

The Ekman Streamfunction: a wind-derived metric to quantify the Southern Ocean overturning circulation

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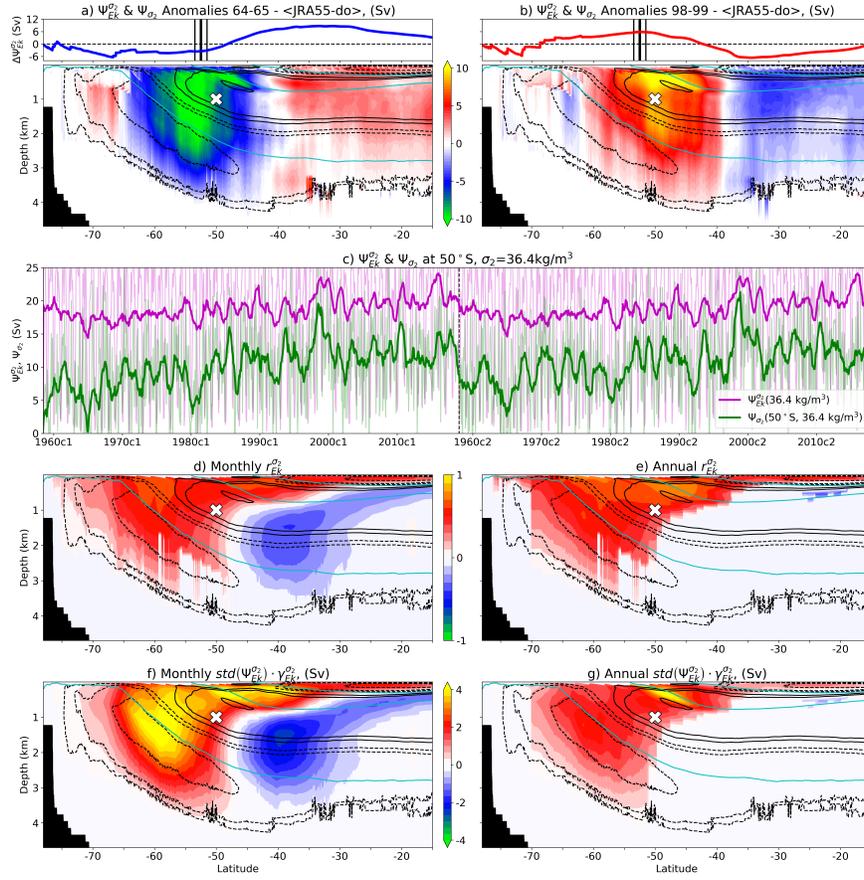
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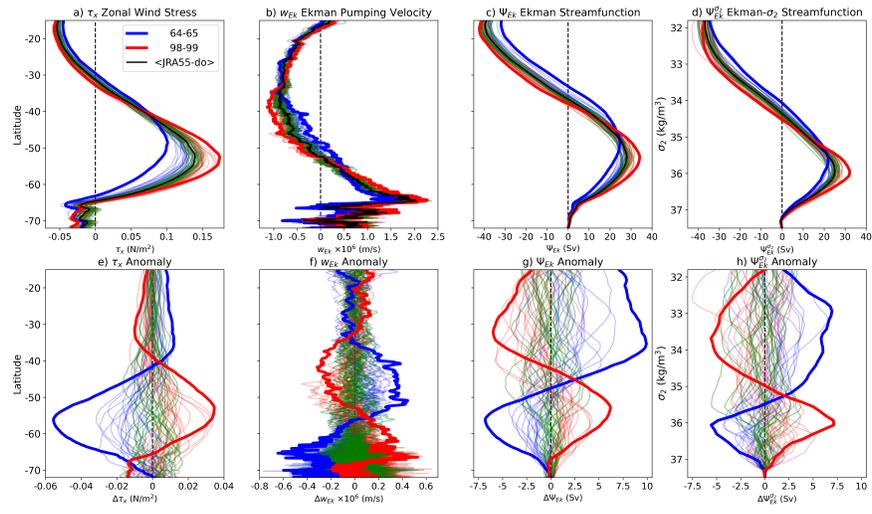
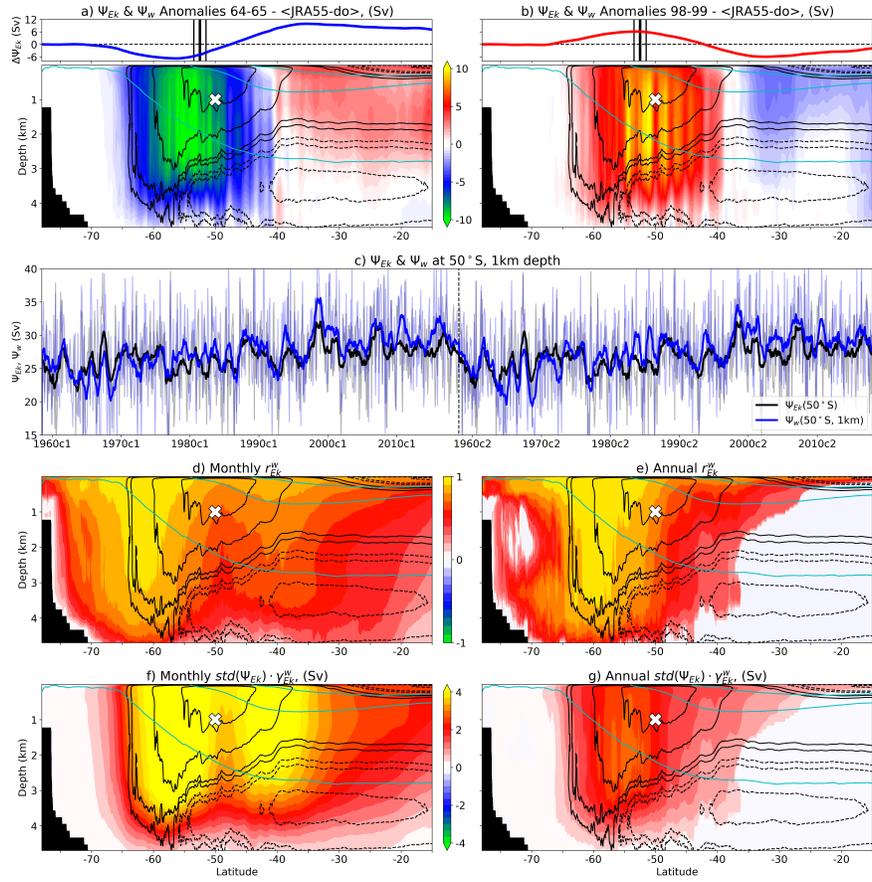
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Abstract

We introduce a novel wind-derived metric to quantify variability in the Southern Ocean overturning circulation. This metric, which we call the Ekman streamfunction, integrates the Ekman pumping vertical velocity zonally and northwards from the Antarctic coastline to a given latitude. To evaluate the relationship between the Ekman streamfunction and Southern Ocean overturning circulation, we use a global 0.1 ocean–sea-ice model driven with interannual forcing (1958-2018). Throughout much of the Southern Ocean, strong correlations ($r > 0.9$) exist between the Ekman streamfunction and the Southern Ocean overturning circulation on monthly and annual timescales. A regression analysis identifies regions where Ekman streamfunction variability coincides with $>4\text{Sv}$ changes in the overturning; one such location is where the wind stress curl changes sign and the Ekman pumping velocity is highly variable. This study offers a new approach to infer recent changes in the Southern Ocean overturning circulation from existing datasets of wind stress.





1 **The Ekman Streamfunction: a wind-derived metric to**
2 **quantify the Southern Ocean overturning circulation**

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10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • We introduce the Ekman streamfunction as a wind-derived metric for the South-
12 ern Ocean overturning circulation.
- 13 • The Ekman streamfunction and Southern Ocean overturning circulation exhibit
14 striking similarities, with correlations exceeding 0.9.
- 15 • Where the wind stress curl changes sign, Ekman streamfunction variability coin-
16 cides with $> 4\text{Sv}$ changes in the overturning circulation.

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 29 to infer recent changes in the Southern Ocean overturning circulation from existing datasets
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31 **Plain Language Summary**

32 The global ocean overturning circulation is the planetary-scale movement of wa-
 33 ters in the vertical and north-south directions. It is the principal mechanism by which
 34 the oceans absorb, sink, and redistribute heat and carbon from the atmosphere, thereby
 35 regulating Earth’s climate. Despite its importance, it is impossible to observe directly,
 36 and must be inferred from sparse and infrequent proxy measurements. The main upward
 37 branches of the overturning circulation are located in the Southern Ocean, where strong
 38 westerly winds upwell waters from below. Thus, changes in these westerly winds will lead
 39 to changes in the overturning circulation, and, subsequently, Earth’s climate. Here we
 40 introduce a new tool, called the Ekman streamfunction, to analyse the change of the winds
 41 in a framework that is directly comparable with the overturning circulation. We test the
 42 Ekman streamfunction with a state-of-the-art global ocean–sea-ice model in which the
 43 overturning circulation is measured directly. We find throughout much of the Southern
 44 Ocean, the Ekman streamfunction provides a robust indicator of the strength and vari-
 45 ability of the overturning circulation, with exceptionally high correlation. Our new tool
 46 provides a novel approach for reexamining existing datasets of winds measured from satel-
 47 lites, to infer recent changes in the overturning circulation.

48 **1 Introduction**

49 The role that the global oceans play in Earth’s climate is governed by the South-
 50 ern Ocean and its overturning circulation (Sallée, 2018). The Southern Ocean overturn-
 51 ing circulation (SOOC) maintains the bulk stratification of the global oceans through
 52 the replenishment of abyssal, deep and mode waters in all major ocean basins (J. Mar-
 53 shall & Speer, 2012). The SOOC is the primary process by which the oceans sequester
 54 excess heat and carbon from the atmosphere, thereby regulating climate conditions glob-
 55 ally (Sabine et al., 2004; Roemmich et al., 2015). Thus, changes in the SOOC, anthro-
 56 pogenic or otherwise, will have substantial ramifications for the trajectory of Earth’s cli-
 57 mate. Quantifying the magnitude of the SOOC and its variability, however, remains a
 58 challenge; direct observation of the overturning circulation is not possible, and the few
 59 proxy measurements of the SOOC are infrequent, sparse, and with large uncertainties.
 60 Any scientific developments that grant insight into the SOOC and its dynamics are most
 61 welcome.

62 The SOOC, along with the global meridional overturning circulation, is the result
 63 of a complicated interplay between surface buoyancy forces, wind stress, and turbulent
 64 mixing, the effects of which, in turn, depend on one another (J. Marshall & Speer, 2012).
 65 This intrinsically-coupled nature of the SOOC forcings makes it impossible to decom-

pose the overturning into its separate buoyancy-driven, wind-driven and mixing-driven components. Nevertheless, it is both possible and illuminating to diagnose and consider the effects of relative changes in the distinct forces that drive the SOOC, especially since these forces have recently exhibited trends. For example, the midlatitude westerly winds over the Southern Ocean, often characterised by the Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index, have strengthened and shifted poleward during the recent decades (e.g., Goyal et al., 2021). The oceanographic consequences of these trends in the Southern Hemisphere winds have received much attention of late, especially in regards to the response of the SOOC.

The scientific approaches to examining the SOOC response to changing winds are varied, but can be broadly partitioned into two distinct methodologies; the first being when the wind forcing (the independent variable of interest) is an uncontrolled variable of the system, and the second being when the wind forcing is prescribed. The first methodology typically employs coupled climate models, reanalysis products, and/or satellite- and Argo-based observations, often using statistical techniques to ascribe changes in the ocean state to changes in the wind forcing, usually represented by the SAM index (e.g., Sen Gupta & England, 2006; Sallée et al., 2010). The second approach, which prescribes the wind forcing, typically examines simulations in either idealised domains (e.g., Abernathey et al., 2011), or oceanographically-realistic domains that are driven with wind forcing derived from reanalysis products (e.g., Farneti et al., 2015). For either methodology, the results are usually presented in a form that relates the relative changes in SOOC transport (in Sverdrups, Sv; where $1 \text{ Sv} = 10^6 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$) to relative changes in the wind stress (N/m^2). While this presentation may be sufficient for ascertaining the general sensitivity of the SOOC response to bulk variations of the wind stress, the open dimensional divide between these two quantities begs the question: Is there a better way to more directly relate the Southern Ocean overturning circulation to wind stress?

Here we bridge this dimensional divide by casting the wind stress in terms of a streamfunction, which we call the Ekman streamfunction, introduced in §2. The Ekman streamfunction is developed from the vertical velocities associated with the Ekman pumping, which are derived from the curl of the wind stress. This Ekman streamfunction is a metric that theoretically quantifies the mechanical forcing of the winds on the SOOC; it does not incorporate the wind-driven buoyancy or mixing components. In §3, we detail the high-resolution global ocean–sea-ice model, which we use to evaluate the relationship between the Ekman streamfunction and the SOOC. We present and discuss our findings in §4, and summarise our conclusions in §5.

2 Theory

The SOOC can be characterised in terms of its Eulerian streamfunction in latitude–depth space, and its residual streamfunction in latitude–potential density space (e.g., Zika et al., 2012). The local cartesian coordinates for the zonal, meridional and vertical directions are given by x , y and z (m), respectively, with the potential density as σ_2 (kg/m^3), which is the potential density of seawater referenced to 2000 dbar less $1000 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^3$. The Eulerian streamfunction can be developed by integrating the vertical velocity w (m/s) in both the zonal direction and in the meridional direction from a southern latitude corresponding to y_1 (where y_1 is at a circle of latitude located entirely inside the Antarctic continent) northwards to a given latitude corresponding to y ;

$$\Psi_w(y, z, t) = \int \int_{y_1}^y w(x, y', z, t) dy' dx. \quad (1)$$

The Eulerian streamfunction is usually defined in terms of the meridional velocity, v , integrated in both the zonal direction and vertically from the ocean bottom to a given depth; however, the definition in Equation (1) is mathematically equivalent and has a more direct application to our subsequent analysis.

114 In a similar manner, the residual streamfunction is developed by integrating the
 115 meridional velocity, v , in both the zonal direction and vertically from the bottom of the
 116 ocean upwards to a depth z where the potential density reaches a given value σ_2 (assum-
 117 ing a stable stratification);

$$\Psi_{\sigma_2}(y, \sigma_2, t) = \int \int_{\sigma_2' > \sigma_2} v(x, y, z, t) dz dx. \quad (2)$$

118 Compared to the Eulerian streamfunction, the residual streamfunction is more impor-
 119 tant for Earth's climate as it represents the meridional exchanges of water properties in
 120 potential density space (e.g., Zika et al., 2012).

121 By taking the curl of the wind stress τ (N/m^2), the vertical velocity associated with
 122 Ekman pumping w_{Ek} (m/s) at the base of the surface Ekman layer is estimated as

$$w_{Ek}(x, y, t) = \nabla \times \left(\frac{\tau(x, y, t)}{\rho_0 f(y)} \right), \quad (3)$$

123 where, ρ_0 is the reference seawater density and $f(y)$ is the local Coriolis parameter. In
 124 this approximation, w_{Ek} is a wind-derived metric that should be considered a theoret-
 125 ical estimate of the actual vertical velocities; for instance, it does not account for ver-
 126 tical velocities arising from buoyancy-driven convection. Importantly, however, estimates
 127 of τ , and thus w_{Ek} , are obtainable from satellite-derived global datasets of wind stress.

128 Following the approach in Equation (1), where the model-diagnosed vertical veloc-
 129 ity w is used to develop the Eulerian streamfunction, we take the Ekman pumping ve-
 130 locity w_{Ek} and integrate it zonally and meridionally in a similar fashion,

$$\Psi_{Ek}(y, t) = \int \int_{y_1}^y w_{Ek}(x, y', t) dy' dx. \quad (4)$$

131 We call Ψ_{Ek} the Ekman streamfunction. By this definition, Ψ_{Ek} can be thought of as
 132 an estimate of the Eulerian overturning circulation at the base of the surface Ekman layer
 133 due to Ekman pumping. Developing the Ekman streamfunction with the Ekman pump-
 134 ing vertical velocities is mathematically equivalent to using the meridional Ekman trans-
 135 port (which can be estimated from the latitudinal distribution of zonal wind stress τ_x),
 136 but has the advantage that it does not require assumptions to be made about the ver-
 137 tical structure of the Ekman-driven flows (e.g., Gray & Riser, 2014; Tandon et al., 2020).

138 The Ekman streamfunction can be further extended from latitude space into po-
 139 tential density space by integrating w_{Ek} in both the zonal and meridional directions where
 140 the surface potential density is greater than a given value of σ_2 ;

$$\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}(\sigma_2, t) = \int \int w_{Ek}(x, y, t) H(\sigma_2' - \sigma_2) dy dx, \quad (5)$$

141 where H is the Heaviside step function, and the superscript σ_2 denotes $\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$ is in sur-
 142 face σ_2 -space. Note that in this instance, σ_2 serves as a pseudo-meridional coordinate
 143 as the surface potential density approximately scales with latitude. We call $\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$ the Ek-
 144 man streamfunction in density coordinates.

145 3 Model & Methodology

146 We employ the 0.1° configuration of the Australian Community Climate and Earth
 147 System Simulator ocean model version 2 (ACCESS-OM2-01; updated from Kiss et al.,
 148 2020), the flagship ocean-sea-ice model of the Consortium for Ocean-Sea-Ice Modelling
 149 in Australia (COSIMA). The ACCESS-OM2-01 simulation is initialised with January
 150 temperature and salinity fields from the World Ocean Atlas 2013 v2 monthly climatol-
 151 ogy (WOA13; Locarnini et al., 2013; Zweng et al., 2013), and forced with prescribed at-
 152 mospheric conditions taken from the Japanese atmospheric reanalysis dataset for driv-
 153 ing ocean models (JRA55-do v1.4; Tsujino et al., 2018). These prescribed atmospheric

154 conditions are the interannual forcing (JRA55-do-IAF) that runs 61 years from 1958 to
 155 2018, inclusive. Two cycles of the JRA55-do-IAF are imposed in serial, such that in the
 156 second cycle there is a sudden transition at the end of 31st December 2018 back to the
 157 start of 1st January 1958, as per the forcing protocol of Ocean Model Intercomparison
 158 Project phase 2 (OMIP2; Tsujino et al., 2020).

159 We analyse monthly means to evaluate the two overturning streamfunctions and
 160 the two Ekman streamfunctions, as detailed in §2. Due to the dominance of the seasonal
 161 signal in these terms, it is necessary to first de-season the monthly mean output by re-
 162 moving the average of the entire two JRA55-do-IAF cycles of a given month from that
 163 given month (i.e., the average state of the 122 Januarys is removed from each January,
 164 and so on, for each of the 12 months). Our analysis then focusses on the comparison of
 165 the four streamfunctions at two temporal scales: (1) the de-seasoned monthly means,
 166 and (2) the 12-month running averages.

167 To quantify the relationships between the streamfunctions, we calculate the respec-
 168 tive correlation coefficients, r , between the timeseries of the Ekman streamfunctions and
 169 the overturning streamfunctions at zero lag. Considering the high degree of autocorre-
 170 lation in these streamfunctions, it is necessary to perform a statistical significance test
 171 that uses an effective sample size N_{eff} , given by

$$N_{eff} = N \left(\frac{1 - r_1 r_2}{1 + r_1 r_2} \right), \quad (6)$$

172 where N is the actual sample size ($N = 1464$ months), and r_1 and r_2 are the lag-1 au-
 173 tocorrelations of the two timeseries of interest (e.g. see Santer et al., 2000). Note that
 174 the effective sample size N_{eff} varies spatially, and as a significance test we identify and
 175 reject regions where $|r \sqrt{N_{eff}}| > 2$, which corresponds to the correlation being signif-
 176 icant at the 95% level.

177 We also perform the following linear regression analyses:

$$\Psi_w(y, z, t) = \gamma_{Ek}^w(y, z) \Psi_{Ek}(y, t) + c_1, \quad (7)$$

178 and,

$$\Psi_{\sigma_2}(y, \sigma_2, t) = \gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}(y, \sigma_2) \Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}(\sigma_2, t) + c_2, \quad (8)$$

179 where the regression coefficients γ_{Ek}^w and $\gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$ represent the change in overturning stream-
 180 functions coincident with unit changes in Ekman streamfunctions.

181 The correlation and regression analyses are performed on the de-seasoned monthly
 182 means and 12-month running averages of the streamfunctions for the entire two JRA55-
 183 do-IAF cycles of the ACCESS-OM2-01 simulation, returning distributions of correlations
 184 and linear regression coefficients in latitude–depth and latitude–potential density space.
 185 For the regression analysis, in order to better gauge the magnitude of the overturning
 186 circulation anomalies indicated by the coefficients $\gamma_{Ek}^w(y, z)$ and $\gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}(y, \sigma_2)$, we scale them
 187 by the standard deviations of the respective Ekman streamfunctions $std(\Psi_{Ek}(y))$ and
 188 $std(\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}(\sigma_2))$. These scaled regression coefficients $std(\Psi_{Ek}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^w$ and $std(\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$
 189 thus represent the magnitude of the change in overturning streamfunctions, in Sverdrups,
 190 that is coincident with a one standard deviation change in the Ekman streamfunction.

191 4 Results & Discussion

192 The zonal means of the July–June averages of zonal wind stress τ_x highlights the
 193 considerable variability in both the latitude of the peak wind stress (48–54°S), and its
 194 magnitude (0.9–0.17N/m²), with periods of weaker forcing conditions (blue lines) tend-
 195 ing to peak relatively further north (Fig. 1a). This range of variability in both the lat-
 196 itude and magnitude of the peak zonal wind stress is consistent with previous analysis

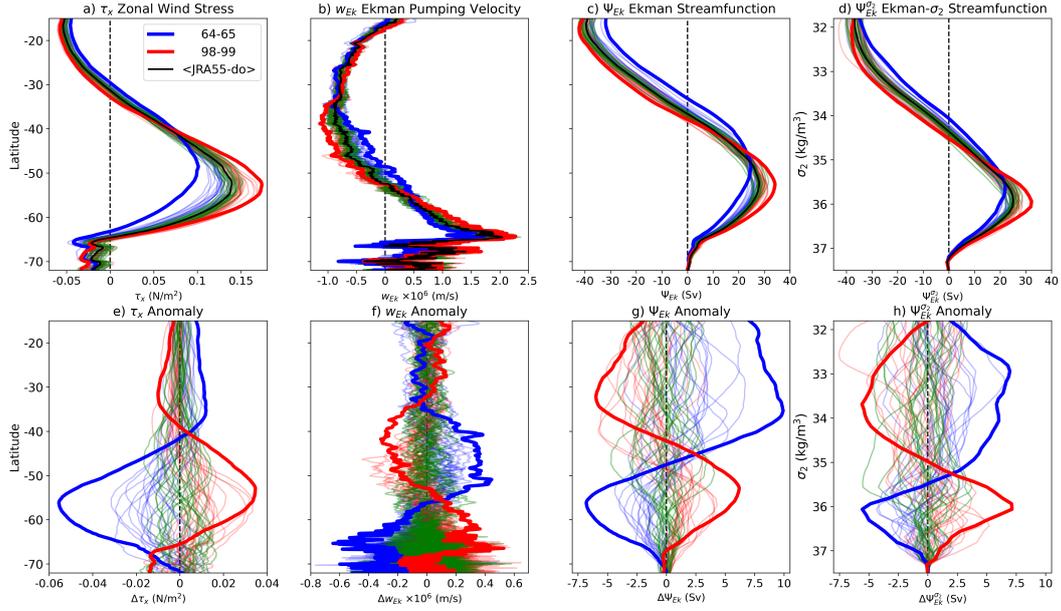


Figure 1. Zonal means of the July–June averages for the (a) zonal wind stress, (b) Ekman pumping velocity, (c) Ekman streamfunction, all calculated from the second cycle of the JRA55-do-IAF, along with their respective anomalies from the cycle mean (e-g). The thicker blue and red lines denote two end-member cases of extreme weak and strong wind forcing, corresponding to July 1964–June 1965 (64-65) and July 1998–June 1999 (98-99), respectively, with the black lines showing the mean of the second JRA55-do-IAF cycle ($\langle \text{JRA55-do} \rangle$). The faint lines are included to be indicative of the extent of variability in these fields; these are coloured blue, green and red, indicating weak, neutral and strong forcing conditions, respectively. Equivalent depictions of the (d) Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates, and its (h) anomaly, plotted as a function of the outcropping potential density σ_2 .

of reanalyses and models (e.g., Swart & Fyfe, 2012). Using the 61-year average of second JRA55-do-IAF cycle as a reference (referred to as $\langle \text{JRA55-do} \rangle$), the peaks in the zonal wind stress anomalies also exhibit considerable variability, with typical magnitudes of $\pm 25\%$ ($\pm 0.03 \text{ N/m}^2$) of the average zonal wind stress, and more than 40% decrease for the period July 1964 to June 1965 (64-65; Fig. 1e).

The Ekman pumping velocities also exhibit considerable interannual variability in their magnitude and latitudinal distribution (Fig. 1b). Here, negative w_{Ek} arises when there is a convergence of surface waters, reflecting a downward motion of water driven by the wind stress, with positive w_{Ek} indicating upwelling; these are often referred to as Ekman pumping and Ekman suction, respectively. The interannual variability of the zero-crossing latitude of w_{Ek} , which approximately corresponds to the latitude of peak τ_x , indicates that these latitudes (48–54°S) can experience both upwelling and downwelling on a year-to-year basis and thus are likely to exhibit substantial variability in their hydrographic properties. Strong forcing conditions (red lines) are associated with an enhancement of both upwelling and downwelling velocities. The Ekman pumping velocity anomalies are largest in regions prone to seasonal sea-ice (south of 65°S); north of the sea-ice, the interannual anomalies span $\pm 0.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m/s}$, which for some latitudes ($\sim 45\text{--}60^\circ\text{S}$) can be larger than the average w_{Ek} velocity (Fig. 1f).

The Ekman streamfunction (Eqn. 4) peaks between $\sim 27\text{--}35 \text{ Sv}$ centered around 50°S, where w_{Ek} changes sign (Fig. 1c). The two end-member cases of weak and strong wind forcing envelop the range of Ekman streamfunctions from the second cycle of JRA55-do-IAF. Note that while this new field is developed from the comparatively noisy Ekman pumping velocity w_{Ek} , being a double area integral the Ekman streamfunction is smooth and well-behaved; this is particularly the case for the seasonal sea-ice regions where the substantial variability of the Ekman pumping velocity is muted by its relatively small areal extent. The Ekman streamfunction anomalies (Fig. 1g) span the range -7 to +10 Sv; strong forcing conditions tend to have positive anomalies to the south of $\sim 50^\circ\text{S}$, and negative anomalies to the north, which is mirrored for weak forcing conditions.

There are similarities between the distributions and magnitudes of the two Ekman streamfunctions (Fig. 1c,d); they both initially increase towards northern/lighter outcropping waters, with the Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates peaking between $\sim 22\text{--}33 \text{ Sv}$ around $\sigma_2 = 35.8 \text{ kg/m}^3$. The similar distributions of the Ekman streamfunctions here demonstrates the close relationship between latitude and outcrop potential density on an annual timescale, and extend to the anomalies of the Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates (Fig. 1h).

To examine the relationship between the Ekman streamfunction and the model-diagnosed Southern Ocean overturning circulation, we first focus on the Eulerian case (Fig. 2). The Eulerian streamfunction anomalies primarily depend on latitude, and are consistent with the Ekman streamfunction anomalies (overlying sub-panels of Fig. 2a,b) in both latitudinal distribution and magnitude but with some differences: the magnitude of the anomalous Ekman streamfunction is weaker (stronger) than the Eulerian streamfunction in the south (north), and the latitude of the Ekman streamfunction zero anomaly is displaced south. The strong, vertically-coherent, latitudinal dependence reflects the rapid and deep penetrating response of the Southern Ocean circulation to variations in the wind stress.

Timeseries of the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunctions at a given location further demonstrate their close resemblance and offer an indication of their relative magnitudes and behaviours (Fig. 2c). At 50°S and 1 km depth, the 12-month running averages of the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunctions are of similar magnitude, and with a correlation of $r_{Ek}^w = 0.78$. Note that this close agreement in magnitude is not necessarily representative of other locations throughout the Southern Ocean. Interestingly, both cycles of the JRA55-do-IAF exhibit a long-term trend in the streamfunctions from a minimum

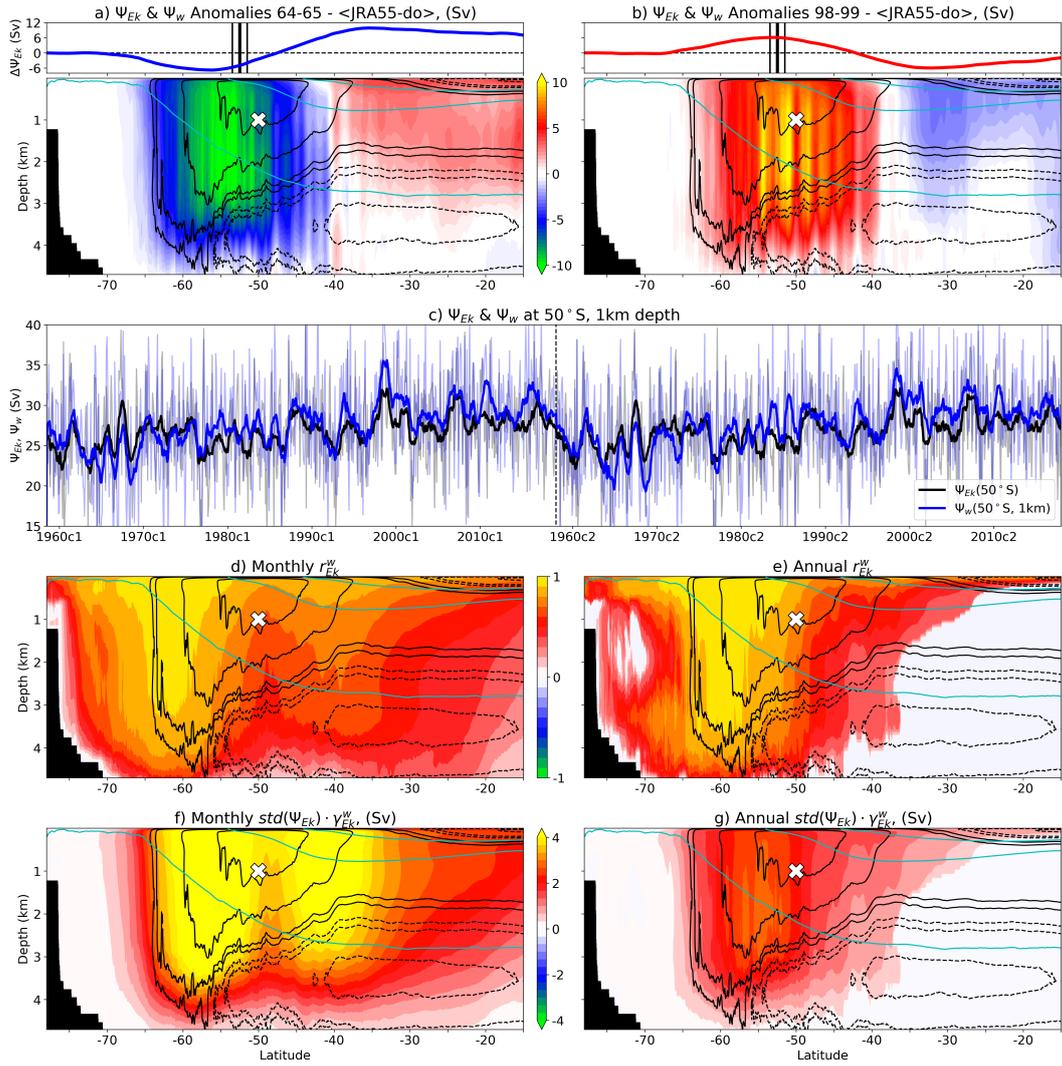


Figure 2. The Eulerian streamfunction anomalies (colour shaded) for the periods (a) July 1964–June 1965 and (b) July 1998–June 1999, relative to the mean of the second cycle of JRA55-do-IAF, with their respective Ekman streamfunction anomalies included for reference (lines in upper panels). The $\langle \text{JRA55-do} \rangle$ mean Eulerian streamfunction is contoured in black at $\pm 2.5, 5, 15, 25$ Sv intervals with the circulation going clockwise (anticlockwise) around the solid (dashed) contours. The $\sigma_2=35, 36, 37$ kg/m^3 isopycnals of $\langle \text{JRA55-do} \rangle$ are shown in cyan. The black lines in the upper panels indicate the latitudinal location of the $\langle \text{JRA55-do} \rangle$ Ekman streamfunction maximum (thick) and its annual standard deviation (thin). Panel (c) presents timeseries over both cycles (separated by the vertical dashed line) of the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunctions at 50°S and 1 km depth; this location is denoted by the white crosses in the other panels. The bold lines are the 12-month running averages; faint lines are the monthly means included so as to be indicative of the intra-annual variability. Distributions of the statistically significant correlation coefficients r_{Ek}^w and the scaled regression coefficients $std(\Psi_{Ek}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^w$ calculated from the (d,f) de-seasoned monthly means and (e,g) 12-month running averages. The black and cyan contours, and the white crosses, are the same as for panels a,b.

249 around 1964-65 to a maximum around 1998-99 (which happen to coincide with the two
 250 extreme end-member periods), where the streamfunctions increase by approximately 8 Sv
 251 each (equivalent to 2.3 Sv/decade); this long-term trend is consistent with that of the
 252 observation-based SAM index (G. Marshall, 2003).

253 To understand the extent to which this strong relationship extends throughout the
 254 Southern Ocean, we examine the distribution of r_{Ek}^w . On the monthly timescale, there
 255 is a high correlation ($r_{Ek}^w > 0.5$) down to 4 km depth and north to 20°S (Fig. 2d). The
 256 region between 65–55°S exhibits the strongest correlation ($r_{Ek}^w > 0.9$), with a second,
 257 relatively weaker local maxima of $r_{Ek}^w > 0.7$ apparent between 45–35°S and reaching
 258 2 km depth. The strong correlations at zero lag in these regions reflect the rapid response
 259 of the Eulerian streamfunction to the wind-driven variability, which is evidently being
 260 captured by the Ekman streamfunction.

261 Widening the temporal scale to the 12-month running averages has the effect of
 262 reducing the strength of the correlation north of 50°S, and increasing it between 65–50°S
 263 (Fig. 2e). The region with the strongest correlation of $r_{Ek}^w > 0.7$, between 65–50°S and
 264 down to 4 km depth, corresponds to the upwelling flank of the “Deacon cell”, a localized
 265 wind-driven overturning of waters in Eulerian space with near-uniform properties such
 266 that it does not contribute to the meridional transport of tracer (e.g., Zika et al., 2012;
 267 Farneti et al., 2015). The regions with statistically significant correlations shallows from
 268 4.5 km deep at around 50°S to 500 m depth at 25°S; north of this, the regions of signif-
 269 icance are confined to the surface waters only.

270 To understand the relative magnitudes of the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunction
 271 covariances, we examine the scaled regression coefficient $std(\Psi_{Ek}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^w$, which is indica-
 272 tive of the magnitudes of Eulerian streamfunction anomaly (in Sverdrups) that occur
 273 coincident with one standard deviation change in the Ekman streamfunction. For the
 274 de-seasoned monthly means, the scaled regression distribution is greater than 2 Sv north
 275 of the seasonal sea-ice regions (65°S) and down to a depth of 4 km, with two distinct max-
 276 ima of over 4 Sv centered at 57°S and 40°S (Fig. 2f). These two maxima coincide with
 277 the up- and downwelling branches of the Deacon cell, evident by the closed circulation
 278 contours of the Eulerian streamfunction. The magnitude of the scaled regression decreases
 279 as the temporal scale is widened to the 12-month running average (Fig. 2g), in part due
 280 to the reduction in the standard deviation of the longer-term averaged Ekman stream-
 281 function. The maximum annual scaled regression occurs between 60–50°S and down to
 282 4 km depth, and in places reaching over 3 Sv. The northern maximum around 40°S in
 283 the de-seasoned monthly means is not evident in the longer temporal average. As with
 284 the equivalent correlation distribution (Fig. 2e), the strongest positive region corresponds
 285 to the upwelling branch of the Deacon cell, reflecting the ability of the Ekman stream-
 286 function to represent the effect of wind stress variability on this wind-driven circulation
 287 feature.

288 While the correlations between the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunctions are both
 289 strong and deep-reaching, the Eulerian overturning circulation does not necessarily cor-
 290 respond to property transports, especially in the Southern Ocean (Zika et al., 2012). The
 291 residual streamfunction, in contrast, represents the meridional exchanges of water masses
 292 in potential density space, and is substantially more important for Earth’s climate. While
 293 the traditional coordinates of the residual streamfunction span latitude–potential den-
 294 sity space, for ease of comparison with the Eulerian streamfunction here we interpolate
 295 the residual streamfunction into latitude–depth space, and the Ekman streamfunction
 296 in density coordinates into latitude space (Fig. 3a,b). Note that these interpolations are
 297 for the purposes of plotting only; the following correlation and regression analyses are
 298 performed in latitude–potential density space. The magnitude and distribution of the
 299 residual streamfunction anomaly fields are largely consistent with those of the Ekman
 300 streamfunction anomalies, especially between 60–40°S. The strong, vertically-coherent
 301 latitudinal dependence of the residual streamfunction anomaly distributions, which is

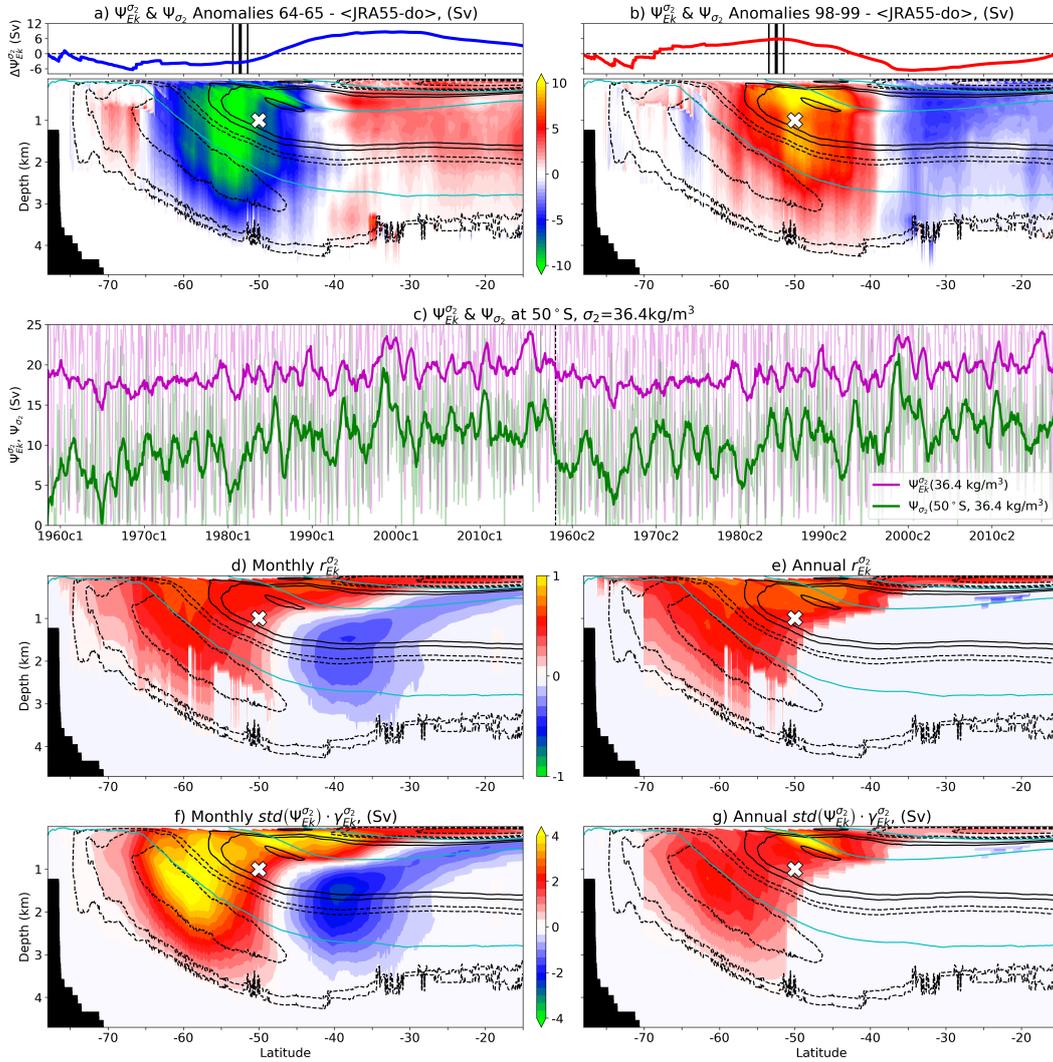


Figure 3. As for Figure 2, only showing the residual streamfunction anomalies (colour shaded) with their respective anomalies of the Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates (upper panels) for reference. Panel (c) presents timeseries of the residual and Ekman streamfunctions at 50°S and $\sigma_2 = 36.4\text{ kg/m}^3$ (white crosses in other panels). Panels (d,e) show the distributions of the statistically significant correlation coefficients $r_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$ for the de-seasoned monthly means and 12-month running averages, respectively, and panels (f,g) show their scaled regression coefficients $std(\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$. To facilitate comparison with Figure 2, the residual and Ekman streamfunctions in density coordinates have been interpolated into latitude–depth space.

302 also present in the Eulerian streamfunction anomaly distributions (Fig. 2a,b), again re-
 303 flects the rapid and deep response of the Southern Ocean to variations in the wind forc-
 304 ing. In the vicinity of the outcrop of $\sigma_2 = 36\text{kg/m}^3$, which is at approximately 52°S
 305 and coincides with the change of sign of the wind stress curl, there is evidence of the resid-
 306 ual streamfunction anomaly signal penetrating from the surface into the interior along
 307 isopycnals (i.e., aligned with the cyan contours) and reaching northwards of 45°S .

308 As for the Eulerian case, we select a location in latitude–potential density space
 309 (50°S and $\sigma_2 = 36.4\text{kg/m}^3$) and present the timeseries of the residual and Ekman stream-
 310 functions in density coordinates (Fig. 3c). At this location, the Ekman streamfunction
 311 is always larger than the residual streamfunction, which initially starts at rest. The cor-
 312 relation between the residual and Ekman streamfunctions at this location is $r_{Ek}^{\sigma_2} = 0.64$,
 313 which is slightly weaker than that of the Eulerian and Ekman streamfunctions ($r_{Ek}^w =$
 314 0.78 ; Fig. 2c); this reflects the different processes by which the wind stress variability
 315 signal propagates through the Eulerian and residual overturning circulations. That is,
 316 in the Eulerian case the wind variability signal propagates vertically into the ocean via
 317 the barotropic mode, tending to have a near immediate and full-depth response; in the
 318 residual case, the wind variability signal propagates into the interior along isopycnals,
 319 which tends to be a slower process. Note that while the long-term trend that was evi-
 320 dent in the Eulerian case between 1964–65 and 1998–99 is also present here, the trend
 321 appears relatively weaker for the Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates ($\sim 5\text{ Sv}$)
 322 and relatively stronger for the residual streamfunction ($\sim 11\text{ Sv}$).

323 The distribution of the statistically significant correlations between the de-seasoned
 324 monthly means of the residual and Ekman streamfunctions in density coordinates (Fig.
 325 3d) exhibit a region of strong positive correlations ($r_{Ek}^{\sigma_2} > 0.6$) in the upper 500 m span-
 326 ning the entire Southern Ocean, and in the upper 1 km south of 40°S . This strong cor-
 327 relation between the residual streamfunction in these upper waters and Ekman stream-
 328 function in density coordinates makes sense as these waters are in direct contact with
 329 the wind forcing. The strong surface signal of the de-seasoned monthly mean correla-
 330 tions appears to penetrate into the ocean interior along isopycnals from the location of
 331 a given σ_2 outcrop a distance of up to 10° of latitude. In the northern region of the South-
 332 ern Ocean, there is a relatively weaker negative correlation ($r_{Ek}^{\sigma_2} \approx -0.3$) signal, sug-
 333 gesting that on a monthly timescale the residual streamfunction anomalies here are out
 334 of phase with those of Ekman streamfunction anomalies. Extending the temporal scale
 335 to the 12-month running averages (Fig. 3e) further intensifies the strong correlation ($r_{Ek}^{\sigma_2} >$
 336 0.7) signal of the upper 1 km between $65\text{--}40^\circ\text{S}$. The northward penetration of the strong
 337 signal has widened from that of the de-seasoned monthly means to be approximately 15°
 338 of latitude in extent. Also, on this annual timescale, the relatively weaker negative sig-
 339 nal evident in the de-seasoned monthly means is not longer present, suggesting the vari-
 340 ability timescale of this feature is between monthly and annual (i.e., seasonal).

341 The equivalent scaled regression analysis for the de-seasoned monthly means show
 342 that $std(\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}$ is strongest ($> 4\text{ Sv}$) in the upper 1 km between $65\text{--}35^\circ\text{S}$, reach-
 343 ing depths of 2 km for $60\text{--}55^\circ\text{S}$, and with a relatively weaker negative signal ($< -2\text{ Sv}$)
 344 to the north between $45\text{--}35^\circ\text{S}$ and 1–2.5 km depth (Fig. 3f). The region with the strongest
 345 response coincides with the upwelling branch of the “upper cell”, or the Atlantic Merid-
 346 ional Overturning Circulation. Widening the temporal scale to the 12-month running
 347 averages reduces the breadth of the upper ocean signal, localising the peak to a max-
 348 imum of $std(\Psi_{Ek}^{\sigma_2}) \cdot \gamma_{Ek}^{\sigma_2} > 4\text{ Sv}$ centered around 52°S and $\sigma_2 = 36\text{ kg/m}^3$ (Fig. 3g).
 349 Note that this location in latitude–potential density space corresponds to the respective
 350 maxima of both Ekman streamfunctions; that is, this location is where the wind stress
 351 curl changes sign, which has been identified as a region that is particularly sensitive to
 352 atmospheric variability, and a hotspot for heat uptake (Stewart & Hogg, 2019).

5 Conclusions

We have introduced a novel wind-derived metric to quantify the variability of the Southern Ocean overturning circulation (SOOC), which we call the Ekman streamfunction. The Ekman streamfunction is developed by integrating the vertical Ekman pumping velocities zonally and northwards from the Antarctic coastline to a given latitude, returning a theoretical representation of the SOOC at the base of the surface Ekman layer. We evaluate the utility of the Ekman streamfunction by way of a global 0.1° ocean–sea-ice model, driven with interannual forcing. The results presented here highlight the close association of the Ekman streamfunction and the SOOC, and the regions and timescales where the two are directly relatable. The covariance between the Ekman streamfunction and the diagnosed SOOC is remarkable; for instance, in regions south of 40°S , and in particular the upwelling flank of Deacon cell, the correlation is greater than 0.9. A scaled regression analysis indicates that for certain locations a one standard deviation change in the Ekman streamfunction coincides with a $> 4\text{ Sv}$ change in the SOOC on monthly and annual timescales, which amounts to approximately 10% of the Eulerian overturning circulation. The correlation between the residual streamfunction and the Ekman streamfunction in density coordinates penetrates northwards along isopycnals up to 15° of latitude within a year. The scaled regression signal peak at 52°S and $\sigma_2 = 36\text{ kg/m}^3$, which is the location of the zero wind stress curl, reflects the heightened sensitivity of this specific region to atmospheric variability. The results also suggest that for regions with weak or insignificant correlations, the overturning circulation variability is due to dynamical processes other than wind forcing, such as buoyancy fluxes. In summary, this analysis clearly demonstrates the utility of the novel Ekman streamfunction in representing the wind-driven variability of the SOOC.

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