

1           **Variability of the Atlantic off-equatorial eastward**  
2           **currents during 1993-2010 using a synthetic method**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25

26         We have developed, validated, and applied a synthetic method to monitor the off-  
27 equatorial eastward currents in the central tropical Atlantic. This method combines high-density  
28 expendable bathythermograph (XBT) temperature data along the AX08 transect with altimetric  
29 sea level anomalies (SLAs) to estimate dynamic height fields from which the mean properties of  
30 the North Equatorial Countercurrent (NECC), the North Equatorial Undercurrent (NEUC) and  
31 the South Equatorial Undercurrent (SEUC), and their variability can be estimated on seasonal to  
32 interannual timescales. On seasonal to interannual timescales, the synthetic method is well suited  
33 for reconstructions of the NECC variability, reproduces the variability of the NEUC with  
34 considerable skill, and less efficiently describes variations of the SEUC, which is located in a  
35 region of low SLA variability. A positive correlation is found between interannual variations of  
36 the NECC transport and two indices based on an interhemispheric sea surface temperature (SST)  
37 gradient and southeasterly wind stress in the central tropical Atlantic. The NEUC is correlated on  
38 interannual timescales with SSTs and meridional wind stress in the Gulf of Guinea and zonal  
39 equatorial wind stress. This study shows that both altimetry and XBT data can be effectively  
40 combined for near-real-time inference of the dynamic and thermodynamic properties of the  
41 tropical Atlantic current system.

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43

## 44 **1. Introduction**

45           The upper-ocean zonal current system in the tropical Atlantic is of great importance for  
46 both interhemispheric and west-to-east exchange of heat, salt and nutrients [e.g., Foltz et al.,  
47 2003; Kirchner et al., 2009; Brandt et al., 2008]. This system also impacts the climate and  
48 weather in the surrounding continental areas [e.g., Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Brandt et al., 2011]  
49 since upper-ocean dynamics play an important role in the dominant modes of coupled ocean-  
50 atmosphere variability in this region [e.g., Chang et al., 2006, and references therein]. In the  
51 western equatorial Atlantic, the northward flowing North Brazil (Under)Current retroflects  
52 eastward, shedding eddies northward along the western boundary [Goni and Johns, 2001], and  
53 feeding into the tropical Atlantic zonal current system, namely the Equatorial Undercurrent  
54 (EUC) along the equator, and three off-equatorial currents, the North Equatorial Countercurrent  
55 (NECC), the North Equatorial Undercurrent (NEUC), and to a lesser extent the South Equatorial  
56 Undercurrent (SEUC) [e.g., Metcalf and Stalcup, 1967; Cochrane et al., 1979; Peterson and  
57 Stramma, 1991; Schott et al., 1995, 2003; Bourlès et al., 1999; Goes et al., 2005]. These  
58 eastward equatorial currents connect the western boundary regime to the interior circulation  
59 [e.g., Frantantoni et al., 2000; Hazeleger et al., 2003], and provide water for the eastern  
60 upwelling regimes [e.g., Hisard and Henin, 1987; Hua et al., 2003; Marin et al., 2003; Zhang et  
61 al., 2003; Schott et al., 2004; Doi et al., 2007; Stramma et al., 2008].

62           To date, our knowledge about the eastward current system in the equatorial Atlantic  
63 arises from numerical models as well as *in situ* and satellite observations, which have either  
64 limited spatial or temporal coverage. Although the seasonal to interannual variations of the  
65 NECC and EUC have been studied extensively [e.g., Richardson and Reverdin, 1987; Garzoli  
66 and Richardson, 1989; Goes and Wainer, 2003; Fonseca et al., 2004; Arhan et al., 2006;

67 Hormann and Brandt, 2007; Brandt et al., 2008; Kolodziejczyk et al., 2009; Hormann et al.,  
68 2012], the low-frequency variability of the off-equatorial undercurrents, the SEUC and the  
69 NEUC, is less well known [Schott et al. 2003; Fischer et al., 2008; Hüttl-Kabus and Böning,  
70 2008]. Upper-ocean currents in the equatorial Atlantic are modified by wind forcing [e.g.,  
71 Philander and Packanowski, 1986; Katz 1987; Yang and Joyce, 2006] and oceanic mesoscale  
72 phenomena, such as tropical instability waves (TIWs) [e.g., Düing et al., 1975; Weisberg and  
73 Weingartner, 1988; Menkes et al., 2002; Grodsky et al., 2005; Athié et al., 2009] that can alias  
74 estimates of the seasonal to interannual variability obtained from observational systems that are  
75 not continuous in time. Indeed, the NEUC and SEUC are relatively weak and diffusive currents,  
76 and as such they are more susceptible to aliasing from TIWs when not enough observations have  
77 been carried out [Schott et al., 2003; Jochum and Malanotte-Rizzoli, 2004; Fischer et al., 2008].  
78 Because of the enhanced TIW activity in the northern hemisphere [e.g., Foltz et al., 2004; Athié  
79 and Marin, 2008], the seasonal overlap between the NEUC and the EUC in the western part of  
80 the basin [e.g., Bourlès et al., 1999; Schott et al., 2003; Goes et al., 2005] and the NEUC and  
81 NECC in the central part of the basin [e.g., Stramma and England, 1999; Stramma et al., 2005;  
82 Brandt et al., 2010], more analysis and study of the NEUC, in particular, is needed.

83         An existing observational system that can potentially resolve the short spatial and  
84 temporal scales, and allow for quantification of the seasonal to interannual variability of the  
85 eastward currents is satellite altimetry. Since upper-ocean currents with weak sea level height  
86 (SLH) signatures cannot be resolved from surface topography fields alone [Goni and Baringer,  
87 2002], an empirical relationship between certain current features and their SLH characteristics  
88 can sometimes be constructed using a synthetic method to overcome this sampling challenge.  
89 This can be achieved by combining altimetry data with those from other observational platforms,

90 such as high-resolution hydrographic data. Several past studies have combined altimetric and  
91 hydrographic observations obtained from eXpendable BathyThermographs (XBTs),  
92 conductivity-temperature-depth (CTD) measurements, or Argo float profiles to infer properties  
93 of the upper ocean, such as velocity, temperature, and salinity as well as volume, heat, and salt  
94 transports, mostly in the Pacific and Atlantic oceans at higher latitudes [e.g., Goni et al., 1996;  
95 Gilson et al., 1998; Phillips and Rintoul, 2002; Rintoul et al., 2002; Ridgway et al., 2008;  
96 Gourcuff et al., 2011]. Although a few studies have attempted to apply synthetic methods to the  
97 tropical Atlantic [Carton and Katz, 1990; Arnault et al., 1999, 2011], a thorough analysis of their  
98 utility for monitoring upper-ocean currents in the tropical Atlantic has yet to be performed.

99         The goals of this study are to quantify the variability of the surface and subsurface  
100 Atlantic off-equatorial eastward currents in terms of their volume transport, velocity, and  
101 location on seasonal timescales, and to explore how interannual changes in their transport relate  
102 to the tropical Atlantic climate modes. To accomplish these goals, we consider a monitoring  
103 system that relies upon data from the cross-equatorial high-density XBT transect AX08 during  
104 2000-2010, and from satellite altimetry observations to generate synthetic time series from which  
105 the variability of the eastward currents in the equatorial Atlantic can be analyzed during the  
106 1993-2010 altimetric period. The high-density XBT project has been active for over 20 years,  
107 and aims at sustainably measuring physical properties of the upper ocean with mesoscale  
108 resolution. Its high spatial resolution and repeated sampling of the region enable assessment of  
109 upper-ocean temperature, heat storage and transport variability, and permit analysis of the  
110 variability of major geostrophic currents. The datasets used in this study are described in section  
111 2. In sections 3 and 4, the methodology applied to blend altimetry and XBT data is explained and  
112 validated for the NECC, NEUC, and SEUC, respectively. The ability of these observations to

113 capture their seasonal variability is examined in section 4. The interannual variability of the off-  
114 equatorial eastward currents that are well resolved by this synthetic method, namely the NECC  
115 and NEUC, is also examined in section 4, and linked to tropical Atlantic coupled climate modes.  
116 Discussion, conclusions, and recommendations for future improvements of the methodology are  
117 provided in section 5.

118

## 119 **2. Data**

120 A description of each of the datasets used in this study to quantify the variability of the  
121 Atlantic off-equatorial eastward currents is given below.

122

### 123 a) Hydrographic data

124 The temperature data used in this study correspond to 39 realizations of the AX08 XBT  
125 transect, which is carried out between Cape Town and New York City and crosses the equator at  
126 about 23°W (Figure 1a). The first section was obtained in December 2000, and an average of  
127 four realizations per year has been achieved since 2002. Approximately 200-300 XBTs are  
128 deployed during each AX08 transect, with an average spacing of 25 km between casts in the  
129 tropics, between 20°S-20°N. Sippican Deep Blue XBT probes are used, which have a nominal  
130 depth range of 760 m, but typically reach depths of 850 m for standard ship velocities [Hanawa  
131 et al., 1994]. XBT measurements are performed by sampling temperature and the elapsed time of  
132 descent of the XBT probes. The time of descent ( $t$  in seconds) is converted to depth ( $z$  in meters)  
133 using the standard manufacturer's fall rate equation (FRE), that is  $z = 6.472 t - 0.00216 t^2$ .

134 In order to study the variability of the off-equatorial eastward currents, we restrict the  
135 observations to a region with similar dynamical characteristics. We define a criterion that selects

136 the sections whose mean longitude between 10°S-10°N lies within one standard deviation of the  
137 median value of all sections (Figure 1b). To calculate the median and standard deviation of the  
138 position of all sections we apply a bootstrap method [Johnson, 2001]. The median longitude of  
139 the AX08 transect, which is about 40° oblique with respect to a true meridional section, is  
140 approximately 23°W (Figure 1a). Additionally, we exclude the September 2004 section from the  
141 analysis because its derived surface dynamic height shows a spatial mean bias relative to the  
142 other AX08 sections. The applied constraints reduce the number of transects from 39 to 31  
143 (Figure 1c), but assure that we are working with comparable data.

144 For these 31 sections, individual temperature profiles are linearly interpolated onto a 2 m  
145 vertical grid. The data are quality controlled by excluding outlier profiles, or profiles whose both  
146 forward and backward horizontal gradients of the surface dynamic height lie outside the three-  
147 standard-deviation range of all profiles. Next, the sections are horizontally interpolated to a  
148 uniform 0.2° latitude grid, which matches the nominal resolution of the AX08 transect in the  
149 tropics. To achieve this, we use an optimal interpolation scheme based on a Gaussian correlation  
150 function with a decorrelation length scale of 1.25° and a low noise-to-signal ratio of 0.05, similar  
151 to Brandt et al. [2010], which is a trade-off between smoothing data noise and preserving the  
152 spatial scales of the equatorial currents. Salinity is derived from the XBT temperature profiles  
153 [Thacker 2007a, b] using climatological temperature-salinity (T-S) relationships extracted from  
154 the 2009 World Ocean Atlas (WOA09, Locarnini et al. [2010]), and gridded at latitude, longitude  
155 and depth locations. Specific errors are associated with XBT measurements due to temperature  
156 precision and depth estimation in the tropical Atlantic [e.g., Reverdin et al., 2009], and salinity  
157 inference from climatological T-S relationships [e.g., Goni and Baringer, 2002]. A discussion of

158 the uncertainties associated with XBT measurements, including the oblique orientation of the  
159 AX08 transect, is provided in the Appendix.

160

161 b) Altimetric data

162 Here we use the Archiving, Validation and Interpretation of Satellite Oceanographic data  
163 (AVISO) reference (“ref”) delayed mode product (<http://www.aviso.oceanobs.com>), which  
164 blends data from two satellites out of a variable constellation of satellites [Le Traon et al., 1998],  
165 and provides homogeneous, gridded, optimally interpolated, and cross-calibrated global coverage  
166 of sea level anomalies (SLAs) relative to the 1993-1999 mean. The SLA delayed mode data are  
167 continuously available on a  $1/3^\circ$  horizontal grid with daily temporal resolution since October  
168 1992 and precision of 2 cm [Cheney et al., 1994; Ducet et al., 2000]. In this study, we use data  
169 from October 1992 to December 2010, subtract the 2000-2010 mean SLA field for consistency  
170 with the zero-mean anomalies of dynamic height in the XBT dataset for this period, similar to  
171 Ridgway et al. [2008], and detrend by subtracting the 2-year moving average time series of the  
172 tropical Atlantic SLA basin average to be able to obtain static linear relationships with the XBT  
173 dynamic height. We further interpolate the SLAs linearly onto the location and time of the  
174 individual XBT sections to estimate regression parameters for the synthetic method (section 3),  
175 and onto the mean AX08 transect to produce a hindcast of the currents for the 1993-2010  
176 altimetric period.

177

178 c) Reference dynamic height

179 We use referenced dynamic heights from the monthly climatology of the International  
180 Pacific Research Center (IPRC) (<http://apdrc.soest.hawaii.edu>). This dataset is available on a  $1^\circ$

181 x 1° horizontal grid at 27 depth levels and is derived from Argo floats and altimetry  
182 observations, with the mean sea level referred to the mean dynamic topography MDT\_CNES-  
183 CLS09 [Rio et al., 2011]. We use the IPRC dynamic height ( $DH_{IPRC}$ ) at 800 m depth,  
184 interpolated horizontally onto the regularized XBT grid.

185

186 d) Sea surface temperature and pseudo-wind stress

187 To explore how interannual changes in the transport of the off-equatorial eastward  
188 currents relate to the tropical Atlantic climate modes, we use gridded sea surface temperature  
189 (SST) and pseudo-wind stress data. SSTs are extracted from the NOAA optimum interpolation  
190 (OISST-v2) analysis [Reynolds et al., 2007], which is available daily on a 1/4° horizontal grid  
191 since November 1981.

192 The pseudo-wind stress data are obtained from the cross-calibrated, multi-platform  
193 (CCMP), multi-instrument ocean surface wind velocity dataset. This product combines data  
194 derived from multiple satellites using a variational analysis method to produce a consistent  
195 record of ocean surface vector winds at 25 km horizontal resolution and is available since July  
196 1987 every five days [Atlas et al., 2011]. For our purposes, both datasets are interpolated to 7-  
197 day increments, and mapped onto a 1/4° x 1/4° Mercator grid.

198

### 199 **3. Methodology**

200 a) *Velocity calculation*

201 We calculate the cross-sectional absolute geostrophic currents from horizontal gradients  
202 of absolute dynamic height (DH) using the thermal wind relationship. The XBT-derived dynamic  
203 height ( $DH_{XBT}$ ) is computed using XBT temperature and depth information, and salinity inferred

204 from climatological T-S relationships (section 2a). To obtain DH for each XBT profile, we  
205 reference  $DH_{XBT}$  to the IPRC monthly climatology of absolute dynamic height ( $DH_{IPRC}$ ) at 800  
206 m:

$$207 \quad DH(z) = DH_{XBT}(z) + DH_{IPRC}(800m) \quad (1)$$

208 Although the inclusion of  $DH_{IPRC}$  does alter the mean DH significantly, the DH horizontal  
209 gradients are not greatly affected ( $O(10^{-7})$  cm/km change) by this referencing. Geostrophy has an  
210 inflection point at the equator, thus requiring the use of the equatorial beta-plane approximation  
211 for velocity calculation near the equator, which relies on the computation of higher order DH  
212 derivatives. Here, we apply the method of Lagerloef et al. [1999], which uses a 3<sup>rd</sup> order  
213 polynomial fit for the estimation of geostrophic velocities within  $\pm 3^\circ$  of the equator. Due to the  
214 large uncertainty resulting from this method, we do not focus on the EUC in the present study.

215

#### 216 b) *Synthetic method*

217 Altimetry and XBT data are here combined to provide a broader four-dimensional (i.e.,  
218 spatial and temporal) coverage of the equatorial eastward currents in the tropical Atlantic.  
219 Several studies have combined altimetric and hydrographic observations to infer properties of the  
220 upper ocean [e.g., Carnes et al., 1994; Goni et al., 1996; Gilson et al., 1998; Arnault and  
221 Kestenare, 2004; Phillips and Rintoul, 2002; Ridgway and Dunn, 2010], using the vertical  
222 coherence of the ocean as a basis for deriving such relationships. The skill of these synthetic  
223 methodologies varies among different regions of the ocean [Guinehut et al., 2006], since  
224 altimetry captures both steric and non-steric components, and in some regions the non-steric  
225 contributions such as the barotropic component can account for more than 50% of the total sea  
226 level variability [Shriver and Hurlburt, 2000]. More recently developed synthetic methodologies

227 use, for example, bottom pressure information to subtract the non-steric component of the SLH,  
 228 which is widely used in assimilation models [e.g., Shriver and Hurlburt, 2000; Barron et al.,  
 229 2007], empirical orthogonal functions to build depth-dependent relationships throughout the  
 230 water column [Fox et al., 2002], and a combination of altimetry, *in situ* and gravimetric data  
 231 (e.g., GRACE) to study the sea level variability [Willis et al., 2008; Leuliette and Miller, 2009].

232 In this study, we apply a synthetic method to produce a hindcast of along-track DH and  
 233 potential density ( $\sigma_\theta$ ), as well as across-track velocity for the mean AX08 transect position (red  
 234 line in Figure 1a). Since we are interested in velocity distributions along isopycnal layers, we  
 235 seek as predictands  $\sigma_\theta$  and DH from the surface down to 800 m, and use altimetric SLA data as  
 236 predictors. Our methodology is based on a simple linear regression, which is the most  
 237 parsimonious choice for this type of analysis, and consists of two steps:

238 Step 1: Data from the 31 selected XBT sections are used to build linear relationships  
 239 between the surface dynamic height ( $DH_0$ ) and the two predictands, which are defined at each  
 240 depth ( $z$ ) and latitude ( $y$ ):

$$241 \quad \begin{aligned} DH^{anom}(z, y) &= DH_0^{anom}(y) \alpha_1(z, y) + \beta_1(z, y) \\ \sigma_\theta^{anom}(z, y) &= DH_0^{anom}(y) \alpha_2(z, y) + \beta_2(z, y) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

242 where anomalies (superscript “anom”) are calculated with respect to the monthly climatological  
 243 field, and the parameters  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  ( $i = 1, 2$ ) correspond to the slopes and intercepts of the  
 244 regression, respectively. The  $\sigma_\theta$  and DH climatological fields are derived from the WOA09  
 245 monthly climatology. Consistent with the absolute DH estimated from the XBT data, we also  
 246 apply the IPRC climatology ( $DH_{IPRC}$ ) as the reference for  $DH^{clim}$  at 800 m. The skill of this  
 247 method to monitor the variability of the predictands  $DH^{anom}$  and  $\sigma_\theta^{anom}$  is demonstrated by the  
 248 temporal correlation between  $DH_0^{anom}$  and the predictands at each depth and latitude (Figure 2).  
 249 As expected, correlations are predominantly positive for  $DH^{anom}$  and negative for  $\sigma_\theta^{anom}$  since

250 dynamic height is calculated from specific volume anomalies, which are inversely related to  
251 density [Pond and Pickard, 1983]. Apart from their sign, both fields show similar relationships,  
252 with highest correlations in the upper 200 m of the water column, and decreasing correlation  
253 values with depth. At certain latitudes, such as in the vicinity of 5°N, high correlations ( $R \approx 0.8$ )  
254 can extend from the surface down to 800 m depth.

255 Step 2: Finally,  $DH_0$  is linearly regressed onto SLA, forming the link between the  
256 altimetric and hydrographic observations:

$$257 \quad DH'_0 = DH_0 - \overline{DH_0} = SLA\phi_1 + \phi_2, \quad (3)$$

258 where  $DH'_0$  is the deviation from the mean of all sections, denoted by  $\overline{DH_0}$ , such that  $DH'_0$  and  
259 SLA have approximately zero mean during the AX08 period, and  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  correspond to the  
260 respective slope and intercept of the regression.  $DH'_0$  and SLA are well correlated ( $R = 0.89$ ),  
261 with a root-mean-square error of  $RMSE = 2.07$  cm and a negligible intercept or bias (Figure 3d).  
262 This strong relationship between the two variables indicates that the SLA captures well the  
263 baroclinic structures in the region, especially the first mode [Gilson et al., 1998; McCarthy et al.,  
264 2000; Guinehut et al., 2006]. The highest SLA variance occurs between 3°-8°N (Figure 3a),  
265 coincident with the largest horizontal SLA gradients which are closely related to the strength of  
266 the NECC [e.g., Arnault et al., 2011]. Less variability is observed south of the equator, which  
267 may be due to compensating effects in the water column [Mayer et al., 2001].

268

#### 269 **4. Results**

270 The temperature, salinity and zonal geostrophic velocity estimated along the AX08  
271 sections are represented during all seasons in the central tropical Atlantic (Figure 4). The  
272 seasonal-mean temperature distributions in this region (Figure 4a-d) are characterized by a warm

273 (generally above 25°C) and well-mixed surface layer, where the Tropical Surface Water (TSW)  
274 is located in the upper 50 to 80 m, or above  $\sigma_\theta = 24.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ . Underneath the surface layer there  
275 is a sharp vertical temperature gradient of approximately 0.1°C/m near 100 m depth that marks  
276 the upper thermocline. Strong seasonal variations are observed in the upper 200 m of the water  
277 column, driven by the asymmetric hemispheric insolation. The corresponding salinity  
278 distributions (Figure 4e-h) are characterized by high salinity values (> 36.5 psu) to the north and  
279 south of the displayed domain above the thermocline, characteristic of the Subtropical  
280 Underwater (SUW). These high salinity waters are formed in the subtropics and advected  
281 equatorward by the North and South Equatorial Currents. Underneath the SUW is the central  
282 water (CW), characterized by a nearly straight line in the T-S space [e.g., Stramma and England,  
283 1999]. The Upper Central Water (UCW) is located above  $\sigma_\theta = 26.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  [Kirchner et al.,  
284 2009], and forms the thermostat between 12-15°C found in the equatorial region [e.g., Reverdin  
285 et al., 1991], at the depths of the NEUC and SEUC [e.g., Cochrane et al., 1979; Schott et al.,  
286 1995, 1998].

287

#### 288 4.1 Identification of the eastward current bands

289 The seasonal structure of the geostrophic zonal currents in the AX08 data is shown in  
290 Figure 4i-l. North of the equatorial band, the seasonal mean NECC appears at the surface  
291 distributed in several narrow eastward flowing cores, which suggests that their seasonal means  
292 may be aliased by mesoscale phenomena (e.g., by eddies and TIWs) given the limited number of  
293 available samples for each season. Despite this, a broader and well-defined NECC core is  
294 observed in boreal winter, summer and fall (Figure 4i, k, l), when  $DH_0$  gradients are larger north  
295 of 5°N. A double NECC core structure develops during boreal fall between 5°N and 10°N

296 (Figure 4l), consistent with previous studies [e.g., Didden and Schott, 1992; Urbano et al., 2006].  
297 During late boreal spring,  $DH_0$  is nearly flat between 10°S-10°N (Figure 4b, top panel), yielding  
298 smaller seasonal mean surface geostrophic velocities (Figure 4j).

299 The results obtained here indicate that during some seasons there is a latitudinal overlap  
300 between the surface NECC and the eastward flow in the thermocline layer, when the NEUC can  
301 be found as a lobe attached to the NECC (cf. Figure 4i). During boreal spring the NEUC is  
302 clearly detached from the NECC (Figure 4j), but the influence of the NECC is observed as  
303 another subsurface branch north of 5°N consistent with Brandt et al. [2010]. The signature of the  
304 NEUC on the  $\sigma_\theta = 26.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  isopycnal is observed at approximately 5°N and 200 m, as a sharp  
305 meridional gradient during boreal winter/spring (Figure 4i, j) and relatively weaker gradients  
306 during the rest of the year [cf. Bourlès et al., 2002; Schott et al., 2003]. The NEUC seasonal  
307 means are weakest in boreal summer/fall (Figure 4k, l), as observed when comparing velocities  
308 in boreal winter/spring with boreal summer/fall. In contrast, the potential density structure at  
309 about 4°-5°S and 200 m, where the SEUC is located, exhibits a very distinguished southward  
310 elevation of the  $\sigma_\theta = 26.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  isopycnal surface that is visible throughout the year. This is an  
311 indication that the meridional pressure gradient plays an important role in SEUC dynamics, and  
312 that the SEUC is a permanent feature of the tropical Atlantic.

313 To compute quantities associated with the off-equatorial eastward currents, the  
314 meridional and vertical extent of each current must be defined. We assign latitudinal bands to  
315 each current based on the variability of their observed positions (cf. Figure 4i-l) that are similar  
316 to the bands used in previous studies: The NECC is defined between 3°N and 10°N [e.g., Garzoli  
317 and Katz, 1983; Hormann et al., 2012], the NEUC between 3°N and 6°N [e.g., Hüttl-Kabus and  
318 Böning, 2008], and the SEUC between 3°S and 6°S [Molinari 1982, 1983; Hüttl-Kabus and

319 Böning, 2008] (Table 1). Note that, as previously mentioned, the NEUC core location is highly  
320 variable, but in order to avoid the equatorial band ( $< 3^\circ$  of the equator), and to differentiate the  
321 NEUC from subsurface flow observed under the northern branch of the NECC (cf. Figure 4j;  
322 Brandt et al., [2010]), we use for this current the same band as defined by Hüttl-Kabus and  
323 Böning [2008]. We further characterize these currents by selecting isopycnal layers to define  
324 their vertical boundaries following their water masses characteristics [Schott et al., 1998]: an  
325 upper or surface layer containing TSW from the surface to  $\sigma_\theta = 24.5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , and a lower or  
326 thermocline layer containing SUW and UCW between  $\sigma_\theta = 24.5$  and  $26.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ . Therefore, in  
327 this study, the NECC is restricted to the upper layer, and the NEUC and SEUC are both  
328 restricted to the lower layer. Although our choice of vertical and latitudinal boundaries are the  
329 most widely used, we recognize that other definitions have also been used in previous studies,  
330 including using the thermocline as a vertical boundary for the NECC [Garzoli and Katz, 1993] as  
331 well as a time-varying latitudinal characterization of the NECC band centered on the core  
332 latitude or center of mass [Hsin and Qiu, 2012], and for the NEUC and SEUC a depth range from  
333 100-700 m [Molinari, 1982] or  $\sigma_\theta = 25.5$  to  $26.8 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  [Hüttl-Kabus and Böning, 2008].

334

#### 335 4.2 Seasonal variability of the off-equatorial eastward currents in the AX08 data

336 Here we analyze the seasonal variability of the NECC, NEUC, and SEUC across the  
337 AX08 transect in terms of volume transport, core velocity, and core latitude using monthly  
338 averaged values (Figure 5 and Table 2), and compare with previously published values. The  
339 selected 31 AX08 temperature sections provide high spatial resolution coverage of the central  
340 tropical Atlantic for all months except February (Figure 1c). To investigate the seasonal  
341 variability of the studied currents, we fit in a least-squares fashion the annual and semi-annual

342 harmonics to the XBT-derived monthly averages (red dots in Figure 5) of the volume transport,  
343 core velocity, and core latitude for each current. We use as observational uncertainties in the  
344 XBT data the sum of the fitting residual error from the harmonic analysis plus the standard error  
345 of each month (when available) after calculating the monthly averages. Fitting the first two  
346 annual harmonics interpolates the seasonal cycle to the missing month and gives an error  
347 estimate, as well as filters a large fraction of the mesoscale signal.

348 For each current, the seasonal cycle of the XBT-derived monthly averages of volume  
349 transport, core velocity, and core latitude (red lines in Figure 5) can be characterized as follows:

350 *a) NECC*

351 The XBT-derived seasonal cycles show a strong annual cycle of the NECC, which alone  
352 represents 72% of the transport variability. Earlier analyses based on drifter data have already  
353 indicated a dominant annual contribution, as high as 80%, to the transport seasonal cycle of the  
354 off-equatorial surface currents [e.g., Richardson and Walsh, 1986; Lumpkin and Garzoli, 2005].  
355 The NECC reaches its lowest transport ( $\sim 2$  Sv) during boreal spring, and higher transports ( $\sim 10$   
356 Sv) during boreal summer and fall, which agrees with transport values in Fonseca et al. [2004].  
357 The annual cycle is also the dominant component of the core velocity (33%), and position  
358 variances (16%; Table 2). The NECC core velocity shows a similar pattern (Figure 5d), with  
359 lowest values ( $\sim 0.2$  m/s) during boreal spring and higher values throughout the rest of the year  
360 ( $\sim 0.4$ - $0.5$  m/s). The NECC core reaches its southernmost position in boreal spring and early  
361 summer ( $\sim 5^\circ$ N), and its northernmost position ( $\sim 7^\circ$ N) during boreal fall (Figure 5g). This  
362 seasonal variability of the NECC agrees with previous observational findings [e.g., Richardson et  
363 al., 1992], and is linked to the north-south migration of the Intertropical Convergence Zone

364 (ITCZ) [e.g., Garzoli and Richardson, 1989; Fonseca et al., 2004], which is near the equator  
365 during boreal spring and farthest north during boreal summer and fall.

366

### 367 *b) NEUC*

368         The NEUC volume transport is highest during boreal spring when its transport reaches 7  
369 Sv (Figure 5b), and lowest in boreal fall (~ 3-5 Sv). Although the annual cycle dominates the  
370 NEUC transport variability over the semi-annual cycle (explained variance: 35% vs. 1%; Table  
371 2), the relatively low-percent variance compared with the NECC suggests that the NEUC is  
372 strongly modulated by mesoscale or interannual variability, as there are not enough samples for  
373 each month to adequately constrain the seasonal cycle. Compared to the seasonal cycle of NECC  
374 volume transport (Figure 5a), the NEUC and the NECC transports bear an almost inverse  
375 relationship. In addition, the seasonal cycles of the NEUC volume transport and core velocity  
376 seem to be inversely related, with higher values (~ 0.3 m/s) during boreal summer and fall and  
377 lower values (~ 0.2 m/s) during boreal spring. The seasonal variability of the NEUC core latitude  
378 (Figure 5h) has a dominant semi-annual variability (31%), and it reaches its southernmost  
379 position (~ 4°N) during boreal spring at the time of highest transport. Interestingly, it is also in  
380 boreal spring when the NECC core is furthest south (Figure 5g) and overlaps with the 3°-6°N  
381 NEUC band, which suggests that some of eastward flow associated with the NECC may be  
382 difficult to dissociate from the NEUC flow during this period. This relationship between the  
383 NEUC and NECC is consistent with previous modeling and observational studies [e.g.,  
384 El moussaoui et al., 2005; Brandt et al., 2010].

385

### 386 *c) SEUC*

387           The XBT-derived SEUC volume transport (Figure 5c) exhibits a smaller amplitude of  
388 seasonal cycle in comparison to the NECC and NEUC. Its mean transport is about 7 Sv, which is  
389 in good agreement with previous estimates [Brandt et al., 2006; Fischer et al., 2008] and it is  
390 weaker ( $\sim 6$  Sv) in boreal summer and winter, in agreement with Reverdin et al. [1991], and  
391 strongest in boreal spring and fall, reaching up to 10 Sv. Therefore there are indications that the  
392 semi-annual variability (explained variance: 39%) dominates the SEUC transport variability in  
393 the XBT data. The SEUC core velocity is smallest during boreal summer ( $\sim 0.25$  m/s), with  
394 indications of strengthening ( $> 0.3$  m/s) during late boreal spring and fall (Figure 5f). Fischer et  
395 al. [2008] reported a weaker mean SEUC velocity of about 0.13-0.18 m/s in the central tropical  
396 Atlantic, but departures from this mean of up to 0.50 m/s have been observed in its core. The  
397 mean position of the SEUC core is approximately  $4.5^{\circ}\text{S}$  and although small, its position  
398 variability (Figure 5i) follows its transport variability, in that higher transports are associated  
399 with a more northern position and vice versa.

400

#### 401 4.3 Synthetic method validation on seasonal to interannual time scales

402           Having discussed the seasonal cycle of the off-equatorial currents using solely the AX08  
403 data, we now compare the three derived variables (volume transport, core velocity, and core  
404 latitude) for each current band with the monthly means computed over the 1993-2010 altimetric  
405 period obtained from the synthetic method (green curve in Figure 5).

406           The synthetic estimates for the NECC follow closely the estimates from hydrography for  
407 all three variables (Figure 5a, d, g). The synthetic NEUC is about 1 Sv weaker and located  $\sim 1^{\circ}$   
408 of latitude further north (Figure 5b and h, respectively), but is in phase with the XBT-derived  
409 seasonal cycles. On the other hand, the lower NEUC core velocities ( $\sim 0.1$  m/s) found during

410 boreal summer/fall in the synthetic estimates (Figure 5e) are not observed in the XBT estimates.  
411 The synthetic SEUC estimates shows reasonable agreement with the XBT seasonal cycle (Figure  
412 5 c, f, i), but with lower core velocities and apparent stronger annual periodicity than the latter.

413         Additionally, Figure 5 shows the WOA09 climatology-derived seasonal cycle to provide  
414 a means to assess the improvement of the synthetic method over the mean used in the synthetic  
415 method calculation (see section 3b). The synthetic method estimates show a sizeable  
416 improvement toward the WOA09 monthly estimates for all currents, as obvious from the  
417 WOA09 seasonal cycle for core velocity and transport, which are systematically lower than those  
418 from the XBT and the synthetic data. Moreover, the SEUC (Figure 5i) and especially the NEUC  
419 (Figure 5h) are not always present in their current bands due to the low horizontal resolution of  
420 the climatology. Thus, the correlations provided by the synthetic method, which are here given  
421 by the relationships between SLA and the predictands, are able to capture features that are not  
422 provided by the mean (climatological) field alone. Therefore, future improvements in the  
423 synthetic methodology could be obtained by developing better mean fields or correlations, a  
424 well-known problem in statistics [Gelman, 2003].

425         We further validate the synthetic method on seasonal to interannual time scales by  
426 comparing the transports of the off-equatorial eastward currents from the 31 XBT transect  
427 realizations with their synthetic counterparts (Figure 6). The agreement between the synthetic  
428 and XBT transport estimates is high for the NECC, with a root-mean-square error of RMSE =  
429 1.08 Sv (Figure 5a, b). A strong linear relationship is found between the two transport estimates  
430 and the corresponding linear-correlation coefficient is  $R = 0.93$ . Regarding the subsurface  
431 currents, the synthetic method has considerable skill for the NEUC ( $R = 0.59$ , RMSE = 1.82 Sv)  
432 but the transports using XBT data are generally higher than the synthetic transports (Figure 5c,

433 d), as was also observed for their seasonal cycles (Figure 4b). The synthetic method is also able  
434 to reproduce a comparable mean SEUC transport of about 7 Sv to the one derived from the XBT  
435 data. However, the method fails to reproduce the observed SEUC transport variations (Figure 5e,  
436 f), with low correlations between the synthetically-derived and XBT-derived SEUC transports ( $R$   
437 = 0.20, RMSE = 1.49 Sv). Due to the low overall agreement, the synthetically-derived SEUC  
438 estimates are subject to larger uncertainties than the NECC and NEUC estimates on interannual  
439 timescales.

440

#### 441 4.4 Interannual variability using the synthetically-derived transports

442 The tropical Atlantic is subject to a strong seasonal cycle, which influences SST, winds  
443 and SLA in the central Atlantic region (Figure 7, top panels). SST varies seasonally, from about  
444 20°C in the southern hemisphere during austral winter and spring, and north of about 7°N during  
445 boreal winter and spring, to almost 30°C along the equator in the boreal summer (Figure 7a). The  
446 location of the ITCZ, which can be approximated by the zero meridional pseudo-wind stress  
447 contour, follows the seasonal evolution of the warm SSTs in the northern hemisphere, and is  
448 located close to the equator from December to July and further north (~ 10°N) from August to  
449 November (Figure 7b). SLA increases during boreal summer and fall months (Figure 7c), which  
450 is also associated to mixed layer deepening and its seasonal variability indicates propagation  
451 patterns driven by wave mechanisms in the tropical Atlantic. There are indications of strong  
452 interannual variability in the region, as observed from large deviations from the seasonal cycle  
453 (Figure 7, lower panels). During 1999 and 2009 there was strong cooling in the tropical north  
454 Atlantic, and associated southward shift of the ITCZ and decreased SLA [Foltz et al., 2012].  
455 Warm years in the tropical north Atlantic and equatorial regions occurred in 1998, 2002, 2005,

456 and 2010 (Figure 7a), with the latter being the warmest year on the record for the SST anomalies  
457 in the region [Blunden et al., 2011]. These warm events are likewise linked to southerly wind  
458 anomalies (Figure 7b) and increased SLA (Figure 7c).

459 Surface winds influence the circulation through the Rossby and Kelvin wave  
460 mechanisms [Foltz and McPhaden, 2010]. The extent to which this variability influences the off-  
461 equatorial eastward currents has only been studied for flows near the surface [e.g., Arnault et al.,  
462 1999; Fonseca et al., 2004; Hormann et al., 2012]. In the following sections, we use the time  
463 series of 7-day synthetically-derived transports during 1993-2010 that provide a tool to study the  
464 interannual variability of both surface and subsurface off-equatorial eastward currents.

465

#### 466 4.4.1 Interannual signature of the off-equatorial eastward currents

467 Characteristics of how the NECC, NEUC, and SEUC vary over time are retrieved by  
468 applying a wavelet transform [Torrence and Compo, 1998] to the synthetically-derived volume  
469 transport time series associated with each current (Figure 8). Wavelet transform analysis of the  
470 NECC volume transport time series confirms that the strongest signal is in the annual period  
471 band (Figure 8a). Moreover, the energy at the annual period shows intermittent interannual  
472 modulation, and a prominent semi-annual signal is observed during an event in 1999, when one  
473 of the largest NECC transport negative anomalies is followed by one of the largest positive  
474 anomalies (Figure 8a, top panel). The event in 1999 has previously been related to a strong wind  
475 stress curl anomaly in the western tropical Atlantic during that period [Fonseca et al., 2004].  
476 Regarding the NEUC, wavelet analysis indicates some changes between the 1990s and 2000s,  
477 with some amount of energy distributed between semi-annual, annual or longer at the beginning  
478 of the record, followed by a decrease in the semi-annual variability starting in the early 2000s

479 (Figure 8b). There are further indications of interannual energy modulation in the annual period  
480 band in the NEUC transport time series, with increased energy centered on 1995, 2001, and  
481 2006. The SEUC transport also shows a strong annual periodicity (Figure 8c), with largest  
482 annual peaks in 1997 and 2004, at times when the NEUC shows weakened variability at this  
483 timescale. Wavelet analysis of the zonal pseudo-wind stress in the equatorial region (Figure 8d)  
484 show a noteworthy resemblance with the NEUC transport in terms of interannual modulation  
485 (Figure 8b) in the annual period band.

486

#### 487 4.4.2 Relationship between synthetic NECC and NEUC transports and tropical Atlantic 488 variability

489 Here we investigate the correlation between the interannual anomalies of the  
490 synthetically-derived NECC and NEUC with SST and surface wind stress anomalies in the  
491 tropical Atlantic region. We restrict our analysis to the NECC and NEUC transports because they  
492 are in better agreement with the XBT estimates on interannual timescales (section 4.3). We use  
493 here 7-day transport anomalies relative to the monthly climatology, and gridded 7-day SST and  
494 pseudo-wind stress anomalies from the 1993-2010 altimetric period. In this analysis, all data are  
495 standardized by subtracting their mean and dividing by their standard deviation as well as low-  
496 pass filtered with a 13-point (about 90 days) window moving average to reduce mesoscale  
497 variability. Only statistically significant correlation values are taken into account ( $p < 0.05$ ),  
498 which corresponds to a 95% significance level using a t-test statistical analysis.

499

##### 500 *a) NECC*

501           The correlation between the NECC transport and SST anomalies (SSTA) for the 1993-  
502 2010 altimetric period produces a distinct pattern in the form of an anomalous meridional SST  
503 gradient (Figure 9a), with positive correlation just north of the equator in the ITCZ region,  
504 centered at approximately 2°N, 30°W, and extending northeastward, and negative correlation in  
505 the central south of the domain, centered at about 20°S, 17°W. The corresponding correlation  
506 with pseudo-wind stress anomalies indicates an anomalous strengthening of the southeasterly  
507 trades, with largest magnitude in the western equatorial region. This pattern is reminiscent of the  
508 Atlantic meridional mode [e.g., Chang et al., 2006, and references therein], which is believed to  
509 be driven by the wind-evaporation-SST feedback mechanism involving interactions between  
510 SST changes and wind-induced latent heat fluxes [Xie and Philander, 1994; Chang et al., 1997].  
511 A similar pattern has also been found for the NECC in a recent study using complex empirical-  
512 orthogonal-function analysis of a near-surface drifter-altimetry synthesis product [Hormann et  
513 al., 2012].

514           A SSTA gradient index (SST1) can be defined by subtracting area averages over the  
515 northern (35°W-15°W/0°-5°N) and southern (25°W-10°W/12°S-22°S) boxes marked in Figure  
516 9a. The correlation between the 7-day NECC transport anomalies and SST1 is significant ( $R =$   
517 0.43), with maximum negative correlation at zero lag (Figure 9c). A meridional wind-stress  
518 index ( $y\text{-wind1}$ ), computed over the northern box described above, which focuses on the  
519 variability near the central equatorial region, shows a maximum positive correlation of  $R = 0.40$ ,  
520 with the NECC lagging the wind strengthening by two weeks. This relationship suggests that  
521 there is a fast response of the NECC and SST to wind anomalies in the index regions that might  
522 be explained by either the fast adjustment time of the ocean through equatorial waves [e.g., Ma,

523 1996] or by anomalies simply advected from the surface NBC retroflection region [e.g.,  
524 Fratantoni et al., 2000; Foltz et al., 2012].

525

526 *b) NEUC*

527         The pattern arising from the correlation between the NEUC transport and both SST and  
528 wind stress anomalies (Figure 10a) can be described as follows: Negative SST correlation  
529 coefficients prevail in the northern part of the basin, with stronger signal in the northeast, while  
530 positive correlations are found along the central and eastern equatorial region and in the  
531 southeastern part of the basin. In addition, the trades are weakened in the western to central  
532 equatorial Atlantic and northeasterly wind anomalies prevail over the Gulf of Guinea for positive  
533 NEUC transport anomalies. The obtained meridional gradient SST pattern suggests a relation to  
534 the Atlantic meridional mode, and the equatorial SST pattern also indicates a relation to the zonal  
535 mode [e.g., Chang et al., 2006, and references therein], further supporting the previously  
536 proposed link between these two modes [Servain et al., 1999; Foltz and McPhaden, 2010]. The  
537 derived wind stress response interacts with the SST in such a way that the anomalous SSTs shift  
538 the ITCZ southward [Moura and Shukla, 1981], reinforcing the positive SST anomaly along the  
539 equator [Foltz and McPhaden, 2010]. Consistent with this proposed link, the zonal wind stress in  
540 the equatorial region, as defined in our wavelet analysis (Figure 8d), is significantly positively  
541 correlated with the NEUC transport ( $R = 0.43$ ), leading the NEUC variability by five weeks.

542         Previous studies that used virtual Lagrangian floats have shown that the NEUC provides  
543 waters for the upwelling in the Guinea Dome and equatorial regions [Stramma et al., 2005;  
544 Hüttl-Kabus and Böning, 2008]. Results obtained here agree in that negative (positive) NEUC  
545 transport anomalies are associated with warm (cold) SSTAs and northeasterly (southwesterly)

546 wind anomalies in the Guinea Dome region (Figure 10a), which are consistent with an decreased  
547 (increased) coastal upwelling in this region. As for the NECC, we define a meridional SST  
548 gradient index (SST2) and a meridional wind stress index (y-wind2), and relate these indices to  
549 the NEUC transport anomalies. We consider here the difference between SSTA in the Guinea  
550 Dome region ( $5^{\circ}$ - $15^{\circ}$ N/ $15^{\circ}$ - $30^{\circ}$ W) and in the southeastern Atlantic ( $8^{\circ}$ S- $5^{\circ}$ N/ $30^{\circ}$ W- $5^{\circ}$ W) as well  
551 as the meridional wind stress average over the Guinea Dome region. We find that the maximum  
552 correlation between the NEUC transport anomalies with SST2 and y-wind2 to be  $R = -0.51$  (zero  
553 lag) and  $R = -0.32$  (NEUC lags by 3 weeks), respectively (Figure 10c).

554

## 555 **5. Discussion and Conclusions**

556 In the present study, we combined data from the high-density AX08 XBT transect and  
557 altimetry to investigate the seasonal and interannual variability of major Atlantic off-equatorial  
558 eastward currents, namely the NECC, NEUC, and SEUC.

559 The seasonal cycles of the off-equatorial eastward currents derived from our analyses of  
560 the XBT data alone are in good agreement with previous studies [e.g., Richardson and Reverdin,  
561 1987]. The NECC, defined here between  $3^{\circ}$ N and  $10^{\circ}$ N above  $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.5 \text{ kg/m}^3$ , exhibits a strong  
562 annual cycle, with minimum transport and velocity ( $\sim 2 \text{ Sv}$  and  $\sim 0.2 \text{ m/s}$ , respectively) in boreal  
563 spring and maximum ( $\sim 10 \text{ Sv}$  and  $\sim 0.5 \text{ m/s}$ ) in boreal fall. The synthetic method captures the  
564 NECC seasonal cycle with good skill. On interannual timescales, synthetic estimates show that  
565 an increased NECC transport is linked to a strengthening of the southeasterly trades (at a 2-week  
566 lag) and a positive meridional SST gradient pattern (i.e., warmer tropical North Atlantic and  
567 colder tropical South Atlantic) at zero lag, consistent with Hormann et al. [2012]. The NECC  
568 strengthening associated with such a meridional SST gradient might act as a positive feedback,

569 since it would increase the eastward transport of warmer western waters toward the region of  
570 maximum SST gradient.

571         The NEUC seasonal cycle from the XBT data is characterized by stronger transports  
572 during boreal spring/summer (up to 7 Sv), which is in opposite phase to the NECC transport  
573 cycle. The NEUC core is mostly located between 4°-6°N, with maximum velocities of about  
574 0.30 m/s in June-July. Synthetic estimates of the transport and position seasonal cycles follow  
575 the phase of the XBT estimates, but are slightly weaker and more northward ( $\sim 1$  Sv and  $\sim 1^\circ$  of  
576 latitude, respectively). The synthetic core velocity is reduced during boreal fall ( $\sim 0.12$  m/s),  
577 which may be an improvement over the XBT-only estimates, since it follows closer the phase of  
578 transport variability and is less subject to mesoscale aliasing. Synthetic estimates of the NEUC  
579 transport suggest that there is a decrease in the semi-annual variability since 2000, which follows  
580 years of mixed semi-annual, annual and longer period variability, and that throughout the record  
581 there has been an interannual modulation of the annual variability. The latter is also in agreement  
582 with anomalous zonal wind stress variability in the western-central equatorial Atlantic (Figure  
583 8d). Our results further indicate that the interannual variability of the NEUC transport is  
584 statistically related to the difference between positive SST anomalies in the equatorial Atlantic  
585 and negative SST anomalies in the Guinea Dome region, similar to the negative index of the  
586 Atlantic meridional mode [Foltz et al., 2012]. Such a link between the NEUC and the Guinea  
587 Dome has long been proposed [e.g., Voituriez, 1981; Schott et al., 2004], since the uplifting of  
588 the thermal structure in the dome extends much further down than the thermocline. The strong  
589 upwelling in this region is, for instance, related to the outcropping of the  $\sigma_\theta = 24.5$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>  
590 isopycnal [Inui et al., 2002]. The underlying mechanism of this relationship might be that a  
591 cooler Guinea Dome and warmer equatorial region increase the north-south density gradient in

592 the NEUC region, and strengthen its core. Some model studies in the Pacific indeed suggest that  
593 the coastal upwelling on the eastern side of the basin can drive the variability of such a current  
594 [e.g., McCreary et al., 2002].

595 The NEUC and NECC exhibit an inverse relationship in transport variability on  
596 interannual timescales. Both are linked to the variability of the cross-equatorial wind stress, but  
597 the NECC is strengthened in association with increased southeasterly winds whereas increases in  
598 the NEUC are associated with reduced southeasterly winds. The interannual modes of tropical  
599 Atlantic variability are strongly tied to their seasonal cycle [e.g., Nobre and Shukla, 1996;  
600 Servain et al., 1999], which is consistent with the fact that this inverse relationship between the  
601 NEUC and NECC transports also holds for the seasonal cycle. Our results suggest that the NECC  
602 overlaps latitudinally and may interact with the NEUC, especially during boreal winter/spring  
603 when the NECC is displaced furthest south.

604 The SEUC is located on average at about  $4.5^{\circ}\text{S}$  and exhibits a rather weak seasonal cycle,  
605 with a mean transport of about 7 Sv. The XBT data show a stronger semi-annual cycle of  
606 velocity and transport, with higher values during spring and fall ( $\sim 0.3$  m/s and 10 Sv,  
607 respectively). The synthetic method produces a comparable SEUC climatology, but with  
608 decreased semi-annual component in transport, and weaker mean velocities ( $\sim 0.25$  m/s).  
609 Although the synthetic method produces a comparable SEUC climatology, the correlation with  
610 the XBT-derived transport is rather small. There are indications of an out-of-phase relationship  
611 between the NEUC and SEUC on interannual timescales, but the synthetic method is subject to  
612 higher uncertainty in reproducing the SEUC variability. The somewhat limited ability of our  
613 methodology to reproduce SEUC variations is a consequence of the weak SLA variability in the  
614 southern tropical Atlantic (Figure 1a). As a result, the surface signature of the SEUC is masked

615 by compensating effects in the water column (Figure 2). The compensating effects can be  
616 explained by, for example, buoyancy and wind forcing components of the same magnitude and  
617 opposing signs [Mayer et al., 2001]. Therefore, regular hydrographic sampling is particularly  
618 important for monitoring the SEUC.

619 Our results indicate that due to strong regional intraseasonal variability generated by  
620 mesoscale variability (eddies, passage of TIWs, etc.), more XBT sections are needed to produce  
621 more robust estimates of the seasonal cycle of these currents using XBT data only. For instance,  
622 out of the 31 analyzed XBT sections only one realization is available for January, May, and June,  
623 and no section is yet available for February. The synthetic method applied here have potential to  
624 improve considerably upon estimates of the seasonal evolution of the off-equatorial eastward  
625 currents, and can overcome the sampling restrictions, and potentially produce better estimates of  
626 the long-term evolution of these currents.

627 Results from this study are subject to specific caveats that provide avenues for future  
628 research: First, we use a simple statistical method to infer the relationship between surface height  
629 and ocean properties at depth. Using an improved statistical method and a more structured mean  
630 field (instead of the coarse spatial-resolution WOA09) may allow for including additional  
631 information, such as latitudinal cross-correlation between and autocorrelation of the residuals at  
632 depth, as well as the use of additional constraints derived from co-located observations. Second,  
633 we use empirical estimates of salinity inferred from a climatological T-S relationship at each  
634 location, and climatological values of dynamic height at 800 m to obtain absolute dynamic  
635 heights from the XBT data. Available observations from the Argo network, for example, could  
636 reduce the salinity inference errors associated with this methodology. However, these  
637 observations are mostly restricted to the last 5-6 years, and do not cover the whole period of

638 XBT observations. Third, eddy resolving altimetry fields from multiple satellite missions are  
639 required to adequately monitor the equatorial current system. Finally, high-resolution modeling  
640 can fill gaps in the observational space and examine in a dynamically consistent fashion the  
641 implications of our results.

642         This study highlights the value of using multiplatform observations to assess the  
643 importance of ocean dynamics to drive variations in surface properties such as SSTs, which are  
644 critical for weather and climate studies.

645

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654

655

## 656 **APPENDIX**

### 657 *Estimation of errors in the XBT measurements*

658         The methodology applied in this study is subject to several sources of error, which are  
659 quantified in this section. The most important of these errors are related to the XBT temperature  
660 data precision, depth accuracy of the fall rate equation, salinity inference, and the SLA data

661 precision when applying the synthetic method. Here we use established estimates of these  
662 measurement errors, and assess how they can affect dynamic height estimates and the derived  
663 velocity. The typical error values, listed in Table A1, were obtained from several scientific  
664 papers [e.g., Ducet et al., 2000; Goni and Baringer, 2002; Goes et al., 2013]. According to the  
665 manufacturer (Sippican/Lockheed Martin), the XBT measurement error for temperature  
666 precision is  $\sigma_T = 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ , and the maximum tolerance for the depth error associated with the fall  
667 rate equation is approximately linear with depth, either  $\sigma_z = 5$  m or 2% of depth, whichever is  
668 greater. The salinity inference error has been shown to be among the largest contributors to the  
669 dynamic height error [Goni and Baringer, 2002], with typical differences of  $\sigma_S = 0.3$  psu between  
670 *in situ* and climatological salinity estimates resulting in dynamic height differences as large as  
671  $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = 5$  cm. As stated in section 2, the average RMSE for the AVISO SLA product is typically  
672 on the order of  $\sigma_{\text{SLA}} = 2$  cm [Cheney et al., 1994; Ducet et al., 2000]. Arnault et al. [1999]  
673 estimated that a SLA error of 2 cm would result in velocity errors ranging from 0.05 m/s to 0.30  
674 m/s between  $7.5^\circ\text{N}$  and the equator.

675 In our assessment, we use one of the AX08 sections with its associated salinity estimated  
676 from the climatological T-S relationships (i.e., using the methodology of Thacker [2007a, b]); cf.  
677 section 2a) as the “true” section. Results obtained here are for the regions between  $3^\circ$  and  $10^\circ$  of  
678 latitude, encompassing the locations of the off-equatorial eastward currents, and are not  
679 dependent on which AX08 section is chosen. We perturb the “true” section with stochastic noise  
680 (Table A1), and apply a bootstrap method with 300 samples. The error distributions are assumed  
681 as follows:

682 i) Temperature and salinity errors ( $\Delta T$  and  $\Delta S$  in Table A1, respectively) are assumed to  
683 be derived from an uncorrelated Gaussian noise ( $\Delta T \approx \Delta S \approx N(0, \sigma^2)$ ) with zero mean and

684 standard deviations  $\sigma$ , using as  $\sigma$  the typical XBT measurement error values ( $\sigma_T$  and  $\sigma_S$ ,  
685 respectively).

686 ii) XBT depth errors ( $\Delta Z$ ) are related to biases in the fall rate equation (FRE) which are  
687 highly dependent on the timing and the region of each cruise [Reverdin et al., 2009]. This is  
688 because the FRE depends on the type and manufacturing year of the XBT probes, which can  
689 vary from one cruise to the next, and on the viscosity and stratification of the water in the region.  
690 We approximate the XBT depth errors by a linear depth bias ( $\Delta Z = \Delta Z_0 + \Delta Z_1 \times Z$ ), where the  
691 linear coefficient ( $\Delta Z_1$ ) is dependent on the probe and regional characteristics, and the intercept  
692 or depth offset ( $\Delta Z_0$ ) related to surface phenomena such as wave height variability, entry  
693 velocity and angle of the probe [Goes et al., 2013]. Because all the XBTs of an AX08 section are  
694 deployed in a comparable region, and are from the same manufacturing year, we assume that  $\Delta Z$   
695 is generated by the same linear depth bias in each section, varying from section-to-section as an  
696 uncorrelated Gaussian noise process ( $\Delta Z_1 \approx N(0, \sigma_{z1}^2)$ ), plus a depth offset which affects each  
697 XBT cast and is drawn from a uniform distribution ( $\Delta Z_0 \approx \text{Unif}([- \sigma_{z0}, \sigma_{z0}])$ ). Therefore, the  
698 overall depth error is  $\Delta Z \approx \Delta Z_0 + \Delta Z_1$ .

699 iii) SLA measurement errors are assumed to be a spatially correlated Gaussian noise  
700 process  $\Delta \text{SLA} \approx (N(0, \Sigma))$ , following an exponentially decaying covariance matrix  $\Sigma = \sigma_{\text{SLA}}^2 \exp(-$   
701  $d/\lambda)$  with a length scale of  $\lambda = 300$  km [Ducet et al., 2000], and a distance  $d$  between two casts.

702 After perturbing the “true section” with the 300 stochastic samples, the residual  
703 distributions of dynamic height ( $\Delta \text{DH}$ ) and velocity ( $\Delta v$ ) are calculated by subtracting the  
704 perturbed sections from the original one (Figure A1), and are here shown for the surface (left  
705 panels) and 300 m depth (right panels), with the latter approximately corresponding to the depth

706 of the  $\sigma_\theta = 26.8 \text{ kg/m}^3$  isopycnal. The altimetric error distribution,  $\Delta\text{SLA}$ , is shown only for the  
707 surface level. At the surface, the width of the confidence intervals (CI) given by the standard  
708 deviations of  $\Delta\text{DH}$  and  $\Delta v$  ( $\sigma_{\text{DH}}$  and  $\sigma_v$ , respectively) indicates that the XBT depth error is the  
709 largest contributor to the dynamic height error ( $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = 1.94 \text{ cm}$ ), followed by the salinity error  
710 contribution ( $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = \pm 0.89 \text{ cm}$ ) and a small temperature error contribution ( $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = 0.15 \text{ cm}$ ). The  
711 total contribution of the XBT dynamic height errors is  $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = 2.19 \text{ cm}$ , which is slightly higher  
712 than the simulated altimetric SLA errors ( $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = 2.09 \text{ cm}$ ). Of great importance here is that the  
713 large simulated depth errors do not translate into substantial zonal velocity errors ( $\sigma_v = 0.078$   
714 m/s), since horizontal gradients are largely unaffected by the XBT depth biases. The salinity  
715 inference is the major cause of velocity errors at the surface ( $\sigma_v = 0.095 \text{ m/s}$ ), and the total XBT  
716 velocity error ( $\sigma_v = 0.124 \text{ m/s}$ ) is smaller than the altimetric velocity error ( $\sigma_v = 0.171 \text{ m/s}$ ). At  
717 300 m depth, a similar behavior is found for the dynamic height and velocity errors. However,  
718 the magnitude of these errors is reduced since dynamic height is an integral quantity from a  
719 reference depth to the surface. The CI of the total XBT errors at that depth is  $\sigma_{\text{DH}} = \pm 1.46 \text{ cm}$  for  
720 dynamic height and  $\sigma_v = 0.084 \text{ m/s}$  for velocity, respectively.

721

#### 722 *Velocity errors associated with the AX08 transect angle*

723 Additional errors result from the assumption that the geostrophic velocity across an  
724 oblique transect (Figure 1a) is approximately equal to the zonal geostrophic velocity estimated  
725 from a meridional transect. The associated velocity differences have previously been quantified  
726 in a similar region to be smaller than 10% of the velocity [Reverdin et al., 1991]. To verify this

727 assumption, we have performed calculations in a  $1/12^\circ$  resolution ocean reanalysis  
 728 (Hycom/NCODA, available at [www.hycom.org](http://www.hycom.org)) [Chassignet et al., 2009], with data spanning  
 729 from September 2008 to June 2012. Our main goal here is to assess how well the cross-transect  
 730 velocity represents the true zonal velocity at the location of the AX08 section. In the model  
 731 output, we simulate the AX08 transect by interpolating the meridional ( $v$ ) and zonal ( $u$ )  
 732 velocities to the mean AX08 location. Next, we rotate  $u$  and  $v$  to produce a cross-transect  
 733 velocity ( $u'$ ), similar to the one calculated from the AX08 data. The rotation over a transect angle  
 734  $\theta$  is performed as follows:

$$735 \quad u' = u \cos \theta + v \sin \theta \quad (\text{A1a})$$

$$736 \quad v' = -u \sin \theta + v \cos \theta \quad (\text{A1b})$$

737 We then compare  $u'$  against  $u$  by calculating the bias and RMSE between the two  
 738 velocities (Figure A2a, c). The highest biases (0.16-0.2 m/s) and RMSE (0.18-0.2 m/s) between  
 739  $u'$  and  $u$  are observed near the equator extending north to about  $4^\circ\text{N}$ . This is because the  
 740 magnitude and fluctuations of the meridional velocity can be substantial in this region, thus the  
 741 rotated component shows strong influence from  $v$ . Away from the equator, the velocities tend to  
 742 be fairly comparable, and the bias and RMSE range from 0 to 0.04 m/s and 0.06 to 0.1 m/s,  
 743 respectively, consistent with weaker meridional velocities. The errors tend to decrease downward  
 744 since the magnitude of  $v$  tends to be stronger closer to the surface.

745 Moreover, if we rotate  $u'$  back to  $u$  using only the cosine of the transect angle  $u^* = u' \cos$   
 746  $(-\theta) = u' \cos (\theta)$  to estimate the true zonal velocity in the absence of  $v'$  (Figure A2b, d), which  
 747 cannot be measured using AX08 data, the same error patterns emerge as using only  $u'$ , and bias  
 748 and RMSE actually increase near 4-6 of latitude at certain depths. Thus, the rotation of the cross-

749 transect velocity in the absence of  $v'$  measurements does not improve the estimation of the true  
750 zonal velocity in the region, and is not performed in the present study.

751

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1048 **Figure Captions:**

1049 Figure 1: a) Root mean square of October 1992-December 2010 AVISO SLA (cm) in the  
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1070 Figure 5: Seasonal cycle of geostrophic volume transport ( $Sv$ ), core velocity (m/s), and  
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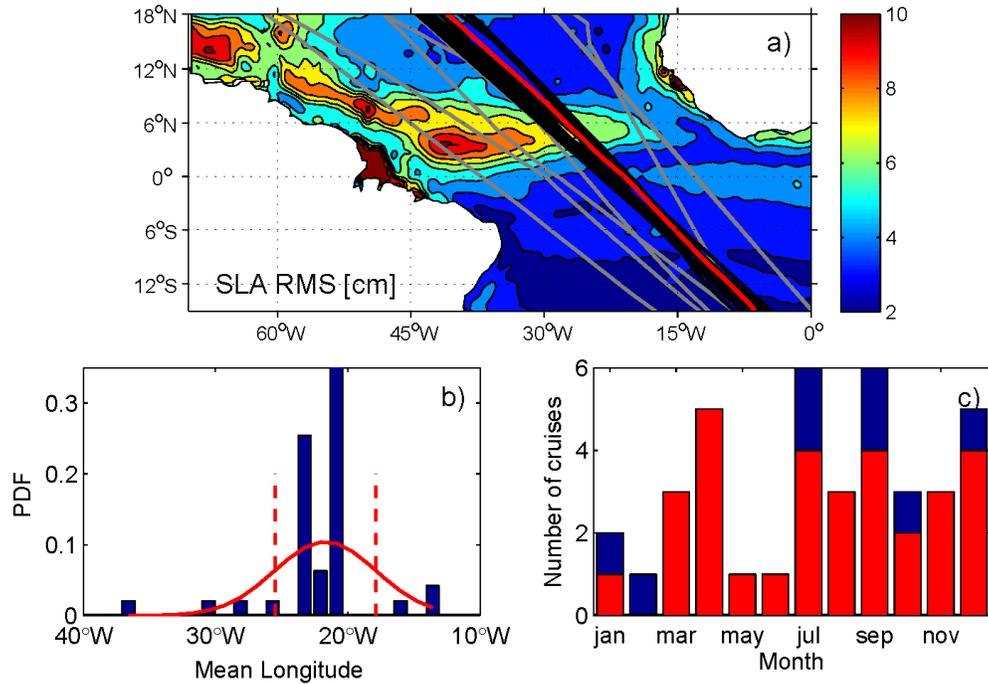
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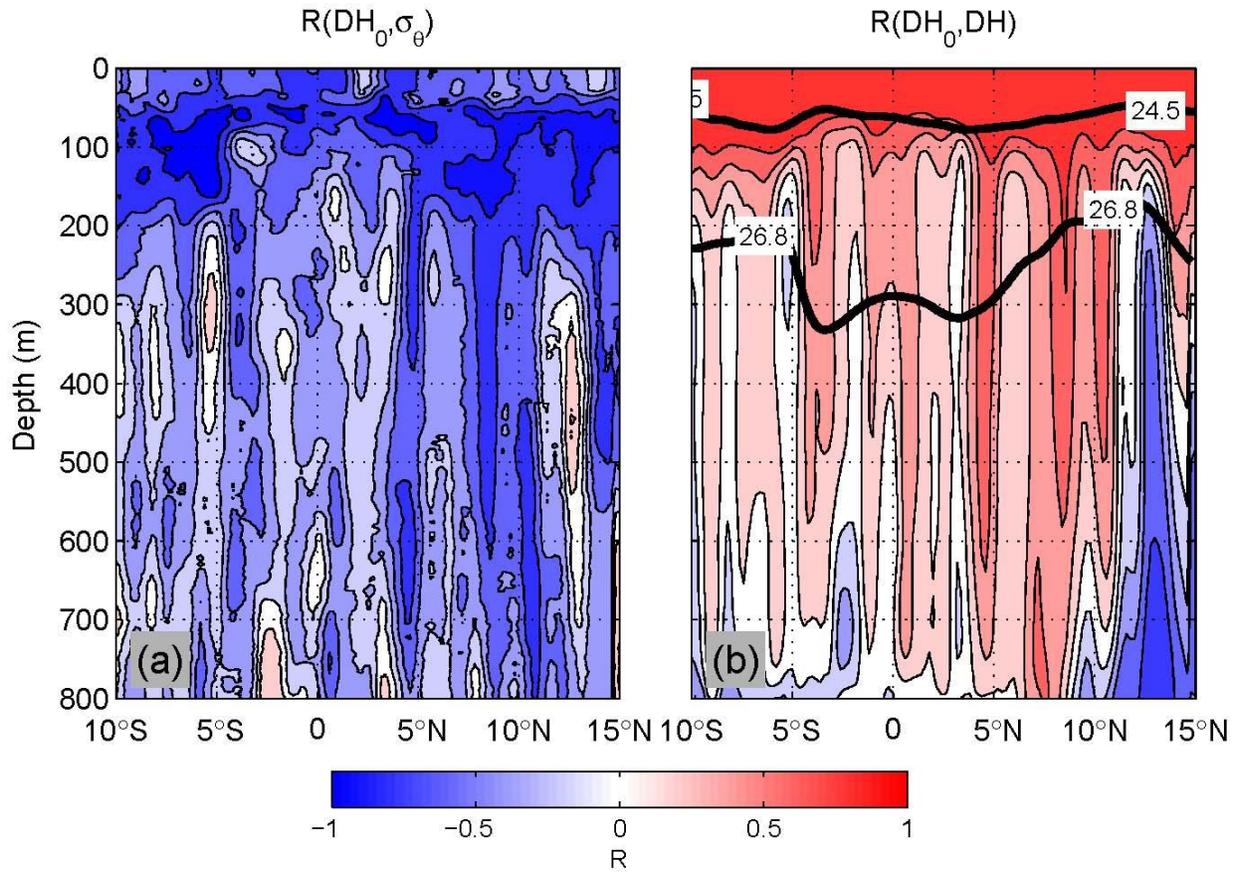
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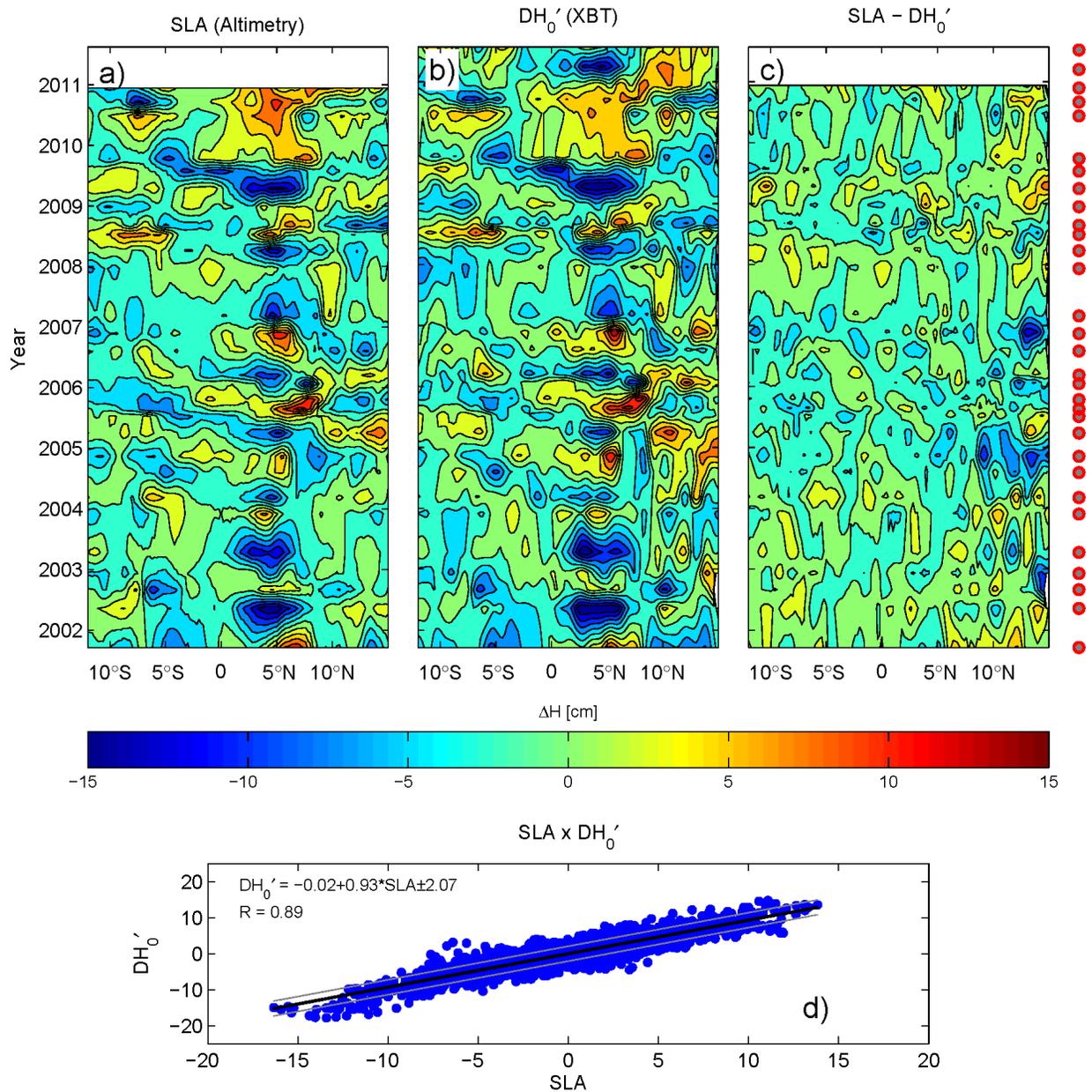
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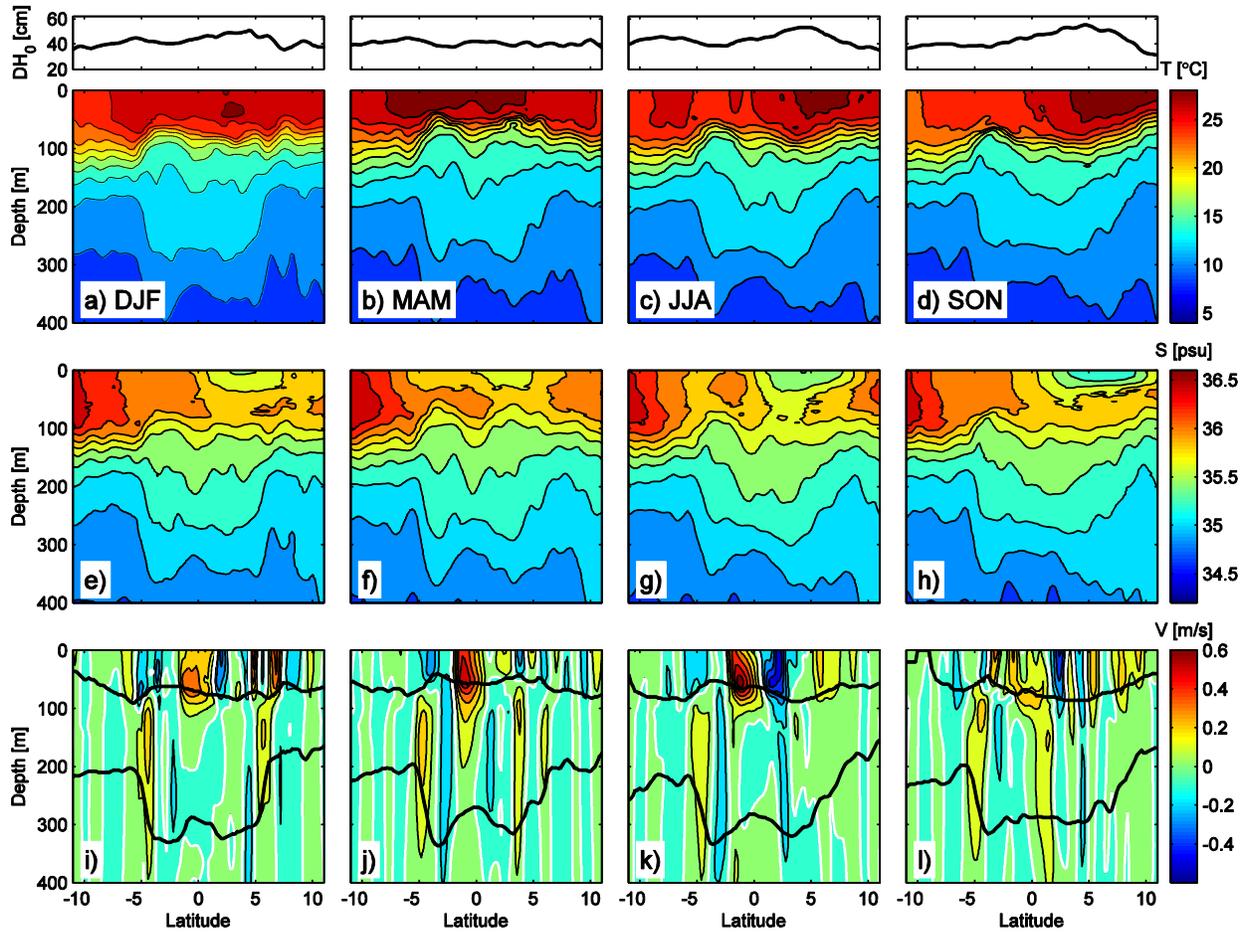


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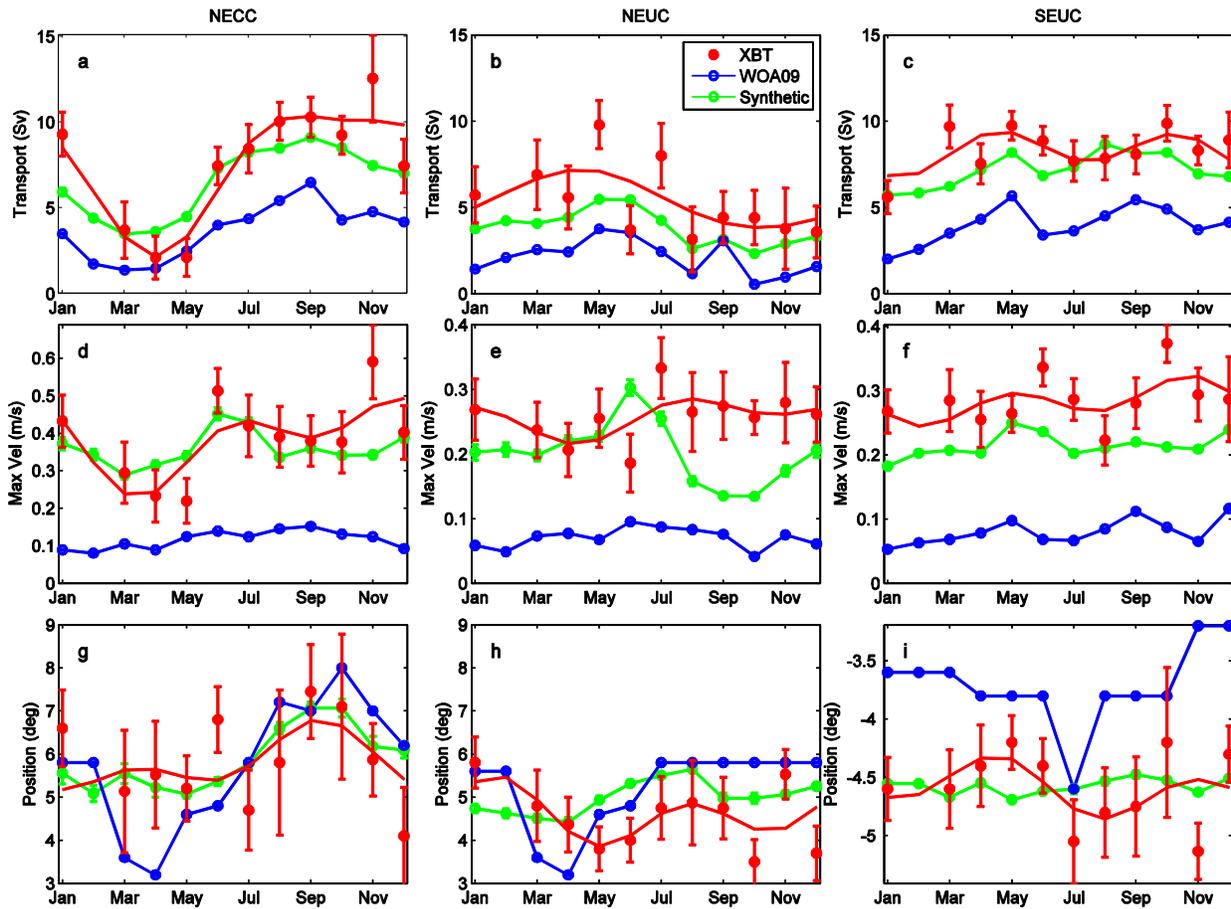
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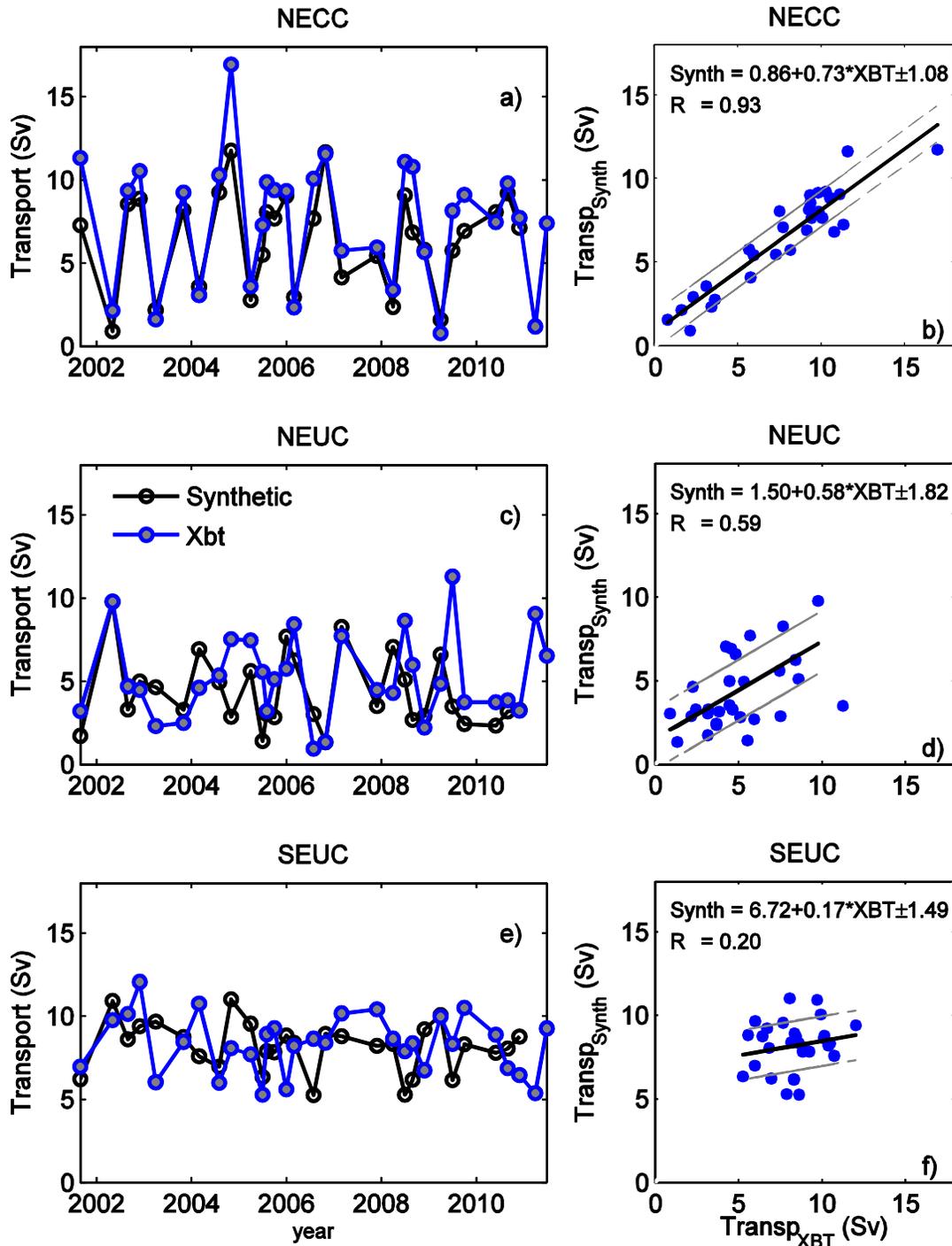
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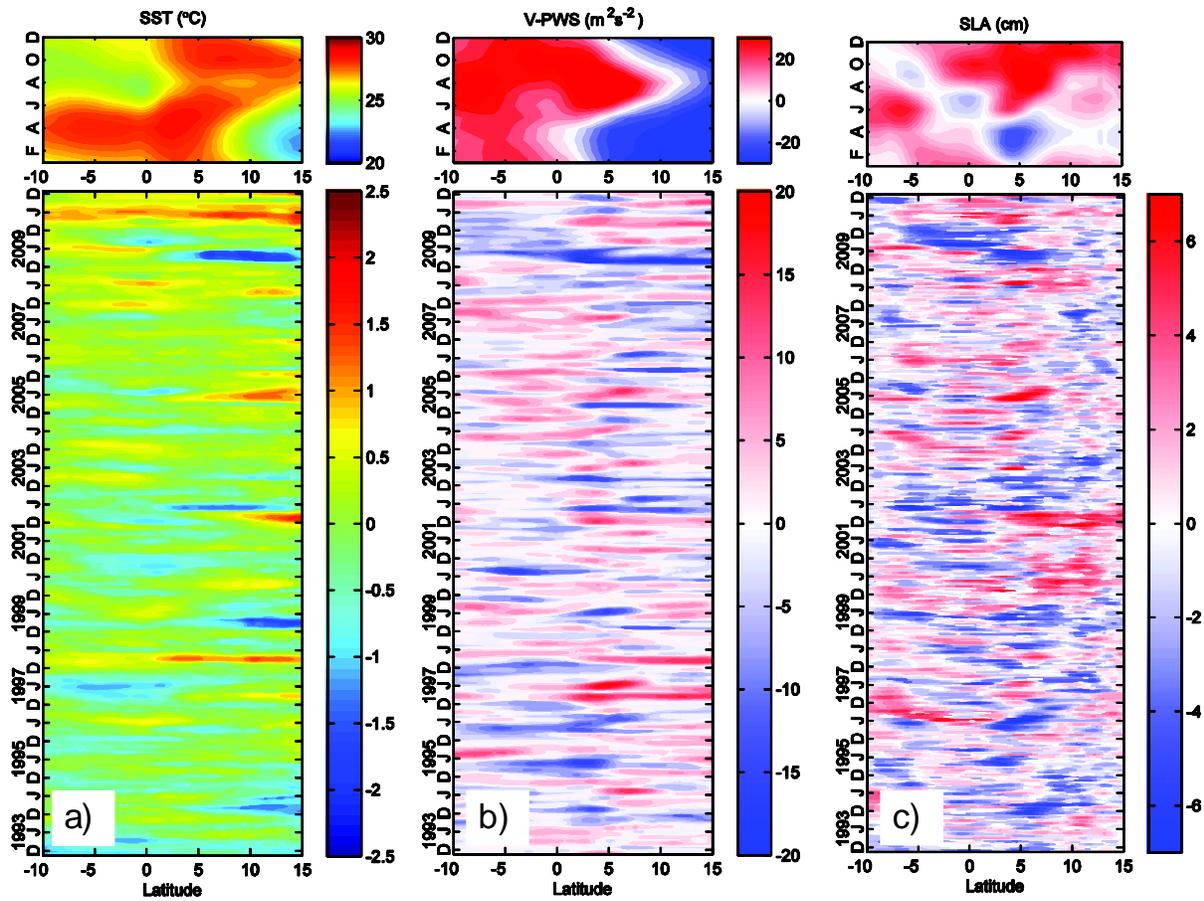


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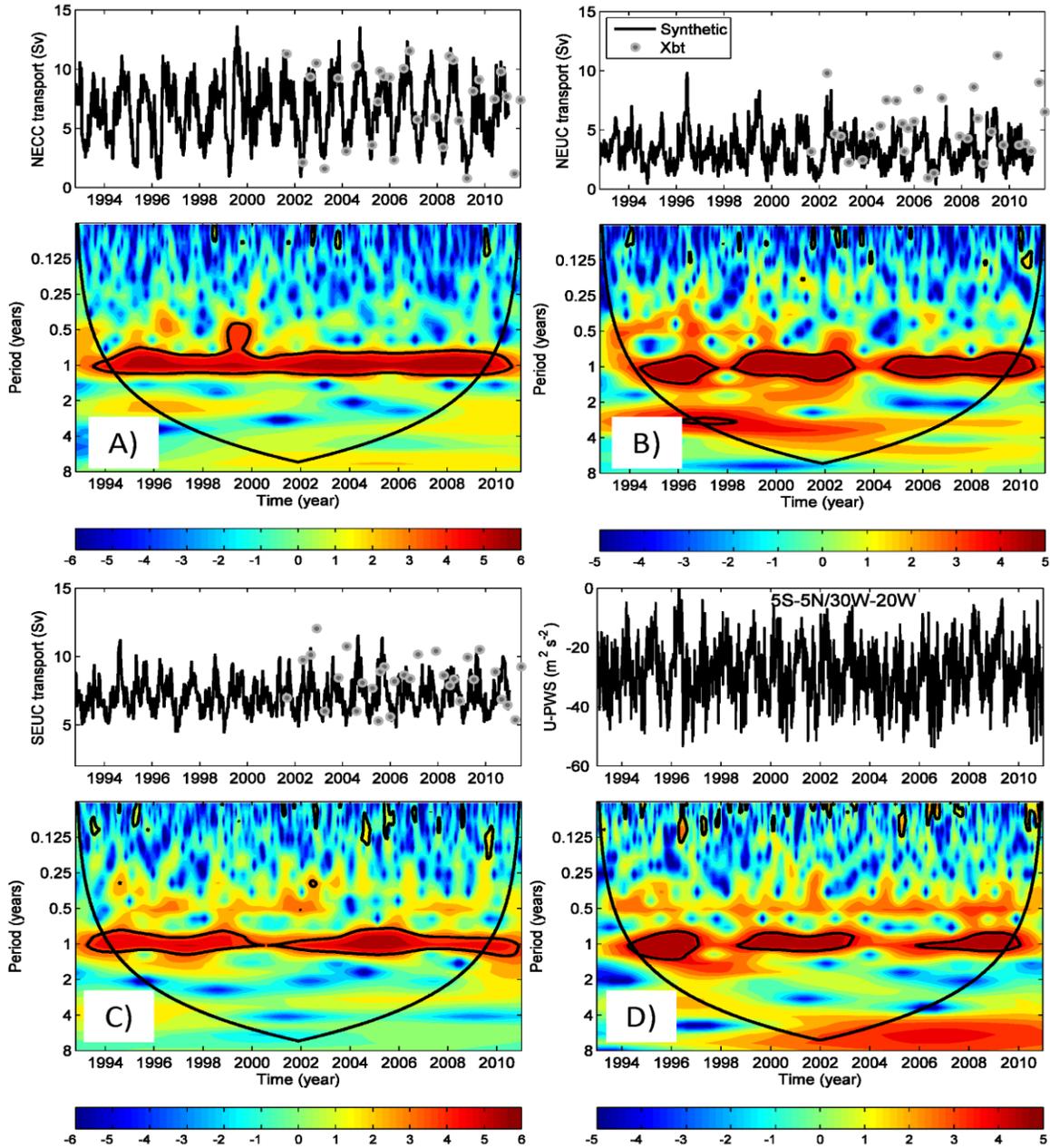
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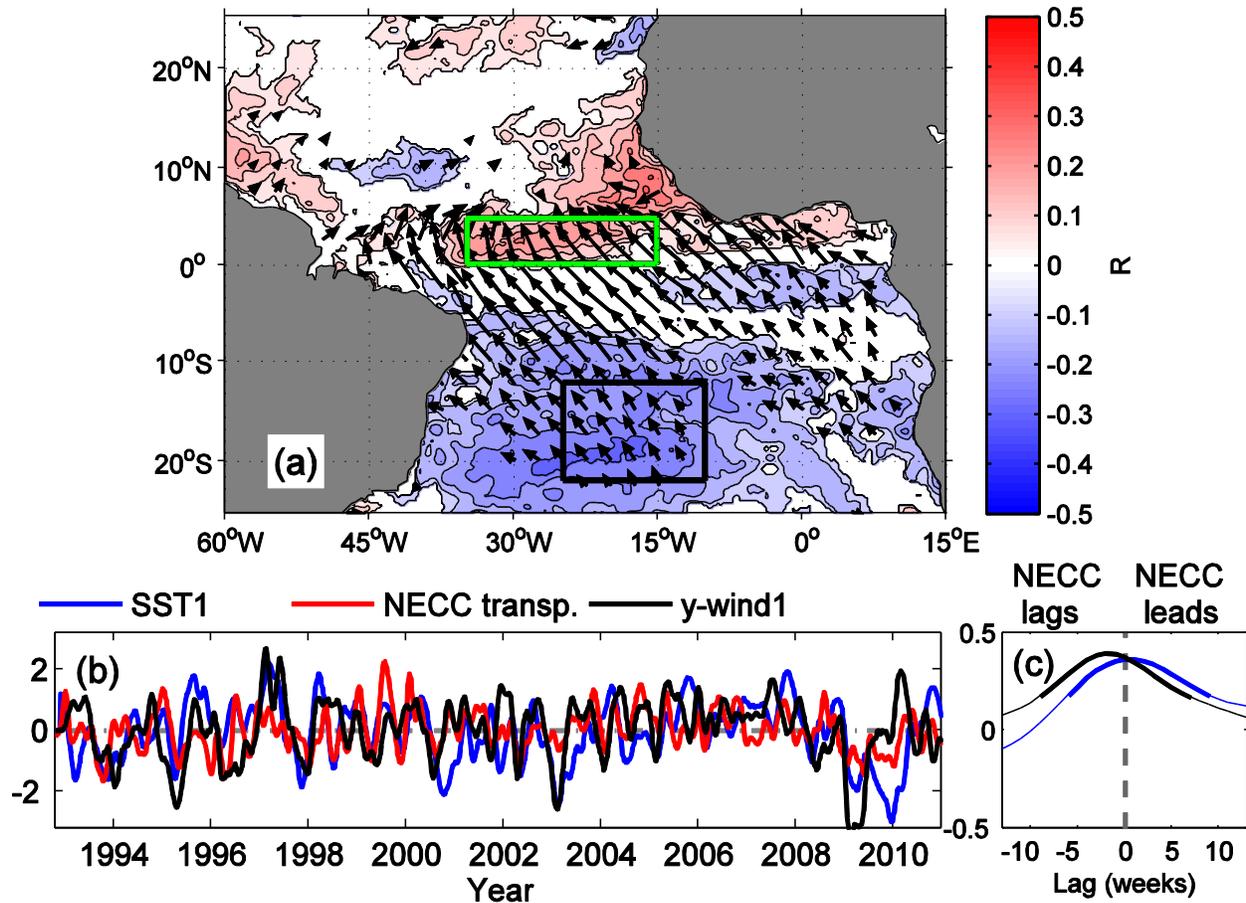
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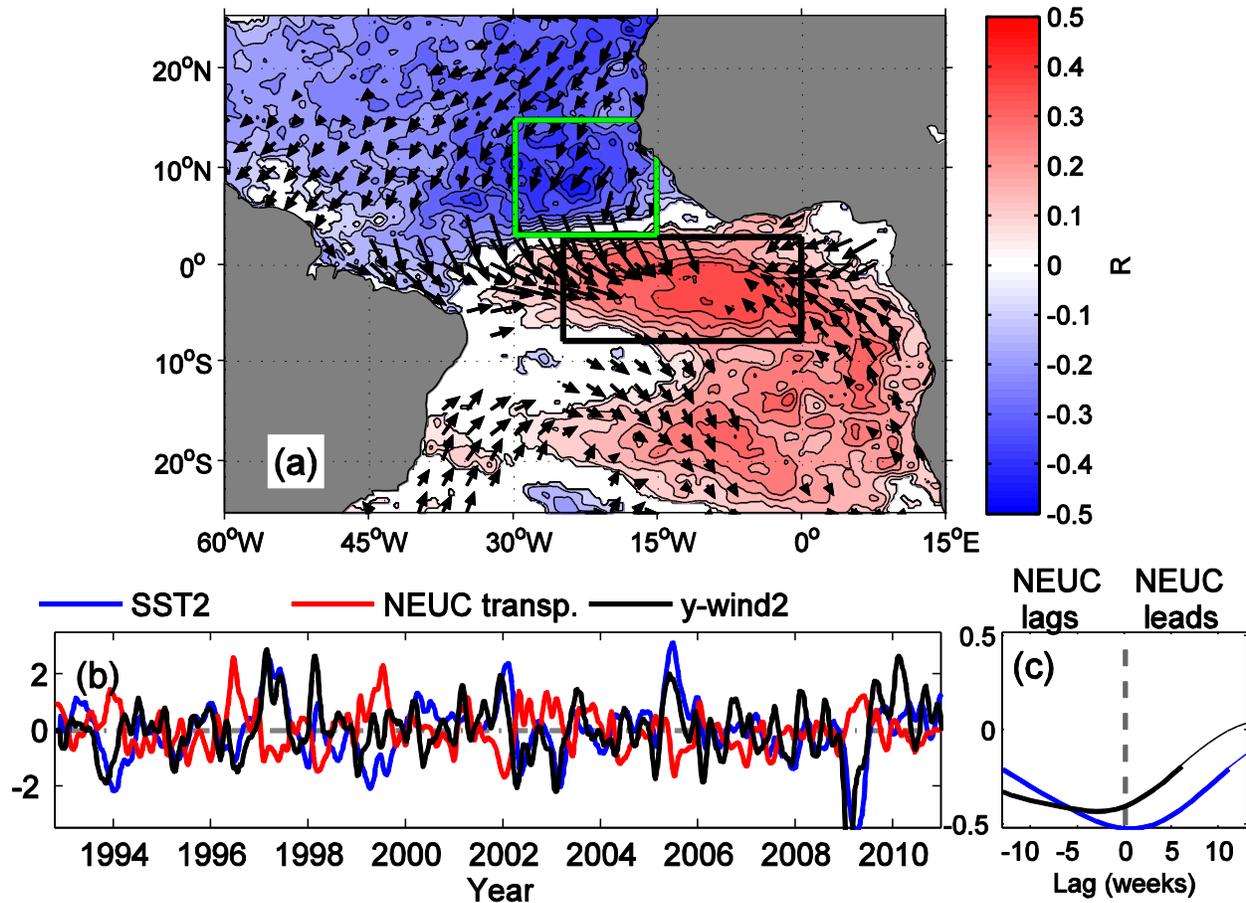
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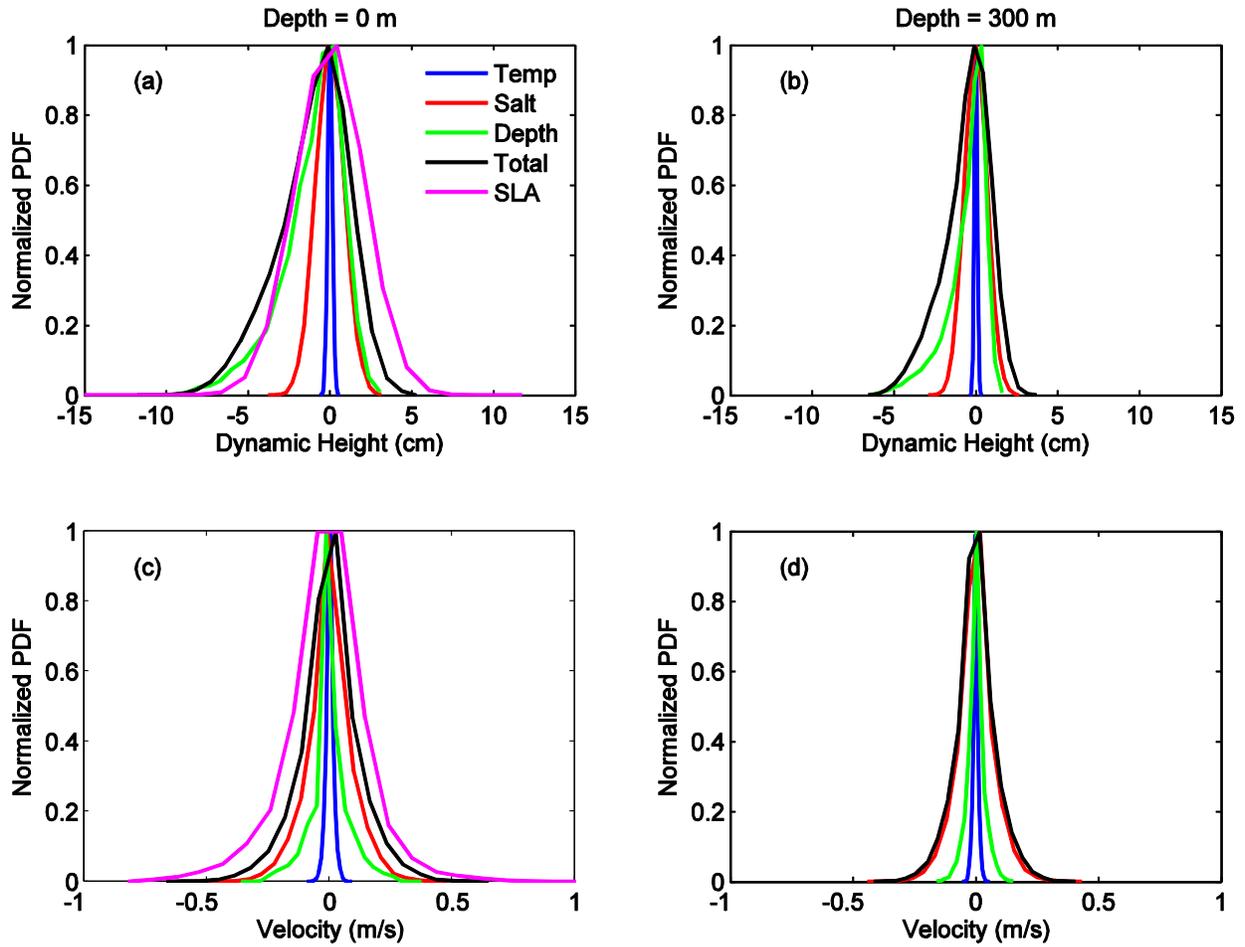
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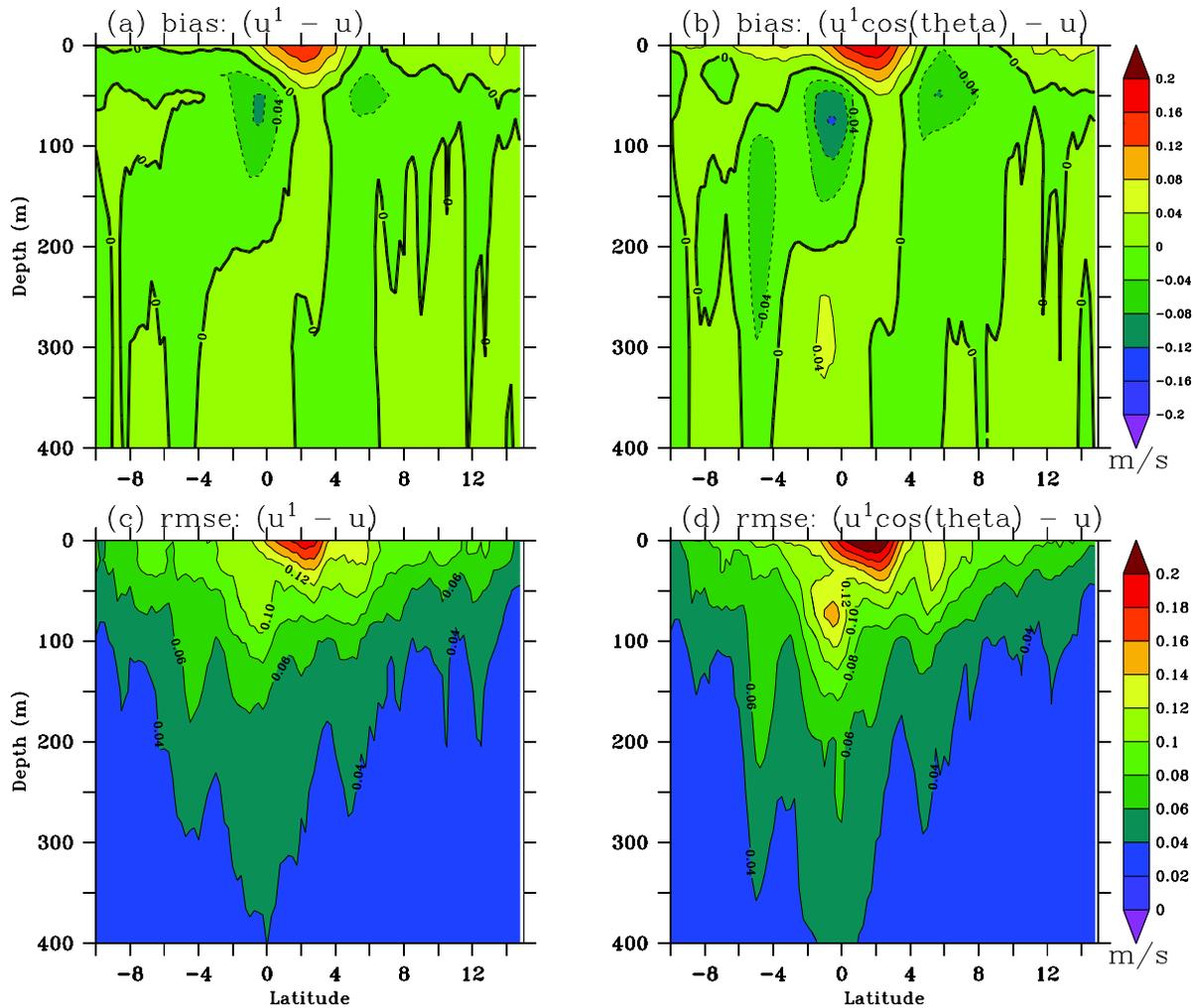
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1224 Table 1: Latitudinal and isopycnal ranges used in the volume transport calculations of the  
1225 Atlantic off-equatorial eastward currents.

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Current	Latitude	$\sigma_\theta$ (kg m <sup>-3</sup> )
NECC	3°N - 10°N	0 - 24.5
NEUC	3°N - 6°N	24.5 - 26.8
SEUC	6°S - 3°S	24.5 - 26.8

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1228 Table 2: Percentage of the variance of geostrophic volume transport, core velocity, and position  
1229 explained by the annual and semi-annual harmonics for each current band using the XBT  
1230 estimates.

Current	Transport (%)		Core Velocity (%)		Position (%)	
	Annual	Semi-annual	Annual	Semi-annual	Annual	Semi-annual
NECC	72	7	33	23	16	9
NEUC	35	1	21	12	13	31
SEUC	7	39	11	23	9	15

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1235 Table A1: Summary of Figure A1. The first column displays the typical measurement errors  
 1236 applied for each variable and the second one specifies the used error distribution, with  $N$  and  
 1237  $Unif$  denoting Gaussian and uniform distributions, respectively. The remaining columns are the  
 1238 confidence intervals defined as one standard deviation of the dynamic height ( $\sigma_{DH}$ ) and velocity  
 1239 ( $\sigma_V$ ) fields at the surface and 300 m depth. The 1- $\sigma$  levels have been derived from a bootstrap  
 1240 analysis with 300 samples.

Variable (error)	Error distribution	Surface		300 m	
		$\sigma_{DH}$ (cm)	$\sigma_V$ (m/s)	$\sigma_{DH}$ (cm)	$\sigma_V$ (m/s)
T ( $\sigma_T = 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ )	$\Delta T = N(0, \sigma_T^2)$	0.15	0.016	0.09	0.01
S ( $\sigma_S = 0.3$ psu)	$\Delta S = N(0, \sigma_S^2)$	0.89	0.095	0.71	0.076
Z ( $\sigma_{Z0} = 5$ m; $\sigma_{Z1} = 2\%$ of depth)	$\Delta Z = Unif([- \sigma_{Z0}, \sigma_{Z0}]) +$ $N(0, \sigma_{Z1}^2)$	1.94	0.078	1.26	0.035
Total	$\Delta T_{Tot} = E_{TEMP} + E_{SAL} + E_Z$	2.19	0.124	1.46	0.084
SLA ( $\sigma_{SLA} = 2$ cm; $\lambda = 300$ km)	$\Delta SLA = (N(0, \Sigma)  $ $\Sigma = (\sigma_{SLA}^2) \exp(-d/\lambda)$	2.09	0.171	--	--

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