1	Importance of the Equatorial Undercurrent on the Sea Surface Salinity in the Eastern
2	Equatorial Atlantic in boreal spring
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19	Key points:
20	Large SSS increase during boreal spring in the equatorial Atlantic Cold Tongue (ACT).
21	Oceanic vertical processes drive the boreal spring SSS maximum.
22	Explaining the erosion of the EUC salinity in the ACT with 1-month lag between the
23	maximum of SSS in June and the minimum SST observed in July.
24	

#### Abstract

26 The physical processes implied in the sea surface salinity (SSS) increase in the 27 equatorial Atlantic Cold Tongue (ACT) region during boreal spring and the lag observed 28 between boreal spring SSS maximum and sea surface temperature (SST) summer minimum 29 are examined using mixed-layer salinity budgets computed from observations and model 30 during the period 2010-2012. The boreal spring SSS maximum is mainly explained by an 31 upward flux of high salinity originating from the core of the Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) 32 through vertical mixing and advection. The vertical mixing contribution to the mixed-layer 33 salt budget peaks in April-May. It is controlled primarily by i) an increased zonal shear 34 between the surface South Equatorial Current and the subsurface EUC and ii) the presence of 35 a strong salinity stratification at the mixed-layer base from December to May. This haline 36 stratification that is due to both high precipitations below the Inter Tropical Convergence 37 Zone (that is at its southernmost position during boreal winter and early-spring) and zonal 38 advection of low-salinity water from the Gulf of Guinea, explains largely the seasonal cycle 39 of the vertical advection contribution to the mixed-layer salt budget. In the ACT region, the 1-40 month lag observed between the maximum of SSS in June and the minimum of SST in July is 41 explained by the shallowing of the EUC salinity core in June, then the weakening/erosion of 42 the EUC in June-July which reduces the lateral subsurface supply of high saline waters.

43 Keywords: Atlantic cold tongue, SMOS SSS, model, EUC salinity maximum, vertical
44 processes

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#### 1. Introduction

50 The eastern equatorial Atlantic Ocean presents a marked seasonal cycle whose main 51 feature is the seasonal formation of the Atlantic Cold Tongue (ACT) during boreal summer 52 [Chang et al., 2005; Peter et al., 2006; Giordani and Caniaux, 2011; Wade et al., 2011; 53 Caniaux et al., 2011; Burmeister et al., 2016], an area with cool waters extending from the 54 African coast to approximately 20°W, with the lowest temperatures occurring along and south 55 of the equator (Fig. 1a). During boreal spring/summer the southeasterly trade winds intensify 56 [Hastenrath and Lamb, 1978; Philander and Pacanowski, 1981], pushing the Inter-Tropical 57 Convergence Zone (ITCZ) northward [Picaut, 1983; Waliser and Gautier 1993] and 58 intensifying the equatorial near surface mixing and upwelling [e.g., Jouanno et al., 2011; 59 *Caniaux et al.*, 2011].

60 Recent advances have been made in understanding the spatial and temporal variability of the sea surface temperature (SST) in the ACT region. Observations and models highlight 61 62 the crucial role played by the vertical turbulent mixing between the westward flowing South Equatorial Current (SEC), and the subsurface eastward Equatorial Undercurrent (EUC) in 63 64 controlling the seasonal formation of the ACT [Peter et al., 2006; Wade et al., 2011; Jouanno 65 et al., 2011; Hummels et al., 2013]. It is also expected that these subsurface processes 66 involved in the upper ocean heat balance may have a significant influence on the seasonal 67 variability of the upper ocean salinity and the Sea Surface Salinity (SSS).

68 Contrary to temperature, only a few studies focused on the ACT salinity variability 69 though it may play an important role on the regional dynamics and air-sea exchanges through 70 its influence on the stratification of the water column and consequently, on the mixed-layer 71 depth (MLD) and large scale density gradients [*Lukas and Lindstrom*, 1991; *Sprintall and* 72 *Tomczak*, 1992; *Pailler et al*, 1999; *Maes and O'Kane*, 2014]. Changes in SSS are also related to changes in the hydrological cycle [*Webster*, 1994; *Hosoda et al.*, 2009; *Helm et al.*, 2010; *Durack and Wijffels*, 2010; *Yu*, 2011; *Terray et al.*, 2012; *Da-Allada et al.*, 2014a]. So, a
better knowledge of the SSS could provide better estimate of the oceanic freshwater flux and
thus, improve our understanding of the variability of the freshwater flux at the ocean surface
[e.g., *Ren et al.*, 2014].

78 In the Tropical Atlantic, seasonal SSS variations are controlled by different processes 79 depending on the region considered. For instance, studies on the mixed-layer salinity budget 80 estimated from observations and ocean circulation models indicate that the SSS seasonal 81 variability in the western tropical North Atlantic is mainly due to horizontal salinity advection 82 [e.g., Foltz et al., 2004; Foltz and McPhaden, 2008; Da-Allada et al., 2013] and large river 83 discharges [Reul et al., 2014a; 2014b] while in the central and eastern tropical North Atlantic, 84 the seasonal cycle of the precipitations plays a major role on the SSS seasonal cycle [Foltz et 85 al., 2004; Foltz and McPhaden, 2008; Tzortzi et al., 2013; Da-Allada et al., 2013; 2014b]. In 86 the Gulf of Guinea, contributions of the vertical mixing and vertical salinity advection on the 87 salt budget explain the seasonal variability of the SSS [Tzortzi et al., 2013; Da-Allada et al., 88 2013; 2014b; Berger et al., 2014; Camara et al., 2015]. The recent numerical study by 89 *Camara et al.* [2015] in the central equatorial Atlantic also underlined the important role of 90 the vertical mixing in the seasonal cycle of the SSS.

In the ACT region, based on combined in situ observations collected from May to July 2011 during the Cold Tongue Experiment (CTE), model, reanalysis, and satellite data, *Schlundt et al.* [2014] investigated the mechanisms responsible for the SSS variability during the development of the ACT. They mainly focused on two regions: the western equatorial ACT (23°-10°W) and the region north of the ACT. They found that in the region north of the ACT, salinity variability is mainly due to precipitation and zonal advection, whereas in the

97 western equatorial ACT region, evaporation and the zonal advection drive the SSS variations. 98 Although the salinity tendency variations diagnosed in the north of ACT matched the 99 observed ones within error bars, Schlundt et al. [2014] found large discrepancies in the 100 western ACT region during May, and they suggested that the advection term may be 101 underestimated because of horizontal salinity gradients not properly resolved in their dataset. 102 At Equator-10°W, their analysis also showed a strong SSS increase in boreal spring lagged by 103 the SST cooling of about one month. However, no physical processes was proposed or 104 described to explain these timing.

Progress have been recently made in SSS observation thanks to the new Satellite SSS 105 106 measurements provided by the European Space Agency Soil Moisture and Ocean Salinity 107 (ESA/SMOS) [Reul et al., 2012] or by the Aquarius/SACD mission [Lagerloef, 2012] that are 108 available from 2010-present and 2011-2015, respectively. Satellite measurements offer the 109 opportunity to observe the SSS with an unprecedented resolution (50-100 km/3 days) and 110 with an accuracy of 0.4 PSS (Practical Salinity Scale, according to the 1978 practical salinity 111 scale) in the Tropical regions [Lee et al., 2012; 2014; Hernandez et al., 2014; Reul et al., 112 2014a, 2014b; Lu et al, 2016]. In the tropical Atlantic, satellite observations allow to monitor 113 the seasonal SSS variability [Tzortzi et al., 2013] and to detect tropical instability waves 114 (TIWs) [Lee et al., 2014]. Lee et al. [2014] showed that SSS horizontal gradient significantly 115 contributes to the dynamical balance of TIWs by enhancing the meridional density gradient in 116 the tropical Atlantic, especially during boreal spring.

117 Up to now, the main processes which drive the seasonal variability of the SSS in the 118 ACT region have not been fully understood and no explanation has been proposed for boreal 119 spring SSS maximum as mentioned first by *Schlundt et al.* [2014]. This study addresses the 120 following questions: i) What are the surface and subsurface processes driving the SSS

seasonal variability in the ACT? and, ii) What explains the lag between SST summer minimum and boreal spring SSS maximum?

123 The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the 124 methodology, observations data, the model description and validation. In Section 3, the SSS 125 seasonal variability is investigated, with a focus on SSS boreal spring maximum and phasing. 126 Discussion and conclusions are given in Section 4.

- 127 **2.** Methods, data and Model
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# 2.1 The mixed-layer salt budget

129 The mechanisms controlling the seasonal variability of the SSS in the ACT are 130 investigated by analyzing the mixed-layer salinity budget which reads [*Foltz and McPhaden*,

131 2008; Qu et al., 2011; Da-Allada et al., 2013; 2015; Schlundt et al., 2014]:

$$\frac{132}{\partial t} = \underbrace{\frac{(E - P - R)SSS}{h}}_{FLX} \underbrace{-\frac{\langle u.\partial_{x}S \rangle}{XAD}}_{HAD} \underbrace{-\frac{\langle v.\partial_{y}S \rangle}{YAD}}_{HAD} \underbrace{-\frac{\langle w.\partial_{z}S \rangle}{ZAD}}_{ZAD} \underbrace{-\frac{\langle k_{z}\partial_{z}S \rangle}{h}}_{ZDF} \underbrace{-\frac{1}{h}\frac{\partial h}{\partial t}(SSS - S_{z=-h})}_{ENT} \underbrace{+D_{l}(S)}_{LDF} (Eq.1)$$

133

134 with 
$$\langle \bullet \rangle = \frac{1}{h} \int \bullet d_z$$
 (Eq.2)

135 S the salinity averaged within the mixed-layer, E the evaporation, P the precipitation, R the 136 river runoffs, h the depth of the mixed-layer, (u, v, w) the zonal, meridional and vertical 137 components of the velocity vector,  $k_z$  the vertical diffusion coefficient and  $D_l(S)$  the lateral 138 diffusion contribution.

The left-hand side (lhs) term of Eq.1 represents the mixed-layer salinity tendency. At the right-hand side (rhs) of Eq.1, the term FLX is the surface freshwater flux, XAD is the zonal salinity advection, YAD is the meridional salinity advection, ZAD is the vertical salinity advection, ZDF represents the vertical diffusion at the base of the mixed-layer, ENT is the entrainment at the base of the mixed-layer, and the term LDF is the lateral diffusion.

144 The sum of XAD and YAD represents the horizontal salinity advection (HAD). In the 145 following, the vertical processes are combined under the term VPR (VPR=ZAD+ZDF+ENT). 146 In this study, we analyze and compare the SSS budget calculated both from observations and 147 model outputs. Since SMOS data are limited to the surface [e.g., Boutin et al. 2016], the VPR 148 contribution in the observations is estimated as the difference between the SSS tendency and 149 the sum of FLX, HAD and LDF. So, this term could also contain sampling and observations 150 errors. The horizontal diffusion contribution to the salinity budget is computed using a Laplacian operator with a diffusion coefficient set to 500 m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in the observations (as in 151 Dong et al. [2009], Yu [2011] or Da-Allada et al [2015]) and set to 300 m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> in the model. 152

153 The error bar (*e*) for the observed SSS tendency in the Eq.1 is calculated following 154 the formulation used in several studies [e.g. *Foltz and McPhaden*, 2008; *Da-Allada et al.*,

155 2015; *Camara et al.*, 2015]: 
$$e = \left(\sqrt{e_{s_{t+1}}^2 + e_{s_{t-1}}^2}\right) / \Delta t$$
, with  $\Delta t = 2$  months and  $e_s$  is the SSS

156 error given by the standard error of all available SSS data for each month of the study period.

The river runoff term, R, will not be included in our estimates since we focus on regions sufficiently far away from the coast and not under the influence of either Congo or Niger River plumes [e.g. see Figure 10 in *Reul et al.*, 2014b].

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#### 2.2 Observations data

The surface salinity data used in this study to evaluate the SSS budget terms from observations are derived from the SMOS satellite data, a mission that has been launched on November  $2^{nd}$ , 2009. In the present study, we use the so-called SMOS Level 4a SSS products provided by the Centre Aval de Traitement des Données SMOS (CATDS, http://www.catds.fr/), and referred to as the IFREMER Expertise Center-Ocean Salinity (CEC-OS) products. These datasets are weekly composite at a spatial resolution of  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ and are available for the 2010-2014 period. These new products are computed like the Level 3 products [*Reul and Tenerelli*, 2011] except that the large scale bias corrections that are
applied to the swath products consider the monthly climatology of the SSS obtained from the
In Situ Analysis System (ISAS) SSS [*Gaillard et al.*, 2016] instead of the fields from the
World Ocean Atlas (2001) [*Conkright et al.*, 2002].

We used the 1/3° resolution surface current products with a 5-day temporal resolution from Ocean Surface Current Analyses Realtime (OSCAR) [*Lagerlof et al.*, 1999; *Bonjean and Lagerlof*, 2002] (http://www.oscar.noaa.gov/), directly calculated from satellite altimetry and ocean vector winds.

For characterizing the MLD, we use a monthly seasonal cycle of the MLD (defined as the depth where the density is  $0.03 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$  greater than the 10 m depth density) from the climatology of de *Boyer Montégut et al.* [2004] available on a  $2^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ}$  grid and derived from World Ocean Circulation Experiment (WOCE) and the National Oceanographic Data Center (NODC).

181 Monthly evaporation and precipitations are from the ERA-Interim reanalysis [*Dee et* 182 *al.*, 2011] of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) and are 183 available monthly from 1979 up to present with a 0.5° resolution.

184 **2.3 Anc** 

# 2.3 Ancillary data

The model SST is compared with satellite SST data provided by the TRMM (Tropical Rainfall Measuring Mission) Microwave Imager (TMI) [*Kummerow et al.*, 1998]. The SST data are available from 1998 with a 1/4° horizontal resolution. Monthly salinity and temperature measurements from the PIRATA mooring located at 10°W, 0° [*Bourlès et al.*, 2008] are used to observe the seasonal variations of the salinity core of the EUC. This mooring provides salinity measurements at 6 vertical levels from the surface (1 m depth) down to 120 m depth with a 20 m resolution, while temperature is measured at 11 vertical levels between 1 and 500 m depth with 20 m resolution in the upper 140 m. These data areavailable from 1997 up to present.

194 **2.4 OGCM** 

A regional numerical simulation of the Tropical Atlantic based on NEMO3.6 (Nucleus 195 196 for European Modeling of the Ocean, Madec, 2014) is analyzed in this study. The numerical 197 setup is fully described in Hernandez et al. [2016], together with some comparisons with 198 observations. The regional configuration extends from 35°S to 35°N and from 100°W to 15°E 199 with a quarter degree horizontal resolution. The model solves the three dimensional primitive 200 equations discretized on an Arakawa C grid at fixed vertical levels and has 75 vertical levels 201 (12 levels within the first 20 m and 24 levels in the upper 100 m). The momentum advection 202 is based on the 3rd order upstream biased scheme which includes an implicit diffusion. Tracer 203 advection is performed using a Total Variance Dissipation (TVD) scheme and tracer diffusion is parameterized with a Laplacian isopycnal operator with a coefficient of 300 m<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The 204 205 vertical diffusion coefficient is given by a GLS (Generic Length Scale) scheme with a k-ɛ 206 turbulent closure [Umlauf and Burchard, 2003, Reffray et al. 2015].

207 The model is forced at the lateral boundaries with daily outputs of the global 208 MERCATOR reanalysis GLORYS2V3. At the surface, the atmospheric fluxes of momentum, 209 heat and freshwater are computed using bulk formulation [Large and Yeager, 2004] and the 210 DRAKKAR Forcing Set 5.2 (DFS5.2) product [Dussin et al., 2014]. DFS5.2 is derived from 211 ERA-Interim reanalysis (3-h fields of wind speed, atmospheric temperature and humidity, and 212 daily fields for long and short wave radiation and precipitation) from ECMWF [Dee et al., 213 2011]. River runoffs are prescribed near the river mouths as a surface freshwater flux using 214 the monthly climatology of Dai and Trenberth [2002].

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The model is initialized at day January 1<sup>st</sup>, 1979 using salinity and temperature derived

from the Levitus climatology and is integrated over the period 1979-2012. There is no surface salinity restoring toward a climatological SSS. Each terms of the Eq.1 except the entrainment term, which is deducted as a residual, are computed at each model time step. In this study, we used monthly averages of the mixed-layer trends, as in *Da-Allada et al.* [2014b] or *Camara et al.* [2015].

In order to further investigate the subsurface processes that may be involved in the mixed-layer budget, we also computed and analyzed the different contributions to the model 3-dimensional salinity balance:

224 
$$\partial_t S = \underbrace{-u.\partial_x S - v.\partial_y S - w.\partial_z S}_{ADV} \underbrace{-\partial_z (K_z \partial_z S)}_{ZDF} + LDF(S) + FOR(z) \quad (Eq.3)$$

where S is the model salinity, ADV is the 3d salinity advection, ZDF is the vertical diffusion, LDF is the horizontal diffusion, FOR is the tendency of salinity due to E-P-R at the surface. The vertical turbulent salt flux ( $TSF_{ZDF}$ ) is calculated at different depths z as follows:

228 
$$TSF_{ZDF} = \int_{-z}^{0} \partial_z (K_z \partial_z S) dz$$
 (Eq.4)

and assuming that there is no diffusive fluxes at the surface.

230 The density stratification [*Maes and O'Kane*, 2014] is described by the Brunt-Väisälä 231 frequency  $(N^2(T,S))$  determined using the vertical profiles of temperature and salinity as

232 follows: 
$$N^2(T,S) = -\frac{g}{\rho} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \approx \left( \underbrace{g\alpha \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}}_{N^2(T)} \underbrace{-g\beta \frac{\partial S}{\partial z}}_{N^2(S)} \right)$$
 (Eq.5)

where  $\alpha$  is the thermal expansion coefficient,  $\beta$  is the haline contraction coefficient, g is the gravity and  $\rho$  is the density.  $N^2(T)$  and  $N^2(S)$  are the contributions of the temperature and the salinity into the vertical stratification, respectively. The  $N^2(T, S)$  estimated above is used with the vertical shear squared  $(Sh^2)$  to calculate the non-dimensional Richardson 237 number  $(R_i)$  which can be expressed:  $R_i = \frac{N^2}{Sh^2}$  (Eq.6)

238 where 
$$Sh^2 = \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z}\right)^2$$
 with  $Sh_u^2$  and  $Sh_v^2$  the contribution of the vertical shear

associated with the zonal and meridional currents, respectively.

Finally, a mean salinity budget within the EUC is performed. This salinity budget is calculated by integrating vertically the dominant salinity balance (Eq.3) between the two isopycnals that define the salinity maximum associated with the EUC in the ACT throughout the year, i.e., between  $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.7 (z_1)$  and  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26 (z_2) \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ :

244 
$$\partial SF/\partial t = \frac{1}{\Delta z} \int_{-z_2}^{-z_1} (\partial_t S) dz; \quad XSF = \frac{1}{\Delta z} \int_{-z_2}^{-z_1} (-u \cdot \partial_x S) dz; \quad YSF = \frac{1}{\Delta z} \int_{-z_2}^{-z_1} (-v \cdot \partial_y S) dz; \quad ZSF = \frac{1}{\Delta z} \int_{-z_2}^{-z_1} (-w \cdot \partial_z S) dz;$$

245 and 
$$TSF = \frac{1}{\Delta z} \int_{-z_2}^{z_1} -\partial_z (K_z \partial_z S) dz$$
; with  $\Delta z = z_2 - z_1$  (Eq.7).

 $\partial SF/\partial t$  is the salt tendency, XSF represents the zonal salt advection, YSF is the meridional salt advection, ZSF is the vertical salt advection and TSF is the vertical turbulent salt diffusion. For this balance, we consider neither the lateral diffusion and the entrainment contributions, which were found to be negligible, nor the air-sea freshwater exchanges and runoff, which are limited to the surface and do not affect the isopycnal range we consider for the integration.

A large part of the model analysis is restricted to the period 2010-2012, which is an overlapping period for both model and observations data sets. As the seasonal cycle could be biased due to the short study period, model analysis in the mixed-layer has also been performed over a longer period (1990-2012) in order to verify the robustness of the results obtained (see the discussion section).

257 **2.5 Seasonal variability of SSS and SST** 

258 First, we focus on the equatorial ACT region as defined by the box between 3°S-1°N 259 and 17°W-0°E, which is centered on the area with maximum cooling around 1°S-10°W (Fig. 260 1a) [Jouanno et al., 2011]. The seasonal evolutions of the SSS and SST obtained from 261 observations (SMOS and TMI) in the ACT both present a large seasonal variability (Fig. 1b). 262 The SST exhibits maximum values in the ACT in March/April (SST > 28 °C) and minimum 263 values in July/August (SST < 24 °C). A large SSS increase occurs from April to June (first 264 SSS maximum) followed by a slight SSS decrease period (July/August). Then, the SSS 265 increases again and reaches its second maximum in October/November before decreasing. As 266 already noticed by Schlundt et al. [2014], the SSS reaches its maximum in June in the ACT, 267 i.e. one month before the minimum of SST that occurs in July/August.

268 The seasonal cycle of SSS and SST from the model and observation are compared in 269 Fig. 1b. Throughout the year, the model is saltier than the observation. From January to April, 270 a bias of about 0.5 PSS is observed, which is reduced to about 0.2 PSS from May to 271 December. For the SST, we observe the same seasonality of the bias: a cool bias is observed 272 in the model from December to July (up to -1.5 °C in May-April) while from May to 273 November the bias is weaker. This bias may have multiple origins, including forcing 274 uncertainties or lack of realism of the vertical mixing parameterization. Despite these caveats 275 in the model outputs, the seasonal evolution of the observed SSS and SST are well simulated 276 by the OGCM, with 0.94 and 0.95 correlation coefficients at the 99 % significance level, 277 respectively. Both model and observations exhibit SST maximum in March and minimum 278 SST in July. The two SSS maxima observed in June and in October are also reasonably 279 reproduced in the model.

280 To further validate the simulated seasonal variability of the vertical distribution of 281 temperature and salinity, in situ salinity and temperature measurements from the PIRATA 282 mooring located at 10°W-0°N are compared with the model. Although the model salinity is 283 larger than the PIRATA data, the simulated seasonal variability of the salinity vertical 284 structure is in phase with observed cycle (Fig. 2). Near the surface (0-30 m), model and 285 observations both exhibit two salinity maxima previously observed in the seasonal cycle of 286 SMOS SSS. At subsurface (below 30 m), both model and observations present a pronounced 287 subsurface salinity maximum, associated with the EUC between 40 and 80 m, which follows 288 a semi-annual cycle. The seasonal cycle and distribution of the model temperature at 10°W-289 0°N is also in good agreement with the PIRATA data (Fig. 3): i) the formation of the cold 290 tongue in the model is in phase with the observations and ii) the position of the depth of the 291 isotherm 20 °C, a representative proxy for the thermocline depth, is also qualitatively 292 comparable in the model and the observations. Overall, these validations give us confidence 293 on the capability of the simulation to reproduce the observed variability at seasonal time 294 scales in the ACT region.

**3 Results** 

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#### 3.1 Boreal spring SSS maximum in the ACT region

297 In order to explain the boreal spring SSS increase, the contributions to the mixed-layer 298 salinity balance in the ACT region are examined using mixed-layer salinity balances 299 computed both from the observations and from the model (Fig. 4). The SSS tendencies 300 obtained from the observations and from the model show similar seasonal cycles (0.83 301 correlation coefficient at the 99 % significance level). Both tendencies exhibit two salinization events during the year: the largest in May  $(+0.40 \text{ PSS}. \text{ month}^{-1})$  and a secondary 302 maximum in September (+0.12 PSS. month<sup>-1</sup>). The spring salinization starts one month later 303 304 in the model compared to the observations. Despite small differences between the model and 305 observations, all terms in the rhs of Eq.1 are in phase and present very similar seasonal cycles 306 (Fig. 4b). The contributions of the ocean vertical processes (VPR) and of the horizontal 307 advection (HAD) present a larger seasonal cycle than the surface freshwater flux (FLX). The 308 VPR is positive throughout the year and leads to an important increase in SSS from December 309 to June. Its contribution is strongly reduced during the rest of the year (July to November). 310 The first strongest SSS increase in May is clearly attributed to the vertical processes. The 311 horizontal SSS advection is dominated by the zonal advection (Fig. 5a). Both are negative all 312 year long due to the westward transport of low-salinity water from the Gulf of Guinea by the 313 SEC (Fig. 4b and Fig. 5a) [Schlundt et al., 2014; Da-Allada et al., 2014b; Camara et al., 314 2015]. The HAD is responsible for the large SSS decrease observed in December both in the 315 model and observations. The HAD contributes significantly to the SSS budget at the 316 exception of the September/October period when this term is almost negligible. The FLX is 317 negative from December to April when the ITCZ is located near the equator and therefore 318 contributes to reduce the SSS in the ACT during this period. During the rest of the year (from 319 May to November), the FLX is dominated by evaporation and acts to increase the SSS, 320 summing to the VPR. During September-October, the contributions of the HAD and of the 321 VPR to the mixed-layer salinity budget are weak, so the FLX is the main contributor to the 322 surface salinization observed during this period.

323

## **3.1.1 Vertical processes**

As detailed above, the contribution of the VPR in the salt budget obtained from observations is estimated as a residual of Eq. 3. The seasonal cycle of the observed VPR contribution is in agreement with that of the model with a maximum in April and a minimum in October (Fig. 4b). Consequently, we consider that the model is suitable to explore in details the vertical processes that are inaccessible from any other means (neither in situ measurements, nor satellite missions).

330 To a first order, the VPR contribution to the mixed-layer salt budget is explained by 331 co-varying vertical advection and diffusion (Fig. 5b). These two terms are of same order of 332 magnitude and vary in phase during the seasonal cycle. Analyzing the 3D salinity budget (see 333 Eq.3), we find that the vertical diffusion acts to increase the salinity in the mixed-layer 334 throughout the year (Fig. 6a), consistently with the positive ZDF trend for the mixed-layer salt 335 budget (Fig. 5b). ZDF exhibits peaks in April/May and December/January, period which also 336 coincides with the strongest vertical turbulent salt flux TSF (Fig. 6b). The high values of 337 vertical turbulent salt flux occur in the 10-30 meters depth range, which correspond to a depth 338 range with low Richardson number (Fig. 6b) and large vertical shear (Fig. 6c-d). Note that the 339 zonal velocity shear controls the total horizontal shear (Fig. 6c-d). The vertical shear peaks 340 near 20 m and its seasonal variability is driven by the strength of the surface SEC (Fig. 6c-d 341 and Fig. 7a-b). Note that there is no direct link between the seasonal variability of the local 342 wind stress (Fig 7e) and the turbulent fluxes of salt, suggesting that the local wind forcing 343 does not control the turbulent fluxes of salt (at the difference of the basin scale wind 344 variability that drives the SEC and indirectly modulates the vertical shear of the equatorial 345 currents).

346 As for the vertical diffusion, the vertical salinity advection contributes to increase the 347 mixed-layer salinity throughout the year with an important contribution from December to May (Fig. 5b). This term, which is a function of both the vertical salinity gradient and the 348 349 vertical velocity, brings salty water from the subsurface EUC up to the mixed-layer. To first 350 order, the seasonal evolution of the vertical advection contribution to the mixed-layer balance 351 is in phase with the variability of the salinity vertical gradients at the mixed-layer base but not 352 with the seasonal cycle of the vertical velocity (upward throughout the year) that peaks in 353 May and November (Fig. 7c-d). This suggests that the variability of vertical salinity advection 354 is mainly explained by the strong salinity stratification variability at the base of the mixed-355 layer (Fig. 7c), except in May, when vertical salinity advection is reinforced by the strong 356 upward velocity (Fig. 7d). The strong salinity stratification observed from December to May 357 is due to the zonal advection of surface freshwater and precipitation (Fig. 4b and Fig. 5a). The 358 maximum upward vertical velocity that corresponds to the equatorial upwelling is observed 359 when the wind stress is at its maximum (Fig. 7e). The intensification of trade winds in the 360 equatorial region generates upwelling equatorial Kelvin waves that are responsible for the 361 shoaling of the thermocline observed in May-June (Fig. 7c). Note that the thermocline 362 shoaling could also contribute to enhance the vertical salinity gradient at the MLD base.

# 363 **3.2 Lag between SSS maximum and SST minimum: role of the EUC salinity**

364 maximum

As previously shown, the vertical mixing between the SEC and the upper part of the EUC mainly explains the seasonal ACT surface salinization. Although similar mechanisms are involved in the equatorial seasonal cooling and associated ACT formation [e.g., *Peter et al.* 2006, *Jouanno et al.* 2011], there is an intriguing 1-month lag between the SSS maximum and the SST minimum (Fig. 1b). It would be interesting to understand this difference in the seasonal cycle.

The vertical structures of the salinity and the temperature averaged in the ACT region present similar seasonal evolutions to that inferred at 10°W, 0°E at the surface (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) but with differences at the subsurface (Fig. 8). Subsurface salinity maximum associated with the EUC is between 40 and 60 m in the ACT instead of 40-80 m at 10°W-0°N and there is also a more intense cooling at 10°W-0°N than in the ACT. The SSS maximum observed in June (Fig. 8a) appears one month before the July SST minimum (Fig. 8b) as in PIRATA observations (Fig. 2a and Fig. 3a). The salinity maximum associated with the EUC is located 378 throughout the year between  $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.7 \ kg.m^{-3}$  and  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26 \ kg.m^{-3}$  and shows a semi-annual 379 cycle, with peaks in March/April and November (Fig. 8a). During boreal spring, the salinity 380 maximum enters the mixed-layer, and is then totally eroded in early boreal summer. On the 381 other hand, because of continuous positive vertical temperature gradient in the upper ocean, 382 input of cool water from subsurface is sustained during boreal summer while the maximum 383 SSS disappears (due to zonal advection of freshwater in the mixed-layer, Fig. 5a). Due to the 384 erosion of the EUC salinity core in early boreal summer, the vertical salt flux induced by the 385 subsurface processes is strongly reduced in July while SST cooling is sustained.

386 To explore why the EUC salinity maximum is eroded during boreal summer, we 387 analyze the salinity and velocity averaged between the two aforementioned isopycnals (

 $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.7 \ kg.m^{-3}$  and  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26 \ kg.m^{-3}$ ), representative of the EUC core. First, we find that the 388 389 erosion of the salinity maximum at the equator is not due to the meridional displacement of 390 the core of the EUC (Fig. 9a). Moreover, the semi-annual cycle of the salinity along the equator is consistently observed from the African coast to 30°W (Fig 10). This semi-annual 391 392 cycle of the EUC salinity (Fig. 9a) follows that of the EUC zonal speed (Fig. 9b) with 1-393 month lag, suggesting a close link between the EUC intensity and its haline content. During 394 boreal summer, the EUC is weak and thus the salt transport by the EUC is reduced, 395 suggesting that the boreal summer erosion of the EUC maximum salinity could be due to the 396 weakening of the EUC. It is also likely that the meridional current exports high salinity waters 397 southward and importing low salinity waters from the north (Fig. 9c and Fig. 10). Note that 398 the seasonal cycle of the vertical diffusion is negative throughout the year between the 24.7 399 and 26 isopycnals so this process also contributes to the erosion of the high salinity core of 400 the EUC all along the year with maximum during the April to July period (Fig. 6a).

401 In order to quantify the respective role of advection and vertical diffusion processes on

402 the erosion of the EUC high salinity core in boreal summer, the seasonal EUC salinity budget (averaged within the ACT and between the 24,7 and 26 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> isopycnals; Eq.7) is analyzed. 403 404 In agreement with the previously discussed salinity seasonal cycle within the EUC (Fig. 9a), 405 the seasonal cycle of the salt tendency is negative from April to August and in November and 406 positive the rest of the year with a maximum in September (Fig. 11). The zonal salt advection 407 (XSF) exhibits a similar seasonal evolution suggesting that it is the major driver of the 408 decrease of the EUC salinity maximum. The vertical turbulent salt flux (TSF) driven by the 409 vertical shear permanently contributes to erode the EUC salinity maximum (Fig. 6a, c and 410 Fig. 11). The negative salt tendency observed in May is due to the maximum effect (-0.18 PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>) of the TSF. The meridional salt advection (YSF) exhibits a strong seasonal 411 cycle and is maximum in July (> -0.21 PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>), due to the intensification of the 412 413 meridional current in the EUC (Fig. 9c and Fig. 11). The seasonal evolution of the vertical salt advection (ZSF) is similar to the meridional salt advection one (Fig. 11). ZSF tends to 414 415 increase salinity in order to compensate its decrease due to the meridional salt flux. The 416 contribution of the vertical advection shows an important increase in May (+0.24 PSS.month<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup>) and July (> +0.27 PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>) that is due to the maximum vertical velocity in the EUC 417 418 (Fig. 7d and Fig. 11).

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# 4 Discussion and Conclusion

The recent high resolution SMOS salinity data obtained from the CATDS/SMOS reveal an important seasonal SSS variability in the ACT region with two salinization events during the year: the first and largest SSS increase appears in boreal spring and the second, smaller, in September/October. In this ACT region, a 1-month lag is also observed between the maximum of SSS in June and the minimum of SST in July. As the eastern equatorial Atlantic Ocean is known to be associated with intense seasonal variability 426 of the SST, it is important to elucidate the details at work in this interplay.

427 This paper investigates the physical processes that are responsible for the boreal spring 428 SSS increase and for the observed lag between the SSS maximum and the SST minimum in 429 the ACT region. SMOS salinity data are analyzed, together with a regional numerical 430 simulation of the Tropical Atlantic Ocean. Simulated salinity and temperature are compared 431 with satellite products (SMOS and TMI) and with PIRATA mooring measurements located at 432 10°W-0°N. Although a salt bias exists between the model and the observations, the model 433 reproduces consistently the observed seasonal cycles of the salinity and temperature in the 434 region. This allows us to use both model and observations with confidence to diagnose the 435 dominant physical mechanisms at work.

436 The boreal spring SSS maximum in the ACT is due to subsurface processes that bring 437 salty waters in the mixed-layer, while from September-October, the local evaporation is the 438 main contributor to the SSS increase. Vertical mixing and vertical advection are found to have 439 similar contributions to the salt input into the mixed-layer, with vertical mixing variability 440 well explained by the zonal shear variability between the surface SEC and subsurface EUC. 441 Although the importance of the vertical velocity in the eastern equatorial Atlantic has already 442 been noted during this year period by several studies [e.g., Rhein et al., 2010; Giordani and 443 *Caniaux*, 2011], we find that the seasonal cycle of the vertical velocity does not control the 444 vertical advection at first order. Instead, the seasonal variability of the vertical advection of 445 salt in the mixed-layer is largely explained by the seasonal variability of the salinity 446 stratification observed at the MLD base. For the rest of SSS balance terms, the horizontal 447 advection contributes permanently to decrease the SSS in the ACT region. This contribution 448 is mainly due to zonal advection by the SEC of low-salinity water from the Gulf of Guinea to 449 the ACT region. From December to April, when the ITCZ is close to the equator, the surface

450 freshwater flux acts to decrease the SSS while the rest of the year, evaporation dominates in451 the ACT and increases the SSS.

452 Although our study region differs slightly from Schlundt et al. [2014] and Camara et 453 al. [2015], our SSS balance analysis also suggests that the vertical processes play a crucial 454 role in the SSS variability. As reported by Schlundt et al., [2014], the vertical mixing was 455 estimated using micro-structure profiles obtained between May and July. That is why 456 Schlundt et al. [2014] missed the physical processes responsible for the increase in SSS 457 before the ACT set up. This is also likely the reason why they also missed the strong positive 458 contribution of the vertical mixing from December to May. In contrast, in agreement with the 459 present study, Camara et al., [2015] found that the vertical mixing driven by the vertical shear 460 has an important contribution for the SSS budget. As the vertical mixing is parameterized in 461 the model, it would be interesting in the future to make micro-structure measurements earlier 462 in boreal spring to better explore and document the mixing conditions in the upper ocean 463 layers of this region.

464 During the SSS increase, both studies reported by Schlundt et al. [2014] and by 465 *Camara et al.*, [2015] found that the vertical salinity advection term is negligible, while in our 466 model the vertical advection presents a contribution similar to the vertical mixing. This term 467 is included in the entrainment term in the study by Schlundt et al. [2014] and depends on the 468 MLD, the vertical velocity and the vertical salinity gradient at the base of the mixed-layer. 469 Schlundt et al. [2014] used a temperature criterion to define the MLD while a density criterion 470 is used in our study. We found that the contribution of the vertical advection to the mixed-471 layer salt balance in the ACT is largely due to the seasonal variability of the salinity 472 stratification at the mixed-layer. Thus, the difference between our result and their estimate of 473 the vertical advection term is likely explained by their MLD criteria or the lower vertical

474 resolution of the in-situ data that may not allow to properly estimate the vertical salinity 475 gradient at the mixed-layer base. As a consequence, the present study suggests that the 476 residual term diagnosed by Schlundt et al. [2014] study may not only be explained by the lack 477 of resolution in the zonal and meridional salinity gradients, but also by the vertical processes 478 which are hardly accessible with observations. Using another OGCM model, *Camara et al.*, [2015] choose a different density criterion for the MLD (0.01 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> in their study vs 0.03 479 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> in our study). They also used a relaxation term toward the observed SSS climatology 480 481 that could reduce the salinity gradients and thus may explain the weak contribution of the 482 vertical advection they found. As mentioned above, our model has 75 vertical levels vs. 46 in 483 the study of *Camara et al.*, [2015]. Note that the model forcing is also slightly different in the 484 two studies (DFS5.2 in the present study and DFS4 in their study) and may also contribute to 485 the difference in the vertical advection contribution. Thus, it is highly probable that the 486 vertical salinity gradients are better captured in our model and this is a very interesting 487 perspective to keep in mind for further investigations.

488 In the present study, the seasonal cycle is computed over the longest available 489 overlapping period of observations and simulation (2010-2012). In order to verify the 490 robustness of the present results, the mean seasonal cycle has also been computed from model 491 outputs over a longer period (1990-2012). The results are nevertheless similar to those 492 obtained with the short period (not shown). The dominant terms into the SSS budget that 493 drive the SSS variability remain unchanged although the seasonal evolution of each term of 494 the salinity balance can be slightly shifted. For example, the vertical processes term is 495 maximum in April from our 2010-2012 experiment, while for the period 1990-2012, this term 496 is maximum in May. However, regardless of the time period considered, the SSS tendency 497 reaches its maximum in May. The shift observed in the vertical processes term between the

498 two periods could be explained by the strong interannual variability observed in the equatorial 499 ACT [*Marin et al.*, 2009; *Caniaux et al.*, 2011]. Due to the uncertainties on our present 500 knowledge of interannual to decadal timescales variability in SSS [*O'Kane et al.*, 2016], 501 further investigations are clearly needed to explore the interplay of the seasonal cycle over 502 longer periods of time.

503 The second important point raised by the present study is the identification of the 504 mechanism explaining the 1-month lag between the maximum SSS observed in June and the 505 minimum SST observed in July in the ACT. The mechanism explaining the phase shift is 506 related to the erosion of the EUC salinity core located throughout the year between  $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.7 \ kg.m^{-3}$  and  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26 \ kg.m^{-3}$ . The upper EUC erosion leads to the disappearance of its 507 508 associated salinity maximum from July to September, reducing the contribution of vertical 509 mixing and advective salinity flux into the mixed-layer. This happens despite intensified wind 510 stress in July and still high vertical shears at the mixed-layer base in July-August. Therefore, 511 the SSS starts to decrease in June-July, while the upward cooling flux remains intense up to 512 July owing to the vertical distribution of temperature against salinity. This erosion of the 513 equatorial salinity maximum during boreal summer was also reported by several authors 514 based on observations and models [Gouriou and Reverdin, 1992; Kolodziejczyk et al., 2009; 515 2014; Johns et al., 2014].

To understand the disappearance of the EUC salinity maximum during the boreal summer, a seasonal salinity budget of the EUC in the ACT has been analyzed. We find that the major reason for the EUC salinity maximum erosion in July and August is due to the weakening of the zonal salt advection which is mainly related to the weakening of the EUC [*Kolodziejczyk et al., 2009; 2014; Johns et al., 2014*]. The vertical turbulent salt driven by the vertical shear between the surface and the upper thermocline currents is negative throughout 522 the year and also contributes to decrease the salinity of the EUC. This vertical turbulent salt 523 along with the meridional salt advection tend to compensate the vertical salt advection, except 524 in May and July when the contributions of these terms into the salinity balance are the most 525 important. The strong positive vertical salt advection observed in May and July in the EUC is 526 related to the maximum vertical velocity. These strong values of the vertical velocity inside 527 the ACT were also found at 15°W-0°N in the upper thermocline (~ between 40 and 75 m) in 528 May and July by Jouanno et al. [2011]. In boreal summer, due to the intensification of the 529 meridional current in the EUC, the maximum negative meridional salt advection is found in 530 July. This intensification of the equatorial meridional current in boreal summer, when the cold 531 tongue is pronounced, were also observed by Perez et al., [2014] at 10°W. Using observations 532 (moored and shipboard velocity measurements), this latter study characterized the tropical 533 cells as a dominant meridional circulation features in the shallower 100 meters. Thus, the 534 meridional salt advection in July is associated with this circulation pattern, and extends to the 535 salinity field the hypothesis formulated by Rhein et al. [2010] that an important meridional 536 heat flux would be associated with the meridional cells in the ACT.

*Johns et al.* [2014] suggested that the EUC salinity maximum erosion in boreal summer is due to strong mixing that occurs at the top of EUC during the upwelling season. A similar result was found in the eastern part of the basin by *Kolodziejczyk et al.* [2014]. Based on a seasonal box-averaged salinity budget in the upper thermocline delimited by

541  $\sigma_{\theta} = 24.5 \ kg.m^{-3}$  and  $\sigma_{\theta} = 26.2 \ kg.m^{-3}$  isopycnals in the eastern Gulf of Guinea (east of 4 ° W), 542 these authors also suggested that the main cause of the equatorial EUC salinity core erosion is 543 due to the intense vertical mixing during the boreal summer although the role of horizontal 544 advection cannot be neglected. In their study, the vertical mixing term was determined as a 545 residual of the salinity budget. In the present study, all terms of the salinity balance in the

546	EUC could be evaluated. We found that, although the vertical mixing contributes to the
547	erosion of the EUC salinity maximum in the ACT all along the year, this term is not the main
548	cause of this erosion. The major cause of this erosion is related to the weakening of EUC
549	during the boreal summer, which induces a significant diminution of the salt input in the
550	ACT. Overall, this study reveals that the equatorial salinity maximum associated with the
551	EUC plays an important role for the seasonal variability of the SSS.
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804 **Figure Captions:** 

Figure 1. a) Satellite-SST distribution during July showing the spatial extend of the equatorial Atlantic Cold tongue (ACT) region. Contours represent 23, 24 and 25 °C isotherms. b) Seasonal evolution of the SSS (blue lines) and the SST (red lines) for the satellite observations (full lines) and the model (dashed lines) in the ACT (box marked in a). The seasonal cycle of the SSS and of the SST is computed for the 2010-2012 period. Units are °C (a, b) and PSS (b).

Figure 2. Seasonal salinity (PSS unit) evolution at (0°N-10°W) between 0 and 90 m depth computed for the 2010-2012 period: a) PIRATA mooring and b) model output. Dashed lines represent the 35.5 and 36 PSS isohalines. Note that a pronounced subsurface salinity maximum, associated with the EUC between 40 and 80 m is not fully captured by the PIRATA data due to sparse vertical sampling of salinity over the vertical due to mooring design or salinity sensor failures.

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Figure 3. Same as Figure 2 but for temperature (°C). Contours represent the 20°C and 24°C
isotherms.

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**Figure 4.** Seasonal SSS budget for the ACT region computed for the 2010-2012 period. a) Observations (black) and model (red) salinity tendencies (lhs term of Eq.1) with the shaded areas indicating error estimates for the observed salinity tendency. b) The different contributions of the salinity equation (rhs terms of Eq.1) for the observations (full lines) and the model (dashed lines): surface freshwater flux (FLX in magenta), vertical processes (VPR in green), horizontal advection (HAD in blue) and lateral diffusion (LDF in light blue). The units are pss.month<sup>-1</sup> for a) and b). **Figure 5.** a) Horizontal salinity advection (HAD in dashed blue) contributions: zonal advection (XAD in black) and meridional advection (YAD in dashed lack). b) Vertical processes contributions to the SSS seasonal variability (VPR in dashed green): vertical salinity advection (ZAD in pink), vertical diffusion (ZDF in red) and the entrainment term (ENT in dashed black). All the terms are explained in Eq.1. The units are pss.month<sup>-1</sup> for (a) and (b).

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Figure 6. Seasonal evolution of model vertical profiles computed for the 2010-2012 period in 835 the ACT box: a) vertical diffusion (ZDF in color shading; PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>) and salinity (contours 836 837 in black dashed line; PSS), b) log10 of the Richardson number (color shading) and turbulent salinity flux (TSF, contours in dashed line black; PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>.m), c) square vertical shear of 838 the zonal currents only (Shu<sup>2</sup> in color shading; in  $10^{-4}$  s<sup>-2</sup>) and TSF<sub>ZDF</sub> (in dashed line black 839 contours), and d) total square vertical shear (Sh<sup>2</sup> color shading; in  $10^{-4}$  s<sup>-2</sup>) and TSF<sub>ZDF</sub> (in 840 dashed line black contours). The depth of the isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> are superimposed 841 842 in blue dashed lines. The thick black lines are mixed-layer depth (MLD).

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Figure 7. Seasonal evolution of model vertical profiles computed for the 2010-2012 period in the ACT: a) zonal current (U in color shading; m s<sup>-1</sup>), b) horizontal velocity (color shading; m s<sup>-1</sup>,), c) the vertical salinity stratification on Brunt –Väisälä frequency (N2<sub>(S)</sub> in color shading;  $10^{-4}$  s<sup>-2</sup>), d) vertical velocity (W in color shading;  $10^{-6}$  m s<sup>-1</sup>) and e) wind stress ( $10^{-1}$  N.m<sup>-2</sup>; red line is total, black line is zonal, dashed black line is meridional). The depth of the isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> and salinity are superimposed in blue dashed lines and in black dashed line. The thick black lines are MLDs and the thick red line indicate the 20°C isotherm

Figure 8. Model seasonal profile in the ACT region between 0 and 90 m depth computed for the 2010-2012 period for: a) salinity (in PSS) and b) temperature (in °C). Black dashed lines indicate the 36 PSS isohaline and in b) the solid red line indicate the 20°C isotherm. Isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> are superimposed in blue dashed lines for a) and b). The thick black lines indicate mixed-layer depth (MLD).

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Figure 9. Time-latitude diagrams of the mean seasonal cycle computed for the 2010-2012 period in the EUC delimited by the 24.7-26 kg.m<sup>-3</sup> isopycnals in the model between  $17^{\circ}W-0^{\circ}$ and  $3^{\circ}N-3^{\circ}S$ : a) salinity, contours represent the 36, 36.1 and 36.2 PSS isohalines; b) zonal current with contours interval of 0.2 m.s<sup>-1</sup>; and c) the meridional current with contours interval of 0.03 m.s<sup>-1</sup>.

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**Figure 10.** Longitude-time diagram of the mean seasonal cycle of the EUC salinity (in PSS; color shading) and currents (in cm.s<sup>-1</sup>; vectors) computed for the 2010-2012 period between isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> at 1°N-3°S and between 40°W and 10°E. The dashed white lines at 17°W and 0°E indicate the western and eastern boundary of the ACT. Contours represent the 36, 36.1 and 36.2 isohalines.

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**Figure 11.** The seasonal salinity budget within the  $\sigma$ =24.7–26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> layer in the ACT computed for the 2010-2012 period. The ACT-averaged salinity budget is decomposed in the salt tendency (red), zonal salt advection (XSF in solid black), meridional salt advection (YSF in dashed black), vertical salt advection (ZSF in pink) and the turbulent salt (TSF in green). Unit is PSS.month<sup>-1</sup>.



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909	design or salinity sensor failures.
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**Figure 5.** a) Horizontal salinity advection (HAD in dashed blue) contributions: zonal 986 advection (XAD in black) and meridional advection (YAD in dashed lack). b) Vertical

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989	(ENT in dashed black). All the terms are explained in Eq.1. The units are $pss.month^{-1}$ for (a)
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1014	salinity flux (TSF, contours in dashed line black; PSS.month <sup>-1</sup> .m), c) square vertical shear of
1015	the zonal currents only (Shu <sup>2</sup> in color shading; in $10^{-4}$ s <sup>-2</sup> ) and TSF <sub>ZDF</sub> (in dashed line black
1016	contours), and d) total square vertical shear (Sh <sup>2</sup> color shading; in $10^{-4}$ s <sup>-2</sup> ) and TSF <sub>ZDF</sub> (in
1017	dashed line black contours). The depth of the isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg $m^{-3}$ are superimposed
1018	in blue dashed lines. The thick black lines are mixed-layer depth (MLD).
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1089	period in the EUC delimited by the 24.7-26 kg.m <sup>-3</sup> isopycnals in the model between $17^{\circ}W-0^{\circ}$
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Figure 10. Longitude-time diagram of the mean seasonal cycle of the EUC salinity (in PSS; color shading) and currents (in cm.s<sup>-1</sup>; vectors) computed for the 2010-2012 period between isopycnals 24.7 and 26 kg m<sup>-3</sup> at 1°N-3°S and between 40°W and 10°E. The dashed white

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