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1 **Intensification and Poleward Shift of Subtropical Western**
2 **Boundary Currents in a warming climate**

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8 USA

9 **Key Points:**

- 10 • WBCs are strengthening and shifting towards poles under global warming.
11 • Three types of independent data sets are included.
12 • Several coupled parameters are used to identify the WBCs dynamics.

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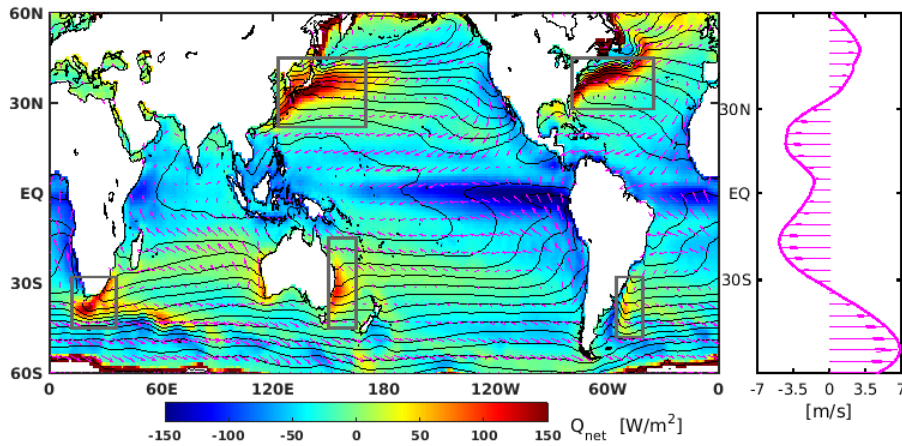
Abstract

A significant increase in sea surface temperature (SST) is observed over the mid-latitude western boundary currents (WBCs) during the past century. However, the mechanism for this phenomenon remains poorly understood due to limited observations. In the present paper, several coupled parameters (i.e., sea surface temperature (SST), ocean surface heat fluxes, ocean water velocity, ocean surface winds and sea level pressure (SLP)) are analyzed to identify the dynamic changes of the WBCs. Three types of independent data sets are used, including re-analysis products, satellite-blended observations and climate model outputs from the fifth phase of the Climate Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5). Based on these broad ranges of data, we find that the WBCs (except the Gulf Stream) are intensifying and shifting toward the poles as long-term effects of global warming. An intensification and poleward shift of near-surface ocean winds, attributed to positive annular mode-like trends, are proposed to be the forcing of such dynamic changes. In contrast to the other WBCs, the Gulf Stream is expected to be weaker under global warming, which is most likely related to a weakening of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). However, we also notice that the natural variations of WBCs might conceal the long-term effect of global warming in the available observational data sets, especially over the Northern Hemisphere. Therefore, long-term observations or proxy data are necessary to further evaluate the dynamics of the WBCs.

1 Introduction

The subtropical western boundary currents (WBCs), including the Kuroshio Current, the Gulf Stream, the Brazil Current, the East Australian Current and the Agulhas Current, are the western branches of the subtropical gyres. They are characterized by fast ocean velocities, sharp sea surface temperature (SST) fronts and intensive ocean heat loss. The strength and routes of WBCs have a broad impact on the weather and climate over the adjacent mainland. For instance, WBCs regions favor the formation of severe storms [Kelly *et al.*, 1996; Inatsu *et al.*, 2002; Taguchi *et al.*, 2009; Cronin *et al.*, 2010], while the poleward ocean heat transport by the WBCs contributes to the global heat balance [Colling, 2001].

In recent years, there has been an increasing interest in the variability of WBCs under global warming. Deser *et al.* [1999] suggested that there has been a decadal intensification of Kuroshio Current during the 1970-1980 period due to a decadal variation in wind stress curl, whereas Sato *et al.* [2006] and Sakamoto *et al.* [2005] projected a stronger Kuroshio Current in response to global warming according to a high-resolution coupled atmosphere-ocean climate model. Curry and McCartney [2001] found that the transport of the Gulf Stream has intensified after the 1960s, which is attributed to a stronger North Atlantic Oscillation. In agreement with Curry and McCartney [2001], an increase in the storm frequency has also been recorded in extreme turbulent heat fluxes events over the Gulf Stream [Shaman *et al.*, 2010]. For the South Pacific Ocean, Qiu and Chen [2006] and Roemmich *et al.* [2007] suggested that the 1990s decadal increase in sea surface height over the subtropical western basin of the South Pacific is related to a spin-up of the local subtropical ocean gyres. Based on long-term temperature and salinity observations from an ocean station off eastern Tasmania, Ridgway [2007] demonstrated that the East Australian Current has increased over the past 60 years. Based on repeated high-density XBT transects, CTD survey and satellite altimetry, Ridgway *et al.* [2008] also found a strengthening of the East Australian Current in the 1990s. Regarding the South Atlantic Ocean, Goni *et al.* [2011] observed a southward shift of the Brazil Current during 1993-2008 using satellite-derived sea height anomaly and sea surface temperature (SST). Over the Indian Ocean, the Agulhas leakage was reported to have increased due to latitudinal shifts in the Southern Hemisphere Westerlies [Biastoch *et al.*, 2009]. In addition, modelling studies indicate ocean circulation changes over the Southern Hemisphere in response to a positive trend of the Southern Annular Mode [Hall and Visbeck, 2002; Cai *et al.*, 2005; Sen Gupta and England, 2006; Cai, 2006; Fyfe and Saenko, 2006; Sen Gupta *et al.*, 2009]. These studies consistently show that the Southern Hemisphere subtropical gyres do shift southward as a consequence of a positive Southern Annular Mode.



82 **Figure 1.** Left: Distribution of climatological Q_{net} (shaded, positive upward), SST (black contours, con-
 83 tour interval is 2 K) and near-surface ocean winds (pink arrows). Right: Zonally averaged near-surface ocean
 84 zonal wind speeds (positive westerly). Q_{net} is from the OAFflux/ISCCP data set; SST is from the HadISST1
 85 data set; near-surface ocean winds are based on the NCEP/NCAR. The overlapping periods 1984-2009 are
 86 selected to derive the climatological conditions.

65 Besides these studies focusing on individual branches of the WBCs, recent work sug-
 66 gests that the change over the WBCs is likely to be a global phenomenon over all ocean basins
 67 [Wu *et al.*, 2012; Yang *et al.*, 2016]. Based on multiple SST data sets, Wu *et al.* [2012] reported
 68 that a stronger warming trend occurred over the WBCs during the past century. They proposed
 69 that a synchronous poleward shift and/or intensification of WBCs were associated with the iden-
 70 tified ocean surface warming [Wu *et al.*, 2012]. Yang *et al.* [2016] found that the ocean sur-
 71 face heat loss over the subtropical expansions of WBCs have increased, suggesting a stronger
 72 WBCs in the past half century. However, the confidence in WBCs dynamics changes is con-
 73 troversy due to the uncertainties and limitations of the data sets [Brunke *et al.*, 2002; L'Ecuyer
 74 and Stephens, 2003; Van de Poll *et al.*, 2006; Gulev *et al.*, 2007; Krueger *et al.*, 2013; Dee *et al.*,
 75 2014]. Here, we use a wide range of independent datasets and metrics to evaluate the dynamic
 76 changes of WBCs.

77 WBCs transport large quantities of heat from the tropics to mid and high latitudes, and
 78 much of the heat is released along the routes of these currents. As shown in Fig. 1, the me-
 79 andering of WBCs can be clearly captured by the upward ocean surface heat flux. Following
 80 this idea, ocean surface heat flux is used as the main metric to identify the dynamic changes
 81 of WBCs.

87 The available ocean surface heat fluxes data sets have several potential sources of un-
 88 certainty (e.g., uncertainty in the flux computation algorithms, sampling issues, instrument bi-
 89 ases, changing observation systems) [Brunke *et al.*, 2002; L'Ecuyer and Stephens, 2003; Van de
 90 Poll *et al.*, 2006; Gulev *et al.*, 2007]. Each data set has its own advantages and weaknesses.
 91 Satellite-blended records give observations with excellent spatial/temporal sampling, but they
 92 suffer from a lack of temporal coverage, which is insufficient to examine the long-term vari-
 93 ability. Reconstructed and reanalysis products cover longer periods by synthesizing a variety
 94 of observations. However, the changing mix of observations can introduce spurious variabil-
 95 ity and trends into the output [Dee *et al.*, 2014]. The coupled general circulation models (CGCM)
 96 have the ability to simulate the Earth's climate over hundreds of years with consistent phys-
 97 ical behaviors, but their performance on reproducing the climate variability is still under eval-
 98 uation [Refsgaard *et al.*, 2014; Bellucci *et al.*, 2014]. For achieving reliable and comprehen-

Table 1. List of data sets used in this study

Data Type	Data Name	Periods	References
Reconstructed	HadISST	1870-2014	<i>Rayner et al.</i> [2003]
Reconstructed	HadCRUT4	1850-2014	<i>Morice et al.</i> [2012]
Satellite-blended	OISSTv2	1982-2014	<i>Reynolds et al.</i> [2002]
Satellite-blended	OAFflux/ISCCP	1983-2009	<i>Rossow and Schiffer</i> [1991]; <i>Yu et al.</i> [2008]
Atmospheric Reanalyses	NCEP/NCAR	1948-2014	<i>Kalnay et al.</i> [1996]
Atmospheric Reanalyses	ERA40	1958-2001	<i>Uppala et al.</i> [2005]
Atmospheric Reanalyses	20CRv2	1871-2012	<i>Compo et al.</i> [2006, 2011]
Atmospheric Reanalyses	ERA-20C	1900-2010	<i>Poli et al.</i> [2016]
Ocean Reanalyses	ORA-S4	1958-2009	<i>Balmaseda et al.</i> [2013]
Ocean Reanalyses	SODA2.2.0	1948-2008	<i>Carton and Giese</i> [2008]
Ocean Reanalyses	GECCO	1952-2001	<i>Köhl and Stammer</i> [2008]
Ocean Reanalyses	GECCO2	1948-2014	<i>Köhl</i> [2015]
Climate Model	CMIP5/historical	1850-2005	<i>Taylor et al.</i> [2012]
Climate Model	CMIP5/RCP4.5	2006-2300	<i>Taylor et al.</i> [2012]

99 sive results, all three types of heat flux data sets mentioned above are included here. More-
100 over, the results based on sea surface heat flux will also be cross-validated by the ocean ve-
101 locity fields and ocean surface winds. Since the reliability of the data sets before the 1950s
102 is still a subject of controversy [*Krueger et al.*, 2013], we focus our analysis on the period af-
103 ter 1958. The paper is organized as follows. In section 2, the data sets and methods used are
104 briefly introduced. Section 3 presents the observed and simulated dynamic changes of the WBCs.
105 The physical mechanism responsible for these changes is investigated in section 4. Discus-
106 sion and conclusions are given in sections 5 and 6, respectively.

107 2 Data and Methodology

108 All the data sets used in this paper are listed in Table 1. The reconstructed SST from
109 the Hadley Centre Global Sea Ice and Sea Surface Temperature v1 (HadISST1, 1870-2013)
110 [*Rayner et al.*, 2003] is used to compute the SST indices of individual WBCs. Besides, the time
111 series of near surface temperature from the HadCRUT4 (1850-2013) [*Morice et al.*, 2012] is
112 utilized to represent the signal of global warming.

114 Besides, two satellite-blended data sets are applied to identify the dynamic changes of
115 WBCs. They are the SST from the Optimum Interpolation SST Analysis Version 2 (OISSTv2,
116 1982-2013) [*Reynolds et al.*, 2002], and the net surface heat flux (Q_{net} , sum of the radiative
117 and turbulent heat fluxes) from the Objectively Analyzed Air-sea Fluxes and the International
118 Satellite Cloud Climatology Project (OAFflux/ISCCP, 1983-2009) [*Rossow and Schiffer*, 1991;
119 *Yu et al.*, 2008].

120 Moreover, two atmospheric reanalyses and four ocean reanalyses data sets are included,
121 namely the National Centers for Environmental Prediction / National Center for Atmospheric
122 Research reanalysis (NCEP/NCAR, 1948-2013) [*Kalnay et al.*, 1996], the European Centre for
123 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts 40-year Reanalysis (ERA40, 1958-2001) [*Uppala et al.*, 2005],
124 the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts ocean reanalysis system 4 (ORA-
125 S4, 1958-2009) [*Balmaseda et al.*, 2013], the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation (SODA2.2.0,
126 1948-2008) [*Carton and Giese*, 2008], and the German partner of the consortium for Estim-
127 ating the Circulation and Climate of the Ocean (GECCO, 1952-2001, and GECCO2, 1948-2014)
128 [*Köhl and Stammer*, 2008; *Köhl*, 2015].

129 Furthermore, the *historical* and Representative Concentration Pathway 4.5 (*RCP4.5*)
 130 simulations from the fifth phase of the Climate Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP5) [*Taylor et al., 2012*]
 131 are used as well. 27 climate models are included to obtain the ensemble trends
 132 based on both *historical* and *RCP4.5* simulations. Detailed information on the models we
 133 used here is summarized in Table 2.

135 Additionally, the results from the Twentieth Century Reanalysis (20CRv2) [*Compo et al., 2006, 2011*]
 136 and the ECMWF's first atmospheric reanalysis of the 20th century (ERA-20C)
 137 [*Poli et al., 2016*] are provided in the supplementary materials to further validate our results.

138 The data sets used in the present paper cover different time periods. For the reanalysis
 139 data sets, the overlapping period from 1958 to 2001 is selected. We examine the same time
 140 period (1958-2001) for the CMIP5 *historical* simulations and for the *RCP4.5* simulations
 141 the time period of 2006-2100. As the CMIP5 models have different spatial resolutions and num-
 142 bers of ensemble members, the trends in each CGCMs from the first ensemble member (named
 143 *r1i1p1*) [*Taylor et al., 2010*] are computed first. Then the trends are re-gridded onto a regu-
 144 lar $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ latitude-longitude grid using bilinear interpolation. Finally, they are averaged over
 145 all the corresponding simulations to get the multi-model ensemble trends. As the satellite-blended
 146 data sets cover relative short periods, the whole available time interval is utilized.

147 3 Dynamic changes of WBCs

148 3.1 Results from observations

157 Fig. 2 shows the SST indices of the five WBCs after removing the globally averaged SST
 158 anomaly. Positive trends are observed, indicating that the ocean surface warming over the WBCs
 159 is outpacing other regions. Moreover, the SST indices of WBCs share similarities with the global
 160 warming signal. These features raise the question as to whether the strength of WBCs is af-
 161 fected by the global warming. It is also noticed that the SST indices of WBCs have strong decadal
 162 variations, especially for the Kuroshio Current and the Gulf Stream.

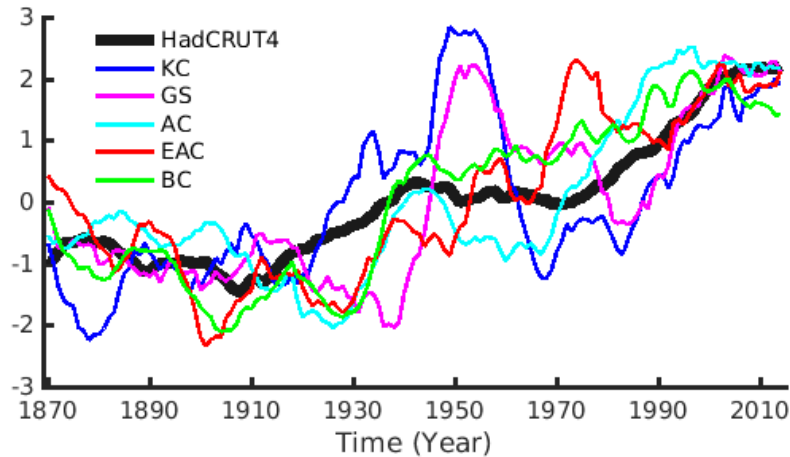
163 The trends in SST and Q_{net} (positive-upward) are depicted in Figs. 3 and 4 (shading).
 164 The corresponding climatology values (contours) are also presented to locate the background
 165 routes of the WBCs.

166 The magnitudes and distributions of SST and Q_{net} trends reveal discrepancies among
 167 different data sets over different time periods. In a relative short period of time, the satellite-
 168 blended data sets (OISSTv2 and OAFIux/ISCPP) mainly capture the signal of decadal climate
 169 variability, i.e., a negative phase of Pacific Decadal Oscillation [*Mantua et al., 1997*] over the
 170 Pacific Ocean, and a positive phase of Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation [*Schlesinger and Ra-*
 171 *mankutty, 1994*] over the Atlantic Ocean. Over a longer time scale, an overwhelming ocean
 172 surface warming is observed in the reanalysis data sets. Despite these discrepancies, consis-
 173 tent features emerge over the mid-latitude expansions of the WBCs with substantial increase
 174 in both SST and Q_{net} . Such trends occur not only over individual WBCs, but for WBCs within
 175 all ocean basins. From a perspective of ocean-atmosphere heat balance, increased SST accom-
 176 panied by enhanced ocean surface heat loss indicates that the ocean surface warming is not
 177 caused by the atmospheric forcing, but by an intensified ocean heat transport through the WBCs.

183 With respect to the regional features, we find that the trends are asymmetrical over dif-
 184 ferent flanks of the WBCs. Both NCEP and ERA40 show a stronger increase in SST and Q_{net}
 185 at the polar flanks of the Gulf Stream, the Brazil Current, the East Australian Current and the
 186 Agulhas Current. While, decreases or relative weaker increases in SST and Q_{net} present them-
 187 selves over the equator flanks of the above currents. The asymmetrical pattern reveals that the
 188 positions of the SST gradients and the high Q_{net} , induced by WBCs, are shifting towards the
 189 polar regions. However, one clear exception is found over the North Pacific Ocean, i.e., the
 190 Kuroshio Current, which experiences a stronger positive trend in Q_{net} at the equatorial flank

Table 2. List of CMIP5 models used in this study

Model Name	Institutions
BCC-CSM1-1	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration
BNU-ESM	College of Global Change and Earth System Science, Beijing Normal University
CanESM2	Canadian Centre for Climate Modelling and Analysis
CCSM4	National Center for Atmospheric Research
CESM1-BGC	National Science Foundation, Department of Energy, National Center for Atmospheric Research
CESM1-CAM5	National Science Foundation, Department of Energy, National Center for Atmospheric Research
CNRM-CM5	Centre National de Recherches Meteorologiques / Centre Europeen de Recherche et Formation Avancees en Calcul Scientifique
CSIRO-Mk3.6.0	Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation in collaboration with the Queensland Climate Change Centre of Excellence
FGOALS-g2	LASG, Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences; and CESS, Tsinghua University
FIO-ESM	The First Institute of Oceanography, SOA, China
GFDL-CM3	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
GFDL-ESM2G	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
GFDL-ESM2M	Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory
GISS-E2-H	NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies
GISS-E2-R	NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies
HadGEM2-CC	Met Office Hadley Centre
HadGEM2-ES	Met Office Hadley Centre and Instituto Nacional de Pesquisas Espaciais
INM-CM4	Institute for Numerical Mathematics
IPSL-CM5A-MR	Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace
IPSL-CM5B-LR	Institut Pierre-Simon Laplace
MIROC-ESM-CHEM	Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), and National Institute for Environmental Studies
MIROC5	Atmosphere and Ocean Research Institute (The University of Tokyo), National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology
MPI-ESM-LR	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (MPI-M)
MPI-ESM-MR	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology (MPI-M)
MRI-CGCM3	Meteorological Research Institute
NorESM1-ME	Norwegian Climate Centre
NorESM1-M	Norwegian Climate Centre

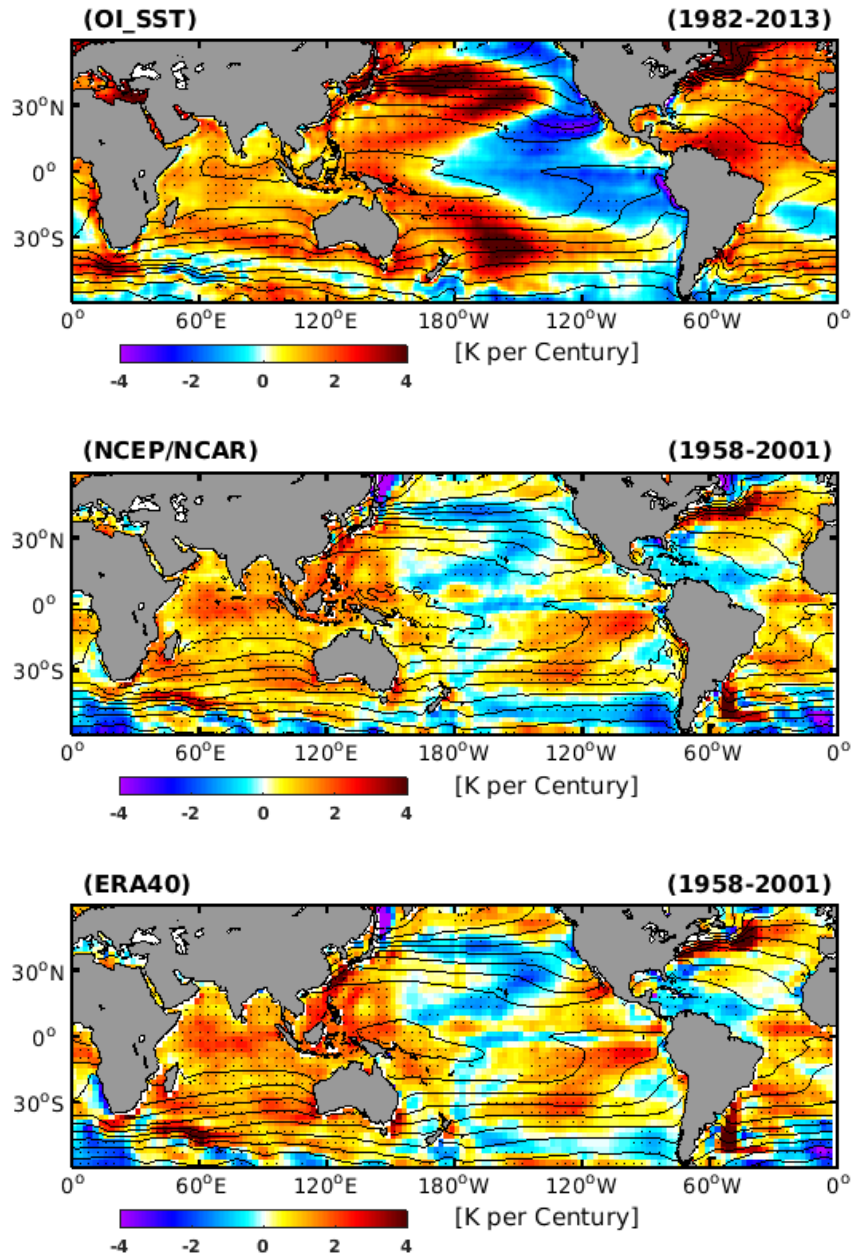


149 **Figure 2.** SST indices of WBCs (thin color line) and signal of global warming (HadCRUT4, thick black
 150 line). All indices are standardized after applying an 11-year running mean. SST indices of WBCs are ex-
 151 tracted using the following approach: Firstly, regional mean SST indices are calculated over individual WBCs
 152 (as shown with grey rectangles in Fig. 1, i.e., Kuroshio Current (KC), $123^{\circ}E - 170^{\circ}E$, $22^{\circ}N - 45^{\circ}N$;
 153 Gulf Stream (GS), $79^{\circ}W - 35^{\circ}W$, $28^{\circ}N - 45^{\circ}N$; Eastern Australian Current (EAC), $150^{\circ}E - 165^{\circ}E$,
 154 $15^{\circ}S - 45^{\circ}S$; Brazil Current (BC), $55^{\circ}W - 41^{\circ}W$, $48^{\circ}S - 28^{\circ}S$; Agulhas Current (AC), $12^{\circ}E - 36^{\circ}E$,
 155 $45^{\circ}S - 28^{\circ}S$). Then, the globally averaged SST anomaly is removed from the SST indices of individual
 156 WBCs.

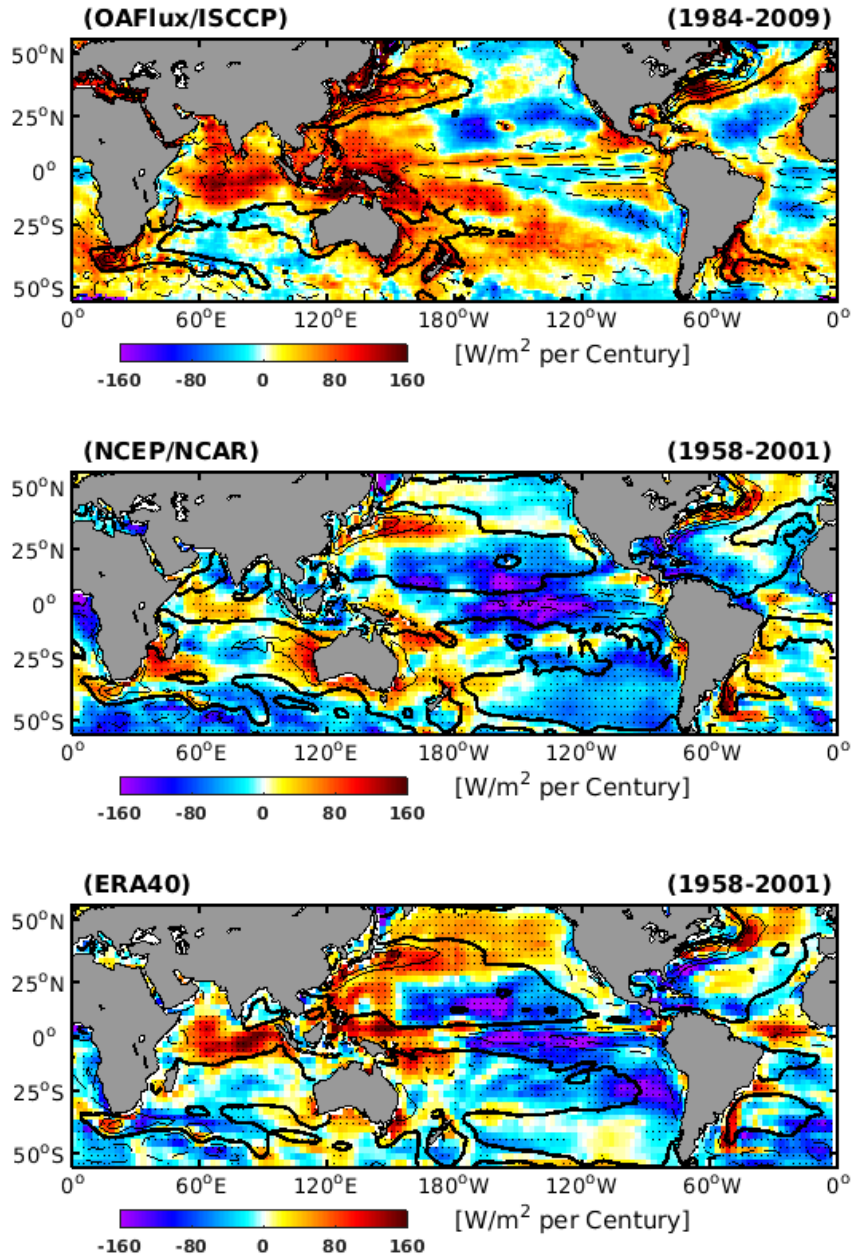
191 as illustrated by both reanalysis data sets, indicating an equatorward displacement of the Kuroshio
 192 Current over the period 1958-2001.

193 Comparing with the reanalysis data sets, the satellite-blended data sets also show stronger
 194 increases in Q_{net} and SST over the polar flank of the Agulhas Current (Figs. 3 and 4). While,
 195 due to their relatively short temporal period, the satellite-blended data sets are not able to iden-
 196 tify signals of asymmetrical increases in the two elements over the other four WBCs.

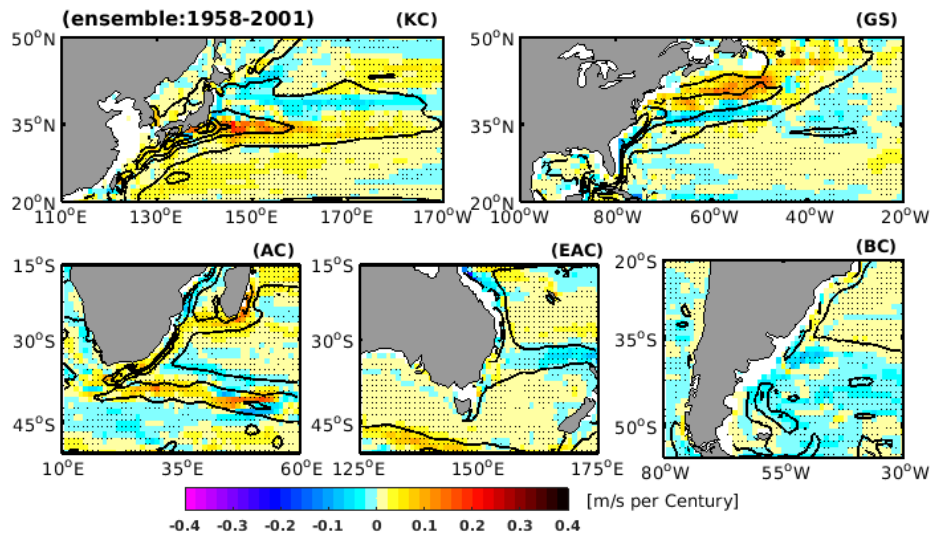
200 In order to cross validate our results found from the ocean surface, we analyze the ocean
 201 velocity field. The imprint of the global warming on the ocean water velocity from four ocean
 202 reanalysis data sets is presented in the Supplementary Figs. S1, S2, S3, S4. Since the WBCs
 203 are strong ocean currents, the background ocean velocity field (contour lines) indicates the cli-
 204 matological paths. The shading gives the changes in velocity speed. These ocean reanalyses
 205 show large discrepancies in terms of regional patterns of WBCs changes. Even the same model
 206 system (GECCO and GECCO2) does not produce consistent results, mostly likely, due to high
 207 nonlinearity of the WBCs and insufficient number of ocean observations assimilated in the ocean
 208 reanalysis data sets. We show the ensemble mean change of upper ocean water velocity in Fig. 5.
 209 Over the North Atlantic Ocean, a faster (slower) velocity over the polar (equator) flank of the
 210 Gulf Stream is observed, demonstrating a significant poleward shift of the Gulf Stream route.
 211 Over the south-western Indian Ocean, there is a prominent positive trend of the Agulhas Cur-
 212 rent along the continental shelf of south-eastern Africa. In contrast, a reduced velocity is found
 213 at the route of the Agulhas Current in the Mozambique Channel, demonstrating that the Ag-
 214 ulhas Current is stronger and shifting southwards. For the Eastern Australian Current and the
 215 Brazil Current, the ensemble members (see Supplementary Fig. S1, S2, S3, S4) show large
 216 differences, which makes the ensemble mean meaningless. Nevertheless, the SODA data set
 217 shows an intensified and southward shift of both the Brazil Current and the Eastern Australian
 218 Current.



178 **Figure 3.** Observational trends in SST (shading). Black contours present climatological SST. Stippling
179 indicates regions where the trends pass the 95% confidence level (Student's t -test).



180 **Figure 4.** Observational trends in Q_{net} (shading, positive-upward). Black contours present climatological
 181 Q_{net} . Upward Q_{net} is in solid lines; downward Q_{net} is in dashed lines; zero Q_{net} is in bold lines. Stippling
 182 indicates regions where the trends pass the 95% confidence level (Student's t -test).



197 **Figure 5.** Ensemble trends in upper 100 m ocean velocity (shading) based on SODA, ORA-S4, GECCO
 198 and GECCO2 ocean reanalyses. Contours: climatological depth-averaged (upper 100 m) sea water velocity.
 199 Stippling indicates areas where at least 3 data sets agree on the sign of the trends.

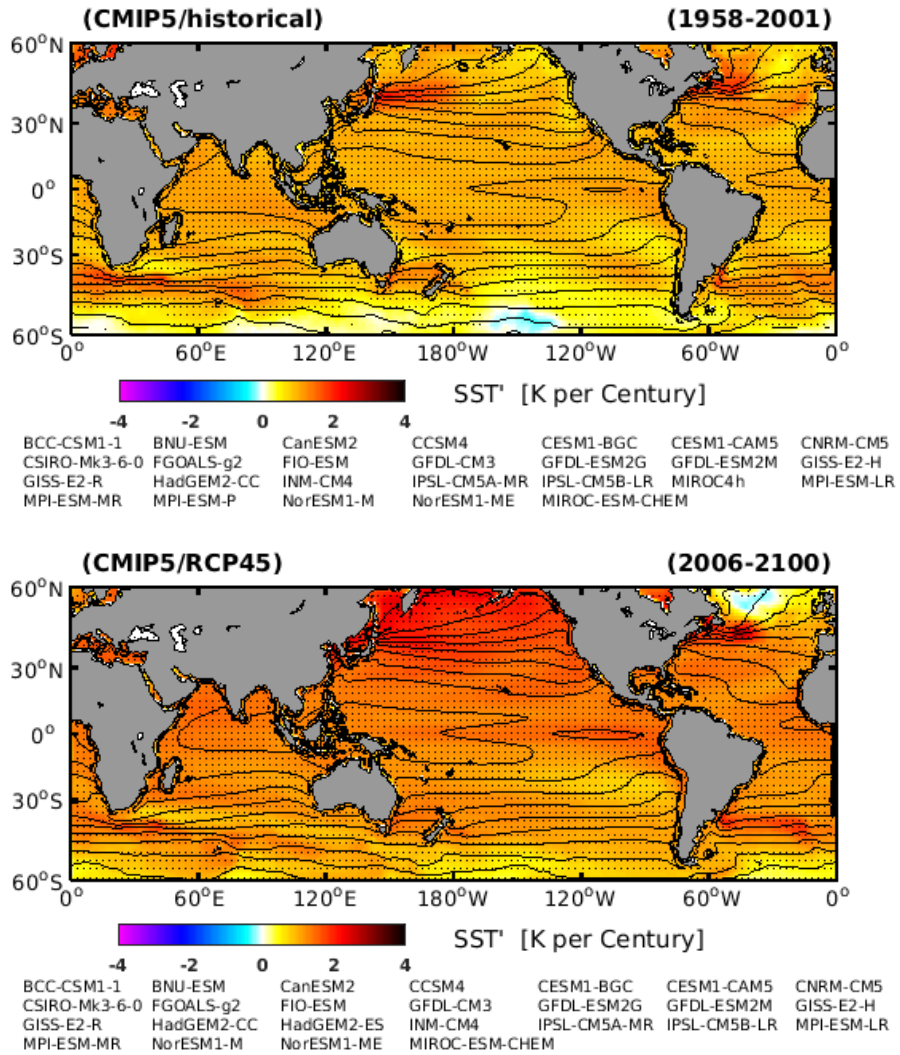
219 Over the North Pacific Ocean, we find that the Kuroshio Current is stronger and shift-
 220 ing towards the equator, which is again different from the other four WBCs. However, the re-
 221 sults in the velocity field are in agreement with the observational Q_{net} trends presented in the
 222 previous section (e.g., Fig. 4).

223 3.2 Results from climate models

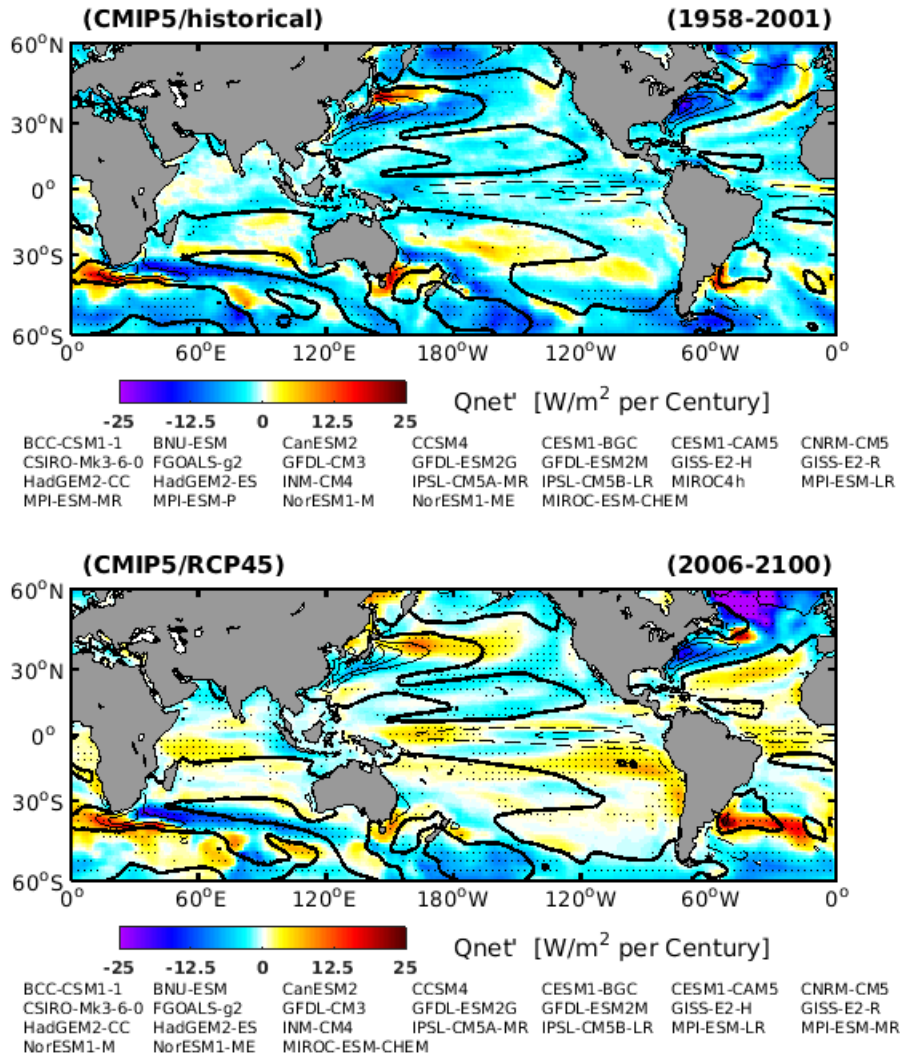
224 In this section, the dynamic changes of the WBCs are assessed on the basis of *historical*
 225 and *RCP4.5* simulations from CMIP5 archives (Figs. 6, 7, 8 and Fig. 9, respectively). In
 226 order to suppress the internal fluctuations, we analyze the ensemble mean of 27 climate mod-
 227 els. In general, the climate models present very similar patterns of WBCs climate changes over
 228 the Southern Hemisphere in comparison with observations. Over the Agulhas Current, the East
 229 Australian Current and the Brazil Current, the location of the maximum SST increase is found
 230 over the polar flanks of their mid-latitude expansions. Meanwhile, a relatively weak SST in-
 231 crease is found over their equatorial flanks. The corresponding Q_{net} trend exhibits dipole modes
 232 (positive values at the polar flank and negative values at the equator flank) over their mid-latitude
 233 expansions. Also, the ocean velocity trends over the above WBCs consistently illustrate in-
 234 creasing and poleward shifting of these currents.

239 Due to the large internal variability of the Northern Hemisphere WBCs (Fig. 2), there
 240 are strong discrepancies between the observations and climate models, e.g. the strengthening
 241 & poleward shift of the Kuroshio Current and a significant weakening Gulf Stream, with re-
 242 ducing Q_{net} and decreasing ocean velocity (Figs. 6, 7, 8 and Fig. 9).

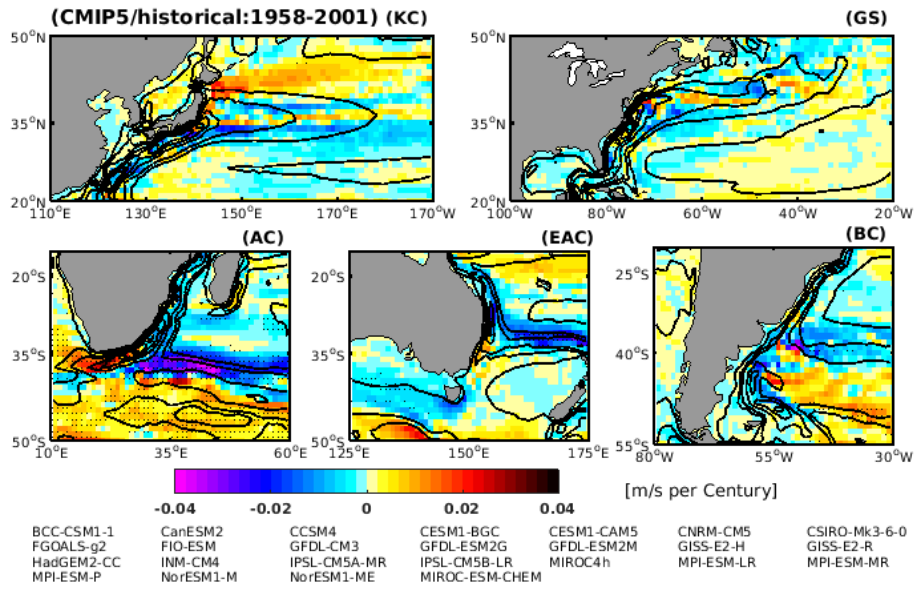
247 We notice that the ensemble results in the *historical* simulations are less pronounced
 248 compared to the *RCP4.5* simulations, because the global warming signal in the *historical*
 249 simulations is not beyond the model internal variability.



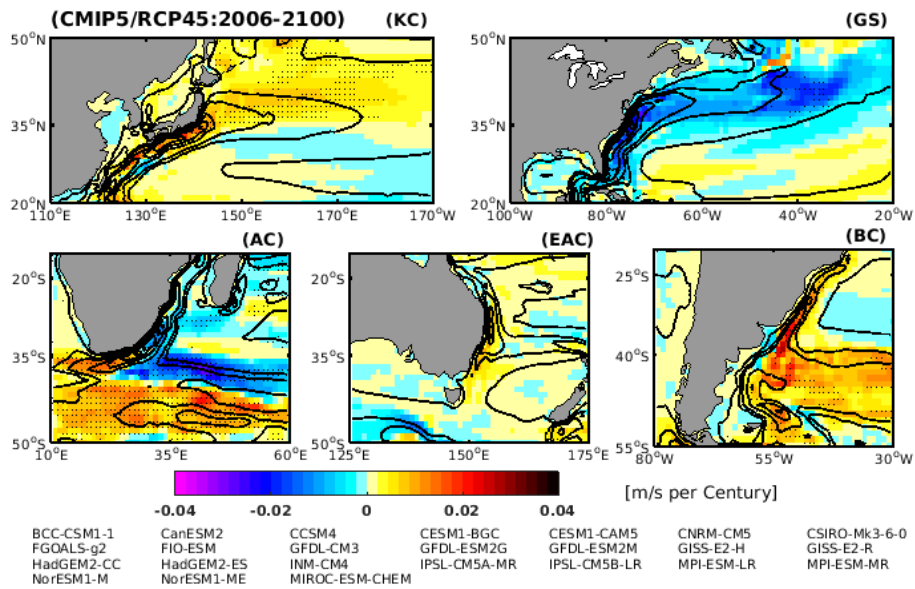
235 **Figure 6.** As in Fig. 3, but for ensemble trends based on the *historical* and *RCP4.5* simulations. Stip-
 236 pling indicates areas where at least 2/3 of the models agree on the sign of the change.



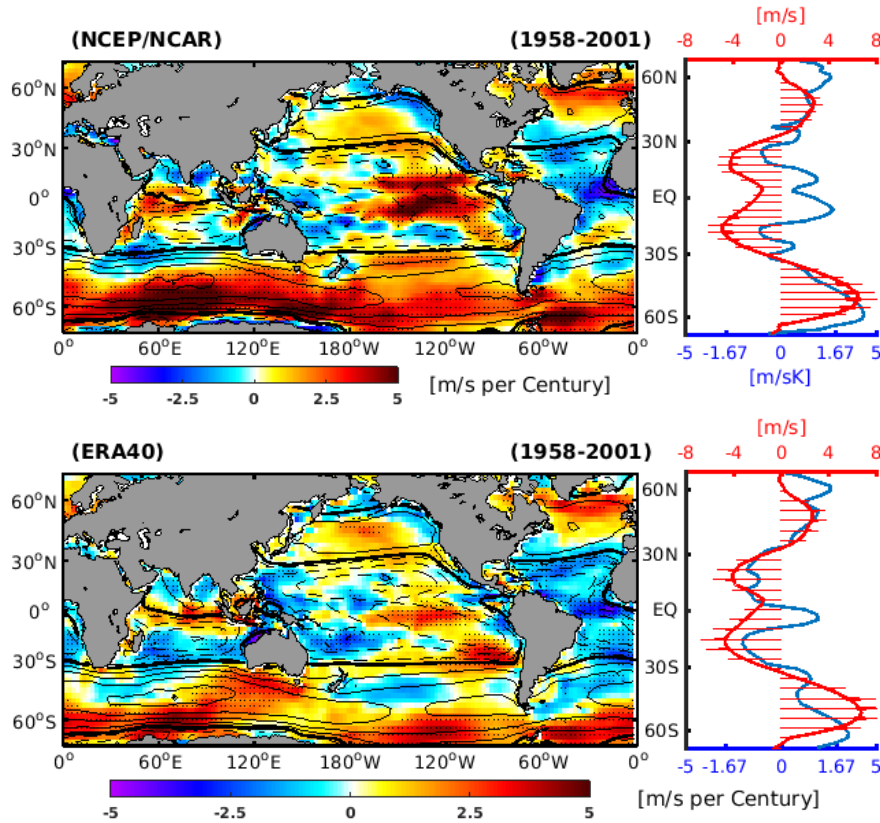
237 **Figure 7.** As in Fig. 4, but for ensemble trends based on the *historical* and *RCP4.5* simulations. Stip-
 238 pling indicates areas where at least 2/3 of the models agree on the sign of the change.



243 **Figure 8.** As in Fig. 5, but for multi-model ensemble trends in ocean water velocity from the *historical*
 244 simulations.



245 **Figure 9.** As in Fig. 8, but for multi-model ensemble trends in ocean water velocity from the *RCP4.5*
 246 simulations.



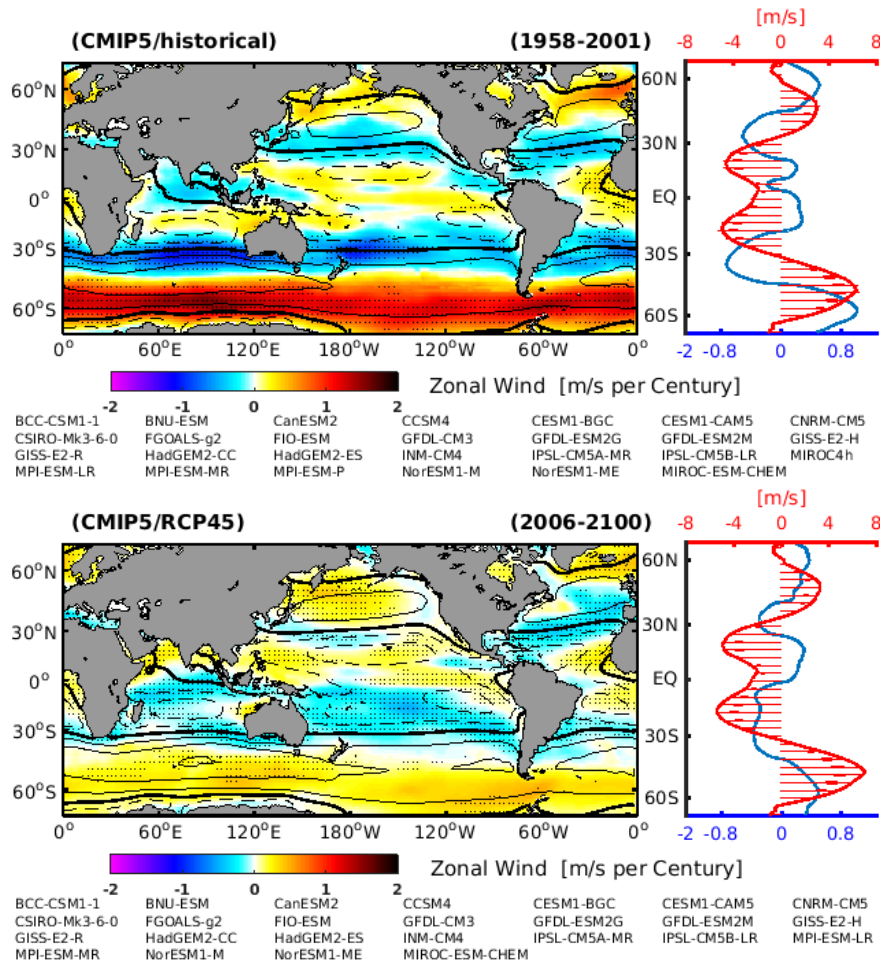
255 **Figure 10.** Left: trends (shaded) and climatology (contours) near-surface ocean zonal wind. Easterly winds
 256 are in solid lines; westerly winds are in dashed lines; zero zonal winds are bold. Right: Zonally averaged
 257 trend (blue) and climatology (red with arrow) of near-surface ocean zonal winds.

250 4 Possible mechanism

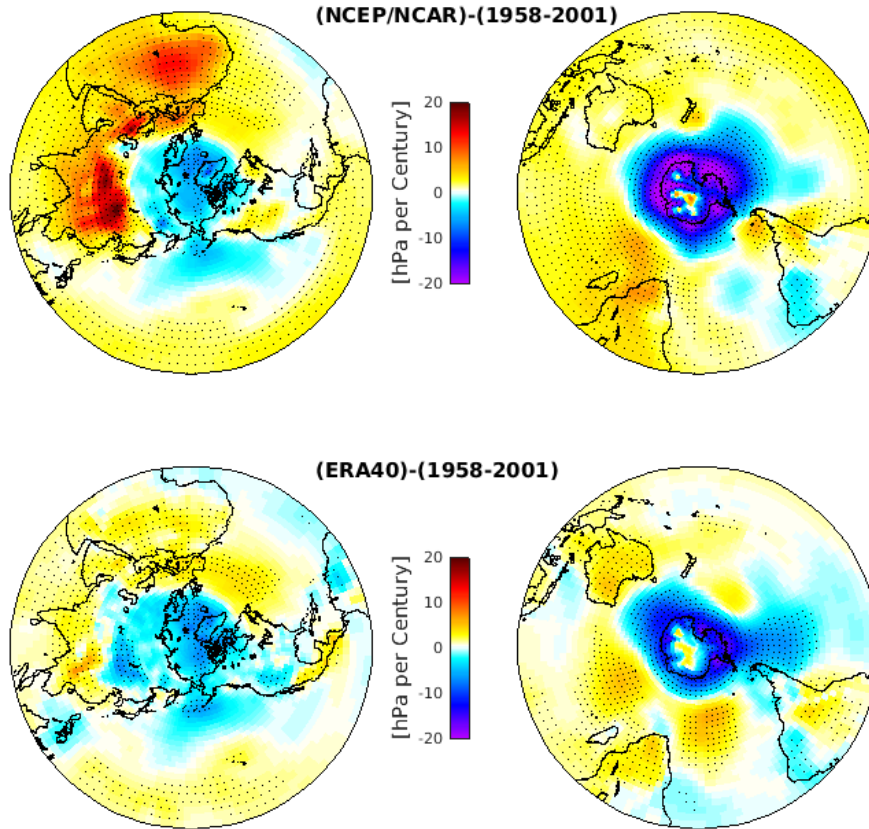
251 The easterly winds over low latitudes, associated with the westerly winds over high latitudes,
 252 largely drive the anti-cyclonic subtropical ocean gyres, which show an intensification
 253 over the western boundary (Fig. 1) [Pedlosky, 1996]. Significant dynamic changes of WBCs
 254 hint that the near-surface ocean zonal wind may have changed.

260 Figs. 10 and 11 show the trends of the near-surface ocean zonal winds in the observa-
 261 tional data sets and CMIP5 simulations, respectively. Over the Southern Hemisphere, the wind
 262 trends over the mid and high latitudes are dominated by stronger westerly winds. Meanwhile,
 263 stronger easterly winds are found over most of the subtropical regions. Such trends reinforce
 264 the background zonal winds. As a consequence, the wind shear between the low and the high
 265 latitudes (wind stress curl) becomes stronger, which can force stronger WBCs in a warming
 266 climate. Besides the intensification of the zonal wind, all data sets consistently show that the
 267 zonal mean winds are shifting towards the South Pole in comparison with their climatology
 268 profile (Figs. 10 and 11, right-side). Such shifts show dynamic consistency with the poleward
 269 shift of the Southern Hemisphere WBCs.

270 Over the North Atlantic, all the data sets consistently show a stronger and poleward shift
 271 of zonal wind. However, over North Pacific, some discrepancies appear between the observa-
 272 tions (1958-2001) and climate models. Both atmospheric reanalyses present a stronger and
 273 equatorward shift of the North Pacific westerlies during 1958-2001, which contribute to a stronger
 274 and equatorward shift of the Kuroshio Current, (section 3.1). In contrast, the CMIP5 models



258 **Figure 11.** As in Fig. 10, but for multi-model ensemble trends in near-surface ocean zonal winds from the
 259 *historical* and *RCP4.5* simulations.



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Figure 12. Trends in SLP based on the NCEP/NCAR and ERA40 data sets, respectively.

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simulate stronger and poleward shift of the North Pacific westerlies, forcing a stronger and poleward shift of the Kuroshio Current, as identified in Section 3.2. To explore the reason for the differences over Northern Pacific, we present the long-term (1900-2010) trends of surface wind based on the century long reanalyses (Supplementary Figs. S5). Both 20CRv2 and ERA-20C consistently presents a stronger and poleward shift of the Northern Pacific westerly, indicating the observed equatorward shift during 1958-2001 are attribute to internal variability, as also shown in Fig. 2.

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Associated with the near-surface wind, the SLP trends are displayed in Figs. 12 and 13, respectively. Both the observations as well as the CMIP5 models consistently show a decreasing SLP over the Poles and increasing SLP over mid latitudes of both Hemispheres. It is worth noting that the results based on the 20CRv2 and ERA-20C (Supplementary Figs. S6) resemble the patterns as we have identified here.

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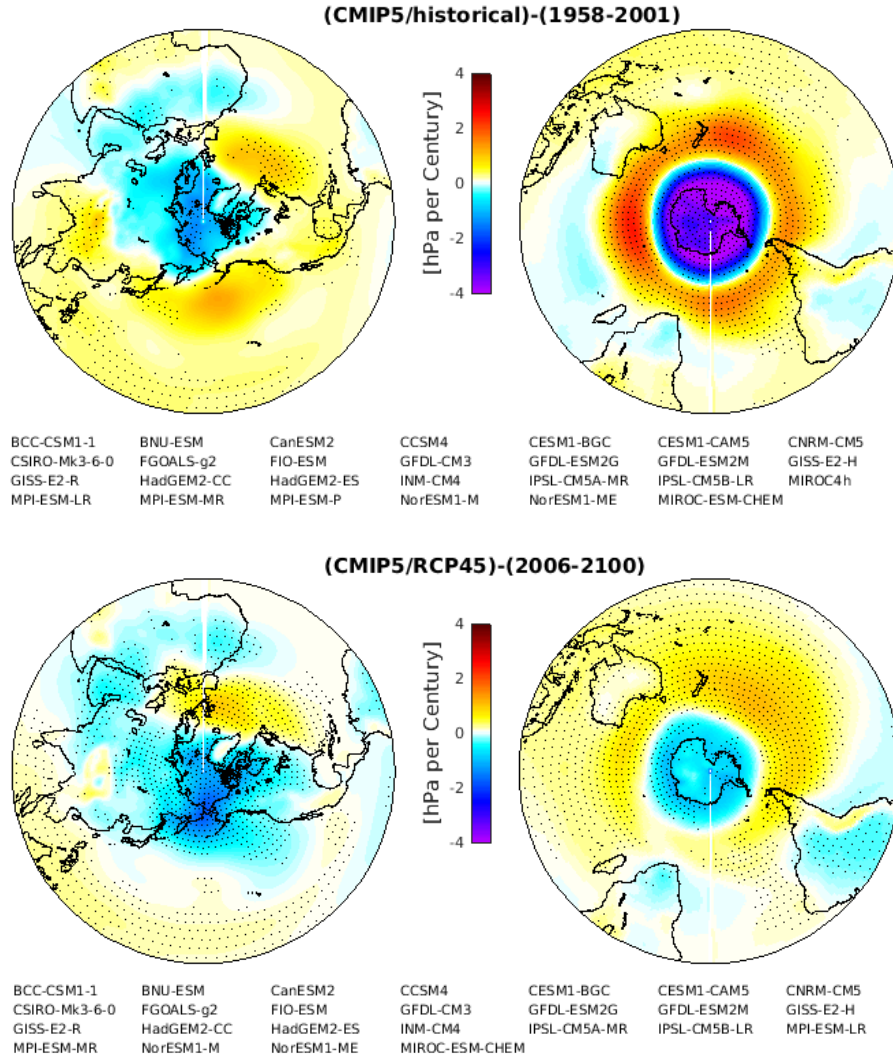
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The near-surface ocean zonal wind and SLP show similar features as the positive phase of the annular modes (Northern Annular Mode (NAM) and Southern Annular Mode (SAM)), which are characterized by stronger and poleward shifts of the westerly winds, associated with negative SLP anomalies over high latitudes and positive SLP anomalies over mid latitudes. We propose that the positive annular mode-like trends contribute to the intensification of the near-surface ocean zonal winds and to shift them poleward. The changing winds force a strengthening and poleward displacement of the WBCs. As a result, more heat is transported from the tropics to the mid and high latitudes, which could significantly increase the SST and ocean



283 **Figure 13.** As in Fig. 12, but for the multi-model ensemble trends in SLP based on the *historical* and
 284 *RCP4.5* simulations.

298 heat loss (Q_{net}) there. Moreover, as the routes of the WBCs are shifting poleward, the posi-
299 tion of the high Q_{net} over the WBCs will also shift poleward.

300 5 Discussion

301 *Wu et al.* [2012] investigated the WBCs dynamic changes based on two century-long re-
302 analyses data sets, the 20CRv2 and the Simple Ocean Data Assimilation (SODA) [*Giese and*
303 *Ray*, 2011]. However, the detection of the WBCs dynamics changes is challenging due to lim-
304 ited observations and the uncertainties in the data sets [*Wu et al.*, 2012; *Stocker et al.*, 2013].
305 To further explore this, we use more independent data sets and more metrics to identify and
306 explain the dynamic changes of WBCs. The common features among these broad ranges of
307 data resources indicate that the WBCs (except the Gulf Stream) are strengthening and shift-
308 ing towards the poles in a warming climate.

309 Over the Southern Hemisphere, observational data and climate models show consistent
310 results. However, over the Northern Hemisphere, the observed Gulf Stream and Kuroshio Cur-
311 rent have strong decadal variations, as shown in Fig. 2. Observations (climate models) record
312 an equatorward (poleward) shift of the Kuroshio Current over the period 1958-2001. *Seager*
313 *et al.* [2001]; *Taguchi et al.* [2007]; *Sasaki and Schneider* [2011] demonstrated that the 1976/77
314 equatorward shift in basin-scale winds contributed to the corresponding movement of the Kuroshio
315 Current. However, from a long term perspective (1900-2010), both 20CRv2 and ERA-20C present
316 a poleward shift of surface wind over the Pacific Ocean (supplementary Figs. S5), indicating
317 the observed equatorward shift of Kuroshio Current over the period 1958-2001 is likely to be
318 due to natural climate variations. Over the North Atlantic Ocean, the observations during 1958-
319 2001 present a stronger and poleward shift of the Gulf Stream (consistent with the surface wind),
320 while the climate models show a weakening of the Gulf Stream in response to global warm-
321 ing. The Gulf Stream is part of the upper branch of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Cir-
322 culation (AMOC). Strength of the Gulf Stream is determined not only by the near-surface ocean
323 wind, but also by the AMOC, particularly on multi-decadal and centennial time scales. The
324 simulated weakening of AMOC [e.g., *Lohmann et al.*, 2008; *Cheng et al.*, 2013] is linked to
325 the weakening Gulf Stream.

326 Regarding the potential driving mechanism, several previous studies have focused on the
327 climate change over individual WBCs. *Sakamoto et al.* [2005] have investigated the responses
328 of the Kuroshio Current to global warming and suggested that a strengthening of the Kuroshio
329 Current is caused by an El Niño-like mode. Indeed, the climate phenomenon over the Pacific
330 Ocean (i.e., ENSO, PDO) plays a vital role in the variability of the Kuroshio Current, partic-
331 ularly on interannual to decadal time scales [*Qiu*, 2003; *Qiu and Chen*, 2005; *Taguchi et al.*,
332 2007; *Andres et al.*, 2009; *Sasaki and Schneider*, 2011]. However, we found that the common
333 features of WBCs changes are characterized by an intensification and a poleward shift. Such
334 changes are not an isolated phenomenon over individual ocean basins, but a global effect. Thus,
335 the dynamic changes of the WBCs should be caused by a factor that can influence all ocean
336 basins, such as we proposed, the positive annular mode-like trends over both hemispheres. Pre-
337 viously, the typical features of the annular modes in the wind field are described as an inten-
338 sification and poleward shift of the westerly winds [*Thompson and Wallace*, 2000]. Here, we
339 suggest that both the easterly winds over the low latitudes and the westerly winds over the mid
340 and high latitudes have strengthened. Meanwhile, the profile of the zonal winds is shifting pole-
341 ward over both hemispheres. The systematic changes in zonal winds are consistent with the
342 poleward shift of the Hadley Cell [*Hu and Fu*, 2007; *Lu et al.*, 2007; *Johanson and Fu*, 2009],
343 the expansion of the tropical belt [*Santer et al.*, 2003; *Seidel and Randel*, 2007; *Seidel et al.*,
344 2007; *Fu and Lin*, 2011], and the poleward shift of the subtropical dry zones [*Previdi and Liepert*,
345 2007].

346 *Sato et al.* [2006] demonstrated that the Arctic Oscillation-like trends are responses to
347 a northward shift of the subtropical wind-driven gyre in the North Pacific Ocean. *Curry and*
348 *McCartney* [2001] proved that the transport of the Gulf Stream has intensified due to a stronger

349 North Atlantic Oscillation after the 1960s. Their conclusions are in agreement with ours, be-
350 cause the North Atlantic Oscillation and the Arctic Oscillation (or NAM) show very similar
351 evolutions [Deser, 2000; Rogers and McHugh, 2002; Feldstein and Franzke, 2006]. Observa-
352 tions show a stronger NAM during the past several decades. However, a weaker NAM from
353 the late 1990s is observed [Thompson and Wallace, 2000] simultaneously with the global warm-
354 ing hiatus [Easterling and Wehner, 2009]. Several factors are suggested having impact on the
355 variations of NAM, i.e., the greenhouse gases, the stratosphere-troposphere interaction, local
356 sea ice variability and remote tropical influence [Fyfe et al., 1999; Wang and Chen, 2010; Gillett
357 and Fyfe, 2013; Cattiaux and Cassou, 2013]. The trend in Northern Annular Mode during 1958-
358 2001 is most likely dominated by its natural variations. However, for a longer time period, both
359 the century-long atmosphere reanalyses (i.e., 20CRv2 and ERA-20C in supplementary Figs.
360 S5, S6) and the CMIP5 climate models illustrate that the NAM is propagating to a positive
361 phase under global warming.

362 Over the Southern Hemisphere, several studies have also confirmed that the Southern
363 Hemisphere subtropical gyres are influenced by the SAM [Hall and Visbeck, 2002; Cai et al.,
364 2005; Sen Gupta and England, 2006; Cai, 2006; Fyfe and Saenko, 2006; Sen Gupta et al., 2009].
365 Both observations [Thompson and Wallace, 2000; Marshall, 2003] and CGCM simulations [Fyfe
366 et al., 1999; Stone et al., 2001; Kushner et al., 2001; Cai et al., 2003; Gillett and Thompson,
367 2003; Rauthe et al., 2004; Arblaster and Meehl, 2006; Gillett and Fyfe, 2013] show that the
368 SAM is entering a positive phase. The ozone depletion was suggested to be the main driver
369 for the observed positive trend of SAM [Thompson and Solomon, 2002; Kindem and Chris-
370 tiansen, 2001; Sexton, 2001; Gillett and Thompson, 2003; Thompson et al., 2011; Polvani et al.,
371 2011]. However, increasing greenhouse gases were also suggested to have a contribution on
372 it [Fyfe et al., 1999; Kushner et al., 2001; Cai et al., 2003; Rauthe et al., 2004]. As it is shown
373 in Fig. 11 and 13, a stronger SAM trend is found during 1958-2001 when both the ozone de-
374 pletion and the increasing greenhouse gas force the SAM. However, in the near future, as ozone
375 levels recover, it will play an oppose role as increasing greenhouse gas. The positive trend in
376 SAM might be weaker or reverse sign over the coming decades [Arblaster et al., 2011].

377 WBCs have a broad impact on the climate and economy over the adjacent mainland, e.g.,
378 the temperature, fishing, storms, precipitation and extreme climate events [Seager et al., 2002;
379 Cai et al., 2005; Minobe et al., 2008]. As expected, stronger WBCs will increase the atmospheric
380 baroclinicity, favoring more storms [Shaman et al., 2010]. Moreover, the adjacent regions of
381 the WBCs suffer more warming than other regions, due to the increased heat transport by the
382 WBCs, especially over Eastern Asian, where the Kuroshio Current transports much more heat
383 [Tang et al., 2009]. In contrast, a weakening of the Gulf Stream in this century can reduce the
384 heat release from the ocean, and contribute to a relative cooling over Europe and Eastern Amer-
385 ica, a feature suggested by Dima and Lohmann [2010] and Rahmstorf et al. [2015]. We sug-
386 gest that particular attention must be paid to the climate change over the adjacent regions of
387 WBCs.

388 6 Conclusions

389 We find observational and model support for an intensification and poleward movement
390 of WBCs in response to anthropogenic climate change. The one exception to this is the Gulf
391 Stream where a weakening of the AMOC tends to reduce the strength of the Gulf Stream. Else-
392 where the poleward shift is postulated to be driven by a poleward shift of the extratropical west-
393 erlies and expansion of the Hadley Cell. In the Southern Hemisphere the observed record in-
394 dicates this intensification and southward shift is already occurring perhaps because ozone de-
395 pletion and rising greenhouse gas have worked in the same direction in forcing a positive SAM.
396 In the Northern Hemisphere natural variability appears to be temporarily interrupting the pole-
397 ward shift of the Kuroshio and have driven a poleward shift of the Gulf Stream via the up-
398 ward trend in the Arctic Oscillation over the analyzed period (1958-2001). As the 21st cen-
399 tury progresses, we expect the poleward shift in the Northern Hemisphere to become clearer
400 as the response to radiative forcing grows in size relative to the natural variability. In the South-

ern Hemisphere changes in intensity and latitude of the WBCs will depend on the opposing impacts of ozone recovery, rising greenhouse gas and the varying influence of natural variability. In all cases, the dynamic changes of the WBCs impact poleward ocean heat transport, regional climate, storm tracks and ocean ecosystems. So, improved understanding and projection of how they will evolve is an important area of research to which the current work hopefully provides a useful impetus.

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