# Radiocarbon in the Eastern Tropical Pacific: Implications for Changes in Equatorial Undercurrent Velocity and Decadal Variability

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November 23, 2022

#### Abstract

A coral record of radiocarbon variability in seawater from the Galapagos shows a step change in radiocarbon values across the 1976 climate shift, associated with a similar rise in sea surface temperature during the season of maximum upwelling. We present a simple model of water transport and mixing in the equatorial Pacific that is used to simulate radiocarbon variability to compare with the coral data. The results indicate that the velocity of the Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) is the dominant mechanism responsible for the pattern of variability observed in the coral record, suggesting that decadal variability in the EUC may be an important component of decadal variability in Pacific and global temperature.

Supporting Information for

#### Radiocarbon in the Eastern Tropical Pacific: Implications for Changes in Equatorial Undercurrent Velocity and Decadal Variability

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Supplemental Figure 1 Model simulation of the seasonal cycle of DIC and  $\Delta^{14}$ C in the surface ocean of the eastern equatorial Pacific using climatological wind stress and EUC velocities derived from Nino3.4 temperatures.



**Supplemental Figure 2** Evolution of maximum EUC velocities at 220E from the Nino3.4 empirical relationship (A), the SODA reanalysis (B), and the ORAS reanalysis (C) from 1955 to 1990.



Supplemental Figure 3 Monthly maximum EUC velocities and Nino3.4 temperatures from a control simulation of CESM. A linear fit is shown as a black line, and calculated to  $bev_{EUC} = \frac{T_{Nino34} - 31.01}{-0.037}$ . The correlation coefficient is -0.67.



Supplemental Figure 4 Sensitivity analyses of model simulations were performed by holding all other inputs constant and varying only the parameter of interest. The dark blue line is the model results with the default parameters, observations are shown in gray, and the light blue uncertainty bounds reflect the model results from varying DIC of the deep ocean (1.7-2.7 mol/kg) (A), DIC of the EUC (2.0-2.1 mol/kg) (B), pre-bomb radiocarbon levels in the deep ocean (-110mixed-layer depth (15-50m) (D), and surface biological uptake (8x10<sup>-5</sup>molC/m<sup>3</sup>/day-8x10<sup>-3</sup>molC/m<sup>3</sup>/day) (E).

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9 10	*Correspondence to: lkuntz2013@gmail.com
11 12	Key Points
12 13 14	<ul> <li>A model of equatorial transport and mixing simulates radiocarbon variability, as observed in coral records</li> </ul>
15 16 17	• Changes in the velocity of the equatorial undercurrent are a dominant mechanism of radiocarbon variability on decadal timescales

### 19 Abstract

A coral record of radiocarbon variability in seawater from the Galapagos shows a step change in radiocarbon values across the 1976 climate shift, associated with a similar rise

22 in sea surface temperature during the season of maximum upwelling. We present a

23 simple model of water transport and mixing in the equatorial Pacific that is used to

- simulate radiocarbon variability to compare with the coral data. The results indicate that
- 25 the velocity of the Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) is the dominant mechanism
- 26 responsible for the pattern of variability observed in the coral record, suggesting that
- decadal variability in the EUC may be an important component of decadal variability inPacific and global temperature.
- 28

### 30 Plain Language Summary

The aboveground testing of nuclear weapons during the 1950s created a sudden increase of radiocarbon in the atmosphere. The penetration of this signal into the ocean provided researchers with a novel dataset offering insights into circulation patterns. Here, we focus on understanding variability in the radiocarbon signal from coral records along the

- 35 equatorial Pacific. We find that variations in equatorial circulations may be important to
- 36 explaining both the radiocarbon signal as well as decadal variability in Pacific and global
- 37 temperature.
- 38

### 39 **1 Introduction**

40 On interannual and decadal timescales, variability in the equatorial Pacific is strongly

41 associated with global temperature changes (e.g. *Mantua et al*, 1997; *Zhang et al*, 1997;

42 Cayan et al, 2001; Patt and Gwata, 2002; Kosaka and Xie, 2013; Deutsch et al, 2014). In

- 43 particular, a warming of sea-surface temperatures (SSTs) in the equatorial Pacific in
- 44 1976, termed the 1976 Pacific climate shift, has been linked to major atmosphere and
- 45 oceanic changes sustained for decades (e.g. *Graham*, 1994; *Trenberth and Hoar*, 1996;
- 46 *Rajagopalan et al*, 1997; *Deser et al*, 2004). A number of ideas have been proposed to
- explain this shift, ranging from anomalously warm subsurface waters from the North
  Pacific (*Gu and Philander*, 1997), to anomalous water flux transport (*Kleeman et al*,
- 48 Pacific (*Gu and Philander*, 1997), to anomalous water flux transport (*Kleeman et al.*, 49 1999), and changes in the relative contribution of northern and southern hemisphere
- 50 waters (*Guilderson and Schrag*, 1998; *Rodgers et al*, 1999). Identifying the mechanism

51 behind the 1976 shift remains an important approach to exploring how the Earth system

51 behind the 1976 shift remains an important approach to exploring now the Earth sy 52 responds to rising greenhouse gas concentrations (*Broecker*, 2017).

53

54 Synchronized with the 1976 shift in SSTs, Guilderson and Schrag (1998) noted an abrupt

55 increase in radiocarbon  $(^{14}C)$  content of the surface waters in the equatorial Pacific,

56 particularly during the season of strongest upwelling (Fig. 1). They speculated that the 57 shift was caused by a decrease in contribution of radiocarbon-depleted deeper waters to

shift was caused by a decrease in contribution of radiocarbon-depleted deeper waters to
the upwelling region, or a change in the structure of the ventilated thermocline. In this

58 the upweining region, or a change in the structure of the ventilated thermocrine. In this 59 study, we explore the origin of the 1976 shift in radiocarbon using a simple box model of

60 the equatorial Pacific. Using winds and velocities in the equatorial undercurrent (EUC) to

61 drive upwelling and shear-induced mixing respectively, we explore the impact each has

62 on the climatology and variability of the radiocarbon signal. We find that changes in

- 63 EUC velocity dominate the radiocarbon signal and discuss the implications for other
- 64 climate shifts observed in the equatorial Pacific.
- 65 66



68 **Figure 1**. Galapagos coral  $\Delta^{14}$ C record (Fig. 1 from *Guilderson and Schrag*, 1998). 69 Linear trend lines of upwelling and non-upwelling season extremes pre and post 1976 are

- 70 shown (dashed lines).
- 71 72

#### 73 2 Materials and Methods

Our model of the eastern equatorial Pacific consists of two and a half layers of unit width and length: a surface layer, thermocline layer, and deep ocean layer of infinite depth. The model calculates the concentration of dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) and radiocarbon in the surface and thermocline layers for monthly time steps over the length of the Galapagos record.

79 The concentrations of DIC and radiocarbon (C<sub>surf</sub>) in the surface ocean evolve as

80 
$$C_{surf}(t) = \left\{ \frac{v_{Ekman} + w_{mix}}{H_{surf}} C_t(t-1) + \frac{1 - v_{Ekman} - w_{mix}}{H_{surf}} C_{surf}(t-1) + \frac{F_{invasion}(t) - F_{outgas}(t) - F_{bio}}{H_{surf}} \right\} dt$$

81 The first term on the right hand side reflects the upwelling of thermocline waters (with

82 concentration  $C_t$ ) due to both Ekman pumping ( $v_{Ekman}$ ) and shear induced mixing ( $w_{mix}$ ).

83 The second term is the export of surface waters due to meridional Ekman divergence

- 84  $(v_{Ekman})$  and downward shear induced mixing  $(w_{mix})$ . Additional fluxes from air-sea gas
- 85 exchange ( $F_{invasion}$  and  $F_{outgas}$ ) as well as biological consumption ( $F_{bio}$ ) are also included.

86 We calculate the concentration by normalizing the fluxes by the depth of the surface layer

87 (H<sub>surf</sub>). Because the zonal gradient in carbon and radiocarbon is minimal in the eastern
 88 equatorial Pacific, the zonal advection of surface water is assumed to have negligible

- 89 impact. It is possible that during very strong El Niño events, some water from the
- 90 Western Pacific moves eastward into the upwelling region, but this is an unusual
- 91 occurrence. As the focus of this paper is on the overall pattern of radiocarbon variability
- 92 and especially the minimum values, this assumption is not important to our result.
- 93

$$C_t(t) = \left\{ \frac{H_t - w_{mix} - w_{deep} - v_{Ekman}}{H_t} C_{EUC}(t-1) + \frac{w_{mix}}{H_t} C_{surf}(t-1) + \frac{w_{deep}}{H_t} C_{deep} \right\} dt$$

96 The first term reflects the replenishment of thermocline waters with waters from the 97 EUC, accounting for losses due Ekman pumping, and mixing with the surface and waters 98 at depth ( $w_{deep}$ ). The second and last terms account for the mixing of surface waters 99 downward and deep waters upward respectively. We calculate the concentration by 100 normalizing the fluxes by the depth of the thermocline layer (H<sub>t</sub>).

101

102 The net flux from air-sea gas exchange depends on the partial pressure of  $CO_2$  in the 103 ocean and atmosphere (p $CO_2$ )

104 
$$F_{invasion}(t) - F_{outgas}(t) = kK_o \left( pCO_2^{ATM} - pCO_2^{surf} \right)$$

105 K<sub>o</sub> is the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub>, calculated at each time step following the empirical

106 relationship from Weiss (1974). We calculate the gas transfer velocity, k, using

107 Wanninkhof's (1992) parameterization

108 
$$k = 0.31u^2 \left(\frac{660}{Sc}\right)^2$$

where u is the 10m wind speed, taken as the average over the eastern equatorial Pacific
from the ECMWF twentieth century reanalysis (ERA-20C) (*Poli et al*, 2016), and *Sc* is
the Schmidt number (*Wang et al*, 2006). The details of the air-sea gas exchange
parameterization are not important to the overall result. We assume salinity to be
constant at 34.78 per mil, and use temperatures in the Nino 3 region from the Global
Ocean Surface Temperature Atlas (GOSTA) dataset (*Bottomley et al*, 1990).

115

116 We use measurements from Mauna Loa to prescribe the partial pressure of  $CO_2$  in the

atmosphere at each time step (*Keeling et al*, 2001). These data being in 1958, so we

assume the first year of the simulation (1957) has a partial pressure equal to the average

- 119 of the 1958 measurements. Because the air-sea gas exchange is a small carbon flux for
- 120 the eastern Pacific compared to the other fluxes, the errors this causes should be minor.
- 121 At each time step, we prescribe the partial pressure of radiocarbon in the atmosphere
- along the equator as the average of radiocarbon in the Northern Hemisphere (Vermunt,
- Austria) (*Levin et al*, 1994) and Southern Hemisphere (Wellington, New Zealand)
- 124 (*Manning and Melhuish*, 1994). We ignore any fractionation that could occur in the air-
- 125 sea gas exchange.
- 126

127 We use zonal wind stress from ERA-20C to calculate Ekman pumping, which drives both

128 divergence and upwelling.

129 
$$v_{Ekman} = \frac{1}{\rho f} \frac{\partial \tau^x}{\partial y}$$

We combined divergence from the northern and southern hemispheres, using the
difference in wind stress along the equator (-5 to 5N, 180 to 240E) and in the subtropics
(25 to 35N/S, 180 to 240E) to calculate the meridional gradient in wind stress.

133

134 The Richardson number, which is a measure of mixing, is proportional to the square of 135 vertical shear. We parameterize mixing with both the surface and deep water through this 136 relationship, using the EUC velocity at 220E (where the current is strongest) and

137 assuming the vertical extent of the current is symmetric and does not change.

138  $W_{mix} = W_{deep} \propto v_{EUC}^2$ 

Because there are no direct measurements of the EUC velocity in situ over this period, we

explore 3 different prescriptions: an empirical relationship with Nino3.4 region

temperatures derived from a linear fit of CESM (Community Earth System Model from
 NCAR) model simulations, output from the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation reanalysis

142 (SODA) (*Carton and Giese*, 2008), and output from the Ocean Reanalysis System

144 (ORAS) (*Mogensen et al*, 2012; *Balmaseda et al*, 2013). For each EUC prescription, we

145 calculate a constant of proportionality between the undercurrent and mixing by fitting the

146 model to replicate the magnitude and seasonal variability of carbon and radiocarbon

- 147 under pre-bomb, climatological conditions.
- 148

149 The radiocarbon in the EUC changes over time due to the delayed bomb signal. Surface

150 waters in the northern and southern subtropics subduct and propagate through the

ventilated thermocline before feeding into the EUC (e.g. *Luyten et al*, 1983; *Tsuchiya et* 

*al*, 1989; *Rodgers et al*, 2003; *Kuntz and Schrag*, 2018). To reflect this transport, which

both delays and smooths the bomb radiocarbon signal due to advection timescales along-

isopycnal mixing respectively, we prescribe the EUC radiocarbon content to be a lagged,weighted average from northern and southern signals.

156  ${}^{14}C_{FUC}(t) = 0.2^{14}\overline{C}_{NP}(t-2\text{ years}) + 0.8^{14}\overline{C}_{SP}(t-2\text{ years})$ 

150  $C_{EUC}(t) = 0.2^{-1}C_{NP}(t-2years) + 0.8^{-1}C_{SP}(t-2years)$ 

157 where the over bar reflects a 12 year average, and the weights come from the dominance

of southern hemisphere waters in the EUC (*Kuntz and Schrag*, 2018). The values of

radiocarbon in each hemisphere come from coral records from Rarotonga (21S, 159W)

(*Guilderson et al*, 2000) and the French Frigate (24N, 166W) (*Druffel*, 1987), assuming a
 DIC concentration of 2.0 mol/kg.

162

163 We parameterize a number of model values. In the deep ocean, we set the DIC to 2.2

164 mol/kg (*Chai et al*, 2002) with a  $\Delta^{14}$ C of -95‰ to reflect pre-bomb levels (*Broecker et al*,

165 1985). The DIC of the EUC is held constant at 2.05 mol/kg and biological uptake in the

surface is fixed to be  $8 \times 10^{-4}$  mol C/m<sup>3</sup>/day (*Chai et al*, 2002). We set the depth of the

167 surface and thermocline boxes to 25 m. None of these choices significantly affect the

168 results presented here. Detailed sensitivity analyses for variations in surface layer

thickness, DIC content (both in the EUC and in deeper water), pre-bomb radiocarbon,

and biological productivity are shown in the Supplement, but none of these have a

- 171 significant influence on the results presented below.
- 172

- 173 We initialized the model with a DIC in the surface of 2.0 mol/kg, and radiocarbon
- 174 equivalent to the start of the Galapagos record.
- 175

### 176 **3 Results**

The model simulation for surface DIC and  $\Delta^{14}$ C pre-bomb, climatological conditions 177 shows regular fluctuations with seasonal variations in DIC from 1.98 to 2.01 mmol and 178 179  $\Delta^{14}$ C from -80% to a maximum just over -78% (see Supplement), consistent with 180 minimal variation of pre-bomb  $\Delta^{14}$ C from Galapagos Corals (Guilderson and Schrag, 1998). Figure 2 shows the model simulation with the delayed signal of bomb 181 182 radiocarbon and using Nino3.4 temperatures to parameterize the EUC velocity. Constant 183 wind stress and constant EUC velocities recreate the initial increase and post 1976 184 plateau of radiocarbon but fail to capture the seasonal and interannual variability (Fig. 2A). Adding the climatological winds and EUC velocities creates a seasonal cycle, but 185 the amplitude is diminished compared to observations (Fig. 2B). Including the time 186 187 evolving wind stress has minimal impact on the model simulation of radiocarbon (Fig. 188 2C). Only when a time evolving undercurrent is included does the simulation display 189 variability similar to observations (Fig. 2D). In this case, the linear trend in radiocarbon 190 pre-1976 is greater in the non-upwelling than upwelling season, but both trends decrease

- 191 post-1976. There is also a distinct jump in the upwelling season  $\Delta^{14}$ C values, analogous
- 192 to the observations.





**Figure 2.** Model simulation of Galapagoes radiocarbon with the delayed signal of bomb radiocarbon in the EUC and using Nino3.4 temperatures to parameterize the EUC velocities. Four simulations are shown: constant wind stress and EUC velocities (A), climatological wind stress and EUC velocities (B), time-evolving wind stress and climatological EUC velocities (C), and time-evolving wind stress and EUC velocities (D). As in Guilderson and Schrag (1998) linear trend lines of upwelling and nonupwelling season extremes pre and post 1976 are shown (dashed lines).

- 201
- 202

203 Different prescriptions for EUC velocity yield very different radiocarbon results (Fig. 3).

204 Model calculations taking EUC velocities from each of the reanalysis ocean models

205 (SODA and ORAS) fail to reproduce the jump in minimum value of  $\Delta^{14}$ C observed in the 206 data. Only the Nino3.4 empirical relationship fit for EUC velocity reproduces the step

207 change in minimum radiocarbon values in 1976.

208



#### 209

Figure 3. Galapagos radiocarbon from model simulations with EUC velocities from the
SODA reanalysis (A), the ORAS reanalysis (B), and the Nino3.4 empirical relationship
(C). As in Guilderson and Schrag (1998) linear trend lines of upwelling and nonupwelling season extremes pre and post 1976 are shown (dashed, red lines). Observations
are shown in gray.

215

#### 216 4 Discussion

Our simple model for radiocarbon in the eastern equatorial Pacific can be used to diagnose the importance of different physical mechanisms to the signal observed in the coral record from the Galapagos. The magnitude of the pre-bomb radiocarbon seasonal cycle agrees with the variability seen in the first two years of the Galapagos record, although the absolute values are slightly more depleted. The simulations during the bomb era show the importance of the EUC velocity to reproducing the jump in miminum

223  $\Delta^{14}$ C values seen in the Galapagos coral. The variability in seasonal maximum and

224 minimums stems from changes in EUC strength and shear induced mixing (Fig. 2).

Changes in wind stress do not appear to be a primary control on the radiocarbon signal, 225 226 as climatological winds and observed winds show similar results (Figs. 2B and 2C). 227 Only the calculation with EUC velocities tied to Niño3.4 temperature (Fig. 2D) is able to 228 reproduce the shift in minimum  $\Delta^{14}$ C seen across the 1976 transition, although the 229 amplitude of the seasonal and interannual variability in the model is greater than what is 230 seen in the coral record. Prior to 1976, a faster EUC induced greater mixing with deeper, radiocarbon-depleted water along the EUC pathway, resulting in lower seasonal minima. 231 232 After 1976, a reduction in average EUC velocity led to less mixing and lower dilution of 233 the bomb signal, leading to a jump in the seasonal minima in  $\Delta^{14}$ C. Such a shift in EUC 234 velocity is also consistent with the jump in SST minima in the Nino3 region post-1976

- 235 (Guilderson and Schrag, 1998), although the sensitivity to EUC velocity is greater for radiocarbon because of the large contrast in vertical distribution of radiocarbon.
- 236
- 237 238

239 An interesting feature of this analysis is that neither of the two reanalysis products shows 240 EUC variability compatible with the radiocarbon record. Only the Niño3.4 empirical 241 parameterization of EUC velocities reproduces the 1976 shift. The empirical relationship 242 between Niño3.4 temperature and EUC velocity comes from a linear correlation of 243 monthly EUC velocity in the CESM model (r=-0.67; see Supplement), and may capture 244 decadal variability better than the reanalysis products.

245

246 Our simple model indicates that the critical features of the Galapagos radiocarbon record 247 are driven primarily by EUC velocity, in particular that the shift in 1976 represents a 248 reduction in the EUC strength. Around the turn of the  $21^{st}$  century, the eastern equatorial 249 Pacific temperatures experienced a shift in the opposite direction, reversing the 1976 shift 250 (e.g. Ding et al, 2013; Trenberth et al, 2014). If our analysis of the radiocarbon record is 251 correct, this implies an acceleration of the EUC around 2000. Observations confirm this, 252 revealing an acceleration of the EUC around the transition of the eastern equatorial 253 Pacific to a cold phase (Amaya et al, 2015; Coats and Karnauskas, 2018). We see this 254 even more clearly in an analysis of the TAO array data from 220°E (ref) that show a 255 significant jump in average EUC velocity around the time of the transition to more stable 256 global temperatures (Figure 4). Combined with the radiocarbon evidence from the 1976 257 shift, these data emphasize the importance of understanding controls on EUC velocity to 258 explaining and predicting decadal changes in tropical Pacific and global temperature.

259



261 Figure 4 Zonal velocity along the equator from the TAO buoy at 140°W, using both 262 acoustic Doppler current profilers and current meter data (TAO Project Office, 2000). To focus on the EUC, only positive (eastward) zonal velocities are shown in the contour plot. 263 264 An increase in current strength is evident post 1999. The line plot highlights this change, 265 showing average flow rate per unit width above 80 cm/s before and after 1999, as well as 266 the 5-year running mean (black). The record from the 110°W buoy shows a similar 267 signal, but the records from the other TAO buoys are not complete enough to perform 268 this analysis.

269

#### 270 **5** Conclusions

271 A simple model for radiocarbon in the eastern equatorial Pacific shows that the velocity 272 of the Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) is the dominant mechanism behind the evolution of 273 radiocarbon in the sea surface, as recorded by a Galapagos coral. Using an empirical 274 estimate for EUC variability based on eastern equatorial Pacific sea surface temperatures, 275 the model successfully recreates the jump in radiocarbon during the maximum upwelling 276 season across the 1976 climate shift. After 1976, the average velocity of the EUC is 277 reduced, leading to higher radiocarbon values and less cold water in the eastern equatorial 278 Pacific. A similar shift but in the opposite direction around 1999 to 2001 is observed 279 through direct measurements of EUC velocity from a TAO mooring, suggesting that such 280 decadal variability in EUC velocity may be an important mechanism for modulating 281 Pacific and global temperature.

282

#### 283 Acknowledgments, Samples, and Data

284 This material is based upon work supported by a National Science Foundation Graduate

285 Research Fellowship (Grant Number DGE1144152) to LBK and a Star Family Challenge

286 Grant to DPS. Data from the Tropical Atmosphere Ocean Project can from the TAO

287 Project Office of NOAA/PMEL. Data are available in the in-text data citation references:

- 288 Galapagoes coral record: *Guilderson and Schrag* (1998); French Frigate coral record:
- 289 Druffel (1987), Rarotonga coral record: Guilderson et al (2000), atmospheric radiocarbon

290 at Vermunt, Austria: Levin et al (1994), atmospheric radiocarbon at Wellington, New 291 Zealand: Manning and Melhuish (1994), atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>: Keeling et al (2001), ocean 292 temperature: Bottomley et al (1991), atmospheric wind stress from reanalysis: Poli et al 293 (2016), equatorial velocities from ocean reanalysis: Carton and Giese (2008), Mogensen 294 et al (2012) and Balmaseda et al (2013). Code used for the model and data analysis is 295 available at doi: 10.5281/zenodo.4302802 296 297 References 298 Amaya, D. J., Xie, S.-P., Miller, A. J., & McPhaden, M. J. (2015), Seasonality of tropical 299 Pacific decadal trends associated with the 21<sup>st</sup> century global warming hiatus. 300 Journal of Geophysical Research: Oceans, 120, 6782-6798. 301 doi:10.1002/2015JC01906 302 Balmaseda, M. A., Trenberth, K. E., & Källén, E. (2013). Distinctive climate signals in 303 reanalysis of global ocean heat content. Geophysical Research Letters, 40, 1-6. 304 doi.org:10.1002/grl.50382 305 Bottomley M., C. K. Folland, J. Hsiung, R. E. Newell, & Parker, D. E. (1990), Global 306 ocean surface temperature atlas "GOSTA". Meteorological Office, Bracknell, UK 307 and the Department of Earth, Atmospheric and Planetary Sciences, Massachusetts 308 Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA. 20 pp and 313 plates. 309 Broecker, W. S., Peng, T.-H., Ostlund, G., and Stuiver, M. (1985), The distribution of 310 bomb radiocarbon in the ocean. Journal of Geophysical Research, 90, 6953-6970. 311 doi:10.1029/JC090iC04p06953 312 Broecker, W. (2017), When climate change predictions are right for the wrong 313 reasons. Climatic Change, 142, 1-6 doi:10.1007/s10584-017-1927-y 314 Carton, J.A. & Giese, B.S. (2008), A Reanalysis of Ocean Climate Using Simple Ocean 315 Data Assimilation (SODA). Monthly Weather Review, 136, 2999-3017. 316 doi:10.1175/2007MWR1978.1 317 Cayan, D.R., Kammerdiener, S., Dettinger, M.D., Caprio, J.M. & Peterson, D.H. (2001), 318 Changes in the onset of spring in the western United States. Bulletin of the 319 American Meteorological Society, 82(3), 399-415. doi.org:10.1175/1520-320 0477(2001)082<0399:CITOOS>2.3.CO;2 321 Coats, S., & Karnauskas, K. B. (2018), A role for the equatorial undercurrent in the ocean 322 dynamical thermostat. Journal of Climate, 31, 6245-6261. 323 https://doi.org/10.1175/JCLI-D-17-0513.1 324 Chai, F., Dungdale, R.C., Peng, T.-H., Wilkerson, F. P., & Barber, R. T. (2002), One-325 dimensional ecosystem model of the equatorial Pacific upwelling system. Part I: 326 Model development and silicon and nitrogen cycle. Deep Sea Research Part II: 327 Topical Studies in Oceanography, 49, 2713-2745. doi:10.1016/S0967-328 0645(02)00055-3. 329 Deser, C., Phillips, A.S., & Hurrell, J.W. (2004), Pacific interdecadal climate variability: 330 Linkages between the tropics and the North Pacific during boreal winter since 331 1900. Journal of Climate, 17, 3109-3124, doi:10.1175/1520-332 0442(2004)017<3109:PICVLB>2.0.CO;2 333 Deutsch, C., Berelson, W., Thunell, R., Weber, T., Tems, C., McManus, J., Crusius, Ito, 334 T., Baumgartner, T., Ferreira, V., Mey, J., & van Geen, A. (2014). Centennial

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