

Historical Trends in Ocean Heat, Carbon, Salinity, and Oxygen Simulations: Impact of a Changing Ocean Circulation

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Abstract

Examination of historical simulations from CMIP6 models shows substantial pre-industrial to present-day changes in ocean heat (ΔH), salinity (ΔS), oxygen (ΔO_2), dissolved inorganic carbon (ΔDIC), chlorofluorocarbon-12 (ΔCFC_{12}), and sulfur hexafluoride (ΔSF_6). The spatial structure of the changes and the consistency among models differ among tracers: ΔDIC , ΔCFC_{12} , and ΔSF_6 all are largest near the surface, are positive throughout the thermocline with weak changes below, and there is good agreement amongst the models. In contrast, the largest ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 are not necessarily at the surface, their sign varies within the thermocline, and there are large differences among models. These differences between the two groups of tracers are linked to climate-driven changes in the ocean transport, with this tracer “redistribution” playing a significant role in changes in ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 but not the other tracers. Tracer redistribution is prominent in the southern subtropics, in a region where apparent oxygen utilization and ideal age indicate increased ventilation time scales. The tracer changes are linked to a poleward shift of the peak Southern Hemisphere westerly winds, which causes a similar shift of the subtropical gyres, and anomalous upwelling in the subtropics. This wind - tracer connection is also suggested to be a factor in the large model spread in some tracers, as there is also a large model spread in wind trends. A similar multi-tracer analysis of observations could provide insights into the relative role of the addition and redistribution of tracers in the ocean.

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3 **Changing Ocean Circulation**

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9
10 **Key Points:**

- 11 • Historical changes in DIC, CFC12, and SF₆ in CMIP6 simulations show similar spatial
12 patterns and general agreement among the models.
13
14 • Historical changes in T, S, and O₂ show regional differences, including in sign, among
15 tracers and a wide variation among the models.
16
17 • Increases in surface values dominate changes in DIC, CFC12, and SF₆, but changes in
18 ocean transport are more crucial for T, S, and O₂.
19
20

21 **Abstract**

22 Examination of historical simulations from CMIP6 models shows substantial pre-industrial to
23 present-day changes in ocean heat (ΔH), salinity (ΔS), oxygen (ΔO_2), dissolved inorganic carbon
24 (ΔDIC), chlorofluorocarbon-12 ($\Delta CFC12$), and sulfur hexafluoride (ΔSF_6). The spatial structure
25 of the changes and the consistency among models differ among tracers: ΔDIC , $\Delta CFC12$, and
26 ΔSF_6 all are largest near the surface, are positive throughout the thermocline with weak changes
27 below, and there is good agreement amongst the models. In contrast, the largest ΔH , ΔS , and
28 ΔO_2 are not necessarily at the surface, their sign varies within the thermocline, and there are
29 large differences among models. These differences between the two groups of tracers are linked
30 to climate-driven changes in the ocean transport, with this tracer “redistribution” playing a
31 significant role in changes in ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 but not the other tracers. Tracer redistribution is
32 prominent in the southern subtropics, in a region where apparent oxygen utilization and ideal age
33 indicate increased ventilation time scales. The tracer changes are linked to a poleward shift of
34 the peak Southern Hemisphere westerly winds, which causes a similar shift of the subtropical
35 gyres, and anomalous upwelling in the subtropics. This wind - tracer connection is also
36 suggested to be a factor in the large model spread in some tracers, as there is also a large model
37 spread in wind trends. A similar multi-tracer analysis of observations could provide insights into
38 the relative role of the addition and redistribution of tracers in the ocean.

39 **Plain Language Summary**

40 Changes in ocean properties can have a large impact on Earth’s climate (e.g., ocean storage of
41 heat and carbon) and biology within the oceans (e.g., acidification and deoxygenation). Here we
42 examine historical changes in multiple ocean fields from an ensemble of climate model
43 simulations. The spatial structure of the changes and the consistency among models differs
44 between tracers. Dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC), chlorofluorocarbon-12 (CFC12), and sulfur
45 hexafluoride (SF_6) all have largest increases near the surface, increase throughout the
46 thermocline with weak changes below, and there is good agreement amongst the models.
47 However, for ocean heat (H), salinity (S), oxygen (O_2) the largest changes are not necessarily at
48 the surface, the sign of the change varies among tracers, and there are large differences among
49 models. These differences between the two groups of tracers are linked to climate-driven
50 changes in the ocean transport, with this tracer “redistribution” playing a significant role in
51 changes in H, S, and O_2 but not the other tracers. A similar multi-tracer analysis of observations
52 could provide insights into the relative role of the addition and redistribution of tracers in the
53 ocean.

54 **1. Introduction**

56 Substantial changes in the oceans have been observed over the last few decades, including
57 changes in temperature (Johnson et al. 2018, Cheng et al. 2022), salinity (Durack 2015, Cheng et
58 al. 2020), carbon (McKinley et al. 2017, Gruber et al. 2023), and dissolved oxygen (Keeling et
59 al. 2010, Breitburg et al. 2018). These changes in ocean properties have an impact on ocean
60 circulation (through temperature and salinity changes), ocean biogeochemistry (acidification and
61 deoxygenation), and Earth’s climate (ocean storage of heat and carbon). It is therefore important
62 to understand the cause of the changes and for models to be able to reproduce the changes.

63 There are multiple mechanisms that could cause the observed changes. One is changes in
64 atmosphere-ocean surface fluxes, either through changes in the atmosphere (e.g. increased
65 atmospheric temperature and carbon dioxide, or changes in precipitation) or temperature-driven
66 changes in solubility of gasses. The resulting change in surface properties is then transported

67 into the thermocline and deep ocean. This is often referred to as the passive transport of ocean
68 tracers or the “added” component of tracer changes (e.g., Banks and Gregory 2006, Bronselaer
69 and Zanna 2020). If this mechanism is the dominant cause of the changes in ocean properties,
70 then the change in different properties would have very similar spatial distributions. However,
71 several recent studies have shown substantial differences in the simulated distributions of
72 anthropogenic heat and carbon storage (e.g., Frolicher et al. 2015, Williams et al. 2021).
73 Specifically, while carbon increases throughout the thermocline, heat decreases in the low-
74 latitude sub-surface thermocline. Further, while all models show a similar pattern of carbon
75 storage, there is a large spread in the pattern of heat storage. This indicates passive transport is
76 not the only mechanism controlling the distribution of these two tracers.

77 A second mechanism is climate-driven changes in the ocean circulation. These circulation
78 changes act on the background tracer gradients to produce changes in the tracer distribution. This
79 has been referred to as the “redistribution” of tracers (Winton et al. 2013, Bronselaer and Zanna
80 2020). The redistribution effect depends on the background gradients of the tracer, and so could
81 differ in magnitude, and even in sign, between tracers (e.g., Williams et al. 2021). Although the
82 added heat and carbon have a similar sign as the net source of both is increasing with time, the
83 redistribution of heat and carbon can have differing signs due to the opposing gradients in the
84 preindustrial temperature and carbon (e.g., Williams et al. 2021). Also the redistribution effect
85 may be more prominent for heat than carbon because compensation between the solubility and
86 biological carbon pumps reduces the sensitivity of air-sea carbon fluxes to changes in circulation
87 (Marinov and Gnanadesikan, 2011).

88 While there appears to be consensus that the tracer “redistribution” is the cause of the
89 differences in heat and carbon storage, there is large uncertainty in how the ocean transport has
90 changed, what has caused these changes, and why there is such a large spread amongst models in
91 their heat uptake. Furthermore, it is unclear what the balance between “added” and
92 “redistributed” components is for other important ocean properties (e.g. salinity and oxygen),
93 e.g., are the spatial patterns of change for these properties similar to carbon or heat, and is the
94 spread among models large (as for heat) or small (as for carbon)?

95 Here we address these questions by examining changes in multiple ocean properties in
96 Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6) historical simulations (Eyring et al.
97 2016). This includes not only heat and carbon as considered in the above (CMIP5) studies, but
98 also salinity (S), oxygen (O_2), chlorofluorocarbon-12 (CFC12), and sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6).
99 These tracers have different surface histories and background gradients, so the impact of added
100 and redistributed components will likely vary among the tracers, and comparison of the historical
101 changes of a range of tracers may provide constraints on the circulation/transport changes. We
102 also examine simulations of the ideal age tracer (Thiele & Sarmiento 1990, England 1994) that
103 provide information on changes in ventilation (surface to interior transport) time scales, and can
104 be used to identify regions where redistribution may be important.

105 The model output and analysis are described in the next section. In Section 3 we examine and
106 compare the pre-industrial to present-day changes in the different fields, while in Section 4 we
107 examine the mechanisms causing the change in circulation and tracers. Concluding remarks are
108 in Section 5.

109

110 **2. Methods**

111 We examine the change in T , S , DIC , O_2 , $CFC12$, SF_6 , and ideal age within 18 CMIP6
112 historical simulations (1850-2014). All models have T , S , but only a subset have DIC , O_2 ,

113 CFC12, SF₆, and ideal age, see Table 1. We use a single ensemble member for each model. For
 114 most models this is ensemble member “r1i1p1f1”, but for some this member is not available, in
 115 which case we use another ensemble member, as listed in Table 1. To aid with interpretation of
 116 the results in oxygen, we have also calculated the apparent oxygen utilization (AOU), defined as
 117 the difference between the saturation oxygen concentration at the temperature and salinity at a
 118 given grid point and the modeled oxygen at that grid point.

119 Model output that are not on a regular 1x1 horizontal grid were interpolated onto this grid.
 120 Analysis of individual models was done on individual model vertical levels, but the output was
 121 interpolated onto a common vertical grid with 10 m resolution over the top 2000m for creation of
 122 multi-model mean fields.

123 The historical changes in each field are calculated as the difference between the time average
 124 over last 20 years and the time average over the first 20 years, i.e., $\Delta X = X_{1995-2014} - X_{1850-1869}$,
 125 where X=T, S, etc and $X_{1995-2014}$ is the average over 1995 to 2014. For most of the analysis we
 126 present the zonally-integrated or zonally-averaged fields, and focus on the large-scale features of
 127 the changes in tracers in latitude-depth space.

128

Model	Variant	DIC	T	S	CFC12	SF ₆	O ₂	age
ACCESS-ESM1-5	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X			X	160
CanESM5	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X			X	4344
CESM2	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X		4041
CESM2-WACCM	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X		3931
CMCC-ESM2	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X			X	
CNRM-ESM2-1	r1i1p1f2	X	X	X			X	
EC-Earth-Consortium...	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X	X	239
GFDL-CM4	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X	X	
GFDL-ESM4	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X	X	
GISS-E2-1-G	r10i1p1f1	X	X	X				696
HadGEM3-GC31-LL	r1i1p1f3		X	X				0
IPSL-CM6A-LR	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X			X	629
MIROC-ES2L	r1i1p1f2	X	X	X			X	1242
MRI-ESM2-0	r1i1p1f1		X	X				0
NorESM2-LM	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X	X	1457
NorESM2-MM	r1i1p1f1	X	X	X	X	X	X	1145
UKESM1-0-LL (MOHC)	r1i1p1f2	X	X	X	X	X	X	0
UKESM1-0-LL (NIMS-	r13i1p1f2	X	X	X	X	X	X	0

129

130 Table 1: Model names, variant of historical run, and tracers included in each model (X = included, blank = not
131 included). The value listed for age is the maximum age (in years) at the start of the historical simulation.

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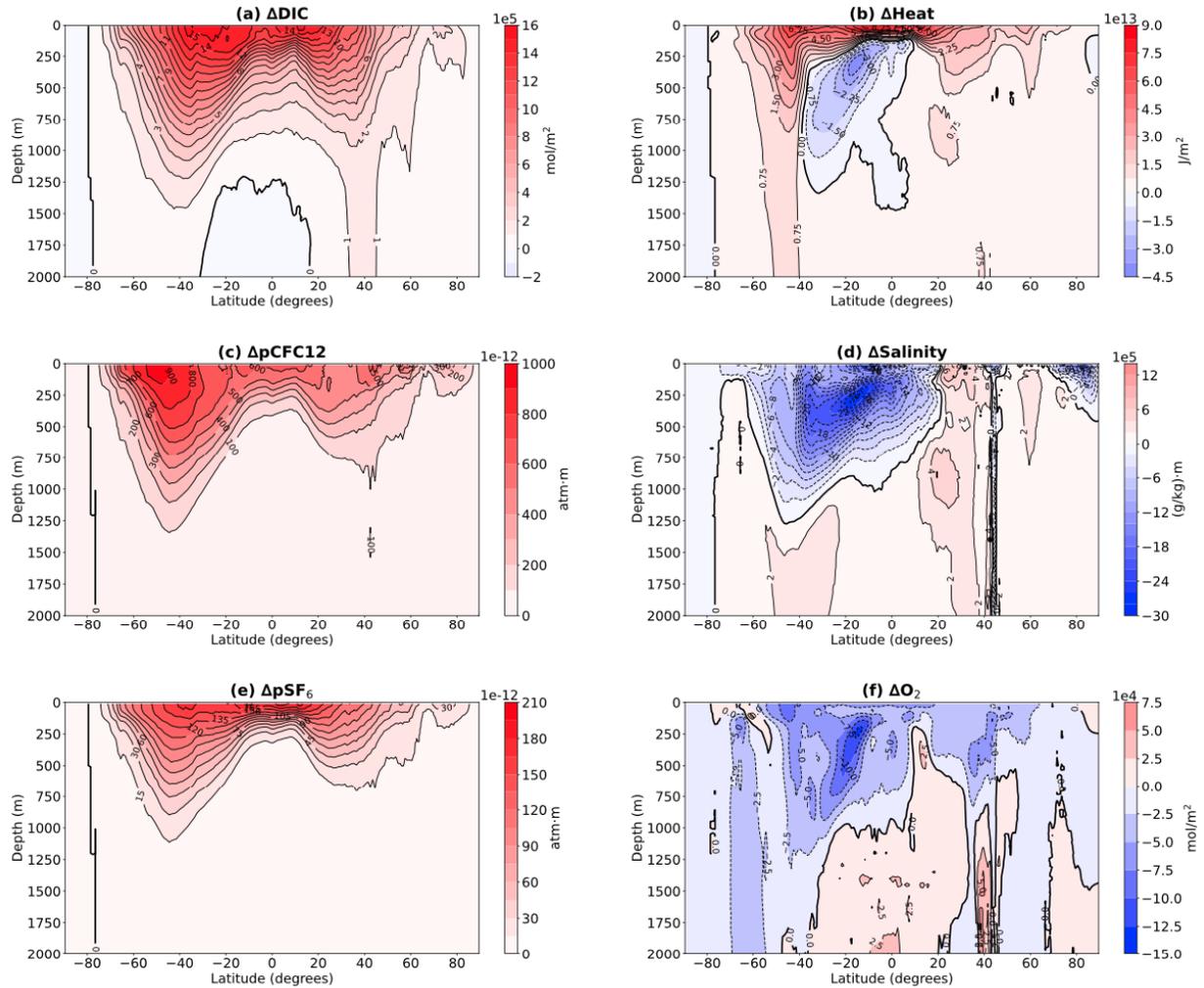
134 **3. Ocean Tracers**

135

136 **3.1 Heat and Carbon**

137 We first consider the historical uptake of heat and carbon in CMIP6 historical simulations. The
138 historical change in the zonally-integrated DIC averaged over all CMIP6 simulations (“multi-
139 model mean”) increases throughout the thermocline (**Fig 1a**). In contrast, the ΔH increases in
140 some regions (e.g., near-surface waters) but decreases in others (in particular, the southern
141 subtropical sub-surface ocean (~100-700 m) (**Fig 1b**). These differences between ΔDIC and ΔH
142 are very similar to that found for CMIP5 models, see figure 9a,b of Frolicher et al. (2015)
143 (hereinafter F15). As discussed in the Introduction, this indicates that there is not passive
144 transport of both tracers (or equivalently, the added component does not dominate the change in
145 both tracers).

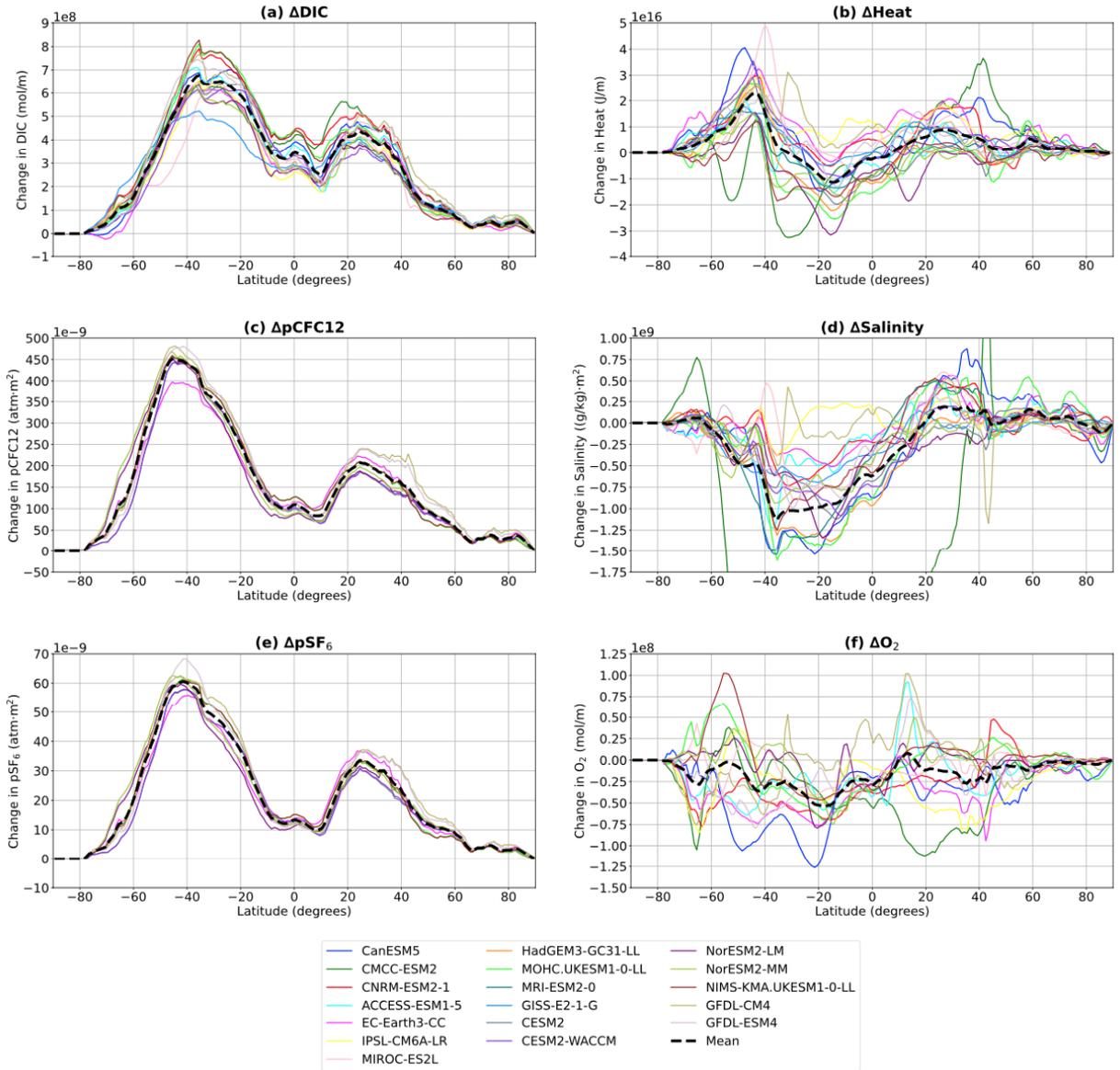
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147
 148 Figure 1: Depth-Latitude variations in multi-model mean zonally-integrated (a) Δ DIC (mol/m^2), (b) Δ H (J/m^2), (c)
 149 Δ CFC12 (atm.m), (d) Δ S (g/kg.m), (e) Δ SF₆ (atm/m), and (f) Δ O₂ (mol/m^2).
 150

151 There is positive Δ DIC throughout upper waters in all models, and all models show a very
 152 similar meridional variation and magnitude of the column-integrated Δ DIC, e.g., see **Fig. 2a**
 153 which shows the integrated Δ DIC over 100-700m. In contrast, there is a wide spread in Δ H
 154 among the models, with the difference not only in magnitude but also the meridional variations
 155 (**Fig 2b**). This is again consistent with CMIP5 models, see, e.g., figures 2a and 6a of F15.

156 The disconnect between the uptake of C and H can also be seen by examining the relationship
 157 between Δ DIC and Δ H for each model. If both tracers were passively transported into the
 158 oceans, then models with larger Δ DIC would also have larger Δ H. However, this is not the case
 159 amongst CMIP6 models, and there is only a weak correlation between the Δ DIC and Δ H column
 160 inventories, e.g., **Fig. 3a** compares the 100-700m integral of Δ DIC and Δ H averaged over the
 161 southern subtropics (0-40°S). (Although not shown in F15, a similar result is found for values in
 162 table 2 of F15.) As discussed in the Introduction, the above differences in Δ DIC and Δ H have
 163 been attributed to redistribution playing a major role in Δ H but not Δ DIC. This is discussed
 164 further in Section 4 below.



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Figure 2: Latitudinal variation of the 100-700 m integrated column (a) Δ DIC, (b) Δ H, (c) Δ CFC12, (d) Δ S, (e) Δ SF₆, and (f) Δ O₂, for each model.

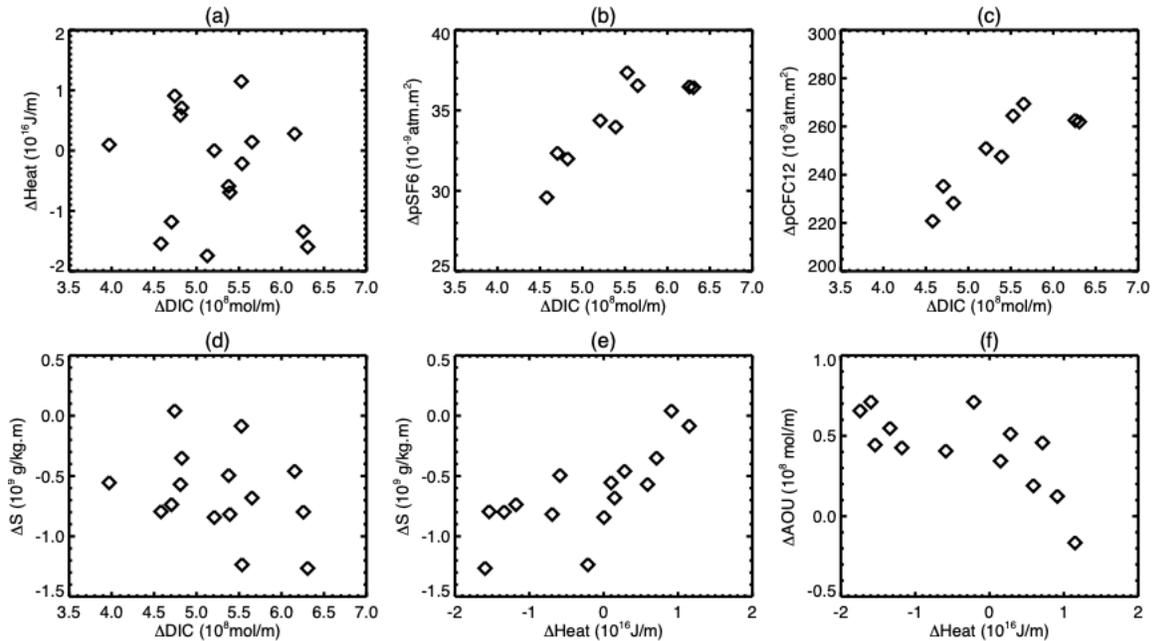


Figure 3: Relationships between (a) Δ DIC and Δ H, (b) Δ DIC and Δ pSF₆, (c) Δ DIC and Δ pCFC12, (d) Δ DIC and Δ S, (e) Δ H and Δ S, and (f) Δ H and Δ AOU, for zonally-integrated 100-700m inventories averaged over 0-40S. Each symbol represents a different model.

3.2 Other Tracers

We next consider changes in CFC12 and SF₆. Both these gases are conserved in the oceans, have only anthropogenic sources, and their atmospheric concentrations have increased since the mid-20th century (Walker et al 2000). (There has been a decline in atmospheric CFC12 since the mid-1990s, due to the Montreal Protocol and amendments, but this decrease is small compared to the increase since the mid-20th century.) This results in increasing ocean surface concentrations from exchange with increased atmospheric concentrations that are transported into the subsurface oceans. As the pre-industrial atmospheric and ocean concentrations of CFC12 and SF₆ are zero, there are very weak background gradients at depth and redistribution by changes in transport will be small for these tracers, especially below the thermocline.

The multi-model mean patterns of Δ CFC12 and Δ SF₆ (which is equivalent to modern concentration as their pre-industrial levels are zero) are very similar, with large increases in the thermocline and negligible change at depth (**Fig. 1c, e**). (Note, we express these two tracers as partial pressure rather than concentration to avoid effects of temperature-driven changes in solubility.) The distributions of CFC12 and SF₆ are consistent with passive transport of the increasing surface concentrations into the ocean, with large values in regions with young ages (rapid ventilation) and vanishing values in the deep ocean where there are very old ages (slow ventilation).

The patterns of Δ CFC12 and Δ SF₆ are very similar to that of Δ DIC (**Fig. 1c,e**), and all models have very similar meridional distributions of upper-column Δ CFC12, Δ SF₆, and Δ DIC (**Fig. 2a, c, e**). Furthermore, there are correlations across the models in the column-integrated Δ DIC, Δ CFC12, and Δ SF₆ (**Fig. 3b, c**), i.e., models that simulate a larger Δ CFC12 tend to simulate a larger Δ DIC (and Δ SF₆). The agreement among models in spatial variation, and a high correlation across models for these fields suggests that the impact of redistribution is much

198 smaller than that of the passive transport or that it is potentially of the same sign as the
199 “added component”.

200 Next we consider salinity S . As with other tracers there are significant changes in S over the
201 duration of the historical simulations. However, unlike the other tracers, ΔS is negative at the
202 surface and throughout most of the thermocline (**Fig. 1d**), while small regions of positive change
203 are seen in the North Atlantic. Salinification of the North Atlantic and freshening of the Pacific is
204 consistent with the results of Durack (2015) and likely reflects an increase in interbasin
205 freshwater transport coupled with a slowing of the overturning circulation. Additionally, we
206 might expect polar regions supplying Southern Hemisphere intermediate waters to freshen as the
207 hydrological cycle increases. However, the structure of ΔS indicates that the change is not
208 simply the transport of this decrease into the interior (the “added” component). Unlike ΔDIC ,
209 ΔCFC12 , and ΔSF_6 , the largest change in southern low to mid-latitudes is not at the surface, but
210 rather in the subtropical sub-surface (around 300 m, 20°S). This region of large negative ΔS is
211 similar to the region where there is negative ΔH (**Fig. 1b**), which suggests that redistribution may
212 also be playing an important role for ΔS . Further, as for ΔH , there is a wide spread in ΔS among
213 the models (**Fig. 2d**). In addition, there is a significant positive correlation across models for the
214 100-700 m ΔH and ΔS averaged between 0 and 40 °S (**Fig. 3e**), but no correlation between ΔDIC
215 and ΔS (**Fig. 3d**). In other words, models that have a large decrease in H also have a large
216 decrease in S . This supports the hypothesis that the same process (change in circulation) is
217 causing the changes in S and H in this region.

218 The final realistic tracer we consider is oxygen O_2 . The solubility of O_2 is temperature
219 dependent, so the warming of the surface waters (which decreases the solubility) has caused a
220 decrease in O_2 entering the oceans, and there is an “added” component to ΔO_2 that we would
221 expect to roughly track temperature with 10^{13} J/m² of heat gain being associated with around
222 $0.12\text{-}0.15 \times 10^5$ mol/m² of oxygen loss. However, O_2 is not conserved within the oceans, and
223 changes in this (biological) loss can cause non-zero ΔO_2 . The spatial structure of the multi-
224 model ΔO_2 shows decreases through most of the middle-upper oceans (**Fig. 1f**). The largest
225 decreases are not at the surface, but in the southern, subtropical sub-surface ocean and in
226 Antarctic waters. There is, moreover, a large spread amongst the models in upper-column ΔO_2
227 (**Fig. 2f**). These large changes in the subtropics and large model spread suggests that, as with H
228 and S , changes in the ocean circulation have a large impact on ΔO_2 .

229 From the above analysis we can separate the tracers into a group (DIC , CFC12 , and SF_6) where
230 there is good agreement amongst the models with all showing largest increase at the surface and
231 an increase through the thermocline, and a second group (H , S , O_2) where there is a wide spread
232 in simulated change amongst the models, including differences in sign of the change in some
233 regions, and a region of large decrease in the southern subtropical sub-surface ocean.

234 A possible cause for this separation is differences in the relative role of the “added” and
235 “redistribution” components to the tracer change, i.e., the change in the first group of tracers is
236 dominated by the “added” component (with all tracers increasing because of the increase in
237 atmospheric concentrations), whereas for the second group the redistribution effect plays a
238 significant role, and there is a spread amongst the models in the simulated transport changes. For
239 this to be the case there has to be a change in the tracer transport and for the tracer gradients to
240 differ between the two groups. These aspects are examined the next sections.

241

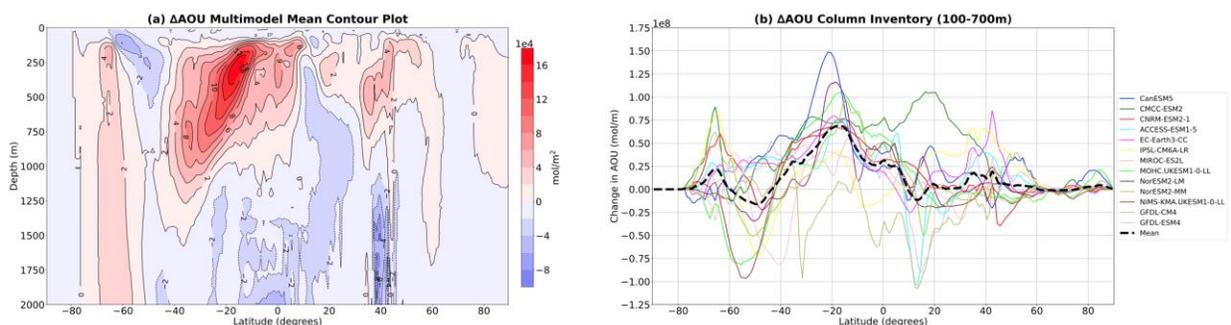
242 3.3 AOU and Ideal Age

243 To quantify changes in the ocean transport we examine the changes in apparent oxygen
 244 utilization (AOU) and the ideal age tracer. Both of these quantities provide information on the
 245 timescales for transport from the ocean surface to interior, and whether these times have changed
 246 over the historical simulations.

247 AOU is the difference between oxygen gas solubility and the actual oxygen concentration, i.e.,
 248 $AOU = O_{2,Sat}(T,S) - O_2$, where $O_{2,Sat}$ is the saturated O_2 , for given T and S. AOU depends on
 249 biological processes as well the transport times and pathways. However, if we assume the rate of
 250 biological loss is uniform throughout the ocean and does not change in time then AOU is
 251 proportional to the mean time scale for transport from the ocean surface. In general we expect
 252 the relationship between AOU and the mean transport time to be a strong function of depth, as
 253 remineralization of organic matter is strongly concentrated at the surface. Previous work (Bahl et
 254 al., 2019) has shown such correlations. However, at a given depth, it may be reasonable to use
 255 ΔAOU as a proxy for the change in the transport timescale from the surface to given location
 256 (this is tested below).

257 The multi-model mean ΔAOU shows a large increase in the southern subtropical region where
 258 ΔH and ΔS also decrease (**Fig. 4a**). Assuming constant biological loss, this increase in ΔAOU
 259 implies an increase in transport time from the surface (i.e. more time for the biology to consume
 260 O_2). As with ΔH and ΔS , there is a large spread in ΔAOU among the models (**Fig. 4b**).
 261 Furthermore, there is anti-correlation between ΔAOU and ΔH in southern low latitudes, i.e.
 262 models with larger increase in ΔAOU tend to have a larger decrease in ΔH (**Fig. 3f**), and there
 263 are strong similarities in the spatial variations of ΔAOU and ΔH in southern low-mid latitudes
 264 (see **Fig. 5** below). It is also worth noting that a 1 μM change in AOU would be expected to be
 265 associated with a 1.2-1.6 μM change in remineralized carbon. This means that if all of the $\sim 1 \times$
 266 10^5 mol m^{-2} decrease in oxygen along the equatorial edge of the Southern subtropical gyre in
 267 **Fig. 1f** is attributable to respiration, it would be associated with a ΔDIC about an order of
 268 magnitude smaller than the peak increase in **Fig. 1a**.

269



270
 271 Figure 4 (a) Depth-Latitude variations in multi-model mean zonally integrated ΔAOU , and (b) 100-700m
 272 column inventory ΔAOU for each model.

273
 274 The interpretation of ΔAOU as a change in transport times requires assumptions. A more direct
 275 measure of the transport times is the ideal age tracer (hereinafter referred to simply as the “age”
 276 or “age tracer”). In steady state, the age tracer is equal to the mean transport time from the
 277 surface to given interior location (Hall and Haine 2002), so Δage will quantify the change in the
 278 mean transport time from the surface.

279 Unfortunately, only a subset of the models includes the age tracer, and in many of these the age
 280 is not close to steady state. The latter can be seen by examining the maximum age at any ocean
 281 location at the start of the historical simulations, which is listed in Table 1. In steady state the

282 maximum age should be well over 1000 yrs, however this is the case in only a few models. In
283 some models the initial value in the historical simulations is zero (the age must have been reset at
284 the start of the historical simulations), while for others the maximum age is only a few hundred
285 years (the likely length of the pre-industrial simulation). The fact that the initial age is not in
286 steady state means that Δage will include, and in many cases be dominated by, the increase in
287 age as it approaches steady state, and not just be due to transport changes. Because of the above
288 issue we consider only models with an initial maximum age over 600 years, so that the pre-
289 industrial age is close to steady state, at least in waters above the main pycnocline. Further we do
290 not calculate the multi-model mean change, as the impact of age approaching steady state varies
291 between models due to very different initial ages.

292 Δage and ΔAOU for three models are shown in **Fig. 5**. In all models there is a decrease in age
293 in southern mode-intermediate waters (above 500-1000m) and an increase in the age in southern
294 subtropics (equatorward of 40 °S) around 500 m. However, the magnitude and exact region of
295 these increases / decreases differs among the models. There are even larger differences
296 occurring at depth, where Δage in some models is likely still approaching steady state. While
297 there is not exact agreement between ΔAOU and Δage from the same model, there is agreement
298 in the locations in the upper 1000m where ΔAOU and Δage increase or decrease, see **Fig. 5**.
299 Furthermore, there are similar intra-model differences in ΔAOU and Δage , e.g., the decrease in
300 ΔAOU and Δage around 40S is larger in NorESM2-LM than the other two models. There are
301 some differences between ΔAOU and Δage at depth and near Antarctica that could be due to the
302 above issue of age still approaching steady state.

303 The general agreement between ΔAOU and Δage for the few models that have usable age
304 simulations indicates that ΔAOU from models can be used as an indicator of regions where there
305 are changes in the ventilation time scale. Making this assumption, the simulated ΔAOU
306 indicates that in all models there is an increase in ventilation time to the southern subtropical
307 sub-surface region, but the exact location and magnitude of the change varies between models.
308 Further, the variation between models in the location/strength of subtropical increase in ΔAOU
309 (and Δage) is very similar to the variations in the decrease in ΔH among models, e.g., see **Fig. 5**.
310

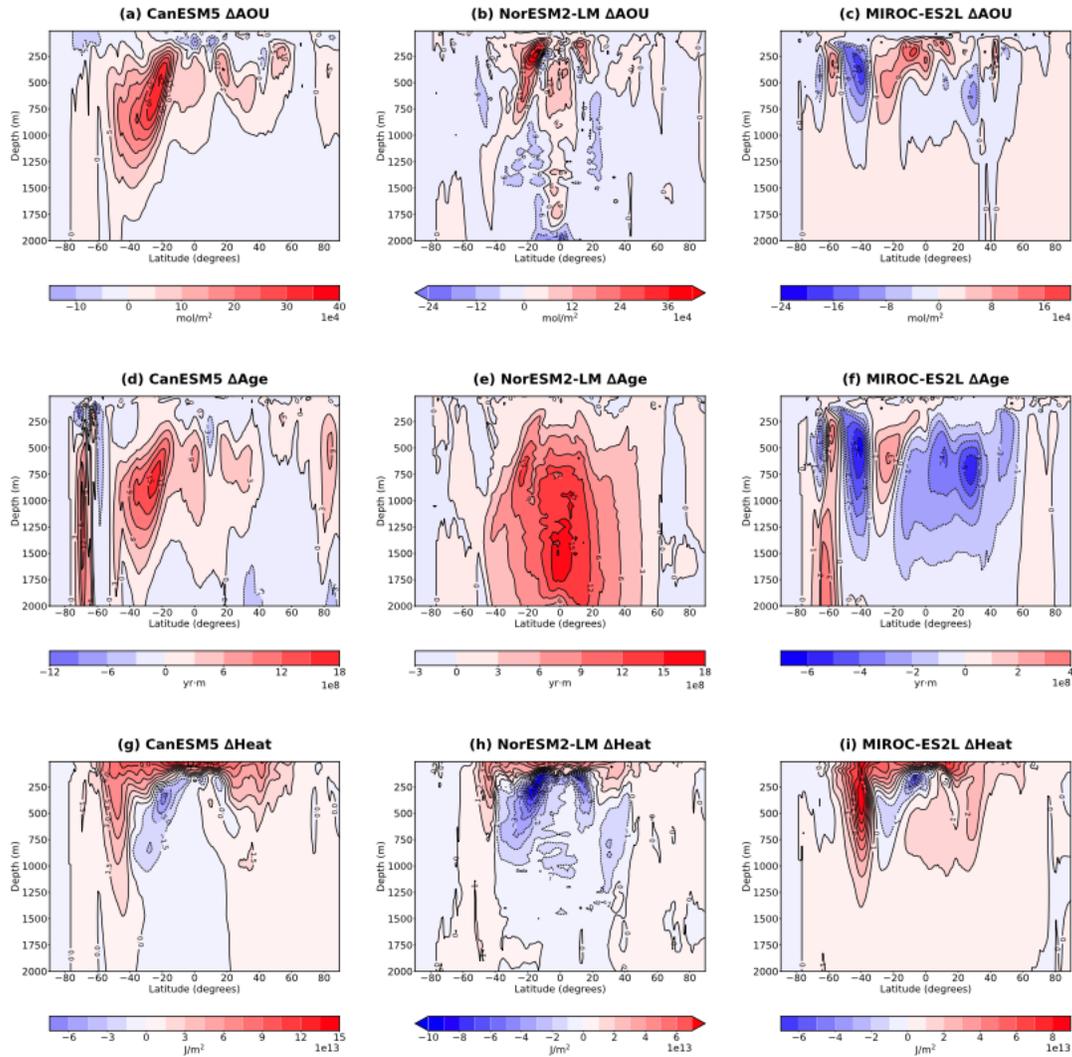


Figure 5. Depth-Latitude variations in (a-c) ΔAOU , (d-f) ΔAge , and (g-i) ΔH for the (left column) CanESM5, (middle) NorESM2-LM, and (right) MIROC-ES2L models.

4. Mechanisms

The above analysis suggests that there are changes in the ocean transport in the historical simulation that have a significant impact on ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 , but a much smaller impact on ΔDIC , ΔCFC_{12} and ΔSF_6 . But there remain many questions and uncertainties. For example: How is the transport changing, what causes these changes, and why does its impact differ between tracers? Also, why is there a large spread in the change in transport and tracers amongst the models?

Fully answering these questions is beyond the scope of this study, but we present a preliminary analysis of the changes in the southern subtropical oceans. This is the region where, in most models, the largest increase in age occurs, and where H, S, and O_2 decrease, but DIC increases. Also, there is a large model spread in ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 in the southern subtropics.

There are several mechanisms by which climate change can cause changes in ocean transport, including climate-driven changes in ocean temperature and salinity as well as atmospheric wind forcing (e.g., Clement et al. 2022, Newsom et al. 2022). The latter is potentially important for

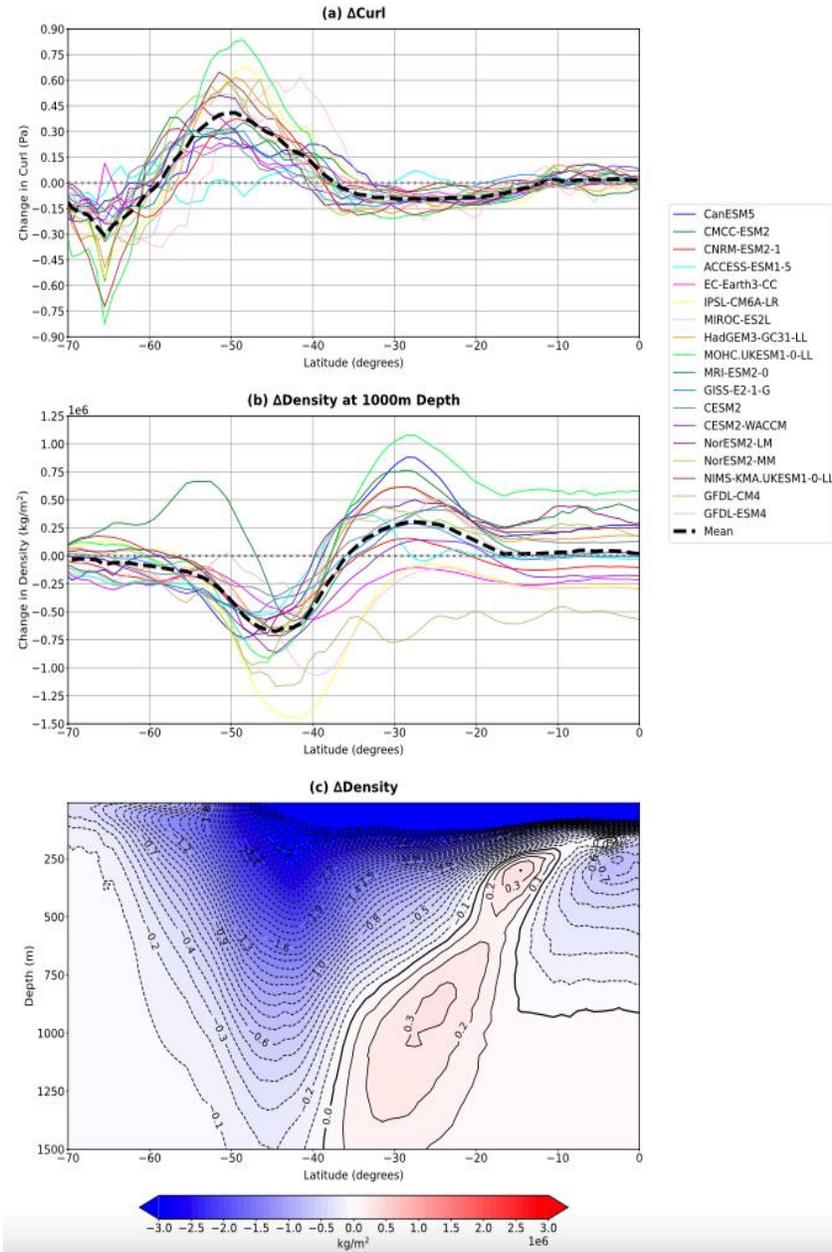
329 changes in the southern subtropical oceans as there has been a poleward shift and intensification
330 of the southern hemisphere atmospheric westerly jet over the latter part of the 20th century (e.g.,
331 Swart and Fyfe 2012, Thomas et al. 2015). This is also the case for the CMIP6 historical
332 simulations, where in nearly all models there is an increase and poleward shift in the peak wind
333 stress in the southern hemisphere, which results in an increase in the wind stress curl between
334 40-60 °S and a decrease north and south of this region, see **Fig 6a**.

335 Numerous modeling studies have shown that a shift and/or intensification of the southern
336 westerlies causes substantial changes in the ocean circulation, transport, and tracer (including
337 ideal age) distributions (e.g., Gent and Danabasoglu 2011, Sijp and England 2008, Farneti and
338 Gent 2011, Waugh et al. 2019, 2021, Couldrey et al. 2021). Specifically, Waugh et al. (2019)
339 show that a poleward shift of the winds produces an increase in age around 35 °S, qualitatively
340 similar to the change in AOU or age in the CMIP6 historical simulations (see figure 3 of Waugh
341 et al. 2019). This wind shift also causes a decrease in T and S in the same region (e.g. Sijp and
342 England 2008), again consistent with the CMIP6 simulations.

343 Waugh et al. (2019) linked the age response to the vertical movement of isopycnals and
344 changes in the subtropical gyres: For a poleward shift in winds there is decreased wind stress curl
345 in the subtropics, which results in upward movement of isopycnal (Ekman suction) and poleward
346 shift of subtropical gyre (Sverdrup balance), which both contribute to an increase in age around
347 30 °S. The CMIP6 simulations show an increase in density in the subtropics between 500 and
348 1500 m, consistent with a decrease in the wind stress curl, and reverse at high latitudes (**Fig. 6b**).
349 Furthermore, the region of increasing density in the subtropics is similar to the region with
350 increasing AOU and age (**Fig. 4 and 5**). This supports the hypothesis that the decrease in wind
351 stress over the subtropics leads to anomalous upwelling in the subtropics, which increases the
352 age and AOU (by moving up older water).

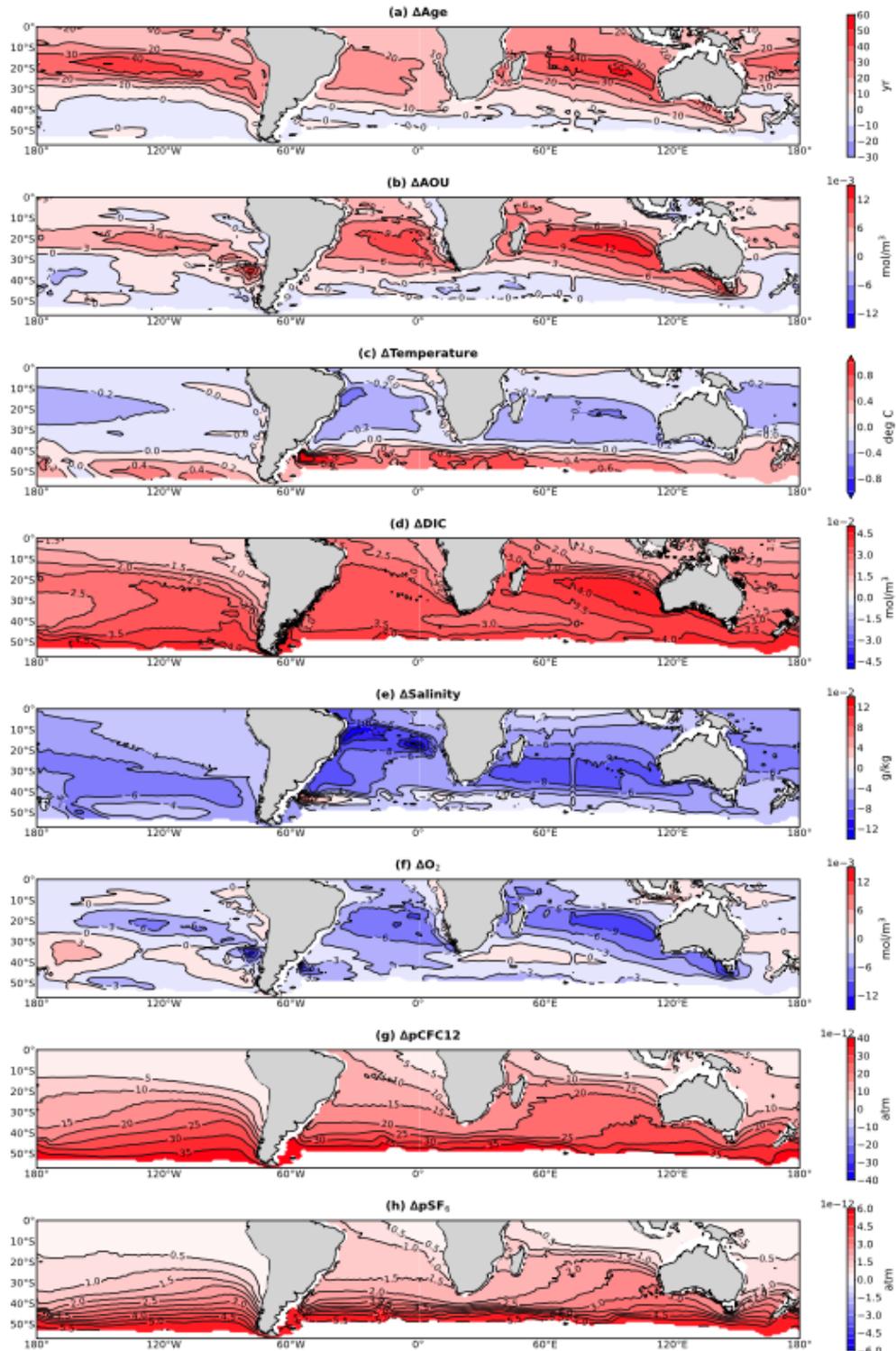
353 As noted above, Waugh et al. (2019) also connected changes in age to changes in the
354 subtropical gyres. Specifically, a poleward shift of peak wind stress leads to a poleward shift of
355 the equatorward edge of the subtropical gyre (assuming Sverdrup balance), which results in older
356 ages in the subtropics as there is reduced ventilation by subtropical gyre circulation (and hence a
357 larger contribution from vertical mixing with deep waters). The patterns of change in CMIP6
358 multi-model age and AOU are consistent with this proposed mechanism, with largest increases
359 near the equatorward edge of the gyres, see **Fig. 7a,b**.

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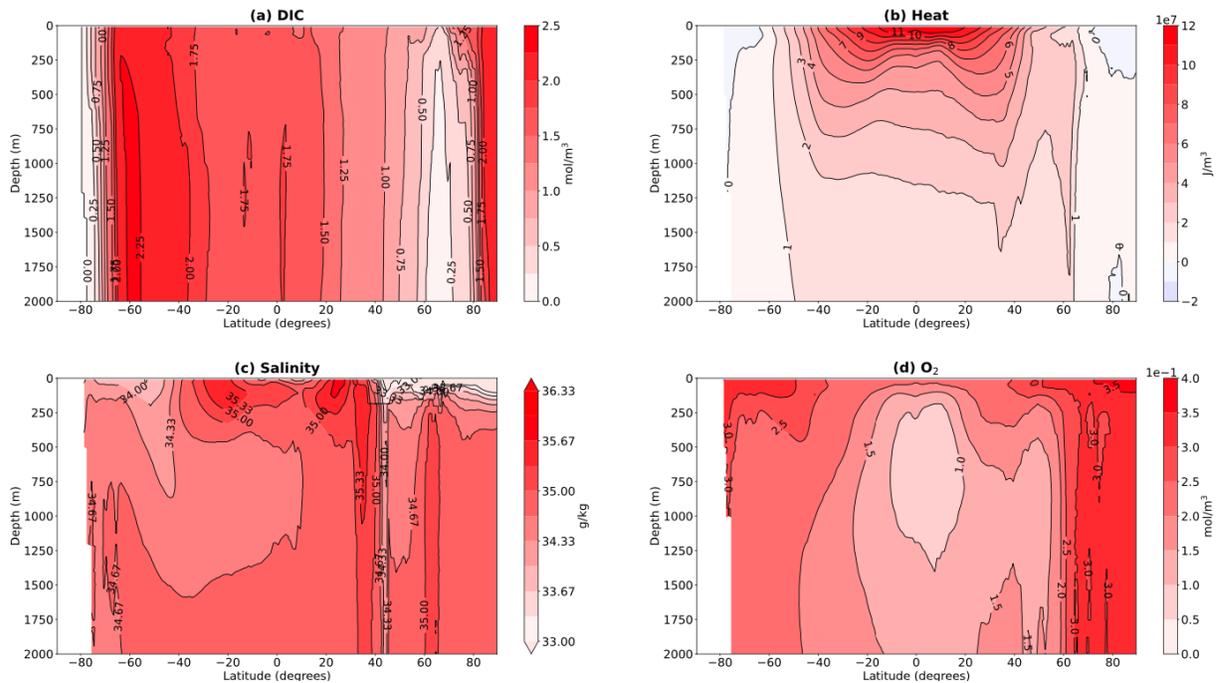
Figure 6: (a) Change in (a) wind stress curl and (b) density at 1000 m for each model and multi-model mean (black dashed curve), and (c) depth-latitude variations in multi-model mean historical change in density.



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Figure 7: Maps of the multi-model (a) Δ age, (b) Δ AOU, (c) Δ T, (d) Δ S, (e) Δ O₂, (f) Δ DIC, (g) Δ pCFC12, and (h) Δ pSF₆ interpolated on to the $\sigma_2=35.5 \text{ kg/m}^3$ isopycnal surface for the last 20 years.

370 The changes in other tracers in the CMIP6 simulations are also consistent with above
 371 mechanisms. The sign and magnitude of the impact of the movement of isopycnals and
 372 ventilated gyre will depend on the tracer gradients, e.g., anomalous upwelling will lead to a
 373 decrease in tracer concentration if the tracer concentration decreases with depth. T, S, and O₂
 374 decrease with depth (between 100 and 1000m) in the southern subtropics (**Fig. 8b-d**), and an
 375 upward movement of isopycnals would decrease T, S, and O₂ in this region. In contrast, DIC has
 376 a very weak vertical gradients in this region (**Fig. 8a**), and changes in upwelling will have
 377 limited impact on DIC. Similar arguments hold for horizontal gradients in the tropics and
 378 poleward movement of the gyre circulation.
 379



380 Figure 8: Depth-latitude variations in multi-model mean zonally-averaged (a) DIC, (b) Heat, (c) Salinity, and (d)
 381 O₂, for the first 20 years of the historical simulations. There is no CFC12 and SF₆ in the oceans during this period.
 382
 383

384 While not the total cause, the above connections to the change in wind stress could explain
 385 some of the large spread in ΔH , ΔS , and ΔO_2 among the models. There is a large spread in the
 386 strength and the meridional shift in the southern westerlies among the models (as is the case for
 387 CMIP5 simulations, e.g., Swart and Fyfe 2012, Thomas et al., 2015) which results in a spread in
 388 wind stress curl (**Fig. 6a**), and then a spread in the change in density (**Fig. 6b**). This will then, by
 389 the above mechanisms involving the subtropical gyre and Ekman pumping, result in a spread in
 390 the transport driven change in tracers.
 391

392 5. Conclusions

393 Examination of CMIP6 historical simulations shows substantial pre-industrial to present-day
 394 changes in multiple physical and biogeochemical ocean tracers. There are, however, differences
 395 among the tracers in both the spatial structure of the changes and the consistency in trends
 396 among models. The tracers can be separated into two groups. DIC, CFC12, and SF₆ all increase
 397 through the thermocline, with largest increases near the surface and very weak changes below
 398 the thermocline, and there is general agreement amongst the models. In contrast, the sign of the

399 change in H, S, and O₂ varies between regions, with largest changes not necessarily at the
400 surface, and there are large differences between models.

401 We suggest that the differences between the two groups is related to differences in the relative
402 role of transport of time-varying surface values into the interior by a steady ocean circulation
403 (the “added” component) compared with changes due to climate-driven changes in the ocean
404 circulation (the “redistributed” component). The changes in the first group are dominated by the
405 “added” component, whereas the “redistributed” component plays a significant role for the
406 second group (at least in some regions). This importance of redistribution has been suggested
407 previously to explain the differences between carbon and heat uptake (e.g., Winton et al. 2013,
408 Bronselaer and Zanna 2020, Williams et al. 2021), but as shown here this can also explain
409 differences in the changes in other ocean tracers.

410 The climate-driven changes in the ocean circulation produce changes in the ventilation time of
411 waters, with the largest change occurring in the southern subtropics, where there is an increase in
412 AOU and the ideal age tracer. This increase in age in the southern subtropics is, at least
413 partially, driven by a poleward shift of the southern hemisphere westerly winds in the historical
414 simulations. This results in a decrease in the subtropical wind stress curl, increased upwelling,
415 and a poleward shift of subtropical gyre in the subtropics. This results in a negative ΔH , ΔS and
416 ΔO_2 but only small changes in DIC because of differences in the sign and magnitude of vertical
417 and meridional gradients of the tracers (**Fig. 8**). The large model spread in southern wind stress
418 trends likely contributes to a large spread in circulation changes, and hence spread in ΔH , ΔS ,
419 and ΔO_2 .

420 There are several aspects that require further investigation. We have focused here on zonally
421 integrated properties, and there is a need to examine zonal variations and whether the same
422 grouping of tracers applies in different regions (basins). Preliminary analysis indicates that the
423 same general conclusions apply to all three basins in the southern hemisphere, although there are
424 differences in magnitude and location of peak changes between basins, see, e.g., **Fig. 7**. This
425 analysis could also further examine the cause of the changes, and connections to wind changes
426 (which vary between oceans, e.g. Waugh et al. 2020).

427 There also needs to be further examination of the large differences in circulation changes, and
428 hence tracer redistribution, between models. While this could be due to fundamental differences
429 between models it could also be due to large internal variability. It thus will be of interest to
430 examine the wind stress and ocean tracer changes in large ensembles performed by single
431 climate models (e.g., Kay et al. 2015). How does the spread in wind trends and tracer fields
432 within this single model ensemble compare with the multi-model ensemble, and is there a
433 relationship between wind and tracer trends (i.e. does the spread in wind trends explain the
434 spread in ocean tracer trends)?

435 Finally, an obvious area that needs investigation is comparisons with the observed changes in
436 the different fields. One question to be answered includes whether the similarity in ΔH , ΔS , and
437 ΔO_2 , and their connections with changes in wind stress, heave, and age, is observed. Also, given
438 the large model spread in these trends, a second question is which of the models are most
439 realistic. A detailed analysis of the observed ocean changes and possible connections with wind
440 changes is left for future work. However, it is worth noting that published studies of observed
441 changes show features broadly consistent with multi-model mean results. Specifically, trends
442 (since 1960) in observed temperature and salinity show decreases in both fields in the southern
443 subtropical subsurface, but an increase in temperature and (small) decrease in salinity at higher
444 southern latitudes (e.g. fig 2 of Cheng et al (2022) and fig 6 of Cheng et al. (2020)). A more

445 detailed model-data comparison of these fields, as well as with available O₂, DIC, and transient
 446 tracer data, is needed. The analysis here suggests that such a multi-tracer approach could provide
 447 insights into the relative role of addition and redistribution of tracers in the ocean.

448

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 454 support CMIP6 and ESGF.

455

456 **Open Research**

457 The CMIP6 data are publicly available from the Earth System Grid Federation archive

458 <https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/>.

459

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