

1 **Response of Southern Hemisphere western boundary current**
2 **regions to future zonally symmetric and asymmetric atmospheric**
3 **changes**

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12 **Key points**

13 1. Strong warming in the subtropical western boundary current extension regions is
14 projected in the future

15 2. Zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes can explain >30% of future warming in the
16 south Australia region, driven by ocean circulation changes

17 3. Understanding historical and future ocean changes requires the use of regionally varying
18 and not simply zonally symmetric wind forcing

19

20 **Abstract**

21 Subtropical Western Boundary Currents (WBCs) are often associated with hotspots of global
22 warming, with certain WBC extension regions warming 3-4 times faster than the global mean.
23 In the Southern Hemisphere strong warming over the WBC extensions has been observed
24 over the last few decades, with enhanced warming projected into the future. This amplified
25 warming has primarily been linked to poleward intensification of the mid-latitude westerly
26 winds in the Southern Hemisphere. Changes in these winds are often thought of as being
27 zonally symmetric, however, recent studies show that they contain strong zonal asymmetries
28 in certain ocean basins. The importance of these zonal asymmetries for the Southern Ocean
29 has not yet been investigated. In this study, we use an ocean-sea-ice model forced by
30 prescribed atmospheric fields to quantify the contribution of projected zonally asymmetric
31 atmospheric changes in generating future ocean warming and circulation changes in the
32 subtropical WBC regions of the Southern Hemisphere. We find that the projected zonally
33 asymmetric component of atmospheric change can explain more than 30% ($>2^{\circ}\text{C}$) of the SST
34 warming found in the Tasman Sea and southern Australia region and a sizeable fraction of
35 warming in the Agulhas Current region. These changes in SST in both the Indian and Pacific
36 Ocean basins are found to be primarily driven by changes in the large-scale subtropical ocean
37 gyres, which in turn can largely be explained by changes in the surface wind stress patterns.

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41 **Plain Language Summary**

42 Strong ocean currents are found on the western side of the ocean basins, which flow from
43 the tropics toward the poles in both hemispheres. These western boundary currents have
44 shown strong changes in the last few decades, which have resulted in amplified ocean
45 warming in the poleward extensions of these boundary currents; these changes are projected
46 to amplify further in the future. In the Southern Hemisphere, recent changes in the western
47 boundary currents are thought to have been primarily driven by changes in the surface
48 westerly winds that encircle Antarctica. These westerly winds are generally considered to be
49 changing uniformly in all three ocean basins, however, recent studies have shown that there
50 are strong regional variations both historically and in future projections. Here we find that
51 regional asymmetries in wind projections can account for about 30% of the projected
52 warming in the Tasman Sea and the southern Australia region and a sizeable fraction of
53 warming in the Agulhas Current region. This amplified warming in the Indian and the Pacific
54 Ocean basins is primarily driven by changes in ocean circulation.

55

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Subtropical western boundary currents (WBCs) are narrow, fast-flowing currents on the
58 western side of the ocean basins which transport warm tropical waters to the mid-latitudes
59 and form the western limb of the subtropical ocean gyres. WBCs are primarily driven by basin-
60 scale surface winds and are generally present in the upper 1000-1500 meters of the ocean.
61 They play a crucial role in the redistribution of heat (Cronin et al., 2010; Ganachaud &
62 Wunsch, 2003), pollutants (Rossi et al., 2013, Eriksen et al., 2013), biogeochemical tracers
63 (Williams & Follows, 2003) and marine larvae (Everett et al., 2017). Subtropical WBCs also
64 release large amounts of heat and moisture along their paths affecting the atmospheric
65 circulation, mid-latitude storms as well as ocean carbon uptake (Kwon et al., 2010; Minobe et
66 al., 2008; Takahashi et al., 2009).

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68 In the Southern Hemisphere, there are three major subtropical WBCs, the East Australia
69 Current (EAC) in the Pacific, the Agulhas Current in the Indian Ocean and the Brazil Current in
70 the Atlantic Ocean. Poleward extensions of these major subtropical WBCs in the Southern
71 Hemisphere are also the hotspots of global warming in the ocean and these regions have
72 shown amplified surface warming as compared to the global averaged Sea Surface
73 Temperature (SST) warming rate over the last few decades (Wu et al., 2012). For instance,
74 the EAC extension region in the South Pacific Ocean basin has been warming at 3-4 times the
75 global averaged SST warming rate over the last few decades (Oliver & Holbrook, 2014).

76

77 This amplified warming has been linked to the intensification of the WBC poleward extensions
78 (Wu et al., 2012) and has significant impacts on the ocean biogeochemistry and marine
79 ecology because of the intrusion of warm lower latitude waters in the relatively cooler mid-

80 latitude waters (Dubois et al., 2016). In the South Pacific, strong warming over the EAC
81 extension region was reported by early studies using in-situ Conductivity, Temperature and
82 Depth (CTD) and Expendable Bathythermograph (XBT) measurements (e.g., Ridgway et al.,
83 2008; Roemmich et al., 2007) and was associated with a strengthening of the EAC extension
84 (Ridgway, 2007). In the Atlantic Ocean, Goni et al., (2011) found a poleward shift and
85 amplified warming in the Brazil Current during 1993-2008 using satellite derived sea surface
86 height anomaly and SST data. Similarly in the Indian Ocean, Biastoch et al., (2009) found
87 warming near Southern Africa associated with an intensification of the Agulhas leakage. Later,
88 Wu et al., (2012) presented a comprehensive analysis of the surface changes in these WBCs
89 using satellite observations and found a strong warming over all these western boundary
90 current regions over the last few decades and suggested that this amplified warming over the
91 WBC extension regions is likely driven by the spin-up of portions of the subtropical gyre
92 circulations in the Southern Hemisphere. More recently, Yang et al., (2016) extended on this
93 to include an assessment of changes in the WBCs using satellite observations and data from
94 multiple Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 5 (CMIP5) models. Yang et al., (2016) found
95 a strong warming over the WBC extension regions associated with intensification of the
96 poleward extensions of the WBCs in the Southern Hemisphere in both the satellite
97 observations as well as historical simulations and future projections using the moderate
98 emission scenario (Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP4.5)) from the CMIP5. They
99 suggested that the changes in the WBC extension regions are primarily driven by changes in
100 the near surface wind stress curl which are driven by a poleward shift in the surface westerly
101 winds in the Southern Hemisphere extratropics associated with positive trend in the Southern
102 Annular Mode (SAM).

103

104 The westerly wind jet in the Southern Hemisphere extratropics has intensified and moved
105 poleward in the last few decades with strongest changes observed during austral summer.
106 This is driven primarily by the springtime stratospheric ozone depletion with a secondary role
107 played by the increasing greenhouse gases, both of which affect meridional temperature
108 gradients in the atmosphere (Arblaster and Meehl, 2006; Swart et al., 2015). The Southern
109 Hemisphere surface westerlies are projected to intensify and move further poleward in the
110 future (Goyal et al., 2021a) which are projected to cause further intensification of the
111 poleward portions of the Southern Hemisphere subtropical WBCs in the future (Sen Gupta et
112 al., 2021; Oliver & Holbrook, 2014; Yang et al., 2016).

113

114 Several studies in the past have examined the role of projected future changes in the
115 Southern Hemisphere extratropical surface westerly wind jet on the warming of the
116 subtropical WBC extension regions in the Southern Hemisphere (Duran et al., 2020; Oliver &
117 Holbrook, 2014; Yang et al., 2016). Variability and changes in the Southern Hemisphere
118 westerly wind jet are often considered zonally symmetric because of the absence of major
119 land and orographic features in the Southern Hemisphere extratropics, however, there are
120 important zonal asymmetries present in the flow such as the Zonal Wave 3 (Goyal et al.,
121 2021b; Raphael, 2004), Zonal Wave 1 (Raphael, 1998) and the Amundsen Sea Low (Goyal et
122 al., 2021c). Because of this, many ocean model studies (e.g., Delworth & Zeng, 2008; Downes
123 et al., 2017; Frankcombe et al., 2013; Hogg et al., 2017; Spence et al., 2014; Waugh et al.,
124 2019; to name a few) examine future changes in the Southern Ocean by explicitly applying
125 zonally symmetric future wind forcing over the Southern Hemisphere extratropics. While this
126 assumption may be reasonable to first order, past and projected future changes in the
127 Southern Hemisphere atmospheric circulation also contain significant regional variations

128 (zonal asymmetries) which may play an important role in driving different regional responses
129 in the Southern Ocean (Goyal et al., 2021a). Although few recent studies (e.g., Waugh et al.,
130 2020; Goyal et al., 2021a) have emphasized the presence of strong zonal asymmetries in both
131 the past and projected changes in the Southern Hemisphere atmospheric circulation, the
132 importance of these zonal asymmetries have yet to be quantified for the Southern Ocean. In
133 this study, we use an ocean-sea-ice model forced with prescribed atmospheric fields to isolate
134 the role played by the future zonally symmetric and asymmetric components of atmospheric
135 changes in surface warming and ocean circulation changes focusing on the Southern Ocean
136 subtropical WBC regions.

137

138 **2. Methods**

139 *Ocean model*

140 We use the Australian Community Climate Earth System Simulator - Ocean Model 2 v1.0
141 (ACCESS-OM2) coupled ocean-sea-ice model (Kiss et al., 2020). The model has a 360x300
142 horizontal mesh with a 1° zonal grid spacing. The meridional grid spacing is adjusted based on
143 the cosine of the latitude and also incorporates a refinement to 1/3° within 10° of the Equator.
144 More details on how the meridional grid spacing is computed can be obtained from Bi et al.,
145 (2013). ACCESS-OM2 consists of two-way coupled ocean and sea-ice models which are driven
146 by the prescribed atmospheric forcing. The ocean model component is the Modular Ocean
147 Model (MOM) version 5.1 from the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (Griffies, 2012)
148 and the sea-ice model component is the Los Alamos sea-ice model (CICE) version 5.1.2 from
149 Los Alamos National Laboratories (Hunke et al., 2015). The model components are coupled
150 using the Ocean Atmosphere Sea Ice Soil (OASIS3-MCT) version 2.0 from CERFACS and CNRS,
151 France (Valcke et al., 2015). In the horizontal direction, both MOM5 and CICE5 use the same

152 orthogonal curvilinear Arakawa B grid with velocity components co-located at the northeast
153 corner of tracer cells. The model has 50 levels in the vertical with 2.3 m spacing at the surface,
154 increasing smoothly to 219.6 m at the bottom at 5363.5 meters. Detailed information about
155 ACCESS-OM2 can be obtained from Kiss et al., (2020).

156

157 In this study we are particularly interested in evaluating the ocean component of future
158 projections in relation to the role of zonally-symmetric vs. zonally-asymmetric Southern
159 Hemisphere atmospheric forcing trends. With CMIP5 and CMIP6 projections typically run
160 using $\sim 1^\circ$ horizontal resolution ocean models, we also employ a 1-degree global ocean
161 model to explore the ocean response to zonally symmetric and asymmetric forcing at the
162 latitude of the Southern Hemisphere westerly wind belt. While coarse resolution models
163 clearly lack important physics, particularly in high energy areas like WBCs, previous higher-
164 resolution ocean and regional coupled model experiments, forced with projected changes
165 from CMIP models, show qualitatively similar ocean circulation responses to the CMIP models
166 (e.g., Biastoch & Böning, 2013; Bull et al., 2020; Feng et al., 2017; Oliver & Holbrook, 2014).

167

168 *Model simulations*

169 ACCESS-OM2 is forced with atmospheric forcing fields obtained from the ACCESS Coupled
170 Model version 2 (ACCESS-CM2) coupled climate model (Bi et al., 2020) which is a part of the
171 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project 6 (CMIP6) of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
172 Change (IPCC). A model spin-up is first carried out for 520 years by forcing the model with a
173 repeat cycle of the daily atmospheric forcing fields using a reference 40-year period of data
174 obtained from the pre-industrial control simulation of the ACCESS-CM2. Three 80-yr
175 simulations are branched from year 520 of the spin up. The first simulation (*CTRL*)

176 compromises two additional 40-yr cycles of the same daily surface forcing as the spin-up. The
177 second simulation (*Future* simulation) is similar except an offset is added to the surface
178 forcing. This offset represents the change in the mean state and seasonal cycle between the
179 pre-industrial period and 2081-2100 under the high emission scenario of the CMIP6 (Shared
180 Socio-economic pathway (SSP5-8.5)). This change in the surface forcing is calculated as the
181 difference between the 2081-2100 monthly mean climatology and the associated climatology
182 from the 40-yr pre-industrial reference period (refer to Fig. 1 and Fig. S1 for the surface
183 forcing offset used in the *Future* simulation). The full surface forcing for the *Future* simulation
184 is then comprised of the same 40 years of daily forcing used by the *CTRL* experiment, but with
185 the repeat climatological monthly mean future projections superimposed. The 2081-2100
186 climatology is calculated using the average of 3 ensemble members of ACCESS-CM2 subject
187 to SSP5-8.5 forcing, to reduce contamination by low frequency variability. By using this
188 atmospheric forcing, the daily variability is the same between all experiments, and any
189 changes can be related to changes in the mean state or the seasonal cycle. The third
190 simulation (*Symmetric*) is similar to the *Future* simulation, but it incorporates the *zonal mean*
191 of the *Future* surface forcing poleward of 25°S (refer to Fig. 1 and Fig. S2 for the surface forcing
192 offset used in the simulation and Fig. S3 for the projected zonally asymmetric atmospheric
193 changes). To eliminate any sudden gradients in the data by imposing a zonal mean anomaly
194 south of 25°S, a buffer region has been used and a linear tapering is applied between 20-25°S.
195 Only the last 40 years of each of the three experiments are used to allow time for the ocean
196 to adjust to the change in forcing.

197

198 All results presented show the differences between the two future simulations and the *CTRL*
199 simulation to account for any spurious drift in the model simulations. Therefore, differences

200 between the *Future* and *CTRL* simulations provide an estimate of the “total” projected
201 changes and differences between the *Symmetric* and *CTRL* simulations provide an estimate
202 of the changes only related to the zonally symmetric atmospheric changes in the Southern
203 Hemisphere extratropics. Future changes related to the zonally asymmetric atmospheric
204 changes only are estimated as a difference between the *Future* and *Symmetric* simulations.

205

206 **3. Surface warming of the subtropical western boundary current regions**

207 Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Xie, 2020; Yang et al., 2016), we find warming
208 throughout the Southern Ocean and a substantially amplified warming in the poleward
209 extensions of the subtropical western boundary current regions in the *Future* simulation (Fig.
210 2a). In particular, strong warming is found in the Brazil and Malvinas confluence and the EAC
211 extension regions while a more muted warming occurs in the Agulhas Current region. When
212 only zonally symmetric future atmospheric anomalies are prescribed south of 25°S, a similar
213 SST warming signature is found (Fig. 2b) suggesting that to first order, the future changes in
214 the Southern Ocean SST warming are driven by the zonally symmetric changes in the
215 atmospheric forcing. However, zonal asymmetries play an important role in certain regions
216 of the Southern Ocean (Fig. 2c). It is interesting to note that out of all the three major warming
217 regions (subtropical WBC extension regions), the Brazil and Malvinas confluence region is the
218 only one where the SST warming is almost completely explained by zonally symmetric
219 atmospheric changes. In contrast, the *Symmetric* simulation shows strong reduction in
220 warming as compared to the *Future* simulation in the region South of Australia and in the
221 Tasman Sea and also shows somewhat muted warming in the Agulhas Current region (Fig.
222 2b). These regional differences may arise from the fact that the zonal asymmetries in the
223 atmospheric fields, in particular the winds, are strongest in the Pacific, followed by the Indian

224 Ocean and are relatively weak in the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 1). The zonally asymmetric
225 atmospheric changes accounts for more than 30% of the ocean warming in parts of the
226 Tasman Sea and a weaker warming over the Agulhas Current region (Fig. 2c). We anticipate
227 that changes in the ocean circulation may play an important role in driving these changes.
228 This will be investigated in the next section.

229

230 An extensive area of relatively weak warming extends across the southeast Pacific in the
231 *Future* simulation between 20-40°S (Fig. 2a). This patch vanishes in the *Symmetric* simulation
232 (Fig. 2b) and is therefore visible as a strong cooling SST anomaly associated with zonally
233 asymmetric forcing (Fig. 2c). A collocated area of weak prescribed surface air temperature
234 warming is also found in the *Future* simulation (Fig. 1g) which vanishes in the *Symmetric* case
235 as the zonal mean anomaly is applied (Fig. 1h). The cooling SST anomaly in the zonally
236 asymmetric case is related to the collocated prescribed surface air temperature forcing.
237 Moreover, no substantial changes in the oceanic heat transport were found in this region (not
238 shown). As the zonally asymmetric component of the atmospheric forcing only has strong
239 effects in the Indian and the Pacific Ocean with little influence in the Atlantic Ocean (Fig. 2c),
240 we now focus only on the projected changes in the Indo-Pacific region.

241

242 **4. Projected changes in ocean circulation**

243 To help understand the changes in the projected SST warming in the WBC extension regions,
244 we next examine changes in the upper ocean western boundary currents (vertically
245 integrated from 0-100 meters as a proxy for the mixed layer depth) to determine if changes
246 in the strength of the subtropical western boundary currents in the Indian and the Pacific
247 Ocean are important for the amplification of the ocean SST warming. In the Pacific, an intense

248 EAC is found in the *CTRL* simulation which flows from tropical latitudes southward until most
249 of the current retroflects eastward as the Tasman front at approximately 32°S (Fig. 3a).
250 Direction of flow of these currents does not change when integrated to a deeper depth (refer
251 to Fig. S4 for 0-1000 m depth integrated currents). In the *Future* simulation, while the EAC
252 north of 30°S and the Tasman front are projected to weaken slightly, a substantial
253 strengthening of the EAC extension and Tasman leakage flowing westward south of Tasmania,
254 is projected. These results are consistent with previous studies which found similar projected
255 changes in the subtropical western boundary currents in the Pacific Ocean using multiple
256 CMIP5 and CMIP6 models (Sen Gupta et al., 2021). When only zonally symmetric future
257 atmospheric changes are prescribed, similar but weaker changes are found along the EAC,
258 Tasman front, EAC extension and the Tasman Leakage (Fig. 3e). Although zonally symmetric
259 anomalies appear to drive the majority of changes in the Pacific basin, more than 30% of the
260 ocean current changes along the major flow pathways are associated with the zonally
261 asymmetric atmospheric changes (Fig. 3g).

262

263 In the Indian Ocean, a strong Agulhas Current in the upper ocean (0-100m) is found in the
264 *CTRL* simulation flowing poleward from the tropical latitudes between Madagascar and the
265 mainland (Fig. 3b). After breaking away from the coast near the southern tip of Africa, the
266 Agulhas Current retroflects eastward and flows as the Agulhas return Current. A part of the
267 Agulhas Current also flows westward from the retroflexion point as the Agulhas leakage (Fig.
268 3b, refer to Fig. S4 for 0-1000m depth integrated current). Another albeit weaker WBC, the
269 East Madagascar Current (EMC), is found in the Indian Ocean flowing poleward to the east of
270 Madagascar, before retroflecting eastward after reaching the southern tip of Madagascar
271 (Fig. 3b, Fig. S4). A small portion of the EMC also connects with the Agulhas Current in the

272 region south of Madagascar and flows eastward from the Agulhas Current to the EMC
273 extension (Fig. 3b). When integrated from surface to 1000 meters depth, the EMC turns
274 westward after reaching south of Madagascar and feeds into the Agulhas Current (Fig. S4)
275 consistent with observations (Davis, 2005).

276

277 In the *Future* simulation, a weakening of the Agulhas Current close to the southern tip of
278 Africa is found with little change found in the Agulhas Current further north (Fig. 3d). An
279 increase in the Agulhas leakage and weakening of the eastward retroflected Agulhas return
280 current along with a weakening of both the EMC as well as its extension are also found in the
281 *Future* simulation (Fig. 3d). While most of the changes in the Agulhas leakage, Agulhas return
282 Current, the EMC and its extension are reproduced in the *Symmetric* simulation, the
283 asymmetric forcing components appear to counteract some of the changes simulated to the
284 west and south of Mozambique in the *Symmetric* simulation, also causing a small additional
285 weakening of the retroflexion (Fig. 3f, 3h). Flow in the region connecting the Agulhas Current
286 and the EMC is also projected to strengthen in the *Future* simulation and this change seems
287 to be largely driven by zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes (Fig. 3h).

288

289 **5. Changes in volume and heat transport**

290 Strengthening of the EAC extension and weakening of the Tasman front in the *Future*
291 simulation results in an increase in the poleward volume and heat transport of warm
292 subtropical waters into the Tasman Sea (Fig. 4a, c). Most of this additional subtropical water
293 and about half of the additional heat leaves the Tasman Sea via an intensified Tasman leakage
294 in the *Future* simulation (Fig. 4a) resulting in more heat being transported westwards in the
295 region south of Australia (Fig. 4c) with a small amount of additional transport of heat

296 polewards. Overall, there is net heat gain in the Tasman Sea region (Fig. 4a, 4c). This heat gain
297 from ocean advection is then lost to the atmosphere by surface heat fluxes (Fig. 4c). The small
298 residuals found after adding the advection and surface heat flux terms would be due to
299 vertical processes (i.e., diffusion and upwelling) at the bottom of the box (at 100-meters
300 depth) and errors associated with using monthly-averaged temperature and velocity fields.
301 Similar sign changes in the volume and heat transport compared to the *Future* simulation can
302 be seen for both the zonally symmetric and asymmetric forcing anomalies, with asymmetric
303 atmospheric changes alone contributing close to 30% of the total changes in the poleward
304 heat and volume transport on the equatorward side of the box (Fig. 4a, 4c).

305

306 In the Indian Ocean, the Agulhas circulation weakens slightly in the *Future* simulation with
307 more weakening poleward of 33°S as compared to the northern part of the current. This
308 results in less warm water entering from the north via the Agulhas Current and less water
309 feeding southward on the poleward side of the box which is compensated by more water
310 escaping towards the east in the *Future* simulation as compared to the *CTRL* simulation (Fig.
311 4b, 4d). The net result from the ocean advection is a net heat gain in this region (shown by a
312 box in Fig. 4d) which is balanced by additional heat loss to the atmosphere in the *Future*
313 simulation (Fig. 4d). Here again, small residuals are found which are due to changes in the
314 vertical fluxes across 100-meters depth. Similar to the *Future* simulation, the Agulhas Current
315 is found to weaken in the future in the *Symmetric* simulation. However, more weakening on
316 the northward edge of the box and a muted weakening on the poleward side of the box is
317 found in the *Symmetric* simulation as compared to the *Future* simulation (Fig. 4b). This results
318 in net poleward heat transport on the northward edge of the box due to projected zonally
319 asymmetric atmospheric forcing (Fig. 4d). On the eastern and southern edges, changes in the

320 heat and volume transport are primarily related to the asymmetric component of forcing (Fig.
321 4b, 4d). The result is a net heat gain from advection of heat due to zonally asymmetric forcing
322 which is balanced by additional heat loss to the atmosphere (Fig. 4d).

323

324 **6. Changes in the large-scale ocean circulation**

325 Next we look more broadly at the basin scale changes in the Southern Hemisphere subtropical
326 gyre circulations. To do this, we investigate changes in the barotropic streamfunction (Fig. 5a-
327 f). In the Pacific basin, there is a cyclonic anomaly to the north and an anticyclonic anomaly
328 to the south in the *Future* simulation as compared to the *CTRL* simulation which means that
329 the EAC core and the Tasman front are projected to weaken and the EAC extension and the
330 Tasman leakage are projected to strengthen in the *Future* simulation (Fig. 5a) which agrees
331 well with the transports derived from the upper 100 meters (Fig. 4a, 4c). This highlights that
332 the common description of a future intensification of the South Pacific subtropical gyre is
333 misleading as the strengthening is only projected in the southern part of the gyre (Fig. 5a).
334 Here again, the *Symmetric* simulation reproduces a large part of this change in the barotropic
335 streamfunction (Fig. 5c). However, future zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes also
336 account for a substantial part of the total future changes in the barotropic streamfunction
337 with a reduced gyral circulation north of $\sim 28^{\circ}\text{S}$ and an amplified circulation south of this
338 latitude (Fig. 4a, 5e).

339

340 In the Indian Ocean, there is also a cyclonic anomaly to the north and an anticyclonic anomaly
341 to the south in the *Future* simulation (Fig. 5b). Most of the changes in the barotropic
342 streamfunction found in the *Future* simulation can be explained by the zonally symmetric
343 changes (Fig. 5d). However, asymmetric atmospheric changes result in a weak cyclonic

344 anomaly off southeast Africa that acts to reduce southward volume transport and a weak
345 anticyclonic anomaly near Madagascar that acts to increase southward volume transport (Fig.
346 5f). This translates to increased poleward transport of warm tropical water from the north
347 and reduced poleward volume transport to the south, resulting in warm SST anomalies in the
348 region (Fig. 4d).

349

350 To examine the cause of the ocean circulation changes, we calculate the Sverdrup
351 streamfunction by zonally integrating the surface wind stress curl in each ocean. More
352 sophisticated approaches are possible where effects due to the presence of islands (e.g., New
353 Zealand and Madagascar) are considered while computing the Sverdrup streamfunction (e.g.,
354 Island rule calculations using Godfrey, 1989). However, these island rule calculations are
355 known to not perform well in the South Pacific (Wajsowicz, 1993). To first order the barotropic
356 circulation can be understood in terms of changes in the surface winds via Sverdrup theory.
357 Both the mean Sverdrup circulation and the asymmetric component of the change (Fig. 5g, h)
358 are qualitatively similar to the corresponding barotropic streamfunction (Fig. 5e, f). In
359 particular, off Australia, we find a reduction in the southward volume transport at $\sim 25^{\circ}\text{S}$ and
360 an increase in the southward volume transport at $\sim 32^{\circ}\text{S}$ (Fig. 5g). Similarly, in the Indian
361 Ocean, we find an increase in the southward volume transport at $\sim 25^{\circ}\text{S}$ and a reduction in
362 the southward volume transport at $\sim 32^{\circ}\text{S}$, consistent with the changes in the barotropic
363 streamfunction because of the projected zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes in this
364 region (Fig. 5h).

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366

367

368 7. Summary and Discussions

369 An ocean-sea-ice model forced by prescribed atmospheric fields is used to examine the
370 relative importance of zonally symmetric vs. zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes for
371 future projected upper ocean changes in the Southern Hemisphere mid-latitudes. We found
372 that the projected changes are largely driven by the zonally symmetric component of the
373 forcing, however, zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes play a substantial role in
374 generating projected changes in the Indian as well as Pacific Ocean basins. The zonally
375 asymmetric component of forcing can itself explain more than 30% ($>2^{\circ}\text{C}$) of the projected
376 SST warming in the Tasman Sea and south Australia region and a sizeable fraction of warming
377 in the Agulhas Current region. These changes are likely driven by the changes in the ocean
378 circulation in both these ocean basins due to zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes, which
379 results in an increase in the poleward transport of warm subtropical water to the Southern
380 Hemisphere mid-latitudes. An increase in the poleward transport of warm subtropical water
381 leads to net heat gain in the Tasman Sea and southeast Africa regions. Investigation of
382 changes in the Sverdrup circulation resulting from changes to the surface wind stress curl
383 suggests that the total projected changes in the ocean circulation are related to both the
384 zonally symmetric as well as zonally asymmetric changes in the atmospheric circulation.
385 Sverdrup calculation also shows that the zonal asymmetries in the wind forcing as opposed
386 to zonal asymmetries in the surface heat fluxes can explain the changes in the ocean
387 circulation.

388

389 A potential issue with our experimental design is the possibility of spurious wind stress curl
390 anomalies at the boundary between $20\text{-}25^{\circ}\text{S}$ in the *Symmetric* simulation. To test this, we
391 conduct another simulation in which we apply zonal mean future anomalies at all latitudes.

392 We found very little difference in the magnitude of projected SST warming indicating that
393 zonally asymmetric circulation changes further north have little impact on the results
394 presented in this study (Fig. S5).

395

396 We calculate the contribution of projected zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes by
397 subtracting the changes in the *Symmetric* simulation from the *Future* simulation and
398 therefore assume that the symmetric and asymmetric components combine linearly to give
399 the total response. However, their responses may not be independent of each other. For
400 instance, the unprecedented 2015-16 Antarctic sea-ice decline event was linked to the
401 presence of a strong zonal wavenumber 3 in the Southern Hemisphere extratropical
402 atmospheric circulation (Meehl et al., 2019; Purich & England, 2019; Wang et al., 2019),
403 however, its influence on the Antarctic sea-ice may have been affected by the poleward
404 contracting zonal mean westerly wind jet in the Southern Hemisphere. This issue of non-
405 linearity has not been discussed here and can be possibly addressed in future studies.

406

407 As the future atmospheric circulation changes over the Southern Hemisphere extratropics are
408 largely zonally symmetric, ocean modelling studies carried out to examine projected ocean
409 changes (associated with variability and long term changes) have often prescribed zonally
410 symmetric projected atmospheric forcing (e.g., Delworth & Zeng, 2008; Downes et al., 2017;
411 Frankcombe et al., 2013; Hogg et al., 2017; Spence et al., 2014; Waugh et al., 2019 to name a
412 few). Goyal et al., (2021a) showed substantial zonal asymmetries in the projected surface
413 westerly winds in the Southern Hemisphere extratropics using multiple CMIP5 and CMIP6
414 models. Here we show that these zonal asymmetries are important and can explain a
415 substantial fraction of the upper ocean changes in the Pacific and Indian Ocean basins. Our

416 results thus suggest that prescribing a zonal mean wind anomaly may underestimate future
417 upper ocean changes particularly in the subtropical WBC extension regions. Instead, full
418 zonally-varying atmospheric anomalies should be used to examine the role of future
419 atmospheric changes over the region. While we acknowledge that different models can show
420 large diversity in their projected responses (Sen Gupta et al., 2021), this study demonstrates
421 that zonal asymmetries in future changes can in principle have large impacts on regional
422 circulation change.

423

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428 Australian Government's National Environmental Science Programme (NESP) and the Centre
429 for Southern Hemisphere Oceans Research (CSHOR), a joint research centre between QNLM,
430 CSIRO, UNSW and UTAS. All the model simulations and analysis were conducted on the
431 National Computational Infrastructure (NCI) facility based in Canberra, Australia.

432

433 **Data availability statement**

434 ACCESS-CM2 data used to force the ocean model simulations can be downloaded from the
435 Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) - <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>. Data from
436 the ocean model simulations required to reproduce the results presented in this study has
437 been made available and can be freely download from

438 [https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/7sw7kf8nxk/draft?a=b9062eee-4582-4187-948d-](https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/7sw7kf8nxk/draft?a=b9062eee-4582-4187-948d-cbd194901206)
439 [cbd194901206](https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/7sw7kf8nxk/draft?a=b9062eee-4582-4187-948d-cbd194901206).

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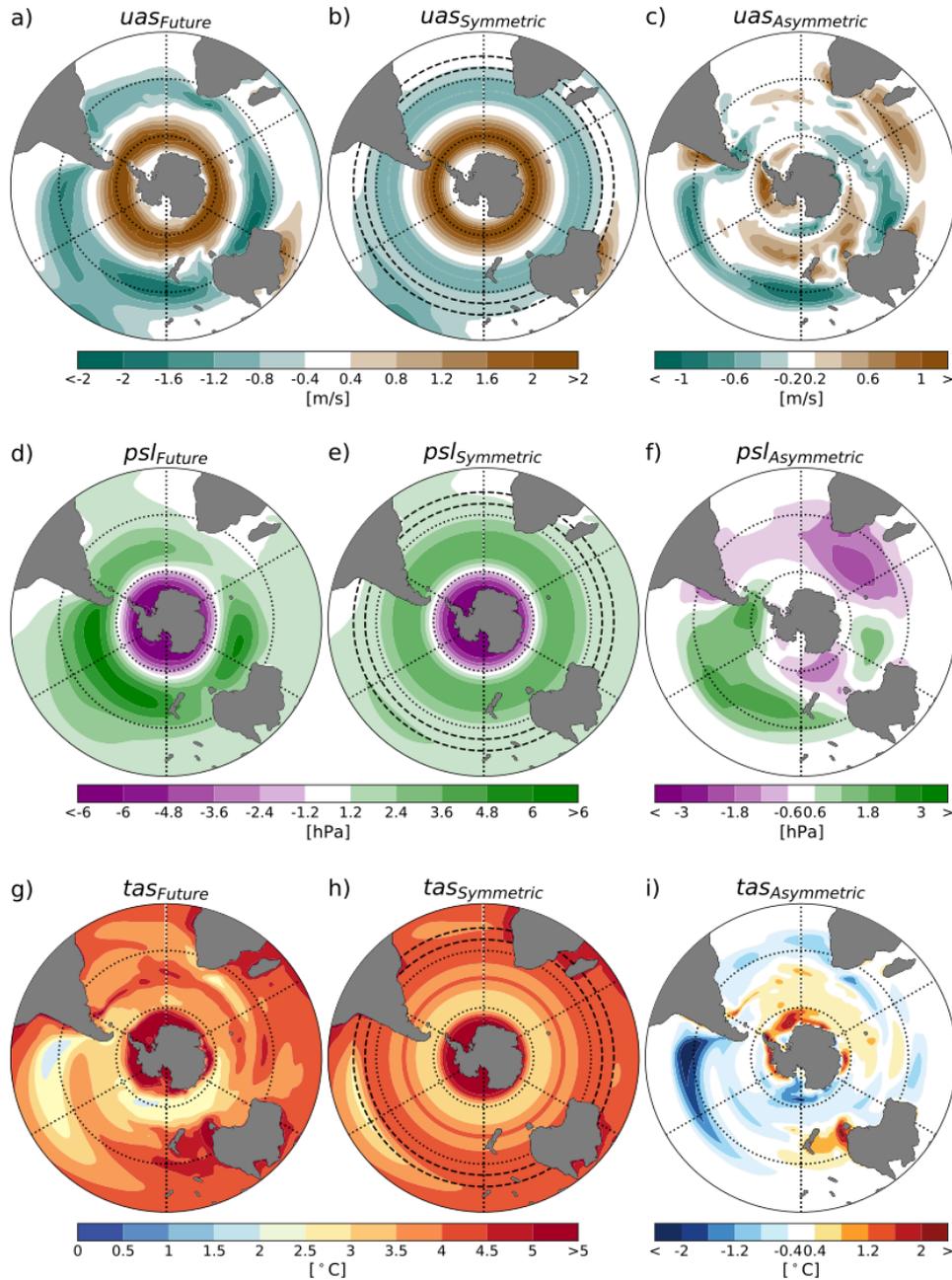
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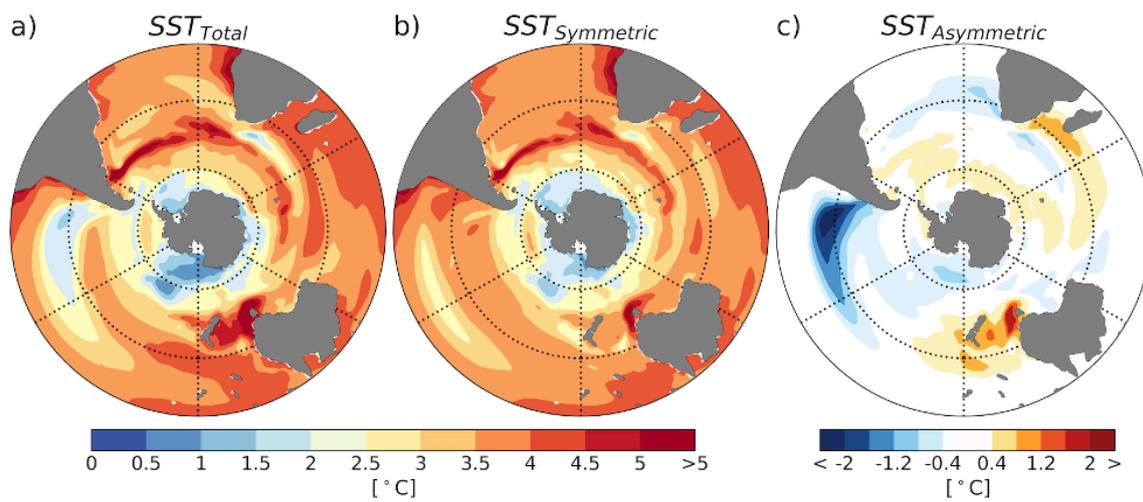
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609 **Figure 1** | End of the 21st Century (2081-2100 average) atmospheric field anomalies computed
 610 from the ACCESS-CM2 simulations. Left column shows full 2081-2100 annual averaged
 611 anomaly as the mean of three ensemble members used for *Future* simulation. Middle column
 612 shows the 2081-2100 annual averaged future anomaly for the *Symmetric* simulation where
 613 zonally symmetric anomaly is prescribed south of 25°S. Right column shows the difference
 614 between the left and the middle column. Top row represents zonal wind anomaly (*uas*),
 615 middle row represents mean sea level pressure anomaly (*psl*) and bottom row represents
 616 surface air temperature anomaly (*tas*). Thick dashed lines in the middle column represent the
 617 tapering region between the zonal mean anomalies south of 25°S and the full anomalies north
 618 of 20°S.



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620 **Figure 2 |** Sea Surface Temperature (SST) change because of Total (panel a), Symmetric (panel
 621 b) and Asymmetric (panel c) atmospheric changes in the Southern Hemisphere.
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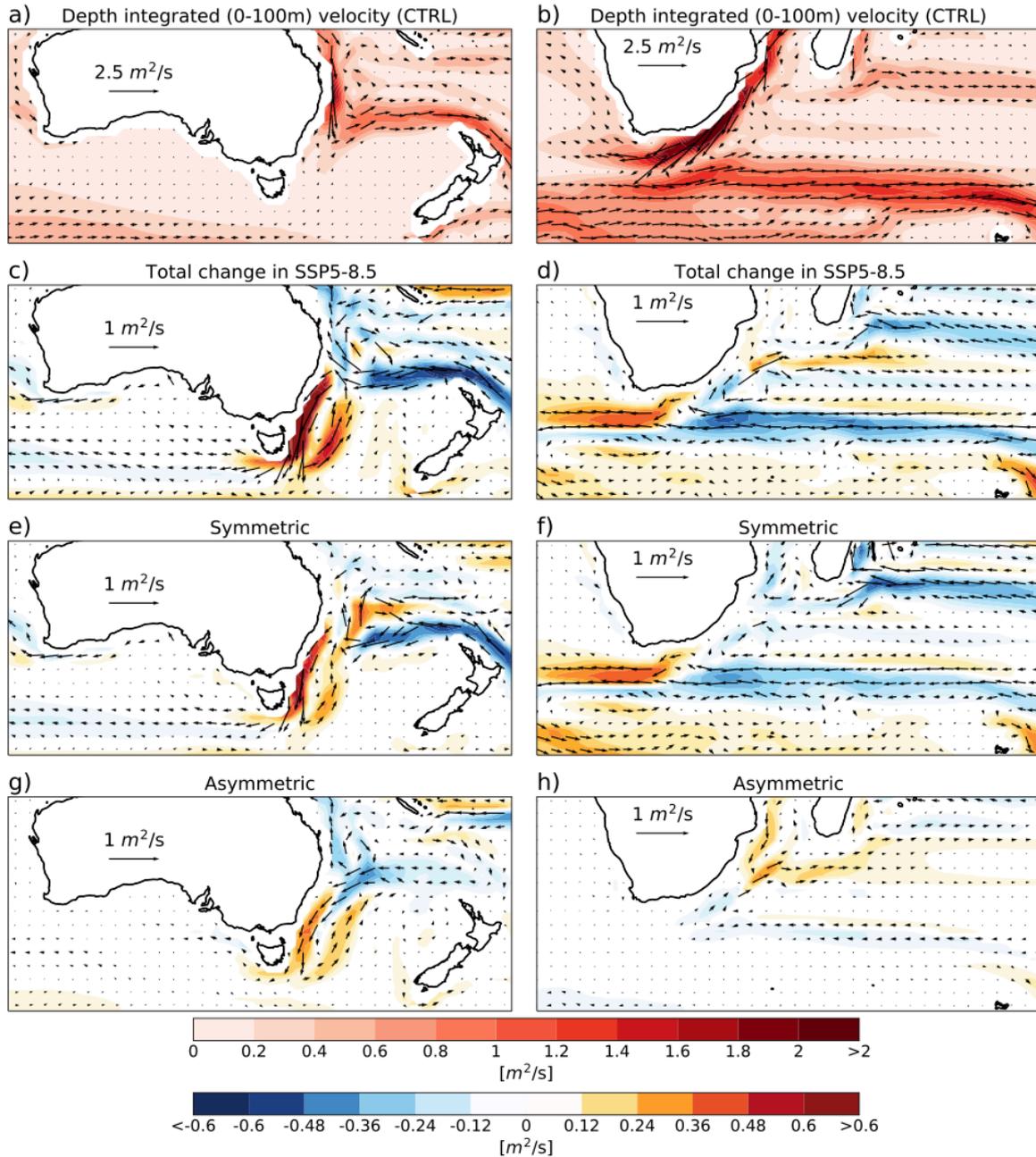
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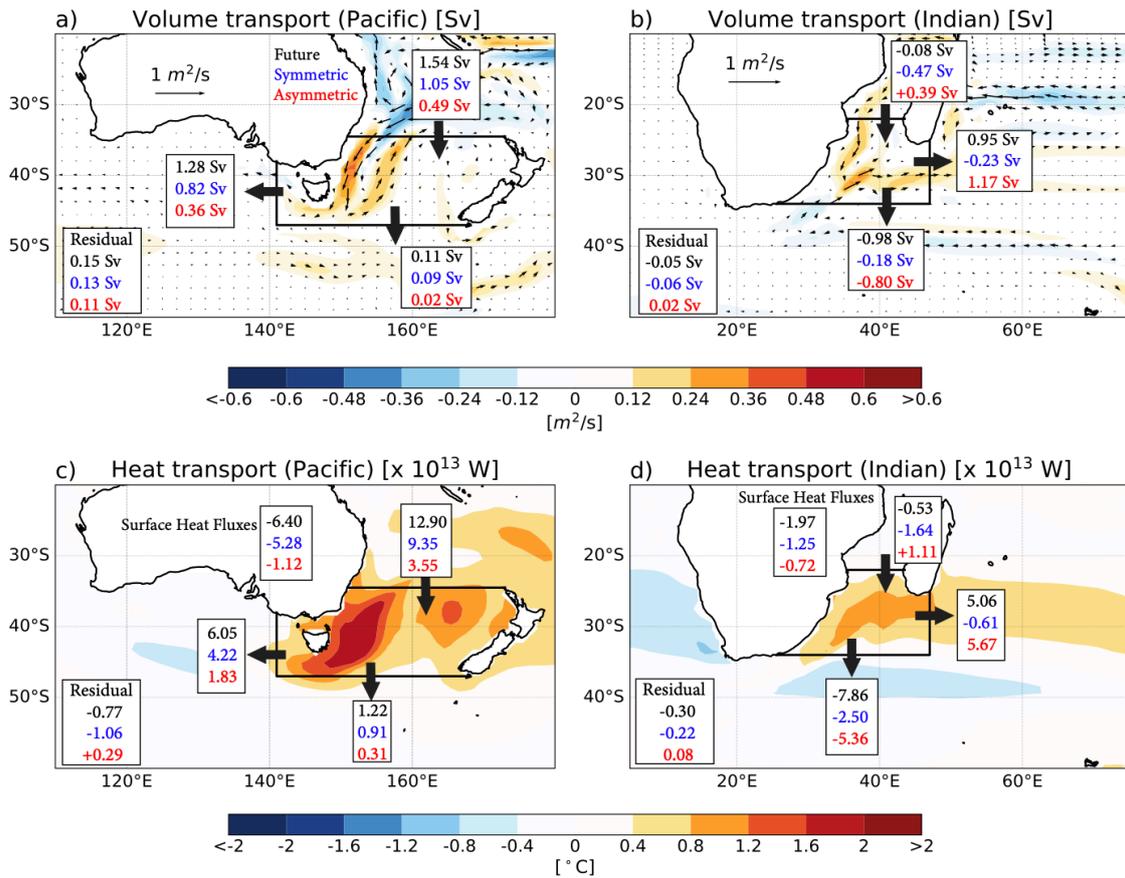


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637 **Figure 3** | Depth-integrated ocean currents in the upper 100-m across the different model
 638 simulations. Shading shows the depth-integrated current speed and vectors represent the
 639 depth-integrated currents. Panels a) and b) respectively represent climatological mean depth
 640 (0-100m) integrated East Australia Current (EAC) and the Agulhas Current. Second, third and
 641 fourth rows respectively represent the change in the depth (0-100m) integrated currents
 642 because of total (*Future minus CTRL*), zonally asymmetric (*Symmetric minus CTRL*) and zonally
 643 asymmetric (*Future minus Symmetric*) future atmospheric changes.

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647 **Figure 4 |** Volume and heat transport changes (in the upper 100 meters) in the East Australia
 648 Current and Agulhas Current regions. Shading in panels a) and b) represents the projected
 649 changes in the depth (0 – 100-m) integrated current velocity based on the asymmetric
 650 simulation, and numbers represent the change in the volume transport because of total
 651 (black), zonally symmetric (blue) and zonally asymmetric (red) atmospheric changes. Shading
 652 in panels c) and d) represent the sea surface temperature change because of the zonally
 653 asymmetric atmospheric changes and the numbers represent changes in the heat transport
 654 because of total (black), zonally symmetric (blue) and zonally asymmetric (red) atmospheric
 655 changes.

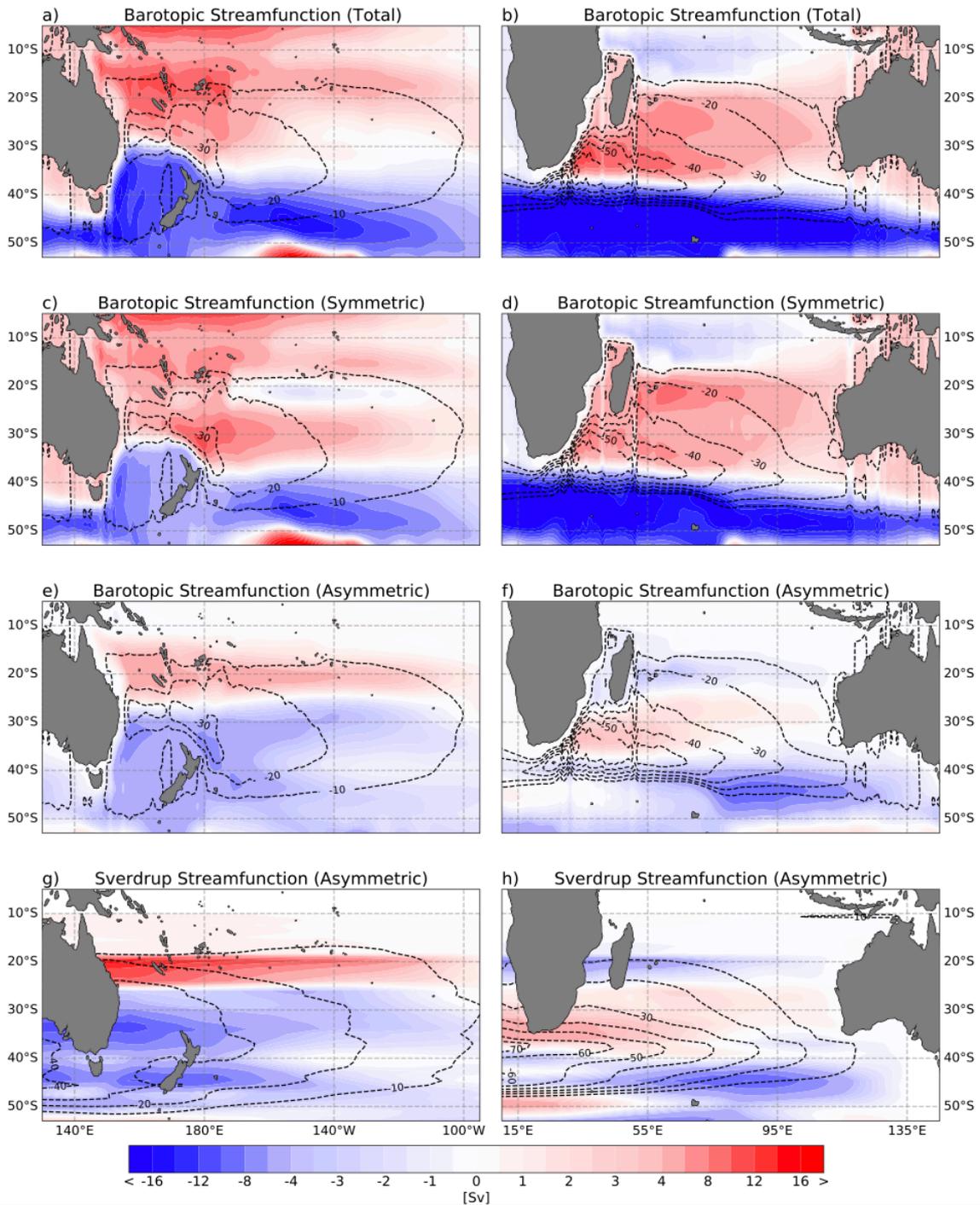
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662 **Figure 5 |** Changes in the barotropic streamfunction and Sverdrup transport. Shading in the
 663 top three rows represent changes in the barotropic streamfunction because of total, zonally
 664 symmetric and zonally asymmetric atmospheric changes. Contours in top three rows
 665 represent the climatological mean barotropic streamfunction in the *CTRL* simulation. Shading
 666 in the bottom row represents change in the Sverdrup streamfunction because of asymmetric
 667 atmospheric changes and contours represent the climatological mean Sverdrup
 668 streamfunction in the *CTRL* simulation. Sverdrup streamfunction is calculated by basin wide
 669 zonal integration of the wind stress curl.