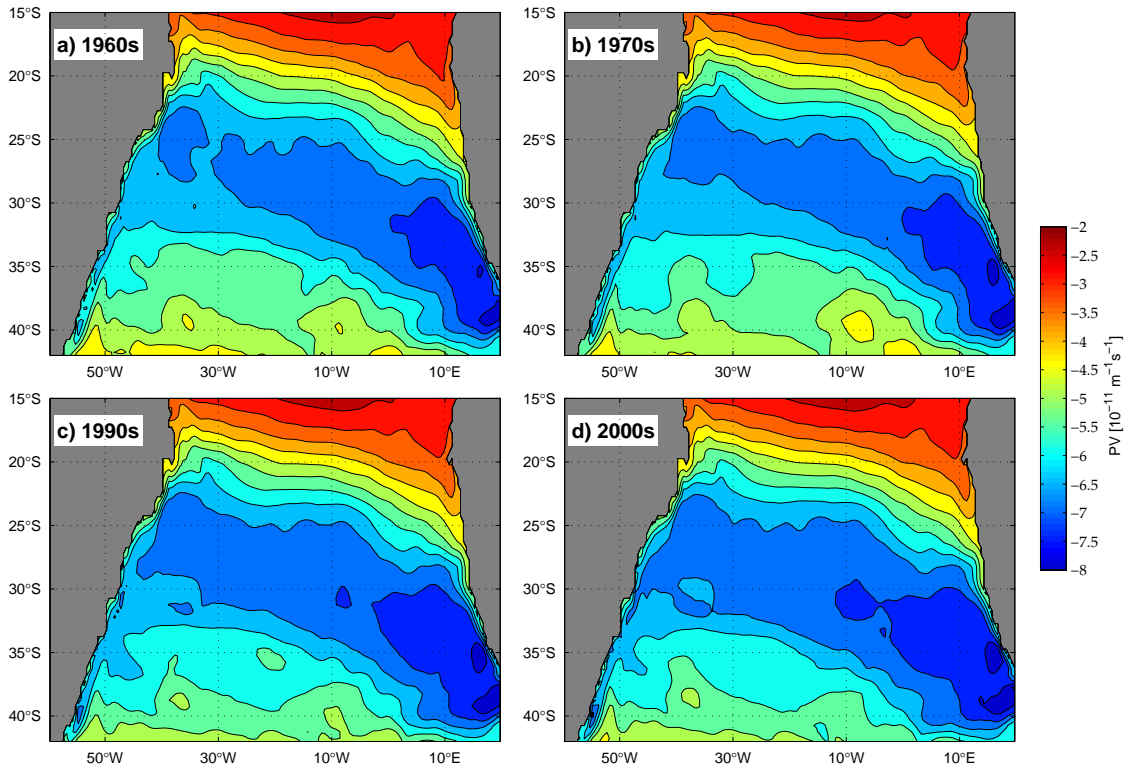
Figure 4. Salinity minimum trend between 1990's and 2000's (psu/decade) for (a) SODA and (b) ECCO2. Panels (c-h) are the time series of the salinity (c, d), sigma density (e,f), and temperature (g,h) anomalies with respect to SODA's 1960-2008 period at the location of the salinity minimum. Timeseries on the left column are for 25°W/30°S and on the right column for 25°W/35°S. Black timeseries is for SODA and blue is for ECCO2. The red dashed lines represent SODA's the three standard deviation levels relative to each parameter.



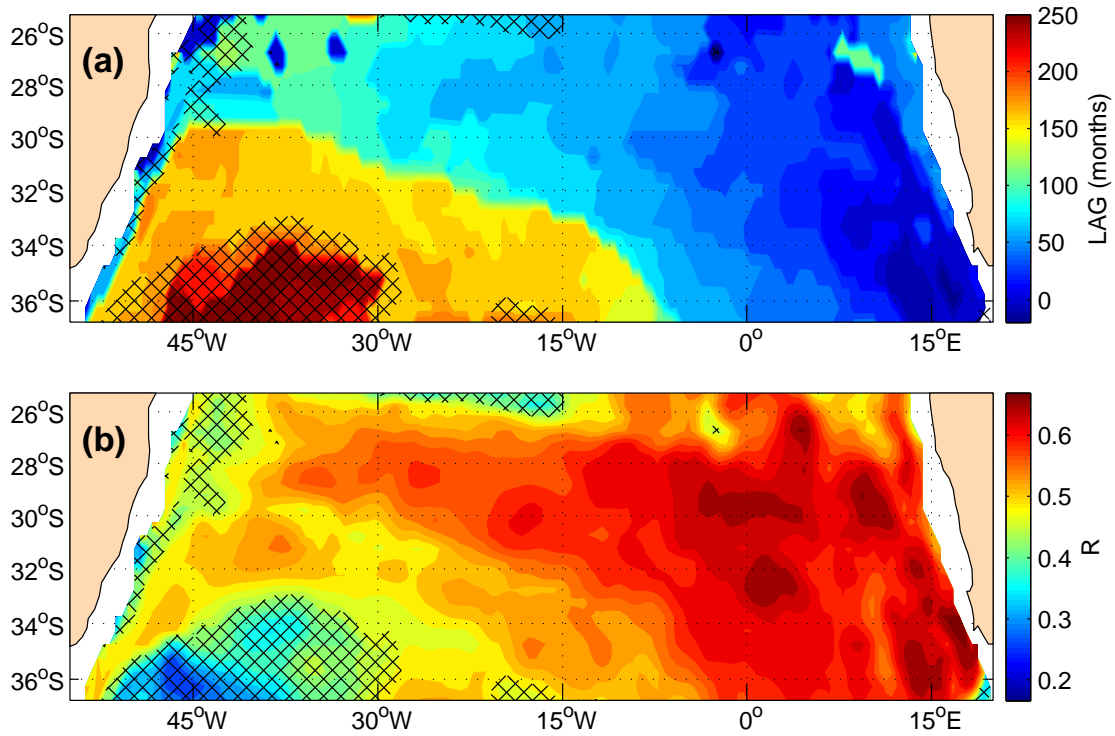
**Figure 5.** Correlation between the components of the sigma density, i.e., thermopycnal and halopycnal components, at approximately 1100 m depth for (a) SODA and (b) ECCO2. The components of sigma are calculated by keeping the other component as the climatological value.



**Figure 6.** Salinity minimum within the layer defined by the  $\gamma_n = 27.1$  and  $\gamma_n = 27.6$  neutral surfaces for a) 1960s, b) 1970s, c) 1990s and d) 2000s.



**Figure 7.** Ertel's potential vorticity calculated within the layer defined by the  $\gamma = 27.1$  and  $\gamma = 27.6$  neutral surfaces for a) 1960s, b) 1970s, c) 1990s and d) 2000s.



**Figure 8.** Maximum lagged correlation between the salinity at  $\sigma_\theta = 27.2$  and a westerly wind strength index in the southeastern Atlantic, defined by the  $\tau_x$  averaged between 35°S–65°S/0°E–20°E. (a) is the lag of the maximum correlation (months) and (b) is the maximum correlation. The crossed areas are where correlation values of the pre-whitened timeseries are not statistically significant.

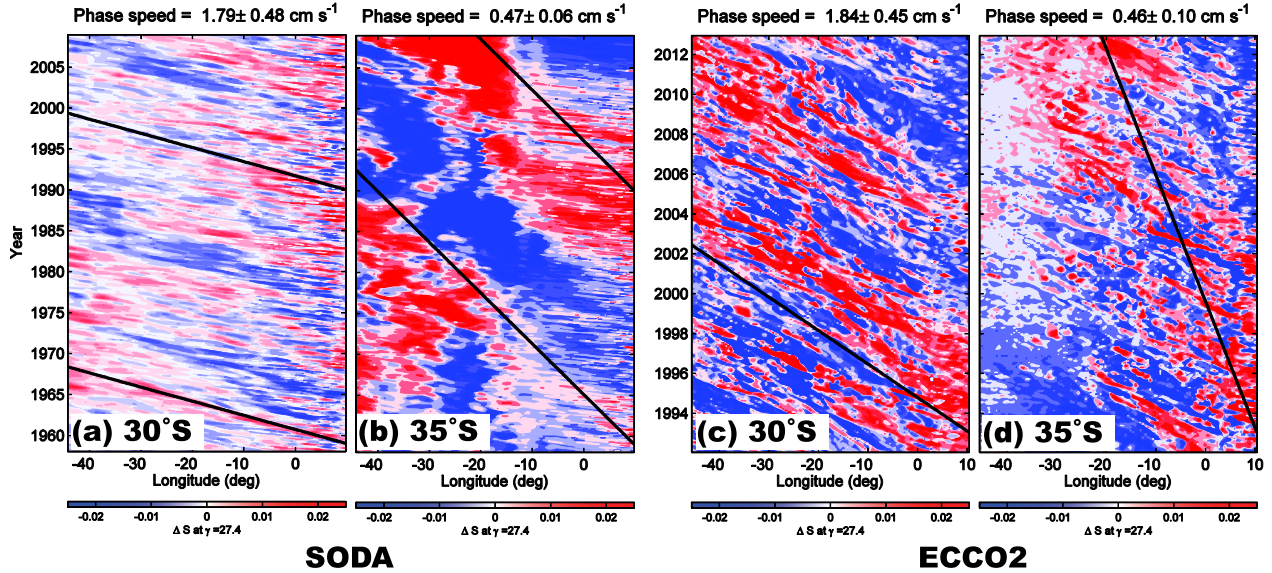
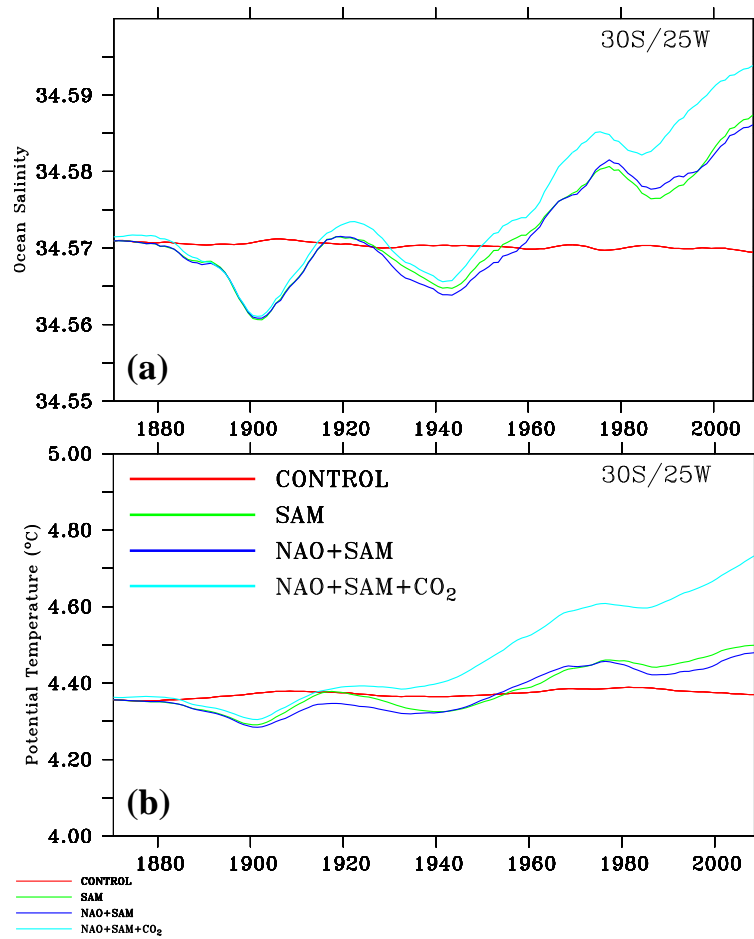
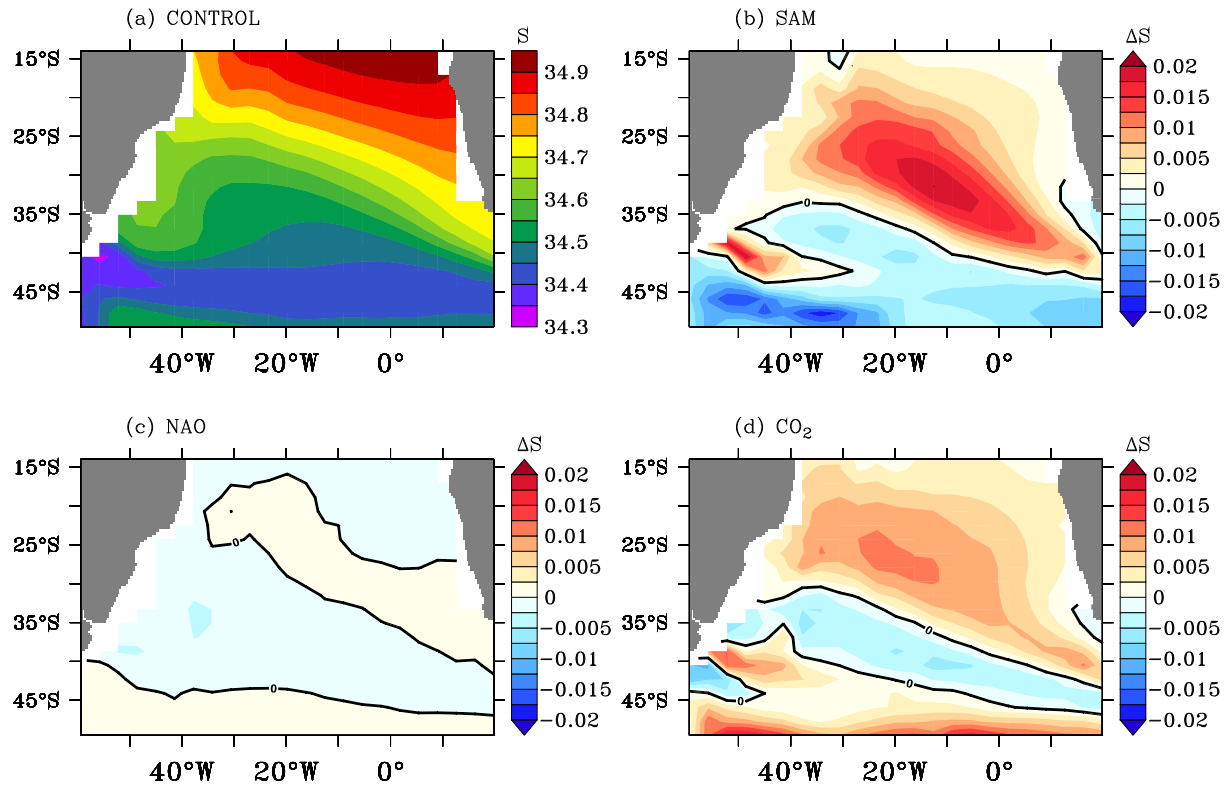


Figure 9. Time x Longitude diagram for the salinity anomalies projected onto the neutral density surface  $\gamma_n = 27.4$ , that defines the region of minimum salinity in the subtropical Atlantic at (a,c)  $30^\circ\text{S}$  and (b,d)  $35^\circ\text{S}$ . Panels (a,b) are for SODA and (c,d) are for ECCO2. Following *Barron et al. [2009]*, the zonal average of the salinity anomalies is subtracted from the diagrams to highlight the propagating features. The phase speed calculated from the method of *Barron et al. [2009]* is shown on the top of each panel and its displacement is shown as a black line overlaid on the contours.

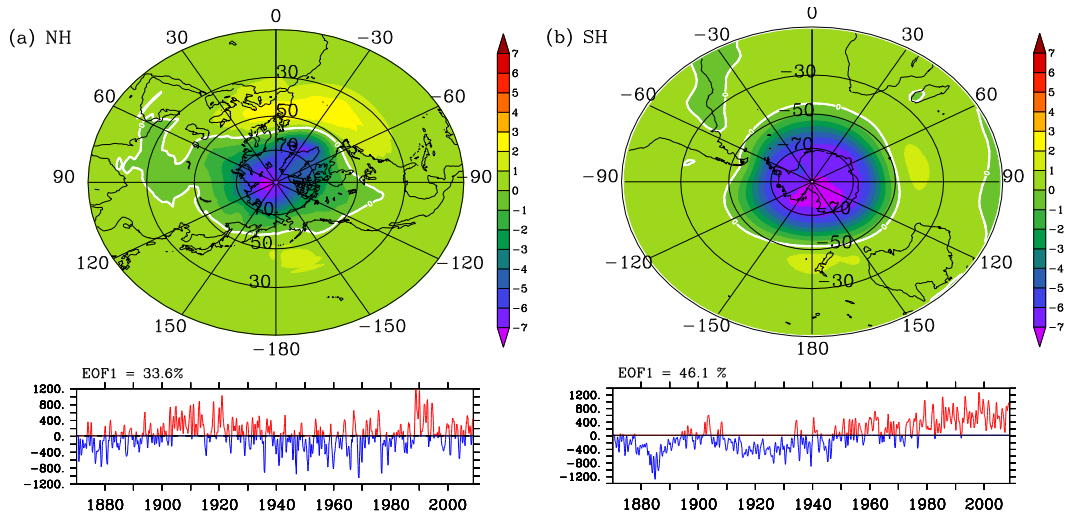


**Figure 10.** Time series of (a) salinity and (b) potential temperature **at the salinity minimum depth at 30°S/25°W from the UVIC model experiments.** The colored lines are for the CONTROL (red), SAM only (green), SAM plus NAO (dark blue), and NAO plus SAM plus CO<sub>2</sub> (cyan) experiments.



**Figure 11.** (a) South Atlantic salinity minimum in the Uvic CONTROL experiment averaged between 2000–2009. (b–d) Average (2000–2009) salinity minimum differences among the experiments, in which each panel shows how adding one forcing changes the salinity in comparison to the experiment without that forcing, for (b) SAM, (c) NAO, and (d)  $CO_2$ .





**Figure 12.** First EOF of the hemispheric sea level pressure used to force the atmospheric model in UVic for the (a) Northern Hemisphere and (b) Southern Hemisphere.