Reply to the comments from Report 1 (Anonymous Referee #3)

Peer review report on "Characteristics of Water Masses in the Atlantic Ocean based on GLODAPv2 dataset" by Mian Liu and Toste Tanhua

1) Overview and general recommendation:

Understanding the formation, transformation, and circulation of water masses has been a hot topic in oceanography since its start. Many ways of tangling this oceanography field have been developed, from the mere description of hydrographic properties to statistical and numerical models. This manuscript presents the water mass structure of the Atlantic Ocean resulting from an Optimum Multiparameter (OMP) analysis.

Although the intention of the manuscript is honorable, trying to facilitate the interpretation of biogeochemical results, the findings of the manuscript do not add any new information to the community. I would consider reducing the extension of this work and merging it with the companion paper. In the case the work would have to stand from itself, a much deep discussion of the results would be needed. Besides, the reliability of the OMP results has not be proven, by, for example, analyzing the residuals.

The manuscript needs a very careful proofreading and the number of figures/subplots in the main text needs to be reduced.

2) General comments:

1. After previous reviewers highlighted the need of a careful proofread of the manuscript, the manuscript still presents grammatical errors and misspellings. To highlight some:

We have carefully proofread the whole manuscript, hopefully with fresh eyes so that we caught any remaining errors.

a. There are still two appearances of STW instead of SWT (lines 325 and 355).

Two mistakes have been fixed and all "STW" in this manuscript are guaranteed to be replaced by SWT.

b. The term "sea water type" still appears in the manuscript instead of "source water type" (line 160 and Table 4 caption).

Two mistakes have been fixed and all "sea water types" in this manuscript are guaranteed to be replaced by "source water type".

c. There are inconsistencies in units. For example, sometimes density units are written as kg m^{-3} and others as kg/m³.

All the unit formats have been unified as kg m^{-3} or μ mol kg⁻¹

d. Sloppy proofread can be seen, for example, on lines 181 ("...is that he water masses...")

Checked, "the water masses".

306 ("...our analysi. The region..."),

Checked, "our analysis".

423-424 ("...being important to distinguishe AAIW from Central Waters..."),

Checked, "being important to distinguish AAIW".

and 536 ("vintages" of LSW exitst), to enumerate some.

Checked, "vintages" of LSW exist".

Besides, there are grammatical errors, such as those on lines 49 ("there are gradual transformation between them", where "transformation" should be plural),

Checked, "gradual transformations between them" in plural form.

and 52-53 ("Also important is the concepts", it should be either "important is the concept" or "important are the concepts");

Checked, "Also important is the concept" in singular form.

and sentences that are unfinished, such as the one on line 126 ("...water masses, since this product is.").

Checked and the sentence has been completed.

e. One citation is not correctly spelled in the text (line 68, should be Jacobsen (1927)).

Checked, Jacobsen (1927).

There are also few references not cited in the text, such as Clarke et al. (1990); Ishii et al. (2011); Key et al. (2010); Lacan and Jeandel (2004); to enumerate some.

The references are checked again.

- 2. To solve the OMP for the whole Atlantic Ocean, the authors split the water column into different regions and layers (as summarized in Table 1), called OMP runs. Some suggested improvements for the OMP analysis:
 - a. After changing the description of the Central Waters by using two SWTs, the two SWTs defining each Central Water are not allowed to mix between them between 40N and the Equator (#5 upper and lower), so the transition between the different properties of the Central Waters observed in the ocean cannot be represented by the OMP. Besides, in Table 1 there is no specification of which of the two SWTs (or if the two SWTs) representing each one Central Waters they use that when solving the OMP system, such as in #6 and #8, for example. Please specify to avoid confusion.

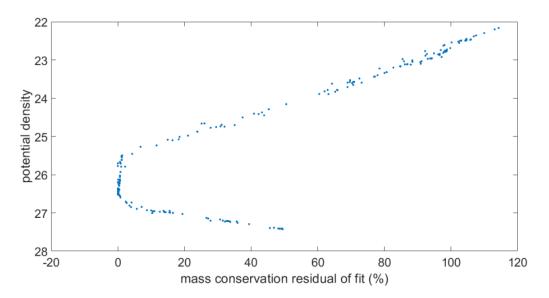
Additional text is added to explain the divisions of OMP runs, including in both horizontal and vertical directions and also the reasons.

b. Lines 205-206: If the SWTs allowed to mix in each of the OMP runs have a coherent lateral and vertical distribution not such "step-like" features should appear. Each run should share at least one SWT with the adjacent OMP runs to avoid that issue, which seems to be the case according to Table 1. However, drastic disappearances/appearances of water masses can be observed in the top panels of Figure 19, highlighting the lack of a "transitional water mass" between AABW and NEADW.

Thanks for the suggestion. The OMP calculations have been redone with new criteria and now the "step-like" features between each runs were removed, especially in the A16 section. In the bottom layer, distributions of AABW and NEABW are more coherent (top panels of Figure 19). In the case of AABW and NEABW the steps do occur since we, for reasons outlined in the paper, consider a northern version of AABW north of the equator. Normally we have water masses in several boxes to avoid this, but the OMP can only handle so many water masses in one run.

c. Lines 207-214: There is no figure supporting what is discussed there, and what is 100% is the mass conservation itself not the residual, the residual should be 10% or 20% (same for line 36-37). Besides, if all the required SWTs are defined and the weighting of the OMP equations is well performed, an error in the mass conservation of 20%, even 10% should not happen.

This part is discussed together with an additional section. Mass residual is inevitable in the central water, even in the paradigm of the OMP founders (see figure below). The reason is also explained in the data and method section. The key properties, for instance CT, of Central Waters are variable. When the CT increases beyond the range of this water mass, the OMP analysis considers the fraction is over 100%, even more than 120%. In the other case, the new OMP calculation has been limited this situation in our manuscript within a small number (~8% of the total samples) of samples and values no more than 105%.



d. There is no discussion about the residuals of the OMP analysis. The residuals of the least square method constrained to non-negative solutions used for an OMP analysis give insights about the reliability of the proposed mixing model, and indicate the quality of the solution.

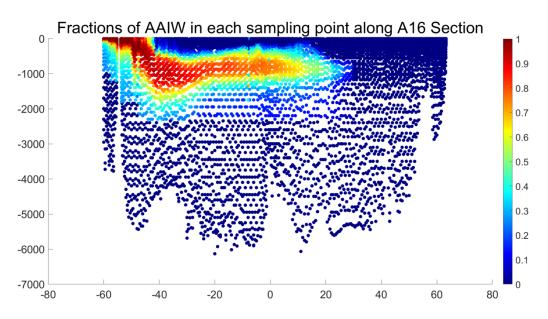
This point is discussed in the same paragraph together with c.

e. Figure 6 shows high percentages of ENACW along the Gulf Stream. That highlights the fact that that water mass is formed in the intergyre region (Pollard et al., 1996) and not close to the Iberian Peninsula. Changing the formation region for ENACW would result in a wider temperature and salinity range for ENACW than the one considered in this work.

Thanks for this helpful suggestion. The formation area is changed to the west according to Pollard et al., 1996. (Figure 5a and Figure 7 left panel), and the property range and distribution of ENACW become wider.

f. Figures 7 (WSACW) and 14 (ISOW) show water masses outside the range they should appear. Fig. 7 shows WSACW below $\sigma_{\theta} = 27.00$ kg m³, which should not appear according to Table 1 (below that density, OMP run #8 should be applied, which does not include WSACW). In Fig. 14, ISOW seems to extend to surface with percentages around 10% (guessing from the color scale), where it is not allowed according to Table 1. These two facts question how the OMP runs were applied to the dataset.

The drawing process of Figure 7 and all the other section plots is divided into two steps. In the first step, OMP analysis is used to calculate the water mass fractions in each sampling point and then splicing together. (The figure below shows an example from A16 section.) In the second step, objmap function in MATLAB is used for interpolation calculation to draw the section plot. Therefore, the reason why WNACW appears below $\sigma \theta = 27.00 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (new boundary is $\gamma = 27.10 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$) is not because of OMP analysis, but the result from the objmap in the interpolation calculations from all the sampling points.



Thanks to the reviewer for pointing out my negligence in my work. I think it is reasonable for about 10-20% of WNACW still to appear on the boundary of $\sigma_{\theta} = 27.00$ kg m⁻³ (new boundary is $\gamma = 27.10$), while it is definitely wrong for ISOW to appear on the surface at any fraction. But this is not the error of OMP analysis, but the vulnerability of the objmap interpolation calculation. Therefore, the calculation method of objmap was adjusted in the new calculation, and such mistake has been avoided.

g. Both reviewers highlighted the fact that some samples are not accounted by any water type, and no change has been made to solve this issue. This is clearly seen in Fig. 2 (previously Fig. 22).

One paragraph is added in the discussion section to explain this point.

3. There is a good explanation on how the regions of water mass formation where selected to determine the SWT properties, but the discussion of the OMP results, i.e., the water mass distributions comparing them against previous works is almost inexistent. If this works wants to stand by itself, it needs a better discussion of the results, presenting what novelties have

been found. Some of the information to discuss with is already in the sections describing the formation regions of the water masses.

The text is reorganized in the new manuscript by adding the results and comparisons to the previous investigations and references.

3) Minor comments:

4. Line 26 and elsewhere: Once the MOW has overflowed the Strait of Gibraltar and has mixed with Atlantic Waters, it is no longer MOW but Mediterranean Water (MW) (see, for example, Carracedo et al., 2016). As in this work the depicted area of formation of MOW west of the Strait of Gibraltar (Fig. 9), please change MOW to MW here and elsewhere.

Accepted, Mediterranean Overflow Water and MOW are changed into Mediterranean Water and MW.

5. Introduction: New information has been added to the introduction, but a careful reorganization and summarization needs to be done in this section. The information is presented in a chaotic order, being some information repeated.

The introduction section has been reorganized.

6. Lines 156-158: This sentence is confusing. Consider rephrasing something like: "Some WMs need more than one SWT to be defined (Tomczak, 1999), for example Central Waters present a linear temperature-salinity relationship that requires two SWTs for a complete description.".

Thanks for the suggestion, the expressions has been changed.

7. There is still a misuse of the terminologies water mass vs. source water type. For example, on lines 162 and 164 it is used the term WM instead of SWT, as it is correctly used on line 176. For an OMP analysis what is defined are the properties of the SWTs and not of the WMs.

Accepted, the distinguish between SWTs and WMs is further clarified in the new version.

8. On lines 189-191 it is stated that the mixed layer was not considered, but on lines 192-194 it is stated that all the Atlantic data present in Glodapv2 was analyzed. That creates confusion, please merge both sentences.

Checked and improved.

9. Line 195: to a reader not familiar with OMP it is not that clear why solving the fractions of 6 SWTs is an excessive number. Please clarify that the number of SWT fractions must be lower than the number of properties defining the SWTs in order to solve an overdetermined system of equations.

Accepted, and an explanation is added after consulting Karstenson, the founder of the OMP method .

10. Lines 241-251: as already pointed out by van Heuven, only key figures should be maintained in the main manuscript and the rest should be placed in the supmat. As a guidance, I would leave one of the figures referred in these lines (Figs. 5, 8, 11, 12, 16 and 17) in the main text as an example and move the others to the supplementary material.

Accepted, and the figure plots are reorganized.

11. Line 318: Salinity should be specified as a dimensionless quantity (Unesco, 1986).

Absolute Salinity (g kg⁻¹) is now used in the new version.

12. Lines 726 and 730: should it be "6-dimensional" and "Six often measured" according to the number of properties defining each SWT?

Accepted and changed.

13. Both reviewers rightly point to the fact samples near 34.8 salinity and -1oC temperature are not represented by the SWTs used in this work. van Heuven and the authors themselves determine that those samples are located in the Norwegian Sea, therefore those samples should not be considered in this work that focusses in the Atlantic Ocean. Therefore, those data points and those of the mix layer that were not being solved by the OMP analysis performed in this work should be removed from Figs. 2, 5, 8, 11, 12, 16, and 17.

These points are now removed from the OMP analysis and additional explanation is added in the end of the discussion section.

14. Figures: Pressure units should be dbar not db.

Accepted and changed.

15. Figure 2: I would recommend adding all the SWTs to the plots, and not only the central points in case of the Central Waters. Adding the two extremes of the TS-relationship would help the reader to know which samples are "enveloped" by the defined SWTs.

Accepted and changed.

16. Figures representing along section properties (Fig. 1) and waters mass distributions (Figs. 7, 8, 10, 14, 15, 19 and 20) will benefit from map insets (as Fig. 3) to avoid the reader to go back and forth to Fig. 2 to know where the section is located. In case such map insets are not added, please state that the cruise tracks are represented in Fig. 2.

Accepted and added.

17. Please, consider changing the color scale of Figs. 1, 3, 6-10, 12-15 and 18-20 to a colorblind-friendly one, such as the ones in the cmocean package: <u>https://github.com/kthyng/cmocean-odv</u>.

The color scale is changed and we hope this time can be seen more clearly, especially the fractions of water masses, which is the main point of this study.

4) References

Carracedo, L.I., Pardo, P.C., Flecha, S., and Pérez, F.F.: On the Mediterranean Water Composition. J Phys Oceanogr., 46, 1339–1358, 2016.

Pollard, R.T., Grifftths, M.J., Cunningham, S.A., Read, J.F., Pérez, F.F., R ós, A.F.: Vivaldi 1991 – a study of the formation, circulation and ventilation of Eastern North Atlantic Central Water. Progress in Oceanography 37, 167–192, 1996.

Unesco: Progress on oceanographic tables and standards 1983–1986: Work and recommendations of the Unesco/SCOR/ICES/IAPSO Joint Panel. Chapter 7.1: Practical Salinity. Unesco Technical Papers in Marine Science 50, p. 9, 1986.

Checked and corrected.

Reply to the comments from Report 2 (Referee #4: Groeskamp, Sjoerd)

This paper is an attempt to provide a very thorough analyses of water masses in the Atlantic Ocean. The authors have clearly done a lot of work, both in analyses, figures and text. Their objective seems to be, to provide some sort of look-up table on Atlantic Water masses that can be used for both physical and biogeochemical community in order to understand the formation and spread of water masses. This in itself is certainly useful, and in that regard, I think this paper is worthy of publication. However, this paper is not ready for publication.

It is not a lack of effort that is the problem. The authors have done a substantial job. It is because it is too much and yet too little. Too much because 1) a lot of the text can be shortened and 2) in the sense that they try and cover a lot of water-masses and therefore have to cover a lot of literature. On the other hand, too little because 1) a lot of the method and the science is not well explained or clearly laid out, and 2) they don't cover all the literature for all the WM because that is perhaps impossible.

So, to me, there are two issues: 1) science, 2) presentation and text. The first requires a lot of work, as explained below. Even to just make this work reproducible by others. The second, I'm not sure what is the best option, but currently I think it may be too long and maybe still incomplete. Overall, I think this paper can be reduced to at least 75% of its current length just by being more precise, concise and to the point. Because this paper is already long, this is important. Some comments are also provided below.

The science

It is unclear which salinity is used. I assume Practical Salinity. These days we do not use potential temperature and "salinity". We use Conservative Temperature and Absolute Salinity. These can easily be obtained using the TEOS-10 gsw software. Please use these or provide clear arguments why you do not use those variables.

Thanks for the suggestion. In the new version, Conservative Temperature (CT) and Absolute Salinity (SA) are used instead of Potential Temperature and Practical Salinity.

Section 2.2 and 2.3. Line 136 to 174. What exactly is the message of all this text? Basically, I read; "it's difficult to define water masses, but Tomczak did a good job and we use his method". If so, I think this can be a lot shorter. This would free up some space to then properly explain the method.

Thanks for the suggestion, the text is now simplified.

You provide one equation (L175), with little explanation. It is not clear where and how source waters are defined and how the related G-matrix would look like and what kind of numbers go into that matrix. Then it is unclear which data go's into d and it is also unclear which method is used to find a minimum for R. Is this a least-squares inversion? If so, have you looked at the sensitivity to choices in the input parameters, such has how water masses are defined, and how much variables are used? Is any weighting used for the solution? These are all unanswered question that are important for reproducibility of the results.

A detailed explanation is added in the manuscript.

L181-184 This paragraph is unclear. Please provide numbers. What are "short" transport times, and how "close" is close enough and how to these numbers influence your results.

A specific number or transport time is difficult to define, in the new manuscript a general range or scale, for instance an oceanic front or basin-wide scale, is given according to Karstensen and Tomczak, (1998).

Section 2.3 and beyond. Nitrate and phosphate seem to have a very similar distribution. Using them both may not add that much information. In line 181-191 you then say you use them to construct a conserved variable. So, are you then using 5 instead of 6 variables? If so, this should be made very clear in the manuscript.

Correct, in the analysis, 5 are used instead of 6, but was not reflected and explained in the previous manuscript. This was a mistake in the work. Run 5 and 7 are now more subdivided in Table 1 and explained in the text in the new manuscript.

Also, for the conclusion section you talk about 7-dimensional space. Is it still if you combined tracers into one? On top of that, what do you do with Oxygen, as that is also non-conservative and, in these lines, you mention this could be a problem.

Accepted, changed to 6.

Because the explanation of L185-L214 is not always clear and the manner by which numbers are obtained is not well explained, I don't understand L207-214. In addition, the authors talk about something in A16 in L208-209, but do not refer to where we can see this.

One additional section is added to give a detailed explanation for the OMP analysis.

You define 4 vertical layers based on surface-referenced potential density. First of all, how is this calculated? Do you use the TEOS-10 software? Second, why surface referenced potential density. This is not accurate beyond 500 meters depth for WM analyses. Please use Neutral Density, which is perhaps the best we currently have.

Thanks for the suggestion, Neutral Density is now used instead of Potential Density.

L261-278 Is this about figure 5 and beyond. It is not clear what the message of this paragraph is and where it belongs. Either remove it or clarify what the purpose is.

The purpose of this paragraph is to clarify some information in Figure 6 and 7 and beyond, including the Expocode, Stations, Sections, and also the source of the information. But this doesn't seem to help much with the topic of the study, and most of the information is available to the reader from the figure legends, so it might be a better choice to remove this paragraph.

The writing and presentation

The authors have provided many figures with a lot of information. A lot of work has been done to do this properly. Still some improvements can be made. Overall, I think that the text needs to be written more concise, precise and to the point and can reduce to 75% of its current length.

Introduction: The authors attempt to write a little bit of history on the subject. It seems incomplete and maybe not necessary to the extend done here. It is partly a matter of style, but partly also a matter of being precise, concise and to the point. So, I think the introduction can shrink at last 25% and still convey the same information. Perhaps consider reading Groeskamp et al 2019, it provides a history on WM analyses and WM transformation.

Thanks for the suggestion, the Introduction section are reorganized and the text has been shortened.

Section 4,5,6,7

Each WM is introduced with some literature background. That is great. However, because so many WMs are considered, this of course requires a lot of literature study. I think the current references are all pretty old and some new insights can be included, from more recent studies. I can give one example of a WM which I'm more familiar with. For AAIW. Consider these papers: Over all

- Saenko, O. A., and A. J. Weaver (2001), Importance of wind-driven sea ice motion for the formation of antarctic intermediate water in a global climate model, Geophys. Res. Lett., 28(21), 4147–4150, doi:10.1029/2001GL013632.
- Sallee, J.-B., K. Speer, S. Rintoul, and S. Wijffels (2010), Southern Ocean thermocline ventilation, J. Phys. Ocean., 40(3), 509–529, doi:10.1175/2009JPO4291.1.
- Nycander, J., M. Hieronymus, and F. Roquet (2015), The nonlinear equation of state of sea water and the global water mass distribution, Geophys. Res. Lett., 42(18), 7714–7721, doi:10.1002/2015GL065525.
- Abernathey, R. P., I. Cerovecki, P. R. Holland, E. Newsom, M. Mazloff, and L. D. Talley (2016), Water-mass transformation by sea ice in the upper branch of the southern ocean overturning, Nat. Geosci., 9, 596–601, doi:10.1038/ngeo2749.
- Groeskamp, S., R. P. Abernathey, A. Klocker (2016), Water Mass Transformation by Cabbeling and Thermobaricity. Geophysical Research Letters

Thanks for the helpful suggestion, and new criteria are redefined in the OMP analysis.

I'm sure such additional work could be done for most WMs considered here. Now I'm not sure how much of this work you need to do to provide a reasonable background. Eventually, I'll leave it up to the authors to decide if the current version is god enough or needs more work on that.

Correct, there is further work to be done on the water masses. In the next step, authors intend to introduce transient tracers (CFCs and SF_6) based on this work. For now, the current work can support the next step and after that, the authors will try to investigate the water masses in a meticulous and deep-going way in order to support the demand of biogeochemistry research.

Line 115-134 can be merged into one brief paragraph half the size. Accepted, and the text is reorganized in the new version of manuscript.

L181 - What is internally consistent? I don't think this is a useful description. The description is reorganized.

L241 – During the narrative of each water mass. What does that mean? Expression changed, during definition of SWTs.

L244 – which colour coding? Explained, all the selected data (blue dots) in Figure 6 and 7.

L256-260 – Good point, but not very clearly explained. Please try again. Accepted, and the explanation is reorganized in the new manuscript.

Figure 2: When Figure 2 is first mentioned in text, SWT is not yet defined. But it is used in the caption. That should be clarified. It is unclear where the colours stand for. Please provide link to abbreviations in caption, they have not been discussed yet. Please provide in caption, the clarification that the middle panel is a zoom of the box in the left panel. The letters in the light blue can't be read.

Correct, the order of the figures has been rearranged and more clear instructions have been added, in addition, the details of the figures have been changed.

A few examples of incomplete, misspelled, or weird sentences. This needs work:

- L181 that the
- L194..
- L211 weird sentence
- Where is section 8?

Checked and corrected.

1	Characteristics of Water Masses in the Atlantic Ocean-based on
2	GLODAPv2 dataset: Characteristics and Distributions
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15 Abstract: The characteristics <u>A large number of the main water masses are presented</u> in the Atlantic 16 Ocean are investigated and defined knowledge of their distributions and properties are important for 17 understanding and monitoring of a range of oceanographic phenomena. The characteristics and 18 distributions of water masses in biogeochemical space are useful for, in particular, chemical and 19 biological oceanography to understand the origin and mixing history of water samples. Here we define 20 the characteristics of the major water masses in the Atlantic Ocean as Source Water Types (SWTs) from 21 their formation areas, and map out their distributions. The SWTs are described by six key properties 22 based ontaken from the biased adjusted data product GLODAPv2-observational data. These include, 23 including both conservative (potentialconservative temperature and absolute salinity) and non-24 conservative (oxygen, silicate, phosphate and nitrate) variables.properties. The distributions of these 25 water masses are investigated with the use of the Optimal Multi-Parameter (OMP) method and mapped 26 out. The Atlantic Ocean is divided into four vertical layers by distinct potentialneutral densities in the 27 shallow and intermediate water column, and additionally by concentration of silicate in the deep 28 waters.and four zonal layers to guide the identification and characterization. The water masses in the 29 upper layer originatesoriginate from winter-time subduction during winter-and are defined as central 30 waters, formed in four distinct areas; East North Atlantic Central water (ENACW), West North Atlantic 31 Central Water (WNACW), East South Atlantic Central Water (ESACW) and West South Atlantic 32 Central Water (WSACW)-Waters. Below the upper layer, the intermediate layer consists of three main water masses; Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW), Subarctic Intermediate Water (SAIW) and 33 34 Mediterranean Overflow Water (MOWMW). The North Atlantic Deep Water (NADW, divided into its upper and lower components) is the dominating water mass in the deep and overflow layer, and is 35 divided into upper and lower NADW based on the different origins and properties. The origin of both 36 37 the upper and lower NADW is the Labrador Sea Water (LSW), the Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water 38 (ISOW) and the Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW). The Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) is the 39 only natural water mass in the bottom layer and this water mass is redefined as North East Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW) in the north of equator due to the change of key properties, especial silicate. 40 41 Similar with NADW, two additional water masses, Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) and Weddell Sea 42 Bottom Water (WSBW), are defined in the Weddell Sea region in order to understand the origin of 43 AABW. The distributions of the main water masses are further investigated with the Optimal Multi-44 Parameter (OMP) method and mapped out with their core potential densities in the Atlantic Ocean. The 45 mass conservation residual is inevitably larger than 100%, especially in the Central Waters, but it doesn't 46 actually affect the determination to the distributions of water masses. The definitions of SWTs and 47 distributions of water masses in biogeochemical space are useful for, in particular, chemical and 48 biological oceanography to understand the origin and mixing history of water samples.

Key Words: Atlantic Ocean, Water Mass, Source Water Types, GLODAP, Optimal-Multi-Parameter
 Analysis

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52	1 Introduction	Formatted: Font: Times
53	Properties of the water in the ocean are not uniformly distributed so that different regions and depths (or	
54	densities) have different characteristics. Bodies of water with similar properties often share a common	
55	formation history and are referred to as a water mass. The ocean is composed a large number of water	Formatted: Font: Times,
56	masses that are not simply piled up on top of, or next to each other, like bricks. In fact, water masses	
57	have nowithout clear boundaries, instead there are but gradual transformation transformations between	Formatted: Font: Times,
58	themeach other, (e.g. Castro et al., 1998), Understanding of the distributions and variations of water	Formatted: Font: Times,
59	masses play is important for Properties of the water in the ocean are not uniformly distributed and the	Formatted: Font: Times,
60	characteristics vary with regions and depths (or densities). The water masses, which are defined as	Formatted: Font: Times, Formatted: Font: Times,
61	bodies of water with similar properties and common formation history, are referred to as a body of water	Formatted: Font: Times,
62	with a measurable extent both in the vertical and horizontal, and thus a quantifiable volume (e.g.	
63	Helland-Hansen, 1916; Montgomery, 1958). Mixing occurs inevitably between water masses, both	
64	along and across density surfaces, and result in mixtures with different properties away from their	
65	formation areas. Understanding of the distributions and variations of water masses have significance to	Formatted: Font: Times,
66	several disciplines of oceanography, for instance while investigating the thermohaline circulation of the	
67	world ocean or predicting climate change (e.g. Haine & Hall, 2002, Tomczak, 1999). Also important is	
68	the concepts(e.g. Haine and Hall, 2002; Tomczak and Godfrey, 2013; Morrison et al., 2015).	
69	The concept of water masses is also important for biogeochemical and biological applications, where	Formatted: Font: Times,
70	the transformations of properties over time can be successfully viewed in the water masses frame-work.	Formatted: Font: Times,
71	For instance, the formation of Denmark Strait Overflow Water in the Denmark Strait could be was	Formatted: Font: Times,
72	described using mixing of a large number of water masses from the Arctic Ocean and the Nordic Seas	Formatted: Font: Times,
73	(Tanhua et al., 2005). In a more recent work, Garcia-Ibanez et al. (2015), (Tanhua et al., 2005). Numbers	
74	of investigations show the significance of knowledge about water masses to the biogeochemical	
75	oceanography, for instance, the investigation of mineralization of biogenic materials (Alvarez et al.,	
76	2014) or the change of ventilation in the Oxygen Minimum Zone (Karstensen et al., 2008). In a more	
77	recent work, Garcia-Ibanez et al. (2015) considered 14 water masses combined with velocity fields to	Formatted: Font: Times,
78	estimate transport of water mass, and thus chemical constituents, in the north Atlantic. Similarly, Jullion	Formatted: Font: Times,
79	et al. (2017) used water mass analysis in the Mediterranean Sea to better understand the dynamics of	Formatted: Font: Times,
80	dissolved Barium. However, the lack of a unified definition of overview water masses on an oceanic or	
81	even global scale leads to an additional and repetitive amount of work by redefining water masses in	
82	specific regions. The goal of this study is to facilitate water mass analysis in the Atlantic Ocean and in	
83	particularly we aim at supporting biogeochemical and biological oceanographic work in a broad sense,	Formatted: Font: Times
84	A water mass is a body of water that originates in a particular area of the ocean with a common formation	
85	history, in other words, seawater from one water mass shares common properties such as temperature,	
86	salinity and biogeochemical properties that are distinct from surrounding bodies of water (e.g.	
87	Montgomery, 1958, Helland-Hansen, 1916)-and have a measurable extent both in the vertical and	

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horizontal, and thus a quantifiable volume. Since each water mass is surrounded by other water masses, 88 89 mixing occurs inevitably between, them both along and across density surfaces. As a result, mixtures of 90 water masses with different properties tend to be found away from their formation areas. Early work by Jacobson (1927) and Defant (1929) clarified the application of T-S relationship in the oceanography, 91 92 and Wüst and Defant (1936) illustrated the stratification and circulation of water masses in the Atlantic Ocean based on the observational data from Meteor Cruise 1925 1927. Since the first publication of 93 global distributions of water masses (Sverdrup, 1942), early studies on water masses are mainly based 94 95 on potential temperature (θ) and salinity (S). Emery and Meincke (1986) made a summary and review 96 on this kind of analysis. The limitation of this method is that distribution of more (more than three) water 97 masses cannot be calculated at the same time with only these two parameters. So during the same time 98 as the development of this theory, physical and chemical oceanographers also tried to add more 99 parameters to the calculation and the Optimum Multi parameter (OMP) analysis is one of the typical 100 products (Poole & Tomczak, 1999). This concept of water masses has been redefined over time, and in 101 Emery and Meincke (1986) the water masses were divided into upper, intermediate and deep/abyssal 102 layers based on the depth and the T-S relationship. With the development of observational capacities for 103 a range of variables and the data base to evaluate them, definition of water masses is not limited to the 104 T.S.P. relationship. Additional physical and chemical properties, both conservative and non-105 conservative, are added to the water mass concept (e.g. Tomczak, 1981). These additional variables 106 exhibit different importance in defining different water masses, but are complementary to each other and provide a more solid basis for water mass definitions. Based on research during last several decades, 107 108 Tomczak (1999) summarized the history of the water mass research and provided an outlook for the 109 evolution of water mass research. Tomczak (1981) extended the analysis into more than three water 110 masses by adding more parameters/water properties (such as phosphate and silicate) and solving the 111 equations of linear mixing without assumptions. In Tomczak and Large (1989), this method was 112 successfully applied to the analysis of mixing in the thermocline in Eastern Indian Ocean. Accurate definition and characterization of water masses is the first step for performing any further 113 114 analysis, such as the Optimum Multi-parameter (OMP) analysis (Tomczak & Large, 1989). In this study, 115 the concepts and definitions of water masses as given by Tomczak (1999) are used and we aim at 116 defining the properties of the main water masses in the Atlantic Ocean, and to view the distribution of 117 the water masses. In order to facilitate the water mass analysis, the Atlantic data from the data product 118 GLODAPv2 (Lauvset et al., 2016) are used to identify and define the properties for the most prominent 119 water masses in the Atlantic Ocean based on 6 commonly measured physical and biogeochemical 120 variables (Figure 1). The goal of this work is to facilitate water mass analysis and in particularly we 121 aim at supporting biogeochemical and biological oceanographic work in a broad sense. The water 122 masses in this study are defined in a static sense, i.e. they are assumed to be steady and do not change 123 with time, and that our analysis is relatively coarse in that we do not consider subtle differences between 124 closely related water masses but rather paint the picture with a rather broad brush. Studies looking at

125	temporal variability of water masses, or water mass formation processes in detail, for instance, may find	
126	this study useful but will certainly want to use a more granular approach to water mass analysis in their	
127	particular area. The definitions of water masses are further used to estimate the distributions of the water	
128	masses representative sections/eruises in the Atlantic Ocean based on the GLODAPv2 dataset.	
129	In Figure 2, an overview of the water masses considered in this study is shown in a Salinity Temperature	
130	plot where the water masses from the different layers are plotted in different colors. It is obvious that a	
131	series of additional variables other than temperature and salinity is helpful, if not necessary, to reliable	
132	distinguish different water masses from each other, and to calculate the fractions of water masses in a	
133	water sample with a particular characteristic.	
134	Understanding the formation, transformation, and circulation of water masses has been a research topic	
135	in oceanography since the 1920s (e.g. Jacobsen, 1927; Defant, 1929; Wüst and Defant, 1936; Sverdrup,	
136	1942 etc.). The early studies were mainly based on (potential) temperature and (practical) salinity as	
137	summarized by Emery and Meincke (1986). The limitation of the analysis based on T-S relationship	
138	is obvious; distributions of more (than three) water masses cannot be analyzed at the same time with	
139	only these two parameters, so physical and chemical oceanographers has worked to add more parameters	
140	to the characterization of water masses (e.g. Tomczak and Large, 1989; Tomczak, 1981; 1999). The	
141	Optimum Multi-parameter (OMP) method extends the analysis so that more water masses can be	
142	considered by adding parameters/water properties (such as phosphate and silicate) and solving the	
143	equations of linear mixing without assumptions. The OMP analysis has been successfully applied in a	
144	range of studies, for instance for the analysis of mixing in the thermocline in Eastern Indian Ocean	
145	(Poole and Tomczak, 1999).	
146	An accurate definition and characterization is the prerequisite for the analysis of water masses. In this	
147	study, the concepts and definitions of water masses given by Tomczak (1999) are used and we seek to	
148	define the key properties of main water masses in the Atlantic Ocean and further to view their	
149	distributions. In order to facilitate the analysis, the data product GLODAPv2 is used to identify and	
150	define the characteristics of the most prominent water masses based on 6 commonly measured physical	
151	and biogeochemical properties (Figure 1). The water masses are defined in a static sense, i.e. they are	
152	assumed to be steady and do not change with time and subtle differences between closely related water	
153	masses are not considered in this basin-scale focus study. The definitions of water masses are in a	
154	subsequent step used to estimate their distributions in the Atlantic Ocean, again based on the	
155	GLODAPv2 data product. Detailed investigations on temporal variability of water masses, or their	
156	detailed formation processes, for instance, may find this study useful but will certainly want to use a	
157	more granular approach to water mass analysis in their particular areas.	
158	2 Data and Methods	
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159 2.1 The GLODAPv2 datasetdata product

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160	MarineOceanographic surveys fromconducted by different countries have been actively organized and	_
161	coordinated since late 1950s. WOCE (the World Ocean Circulation Experiment), JGOFS (Joint Global	_
162	Ocean Flux Study) and OACES (Ocean Atmosphere Carbon Exchange Study) are the three typical	
163	representatives of international coordination in the 1990s. The GLODAP (Global Ocean Data Analysis	
164	Project) data product was devised and implemented in this context with the aim to create a global dataset	
165	suitable to describe the distribution and interior ocean inorganic carbon variables (Key et al., 2004).(Key	
166	et al., 2004; 2010), The first edition (GLODAPv1.1) contains data up to 1999 whereas the updated and	
167	expanded versions GLODAPv2 (Key et al., 2015; Olsen et al., 2016 and Key et al., 2015) was published	_
168	in 2016 and the GLODAP team is-now striving for annual updates (Olsen et al., 2019)-: 2020). Since	
169	GLODAPv2 is thus a comprehensive and, more importantly, biased adjusted data product that includes	\square
170	relatively complete data and with an almost global coverage.	\mathbb{N}
171	In, this work we use the GLODAPv2 data product (Olsen et al., 2016) is used to quantify the	
172	characteristics of water masses, since this product is, The data in the GLODAPv2 product has passed	\nearrow
173	both a primary quality control (QC), aiming at precision of the data and unify the units, and a secondary	\nearrow
174	data quality control, aiming at the accuracy of the data (Olsen et al., 2016; 2019). The GLODAPv2 data	
175	product is thus adjusted to correct for any biases in data. Through these QC routines, the GLODAPv2	
176	product is unique in its internal consistency, and is thus an ideal product to use for this work aiming at	
177	definitions of major water masses and source water types in the Atlantic Ocean.(Tanhua et al., 2010).	
178	The GLODAPv2 data product is adjusted to correct for any biases in data through these QC routines	
179	and is unique in its internal consistency, and is thus an ideal product to use for this work aiming Armed	
180	with the internally consistent data in GLODAPv2, we utilize previously published studies on water	
181	masses and their formation areas to define areas and depth-//density ranges that can be considered to be	
182	representative samples of a water masses,	
183	The variables of absolute salinity (SA in g kg ⁻¹), conservative temperature (CT in °C) and neutral density	
184	(γ in kg m ⁻³), which consider the thermodynamic properties such as entropy, enthalpy and chemical	
185	potential (Jackett et al., 2006; Groeskamp et al., 2016), are used in this study because they systematically	
186	reflects the spatial variation of seawater composition in the ocean, as well as the impact from dissolved	
187	neutral species on the density and provides a more conservative, actual and accurate description of	
188	seawater properties (Millero et al., 2008; Pawlowicz et al., 2011; Nycander et al., 2015).	
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189 2.2 Water Masses (WMs) and Source Water Types (SWTs)

190 In practice, defining properties of water masses (WMs) is often a difficult and time-consuming part,

particularly when analyzing data from water masses in a region distant from their formation areas. An
 excellent discussion of water masses is found in Tomczak (1999), and we refer to this work for a more

- 193 in depth discussion. Tomczak (1999) defines ") defined a water mass as "a body of water with a common
- 194 formation history, having its originand origins in a particular region of the ocean". Tomczak (1999)
- 195 continues: "Water masses are physical entities with a measurable volume and therefore occupy a finite

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196 volume in the ocean. In their formation region they have exclusive occupation of a particular part of the

197 ocean; elsewhere they share the ocean with other water masses with which they mix. The total volume

198 of a water mass is given by the sum of all its elements regardless of their location."

199 Tomezak (1999) also introduces the concept of <u>"whereas Source Water Types (SWTs). The SWTs</u>

200 describe "the original properties of water masses in their formation areas, and can thus be considered as 201 the original characteristics of water masses and are also indispensable in labeling distributions of water 202 masses (Tomczak, 1999). One difference". The distinction between the WMWMs and SWT 203 concepts<u>SWTs</u> is that water masses<u>WMs</u> define a physical extentextents, i.e. a volume, while SWTs are 204 only mathematical definitions, i.e. SWTs are defined values of properties, or values, without physical 205 extents. In other words, water masses, as an objective existence in the ocean, have their temporal and 206 spatial distributions, while SWTs, as an artificial definition, are only a concept of values. Knowledge of 207 the SWTs. on the other hand, is essential in labeling water masses WMs, tracking their spreading or mixing progresses, since thesethe values from SWTs describe thetheir initial characteristics of water 208 209 masses. Or rather, the SWTs can and can be considered as the fingerprints of water masses and all the 210 water masses can still be identified by their own SWTs, even when they spread distance away from their 211 formation areas. The SWT of a water mass can be defined by several numbers and each number shows 212 one key property (WMs. The SWT of a WM is defined by the values of key properties, while some of 213 them, like Central Water covers a range between two numbers) by quantifying the concentration 214 (Tomczak, 1999). Waters, require more than one SWT to be defined (Tomczak, 1999). In this study-we 215 will use, the terminology "water mass" is used in the discussions, realizing that the properties of the 216 water masses WMs used for the water mass further analysis really actually refer to sea water types. SWTs.

217 2.3 OMP Analysis

218 2.3.1 Principle of OMP Analysis

219 For the analysis-in this study we used, six key properties are used to define water masses. Those 220 include<u>SWTs, including</u> two conservative properties (potential (conservative temperature and absolute 221 salinity) and four non-conservative (oxygen, silicate, phosphate and nitrate) properties-to-define the water masses. In order to determine the distribution of water masses, distributions of WMs, the OMP 222 223 analysis is invoked as objective mathematical formulations of the influence of mixing is used. As a 224 summary(Karstensen and practical use of Tomczak, 1997; 1998). The starting point is the above results, 225 the OMP analysis was developed and successfully applied in the analysis of water masses in specific 226 regions (e.g. Karstensen & Tomczak, 1998, Karstensen & Tomczak, 1997). Observed properties 6 key 227 properties (Figure 1) from a water sample are compared with observational sampling (such as CTobs is 228 the observational conservative temperature). The OMP model determines the contributions from 229 predefined SWTs (such as CT_i shows the properties of conservative temperature in each "pure" water 230 masses to quantifySWT), which represent the mix of water masses that constitutes a water sample. The 231 theory and formulas in values of the OMP analysis are described in detail in Tomczak and Large (1989)

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232	and the website http://omp.geomar.de/. Here we make a brief introduction to the OMP calculation that
233	relates directly to our research. OMP analysis is based on a simple model of "unmixed" WMs in
234	formation areas, through a linear set of following mixing equations, assuming that all key properties of
235	water masses are affected by the same mixing process, and then to determine the distribution and of
236	water masses through the following linear equation processes. The fractions (x_i) in each sampling point
237	are obtained by finding the best linear mixing combination in parameter space defined by 6 key
238	properties and minimizing the residuals (R, such as R _{CT} is the residual of conservative temperature) in
239	a nonnegative least squares sense (Lawson and Hanson, 1974) as shown in the following equations:

- 240 $\mathbf{Gx}_{\underline{x}_1}\underline{CT_1 + x_2}\underline{CT_2 + \cdots + x_n}\underline{CT_n = CT_{obs} + R_{CT}}$
- 241 $\underline{x_1SA_1 + x_2SA_2 + \cdots + x_nSA_n = SA_{obs} + R_{SA}}$
- 242 $\underline{x_1O_1 + x_2O_2} + \cdots + \underline{x_nO_n} = \underline{O_{obs}} + \underline{R_O}$
- 243 $\underline{x_1}\underline{Si_1 + x_2}\underline{Si_2 + \cdots + x_n}\underline{Si_n} = \underline{Si_{obs} + R_{Si}}$
- 244 $\underline{x_1Ph_1 + x_2Ph_2 + \cdots + x_nPh_n} = \underline{Ph_{obs} + R_{Ph}}$
- $245 \qquad \underline{x_1}\underline{N_1} + \underline{x_2}\underline{N_2} + \cdots + \underline{x_n}\underline{N_n} = \underline{N_{obs}} + \underline{R_N}$
- 246 $x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n = 1 + R$
- 247 Where the CT_{obs}, SA_{obs}, O_{obs}, Si_{obs}, Ph_{obs} and N_{obs} are the observed values of properties, the CT_i, SA_i, O_i,
- 248 $\underline{Si_i}$, $\underline{Ph_i}$ and $\underline{N_i}$ ($i = 1, 2 \cdots, n$) represent the predetermined (known) values in each SWT for each property.
- 249 <u>The last row expresses the condition of mass conservation.</u>

From the mathematics, the OMP analysis is an inversion of an overdetermined system in each sampling point, so that the sampling points are required to be located "downstream" from the formation areas, i.e. on the spreading pathway of the transport. The total number of WMs which can be analyzed simultaneously within one OMP run is limited by the number of variables/key properties, because mathematically, 6 variables $(x_1 - x_6)$ can be solved with 6 equations. i.e. In our analysis, one OMP run can burden up to 6 WMs and the total number of WMs (n) should not be larger than 6. The above system of equations can be written in matrix notation as:

 $257 \quad \underline{\mathbf{G} \cdot \mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{d} = \mathbf{R};$

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Where G is a parameter matrix of defined source water types (SWTs with 6 key properties in this study);
x is a vector containing the relative contributions offrom the "unmixed" water typesmasses to the sample
(i.e. solution vector of the source water typeSWT fractions), d is a data vector of water samples
(observational data from GLODAPv2 in this study) and R is a vector of residual. The solution is to find
out the minimum the residual (R) with linear fit of parameters (key properties) for each data point with

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263	a non-negative values. In this study, the mixed layer is not considered as its properties tend to be strongly			
264	variable on seasonal time-scales so that water mass analysis is inapplicable,	F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
265	Prerequisites 2.3.2 Extended OMP Analysis			
266	The prerequisite (or restrictionsrestriction) for using (basic) OMP analysis is that hethe water masses	(F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
267	are defined formed closely enough to the observational water samples with short transport times within	F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
268	a limited ocean region, for instance an oceanic front or intertidal belt, so that the mixing can be assumed	$ \land \succ $		Times, Font color: Auto
269	not influenced by biogeochemical processes (i.e. consider all the parameters as quasi-conservative).	\searrow		Times, Font color: Auto Times, Font color: Auto
270	However, the biogeochemical process cannot be ignored in a basin-scale analysis (Karstensen and			Times, Font color: Auto
271	Tomczak, 1998). Obviously, this prerequisite does not apply to our investigation for the entire Atlantic	2		Times, Font color: Auto
272	scale, so we use the "extended" OMP" analysis is required. In this concept, non-conservative parameters	2		Times, Font color: Auto
273	(phosphate and nitrate) are converted into conservative parameters by introducing the ""preformed"	$\sim \succ$		Times, Font color: Auto
		\\ F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
274	nutrients PO and NO, where PO and NO show <u>denotes</u> the concentrations of phosphate and nitrate in	\\ F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
275	seawater by considering the consumption of dissolved oxygen from respiration (in other words, the	\\\[F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
276	alteration due to respiration is eliminated) (Karstensen & Tomczak, 1998, Broecker, 1974). In this study,	$\backslash \backslash \succ$		Times, Font color: Auto
277	the mixed layer is not considered as its properties tend to be strongly variable on seasonal time scales			Times, Font color: Auto
278	so that water mass analysis is inapplicable. (Broecker, 1974; Karstensen and Tomczak, 1998). In addition,	Ŀ	-ormatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
279	a new column should be added to the equations for non-conservative properties $(a\Delta O_2, a\Delta Si, a\Delta Ph and$			
280	$\underline{a\Delta N}$ to express the changes in SWTs due to biogeochemical impacts, namely, the change of oxygen			
281	concentration with the remineralization of nutrients;	F	Formatted: Font:	Times, Font color: Auto
282	In order to map all the distribution of water masses in the Atlantic, all the GLODAPv2 data in the			
283	Atlantic Ocean are analyzed with the OMP method by using 6 key properties from each water sample			
284	(potential temperature, salinity, oxygen, silicate, phosphate and nitrate) Considering all the 16 main			
285	water masses in the Atlantic Ocean and to avoid excessive (more than 6) water masses in each OMP			
286	run, the Atlantic Ocean is artificially divided into different (total 13) OMP runs to remove water masses			
287	that are not likely to appear in the area. In the vertical, the 4 layer segmentation is based on potential			
288	density as well as silicate in the deep water. In the horizontal direction, the division lines are 40°N, the			
289	equator and 50°S. The area south of 50°S is treated as one area independent of density. Run 5 and run 7			
290	are further divided into upper and lower boxes, due to the Central Waters, which cover two			
291	SWTs/boundaries in one OMP run. In this way, we end up with a set of 13 different OMP formulations			
292	that are used for estimating the fraction of water masses in each water sample. The density and the			
293	latitude of the water sample are thus used to determine which OMP should be applied (see Table			
294	$\frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1 CT_1 + x_2 CT_2 + \dots + x_n CT_n}{2} = CT_{obs} + R_{CT}$			
295	$\underline{x_1SA_1 + x_2SA_2 + \dots + x_nSA_n} = \underline{SA_{obs} + R_{SA}}$			
296	$\underline{x_1O_1} + \underline{x_2O_2} + \cdots + \underline{x_nO_n} - \underline{a\Delta O_2} = \underline{O_{obs}} + \underline{R_0}$			
297	$\frac{x_1Si_1 + x_2Si_2 + \cdots + x_nSi_n + a\Delta Si}{52}$			

298 $\underline{x_1Ph_1 + x_2Ph_2 + \dots + x_nPh_n + a\Delta Ph = Ph_{obs} + R_{Ph}}$

299 $\underline{\mathbf{x}_1}\underline{\mathbf{N}_1} + \underline{\mathbf{x}_2}\underline{\mathbf{N}_2} + \cdots + \underline{\mathbf{x}_n}\underline{\mathbf{N}_n} + \underline{\mathbf{a}}\Delta\mathbf{N} = \underline{\mathbf{N}}_{obs} + \underline{\mathbf{R}}_{N}$

300 $\underline{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n} = 1 + R$

As a result, the number of water masses should be further reduced in one OMP run if the biogeochemical
 processes are considered and extended OMP analysis is used. In this study, a total number of 5 water
 masses are included in each run.

304 2.3.3 Presence of mass residual

The fractions of WMs in each sample are obtained by finding the best linear mixing combination in parameter space defined by 6 key properties which minimizes the residuals (R) in a non-negative least squares sense. Note that all water masses are present in more than one OMP so that reasonable (i.e. realistic) transitions between the different areas can be realized. However, it is unavoidable that there will occasionally be step like features across the vertical and horizontal boundaries defined in Table 1.

310 Ideally, a value of 100% is expected when the fractions of all the water masses are added together, but 311 in fact. However, the mass residual, which means a total value of more than 100% are found for several 312 samples. i.e. the mass conservation residual is larger than 100% for instance along the A16 Section%, 313 is inevitable during the analysis. There are two different cases. The first is that one single water mass is 314 larger than 100% and other water masses are all 0%. This mostly happens in the Central Waters, $(\gamma < \gamma)$ 315 27.10 kg m⁻³, Figure 2). The reason is that the key properties, for instance CT, of Central Water itself is 316 Waters are variable. in When the CT increases beyond the range of this water mass, the OMP analysis 317 considers the fraction is over 100%. In this case, all such samples are considered to be 100%-% after 318 confirming the absence of any other water mass. The second case is that none of each single water mass 319 is more than 100-percent,%, but the total fraction is more than 100-percent% when added together. In 320 our analysisthis study, the total fraction is mostly fractions are generally less than 105% ($\gamma > 27.10$ kg 321 m⁻³, Figure 2).

322 In order to map the distributions of water masses, all GLODAPv2 data in the Atlantic Ocean (below-323 110% the mixed layer) are analyzed with the OMP method by using 6 key properties. In order to solve 324 the contradiction between the limitation of water masses in one OMP run (no more than 5, see Section 325 2.3.2) and the total number of 16 water masses (Figure 3), the Atlantic Ocean is divided into 17 regions 326 (Table 1) and each with its own OMP run, by only including water masses that are likely to appear in 327 the area. In the vertical, neutral density intervals are used to separate boxes. In the horizontal direction, 328 the division lines are 40 °N, the equator and 50°S where the area south of 50 °S is one region, 329 independent of density, and additional divisions are set between equator and 40 °N (y at 26.70 and 27.30 330 kg m⁻³, latitude of 30 °N, Table 1). In this way, we end up with a set of 17 different OMP formulations Formatted: Normal, Space Before: 12 pt, Don't adjust space between Latin and Asian text, Don't adjust space between Asian text and numbers, Pattern: Clear 331 that are used for estimating the fraction(s) of water masses in each water sample. The neutral density

and the latitude of the water sample are thus used to determine which OMP should be applied (Table 1).

333 Note that all water masses are present in more than one OMP so that reasonable (i.e. few are more than

334 <u>120%.smooth) transitions between the different areas can be realized.</u>

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335 **3** Overview of the water masses in the Atlantic Ocean and the Criteria of Selection

336 In line with the -results from Emery and Meincke (1986) and from our interpretation of the observational

337 data from GLODAPv2, the water masses in the Atlantic Ocean are considered to be distributed in four main isopyncal (vertical) layers (Figure 3)-separated by surfaces of equal (neutral) density- (Figure 4). 338 339 The Upper Layer is the upper (shallowest) layer with lowest potential neutral density under consideration 340 and is located within upper $\simeq 500 - 1000 \text{ m}$ of the water column (below the mixed layer, σ_{σ} and 341 $\chi < 27.0010$ kg/m³ m⁻³). The Intermediate Layer intermediate layer is located between ~1000 to 342 $\frac{1500}{2000m}$ (σ_{H} and $\frac{2000 \text{ m}}{2}$ (γ between 27.0010 and 27.7090 kg/m³ m⁻³). The <u>Deepdeep</u> and 343 Overflow overflow layer occupies the layer roughly between ~2000–4000m (σ_{rry} between 27.7090 and 344 27.8828.10 kg/m³, although the boundary between deep and bottom layer south of equator is silicate 345 concentration less than 80 µmol/kg rather than potential density m⁻³) whereas the Bottom Layerbottom 346 layer is the deepest layer below the deep layer and mostly located below ~4000 meters depth. m 347 $(\gamma > 28.10 \text{ kg m}^{-3}).$ 348 In this section, To identify the main water masses in the Atlantic Ocean are identified in each of the four 349

In this section, To identify the main water masses in the Atlantic Ocean-are identified in each of the four layers. In Table 2, the determination of their formation areas is the first step (Figure 5) and then the selection criteria are listed to define SWTs inbased on the T—S distribution, pressure (P), potential temperature (θ) or neutral density (σ_{θ}) space. γ) (Table 2), For some SWTs, keyadditional properties such as absolute salinity; (SA), oxygen or silicate are necessary in addition to S, θ and P in order to define also required for the water masses. These definition. With these criteria, which are taken from the literature and are used to align with previous workalso based on definingdata from GLODAPv2 product, the SWTs of all the main water masses. With these criteria we can narrow down the distribution of properties for each water masse be defined for further estimating their distributions in the Atlantic Ocean by using OMP analysis.

For the water masses in the upper layer, i.e. the central waters, an additional step is necessary; to the 358 359 Central Waters, properties cover a "wide" range instead of a "narrow" point value due to their variations, 360 especially in temperature (CT) and salinity (SA). i.e. The Central Waters are labeled by two SWTs to 361 identify the upper and lower boundaries of properties (Karstenson and Tomczak, 1997; 1998). In order 362 to determine the distribution ranges of each parameter since these water masses occupy the thermoeline 363 and typically cover a wide range for all properties. Here we follow the method developed by (Karstensen 364 and Tomczak, 1997; 1998). One parameter (for instance potential temperature) two SWTs, one property 365 is taken as a benchmark (neutral density in this investigation) and the relationships between other 366 parametersto the others are plotted to make a linear fit and finally to find out the ranges of all parameters

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367 the two endpoints are selected as the criteria of selection. In our investigation, potential density is τ

368 as the benchmark (Figure 4) instead of potential temperature since density plays a more significant role

in the vertical stratification. This way we define a range for the variable within each water mass. <u>SWTs</u>
 to label Central Waters (Figure 6),

371 During the narrativedetermination of each water mass we display fourSWT, two figures are displayed 372 to characterize them. 1) Maps where all GLODAPv2 station locations are marked as light gray dots, 373 including a) Depth profiles of the 6 key properties under consideration (same color coding), and stations 374 within the area of formation that we consider are marked in red and stations with anyb) Bar plots from 375 the distributions of the samples within the desired properties as defined by Table 2 in blue. 2) The T S relationship with the same color coding. 3) Depth profiles of the 6 variables under consideration (same 376 377 color coding), and 4) Bar plots of the distribution of the samples within the criteriacriteria (the blue dots 378 in Figure 6 and 7) for a SWT. In the bar plot, with a Gaussian curve is added to show the statistic results 379 (the mean value and standard deviation) to the selected data (blue dots), and the amplitude of the curve 380 is set to be 2/3 of the highest bar-statistics (Figure 7), The plots of properties vs pressure provides an 381 intuitive understanding of each SWT compared to othersother WMs in the same region. The 382 distributions of properties distribution and with the Gaussian eurve will be helpfulcurves are the basis 383 to visually determine and confirm the SWT property values and associated standard deviationdeviations. 384 Most water masses maintain their original characteristics from thetheir, formation areas. However, it 385 issome are worthy to mention that there are also some water masses, especially in the deep and bottom 386 layer, which are be mentioned as products from mixing of several original water masses (for instance, 387 North Atlantic Deep Water is the product from Labrador Sea Water, Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water 388 and Denmark Strait Overflow Water). Also, characteristics of some water masses changes sharply during their pathways (for instancenamely, the sharp drop silicate concentration of Antarctic Bottom 389 390 Water after passing the equator). As a result, it is useful necessary to redefine these water masses, their 391 SWTs, In order to distinguish such water masses from the other original water masses, theones, their, 392 defined specific areas are mentioned as "redefining" areas instead of formation areas, because these 393 water masses, strictly speaking, they are not "formed" in these areas. 394 In this section, the horizontal (map views) and vertical (sections) distributions of the main water masses

395 are also displayed. On the maps of horizontal view, fractions of water masses are plotted at each station 396 with the interpolated format at their core densities. In order to avoid large interpolation errors, a station 397 is considered as without data and plotted as grey rather than colored dots if there is no data within ± 0.1 398 kg/m³ from core density. To exemplify the vertical distribution of the water masses, sections from five 399 selected WOCE/GO SHIP cruises, which together provide a reasonable representation of the Atlantic 400 Ocean, are displayed (Figure 2 right panel). The A16 section, covering the full north south extend of the 401 Atlantic Ocean (Expocodes: 33RO20130803 & 33RO20131223), shows the meridional overview of all 402 the main water masses. The A03 (Expocode: 74AB20050501) and A10 (Expocode: 33RO20110906)

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403 sections displays the zonal distribution of the water masses in the North (A03) and South (A10) Atlantic 404 separately. The A25 (Expocode: 06MM20060523) section is located at a relative higher latitude region 405 compared to the A03 section and better represent the deep and overflow waters in particular. From this cruise, we focus on the investigation of LSW, ISOW and DSOW, with the purpose to show the origin 406 407 of upper and lower NADW. The SR04 (Expocode: 06AQ20101128) is a section in the Antarctic region 408 near Weddell Sea with certain significance to show the origin and formation of AABW. We also show 409 a rough overview figure illustrating the main currents in that density layer, and with the main formation 410 region of each water mass indicated as striped boxes.

411 **4** The Upper Layer, Central Waters

The Upper Layerupper layer_is occupied by four water masses called Central Waters that are known to be formed by winter subduction. Central Waters have with upper and lower boundaries instead of point values. Inproperties. Statistics are done for all the figures, values between boundaries are and statistics are done to calculate the meanmeans and standard deviations and plotted as the other deep water masses. However, in the further OMP analysis, all the values between the boundaries are considered as Central Waters, that means each Central Water (Figure 7 and Figure 1—4 in Supplement) and occupies two "positions" SWTs in selected one OMP analysis. run.

419 Central Waters can be easily recognized by their linear T-S relationships (Pollard et al., 1996, 420 Stramma & England, 1999)-(Pollard et al., 1996; Stramma and England, 1999), In this study, the Upper 421 Layerupper layer is defined to be located above the potential neutral density isoline of 27.010 kg/m³ m⁻³ 422 (below the mixed layer). The formation formations and transports of the Central Water is Waters 423 are influenced by the currents in this the upper layer and finally forms a form relative distinct body bodies 424 of water in both the horizontal and vertical-directions (Figure 8), The concept of Mode Water is a similar 425 definition in the Upper Layer but-referred to as the sub-regions of Central Water, which describes the 426 particularly uniform properties of seawater within the upper layer and more refers to the physical 427 properties (e.g. such as: T-S relationship and potential vorticity), so-). In this study, the unified name 428 "Central Water", which more refers to the biogeochemical properties, (Cianca et al., 2009; Alvarez 429 et al., 2014), is used in our study, to avoid possible confusions-(Cianca et al., 2009, Alvarez et al., 2014),

430 **4.1** Eastern North Atlantic Central Water (ENACW)

The main upper layer water mass in the region east of the Mid Atlantic Ridge (MAR) is the East North
Atlantic Central Water (ENACW, (Harvey, 1982). This water mass is formed during winter and is
subducted in the seas west of Iberian Penisular. One component of the Subpolar Mode Water (SPMW)
is carried south and contributes to the properties of ENACW (McCartney & Talley, 1982). In Figure 5,
the linear T S distribution of ENACW can be clearly seen, consistent with Pollard et al. (1996) and the
definition of ENACW₁₂ in Garcia Ibanez et al. (2015). In Garcia Ibanez et al. (2015), there is another
definition ENACW₁₆, but water samples show a discrete distribution warmer than 16 °C by GLODAPv2

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data set in this region, so also samples with potential temperature below 16 °C are selected in this study. 438 439 As shown in Figure 5, ENACW dominates the upper 500m depth. The main character of ENACW is the 440 large potential temperature and salinity ranges and low nutrients (especially low in silicate). The work 441 of Pollard et al. (1996) constitutes the main theoretical basis of our analysi. The region limited by 442 latitudes between 39 and 48 °N and longitudes between 15 and 25 °E (east of Mid-Atlantic-Ridge), is consider as the formation area of ENACW. Based on the work of Pollard and Pu (1985), potential density, 443 $\sigma_{g} = 26.50 \text{ kg/m}^3$ as higher boundary and $\sigma_{g} = 27.30 \text{ kg/m}^3$ are selected as the lower boundary to define 444 ENACW. 445

446 4.2 Western North Atlantic Central Water (WNACW)

447 Western North Atlantic Central Water (WNACW) is another water mass formed through winter 448 subduction (McCartney & Talley, 1982, Worthington, 1959). WNACW is formed at the southern flank 449 of the Gulf Stream (Klein & Hogg, 1996) and is in some literatures referred to as 18° water since a potential temperature of around 18 °C is one significant feature of this water mass-(Talley & Raymer, 450 451 1982). In general, seawater in the Northeast Atlantic has higher salinity than in the Northwest Atlantic 452 due to the stronger winter convection (Pollard & Pu, 1985) and input of MOW (Pollard et al., 1996, 453 Prieto et al., 2015). However, for the central waters, the situation is the opposite. WNACW has a 454 significantly higher salinity than ENACW by 0.9 PSU units. In this study, we follow McCartney and 455 Talley (1982) and consider the region 24-37°N, 50-70°W as the formation area and pressure less than 456 1000 m. By defining the depth of WNACW, water samples show a discrete T S distribution with 457 potential densities lower than 26.30 or larger than 26.60 kg/m². Besides the potential density constraint, 458 the constraint is added that concentrations of phosphate lower than 0.3 and silicate lower than 3 µmol 459 kg⁻¹. The properties of WNACW are shown in Figure 5. Besides the linear T S relationship, a feature of 460 all central waters, another feature of this water mass is, as the alternative name suggests, a potential 461 temperature around18 °C. This is the warmest of the four STWs in the Atlantic Ocean since it has the 462 lowest latitude of formation and is influenced by the high salinity Gulf Stream during formation. Low 463 nutrients, including silicate, phosphate and nitrate are other features compared to other central waters 464 that generally are low in nutrients compared to deeper water masses 465 4.3 The main Central Water in the region east of the Mid-Atlantic-Ridge (MAR) is the East North 466 Atlantic Central Water (ENACW, Harvey, 1982). This water mass is formed in the inter-gyre region

during the winter subduction (Pollard and Pu, 1985). One component of the Subpolar Mode Water
(SPMW) is carried south and contributes to the properties of ENACW (McCartney and Talley, 1982).
The inter-gyre region limited by latitudes between 39 and 48 °N and longitudes between 20 and 35 °W
(Pollard et al., 1996) is considered as the formation area of ENACW (Figure 5). Neutral densities of
26.50 and 27.30 kg m⁻³ are selected as the upper and lower boundaries to define the SWT of ENACW
(Cianca et al., 2009; Prieto et al., 2015), which is also in contrast to Garcia-Ibanez et al. (2015) that used
potential temperature (θ) as the upper limit. The core of ENACW is located within the upper 500 m

473 potential temperature (0) as the

474 depth (Figure 7, a) with the iconic linear T-S relationship (Figure 6, b) consistent with Pollard et al.

475 (1996). The main character of ENACW is the large ranges of temperature (CT) and salinity (SA) and

476 <u>low nutrient concentrations, especially silicate (Figure 7, b).</u>

477 <u>4.2 Western North Atlantic Central Water (WNACW)</u>

478 Western North Atlantic Central Water (WNACW) is another water mass formed through winter 479 subduction (Worthington, 1959; McCartney and Talley, 1982) with the formation area at the southern 480 flank of the Gulf Stream (Klein and Hogg, 1996). In some studies, this water mass is referred to as 18 °C 481 water since a potential/conservative temperature of around 18 °C is one symbolic feature (e.g. Talley 482 and Raymer, 1982; Klein and Hogg, 1996). In general, seawater in the Northeast Atlantic has higher 483 salinity than in the Northwest Atlantic due to the stronger winter convection (Pollard and Pu, 1985) and 484 input of MW (Pollard et al., 1996; Prieto et al., 2015). However, for the Central Waters, the situation is 485 the opposite. WNACW has a significantly higher salinity (SA) by ~0.9 g kg⁻¹ than ENACW (Table 4). 486 In this study, work from McCartney and Talley (1982) is followed and the region 24–37°N, 50–70°W 487 is considered as the formation area (Figure 5) with depth less than 500 m. By defining the SWT of 488 WNACW, neutral density between 26.20 and 26.70 kg m⁻³ is selected since the discrete T-S 489 distribution outside this range (Table 2). Besides the linear T-S relationship, another property of this 490 water mass is, as the alternative name suggests, a conservative temperature around 18 °C, which is the 491 warmest in the four Central Waters due to the lowest latitude of formation area and the impact from the 492 warm Gulf Stream (Cianca et al., 2009; Prieto et al., 2015). In addition, low nutrient is also a significant 493 property compared to other Central Waters (Figure 2 in Supplement).

494 <u>4.3 Eastern South Atlantic Central Water (ESACW)</u>

495 The formation area of ESACW is located in area southwest of South Africa and south of the Benguela 496 Current (Peterson and Stramma, 1991). In this region the Agulhas Current brings water from the Indian 497 Ocean (Deruijter, 1982; Lutjeharms and van Ballegooyen, 1988) that mixes with the South Atlantic 498 Current from the west (Stramma and Peterson, 1990; Gordon et al., 1992). The origin of ESACW can 499 partly be tracked back to the WSACW, but defined as a new SWT since seawater from Indian Ocean is added by the Agulhas Current. The mixing region of Agulhas Current and South Atlantic Current (30-500 501 40 °S, 0-20 °E) is selected as the formation area of ESACW (Figure 5). To investigate the properties 502 of ESACW, results from Stramma and England (1999) is followed and consider 200-700m as the core 503 of this water mass. For the properties, neutral density (γ) between 26.00 and 27.00 kg m⁻³ and oxygen concentration higher than 230 µmol kg⁻¹ are used to define ESACW (Table 2). Similar as ENACW, 504 505 ESACW also exhibits relative large CT and SA ranges and low nutrient concentrations (especially low 506 in silicate) compared to the AAIW below. The properties in ESACW are similar to that of WSACW, 507 although with higher nutrient concentrations due to input from the Agulhas current (Figure 3 in 508 Supplement).

509 4.4 Western South Atlantic Central Water (WSACW)

510 The WSACW is formed in the region near the South American coast between 30 and 45 $^{\circ}$ S, where 511 surface South Atlantic Current brings central waterCentral Water to the east (Kuhlbrodt et al., 2007). 512 The WSACW is formed with little directly influence from other central water masses (Stramma & 513 England, 1999), while the origin of other central water masses (e.g. ESACW or ENACW) can, to some 514 extent at least, be traced back to WSACW (Peterson & Stramma, 1991). This water mass is a product 515 of three mode waters The WSACW is formed with little directly influence from other Central Water 516 mass (Sprintall and Tomczak, 1993; Stramma and England, 1999), while the origin of other Central 517 Waters (e.g. ESACW or ENACW) can be traced back, to some extent at least, to WSACW (Peterson 518 and Stramma, 1991). This water mass is a product of three Mode Waters mixed together: the Brazil 519 current brings Salinity Maximum Water (SMW) and Subtropical Mode Water (STMW) from the north, 520 while the Falkland Current brings Subarctic Subantarctic, Mode Water (SAMW) from the south (Alvarez 521 et al., 2014), Here we follow the work of Stramma and England (1999) and Alvarez et al. (2014) that 522 choose the meeting region of these two currents $(25-60^{\circ}W, 30-45^{\circ}S)$ as the formation regionarea 523 of WSACW. We choose potential (Figure 5). Neutral density (og)) between 26.0 and 27.0 kg/m³ and 524 salinity higher than 34.5 for defining m-3 is selected to define the SWT of WSACW. In addition to the 525 physical properties we used and the requirement of silicate concentrations lower than $\frac{105}{4}$ µmol kg⁻¹ and 526 oxygen concentrations lower than 230 µmol kg-1 to define this SWT.is also added (Table 2). WSACW 527 shows the similar hydrochemical properties to other Central Waters such as linear T-S relationship with 528 large T and S ranges and low concentration of nutrients, especially silicate (Figure 4 in Supplement). 529 The temperature distribution in this region indicates another peak in the abundance (histogram) for 530 potential densities higher than 27.0 kg m⁻², indicating that the boundary between WSACW and AAIW 531 is at $\sigma_{\mu} = 27.0 \text{ kg/m}^3$ in this region. The hydrochemical properties of WSACW are shown in Figure 5. Similar to other central waters, WSACW shows a linear T-S relationship with large T and S ranges and 532 low concentration of nutrients, especially low silicate. 533

534 4.4 Eastern South Atlantic Central Water (ESACW)

The other formation area of SACW in the eastern South Atlantic Ocean is located in area southwest of South Africa and spreads to the north along the Benguela Current (Peterson & Stramma, 1991). In this region the Agulhas Current brings water from the Indian Ocean (Deruijter, 1982, Lutjeharms & van Ballegooyen, 1988) that meets and mixes with the South Atlantic Current (Gordon et al., 1992, Stramma & Peterson, 1990) from the west. Tracing back to the origin of ESACW, it can be considered as partly originating from WSACW, but since water from Indian Ocean is added by the Agulhas Current we can define WSACW as a new independent STW with characteristic properties.

542 We choose the meeting region of Agulhas Current and South Atlantic Current (30-40 °S, 0-20 °E) as
543 the formation area of ESACW and display properties of this SWT. To investigate the properties of

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544	ESACW, we also follow Stramma and England (1999), and choose 200 700m as the core of this water	
545	mass. For the properties, potential density (σ_{θ}) between 26.00 and 27.20 kg/m ³ and oxygen	
546	concentration between 200 and 240 μ mol kg ⁻¹ are used to define ESACW.	
547	Figure 5 clearly shows the linear T-S relationship for potential density (σ_{σ}) between 26.00 and 27.20 kg	
548	m ⁻³ , which is consists with the general property of Central Waters (Harvey, 1982, Alvarez et al., 2014,	
549	Emery & Meincke, 1986). As shown in Figure 5, ESACW exhibits a relative large potential temperature	
550	and salinity range and low nutrient concentrations (especially low in silicate) compared to the AAIW	
551	below. The properties in ESACW are similar to that of WSACW, although with higher nutrient	
552	concentrations due to input from the Agulhas current.	
553	4.5 Atlantic Distribution of Central Waters	Formatted: Font: Times
554	Based on ourthe OMP analysis on the GLODAPv2 data product-we can now describe, the physical	
555	extent of the central watersCentral Waters can be described over the Atlantic Ocean. The horizontal	
556	distributions of four main water massesCentral Waters in the Upper Layerupper layer are shown on the	
557	maps in Figure 68 and the vertical distributiondistributions along selected GO-SHIP sections are found	
558	in Figure 7. In general, the eastern central waters, both 9. Note that the northern and southern variations,	
559	have higher potentialCentral Waters are found at different densities, and are thus found deeper,	
560	compared to western central waters. This can be seen well in Figure 7, where the difference in the eastern	
561	variations being denser, so that the there is significant overlap in the horizontal distribution. The vertical	
562	extent of the eastern vs. western central waters can be Central Waters is clearly seen - in Figure 9.	
563	The East North Atlantic Central Water (The ENACW) is mainly found in the northeast part of North	
564	Atlantic, near the formation area west of in the Iberian Peninsula-inter-gyre region (Figure 8). High	Formatted: Font: Times New Roman
565	fractions of ENACW is also found in a band across the Atlantic at around 40_°N, where the core of this	
566	water mass is found at close to 1000 m depth in the western part of the basin, (Figure 7.9).	
567	The West North Atlantic Central Water (WNACW) is predominantly found in the western basin of the	Formatted: Underline
568	North Atlantic in an east westa zonal band between ~-10 °N and 40 °N , (Figure 6.8). The vertical extent	Formatted: Underline
569	of WNACW is significantly higher in the western basin with an extent of about 500 meter in the west,	
570	tapering off towards the east, <u>(Figure 7.9)</u> .	
571	The East South Atlantic Central Water (ESACW) is found over most of the South Atlantic, as well as	Formatted: Underline
572	in the tropical and subtropical north Atlantic (Figure 8). The extent of ESACW do reach particular far	
573	north in the eastern part of the basin where it is an important component over the Eastern Tropical North	
574	Atlantic Oxygen Minimum Zone, roughly south of the Cape Verde Islands, Figure 6 In the vertical	
575	direction, the ESACW is located below WSACW (Figure 9).	
576	The horizontal distribution of the West South Atlantic Central Water (WSACW) is similar to does also	Formatted: Underline
577	reach into the ESACW, althoughnorthern hemisphere but is, obviously, concentrated in the western	

578 basin (Figure 8). In the vertical scale, the WSACW is not dominant in the South East Atlantic off Africa.

579 Although both central waters in the south Atlantic have similar horizontal extent, the WSACW

580 dominates also tends to dominate the upper layer of the South Atlantic, above the ESACW, (Figure 7.9).

581 **5** The Intermediate Layer

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582	The intermediate water masses have an origin in the upper 500m of the ocean and subduct into the
583	intermediate depth (10001500m) during their formation process. Similar to the upper layerCentral
584	Waters, the distributiondistributions of the intermediate water massesIntermediate Waters are
585	significantly influenced by the major currents. (Figure 10, left), The potential neutral density $(\sigma_{H})\gamma$ of
586	the intermediate water masses usuallyIntermediate Waters is in general between 27.0010 and 27.7090
587	kg m ⁻³ , which is our and selected as the definition of the intermediate layer Intermediate Layer,
588	In the Atlantic Ocean, two main intermediate water masses are found: Subarctic Intermediate Water
589	(SAIW) that originates from the north and Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) that originates from

the south (Figure 9). Both water masses), are found to be are formed in the surface of sub-polar regions
in north and south hemisphere respectively. In addition to AAIW and SAIW, Mediterranean Overflow
Water (MOWMW) is also considered as an intermediate water mass indue to the north Atlantic since
the MOW occupies a similar similarity of density range as AAIW and SAIW ranges, although the
formation history is different- (Figure 10).

595 **5.1**—Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW)

596 The Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) is the main water mass in the intermediate depth of the South 597 Atlantic Ocean. This water mass originates from the surface layer north of the Antarctic Circumpolar 598 Current (ACC) in all three sectors of the Southern Ocean, in particular in the area east of the Drake 599 Passage in the Atlantic sector (McCartney, 1982, Alvarez et al., 2014). After formation, the AAIW 600 subducts and spreads northward along the continental slope of South America-(Piola & Gordon, 1989)-601 The AAIW covers most of the Atlantic Ocean until ~40 °N and the percentage shows a decrease trend 602 to the north (Kirchner et al., 2009). AAIW can be found through most of the Atlantic Ocean at the depth 603 between 500 and 1200m, below the layer of central water and above the deep waters (Talley, 1996). The 604 two main characteristic features of AAIW is low salinity and high oxygen concentration (Stramma & 605 England, 1999).

Based on the work by Stramma and England (1999), we choose the region between 55 and 40°S (east of the Drake Passage) as the formation area of AAIW and look at depths below 200 m so that not only AAIW samples in the formation area but also some samples during the subduction and spreading in the primary stage are considered. As for the boundaries between AAIW and surrounding water masses, including SACW in the north and NADW in the deep, there are several slightly different definitions. The Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW) is the main Intermediate Water in the South Atlantic Ocean. This water mass originates from the surface region north of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC) in all

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613	three sectors of the Southern Ocean, in particular in the area east of the Drake Passage in the Atlantic
614	sector (McCartney, 1982; Alvarez et al., 2014), then subducts and spreads northward along the
615	continental slope of South America (Piola and Gordon, 1989).
616	Based on the work by Stramma and England (1999) and Saenko and Weaver (2001), the region between
617	55 and 40 °S (east of the Drake Passage) at depths below 100 m is selected as the formation area of
618	AAIW as well as the primary stage during the subduction and transformation (Figure 5). Previous work
619	is considered to distinguish AAIW from surrounding water masses, including SACW in the north and
620	NADW in the deep, Piola and Georgi (1982) and Talley (1996) define AAIW to haveas potential
621	densities (σ_{θ}) between 27.00-/27.10 and 27.40 kg/m ³ . On the other hand, m ⁻³ and Stramma and England
622	(1999) define the boundary between AAIW and SACW at $\sigma_{\mu}\sigma_{0.\mu} = 27.00 \text{ kg/m}^2 \text{ m}^3$ and the boundary
623	between AAIW and NADW at $\sigma_{\pm}\sigma_{1,\mu}$ = 32.15 kg/m ³ . Furthermore, we used these m ⁻³ . The following
624	criteria in our are used as the selection of criteria to define AAIW: potential neutral density between 26.95
625	and 27.50 kg/m ³ m ⁻³ and pressure less thandepth between 100 and 300 barm. In addition, high oxygen
626	$(> \frac{230260 \mu\text{mol}/\text{kg}}{\text{as being important to distinguishe}^{-1}}$ and low temperature (CT < 3.5 °C) are used
627	to distinguish AAIW from Central Waters (WSACW and ESACW). The), while the relative high
628	potential temperature (>-0.5 °C) and low silicate concentration (< 30 µmol/kg) are -1) of AAIW is an
629	additional trade marks of boundary to differentiate AAIW that we use to distinguish between AAIW
630	andfrom AABW- As shown in Figure 8, (Table 2). The AAIW covers most of the AAIW samples
631	haveAtlantic Ocean until ~30 °N and the percentage shows a potential densitydecrease trend to the north
632	(Kirchner et al., 2009) at the depth between $\sigma_{g} = 27.00 \ 27.40 \ \text{kg/m}^3$; the few exceptions still adhere to
633	the boundary $\sigma_{\perp} < 32.15$ kg/m ³ . The characteristics of AAIW show low 500 and 1200 m, between the
634	upper and the deep layer (Talley, 1996) with two significant characteristic features of low (absolute)
635	salinity, and high oxygen and low silicate concentrations compared to SACW and NADW, and low
636	silicate concentration. (Figure 5 in Supplement, Stramma and England, 1999),
637	5.2—Subarctic Intermediate Water (SAIW)
638	The Subarctic Intermediate Water (SAIW) originates from the surface layer ofin the western boundary
639	of the North Atlantic Subpolar Gyre, along the Labrador Current (Lazier & Wright, 1993, Pickart et al.,
640	1997)(Lazier and Wright, 1993; Pickart et al., 1997), This water mass subducts and spreads southeast
641	in the region north of the NAC, advects across the MARMid-Atlantic-Ridge and finally interacts with
642	MOW (Arhan & King, 1995, Arhan, 1990)-MW (Arhan, 1990; Arhan and King, 1995), The formation
643	of SAIW is <u>a mixture of two surface water typessources</u> : Water with high temperature and salinity
644	carried by the NAC and cold and fresh water from the Labrador Current (Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2015,
645	Read, 2000). In Garcia Ibanez et al. (2015)(Read, 2000; Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2015). In Garcia-Ibanez et
646	al. (2015), there are two definitions of SAIW, SAIW ₆ , which is biased to the warmer and saltier NAC,
647	and SAIW ₄ , which is closer to the cooler and fresher Labrador Current. In this study, we discussHere,

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648	only the combination of these two end-members when considering is considered in the whole Atlantic	
649	Ocean scale study.	
650	For defining the spatial boundaries we followfollowed Arhan (1990) and choose longitudes selected the	
651	region between 35 and 55,°W, and latitudes between 50 and 60 °N, i.e. the region along the Labrador	\sum
652	Current and north of the NAC as the formation area of SAIW (Figure 85). Within this area-we follow	$\langle \rangle$
653	Read (2000), and choose potential, neutral densities higher than 27.65 kg m ⁻³ and potential conservative.	$\langle \rangle$
654	temperature higher than 4.5 °C is selected to define SAIW. Similar to the definition of AAIW, we	$\langle \parallel \rangle$
655	include samples by following Read, (2000). Samples in the depth range from the MLD to 500m 500 m	())
656	are investigated as the core layer of SAIW; this pressure includes, which included the formation and	$\langle \ \rangle$
657	subduction of SAIW- (Table 2),	$\langle \rangle$
658	In the T S relationship (Figure 8), the mixing of two main sources, the warmer and saltier NAC and the	$\langle \rangle \rangle \langle \rangle$
659	colder and fresher Labrador Current, is evident. In Figure 8, we can see that this water mass is	$\langle \ \rangle$
660	characterized by relative low potential temperature, salinity and silicate concentration, but is high in	
661	oxygen.	
662	5.3—Mediterranean Overflow_ Water (MOW<u>MW</u>)	
663	The predecessor of the Mediterranean Overflow Water (MOWMW) is the Mediterranean	\sum
664	WatersOverflow Water (MOW) flowing out through the Strait of Gibraltar, whose main component is	$\langle \rangle$
665	the modified Levantine Intermediate Water. This water mass is recognized by high salinity and	\mathbb{V}/\mathbb{V}
666	temperature and intermediate potentialneutral density in the Northeast Atlantic Ocean (Carracedo et al.,	$\langle \ \rangle$
667	2016), After passing the Strait of Gibraltar, the Mediterranean water mixes rapidly with the overlying	$\langle \rangle$
668	ENACW leading to a sharp decrease of salinity and potential density (Baringer & Price, 1997). In Gulf	«///
669	of Cadiz, the outflow of MOWMOW mixes rapidly with the overlying ENACW leading to a sharp	$\langle \rangle$
670	decrease of salinity and forms the MW (Baringer and Price, 1997). In Gulf of Cadiz, the outflow of MW,	
671	turns into two branches: One branch continues to the west, descending the continental slope, mixing	//
672	with surrounding water masses in the intermediate depth and influence the water mass composition as	\backslash
673	far west as the MAR (Price et al., 1993). The other branch spreads northwards along the coast of Iberian	
674	peninsulaPeninsula and along the European coast and its influence can be observed as far north as the	$\overline{\}$
675	Norwegian Sea (Reid, 1979, Reid, 1978)-(Reid, 1978; 1979). The impact from MW is significant in	<u> </u>
676	almost the entire Northeast Atlantic in the Intermediate Layer (east of the MAR, Figure 7 in Supplement),	
677	with high conservative temperature and absolute salinity but low nutrients compared to other water	
678	masses,	
679	Here we follow followed Baringer and Price (1997) and define MOW to be an independent water mass	
680	represented by the high salinity (salinity between 36.35 and 36.65) samples with the formation area west	1
681	of the Strait of Gibraltar (Figure 8). The Mediterranean water is characterized by salinity higher than	\backslash
682	38.4. Almost the entire Northeast Atlantic intermediate layer, east of the MAR, is influenced by MOW.	
683	As the most characteristic property of MOW is the high salinity, we display a salinity section plot (Figure	

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684	8) of A03 cruise from 2005 (74AB2005050), where the high salinity of MOW can be seen and how the
685	high salinity core erodes westward towards the MAR. The high potential temperature and salinity
686	compared to other water samples at same depth, and the characteristically low and nutrient
687	concentrations are evident in Figure 8. Due to the limited number of samples (less than 200) within our
688	definition of MOW in GLODAPv2, we refrain from showing the histogram. The properties of MOW
689	are shown in Figure 8 and Table 4. the SWT of MW by the high salinity (absolute salinity between 36.5
690	and 37.00 g kg ⁻¹ , Table 2) samples in the formation area west of the Strait of Gibraltar (Figure 5).
691	5.4—Atlantic distributionsDistributions of Intermediate Waters
692	A schematic of the main currents in the intermediate layer ($\sigma_{eff} \gamma$ between 27.10 and 27.790 kg/m ³ m ³)
693	is shown in Figure 9 <u>10</u> (left <u>panel</u>).
694	The Subarctic Intermediate Water (SAIW) is mainly found informed north of 4030 °N in the eastern
695	basin, whereas the distribution of SAIW in the western basin is further south, Figure 9-western basin by
696	mixing of two main sources, the warmer and saltier NAC and the colder and fresher Labrador Current
697	and characterized with relative low CT (< 4.5 °C), SA (< 35.1 g kg ⁻¹) and silicate (< 11 μ mol kg ⁻¹). The
698	SAIW and MOW has similar densities (although the density range of MOW is slightly higher) but MW
699	can be easily distinguished based on the six variables used for by the OMP analysis, and Figure 9 shows
700	the east/west transition between these two water masses east of MAR. Similarly, the north/south
701	transition between the due to significantly different properties. The meridional distributions of three
702	intermediate water massesIntermediate Waters along the A16 section is nicely illustrated in Figure 9,
703	where aare shown in Figure 10 (upper panel) as well as the zonal distributions of SAIW and MOW
704	along the A03 section. A "blob" of MOWMW centered around 35°N separatescan be seen to separate
705	the AAIW from the SAIW in the eastern basin. North Atlantic. The fractions of SAIW in the western
706	basin are definitely higher (Figure 10, right),
707	The Mediterranean Overflow Water (MOW) The MW enters the Atlantic from Strait of Gibraltar and

708 spreads in two branches to the north and the west. MOWMW is mainly foundformed close to its entry 709 point to the Atlantic, innear the Gulf of Cadiz, but with significantly highlow fractions of MOW found 710 in the western basin. North Atlantic. The distribution of MOWMW can be seen as roughly following the 711 two intermediate pathways following two branches: (Figure 10, left): One-branch spreads to the north 712 into the West European Basin until ~50°N, while the other branch spreads in a westward direction past 713 the MAR, (Figure 11), mainly at latitudes between 30 and 40_°N. The density of MOWMW is similar 714 to that of higher than SAIW, and the distribution distributions of the two water masses are complementary 715 in the North Atlantic- (Figure 10, right).

- 716 <u>The Antarctic Intermediate Water (AAIW)</u> has a southern origin and is found at slightly lighter densities
- 717 (core potential<u>neutral</u> density ~27.220 kg/m³ m⁻³, Figure 10, right) compared to $\frac{MOWSAIW}{MOWSAIW}$ and $\frac{SAIW}{MOWSAIW}$
- 718 Figures 9 and 10.<u>MW.</u> The AAIW is formed in the region south of 40 °S where it sinks and spreads to

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719 the north at depth between ~ 1000 and 2000 m at potential with neutral densities between 27.010 and 720 27.790 kg/m³. In the South Atlantic, the m⁻³. The AAIW is the only Intermediate Layer water mass that 721 is formed in the southern hemisphere. Figure 9 shows the horizontal distribution of AAIW based on our 722 OMP analysis. It dominate Intermediate Water in the South Atlantic and it is clear that the AAIW and dominate the intermediate layer in the South Atlantic with represents a lower contribution of this water 723 724 mass going reduction of fractions during the pathway to the north; there is only minor contribution of with only AAIW north of the equator, or rather, a diluted version of the AAIW ispart to be found in the 725 726 tropical Atlantic.the equator and 30 °N (Figure 10 and Figure 11). 727 __The Deep and Overflow Layer 728 To the deep and overflow water masses are found-The Deep and Overflow Waters, located below the 729 Intermediate Layer, intermediate layer, are approximately found from 15002000 to 4000m, 4000 m, with potential<u>neutral</u> densities between 27.7090 and $\frac{27.8828.10}{27.8828.10}$ kg/m³. These water masses play a 730 731 significantan indispensable, role in the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC). The 732 source region of these waters is confined to the North Atlantic with their formation region either 733 northsouth of the Greenland-Scotland ridge, or in the Labrador Sea- (Figure 5 and Figure 12, left), The 734 Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW) and the Iceland-Scotland Overflow water (ISOW) originate 735 from Arctic Ocean and the Nordic Seas and mainly entersenter, the North Atlantic through withereither,

736 the Denmark Strait of the Faroe Bank Channel, (Figure 12, left), In the North Atlantic, these two water 737 masses sinkdescend, mainly following the topography. These two water masses meet and mix in the 738 Irminger Basin (Stramma et al., 2004, Tanhua et al., 2005)(Stramma et al., 2004; Tanhua et al., 2005) 739 and form the bulk of the lower North Atlantic Deep Water (INADW) (Read, 2000; Rhein et al.; 2011), 740 The Labrador Sea Water (LSW) is formed through winter deep convection in the Labrador and Irminger 741 Seas, and makemakes up the bulk of the upper North Atlantic Deep Water (uNADW), Due to intense 742 mixing processes we define the LSW, DSOW and ISOW are defined as the water masses in north of 743 40,°N whereas south of this latitude we consider the presence of the two variations of NADW- are 744 considered (Figure 12, right), 745 From the formation areaIn south of 40 °N, both variations of the NADW spreadspread south mainly 746 with the Deep Western Boundary Current (DWBC, Figure 12, left) (Dengler et al., 2004) through the 747 Atlantic until ~50 °S where they meet -the Antarctic Circumpolar Current- (ACC), During the southward

ration current-<u>(ACC)</u>, During the southward
 transport, the NADW also spreads significantly in the zonal direction, so that we can find NADW in the
 whole Atlantic basin at these densities (Lozier, 2012), so that the distribution of NADW covers mostly
 the whole Atlantic basin in the Deep and Overflow Layer (Figure 12, right), The southward flow of

751 NADW in the North Atlantic, is is also an indispensable component of Atlantic Meridional Overturning

752 Circulation (AMOC) (Broecker & Denton, 1989, Elliot et al., 2002, Lynch-Stieglitz et al.,

753 2007)-<u>(Broecker and Denton, 1989; Elliot et al., 2002; Lynch-Stieglitz et al., 2007).</u>

754 6.1—__Labrador Sea Water (LSW)

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755	As an important water mass by its own virtue and forthat contributes to the formation of North Atlantic
756	Deep Water (NADW), Labrador Sea Water (LSW) is predominant in mid-depth (between 1000m and
757	2500m depth) in the Labrador Sea region (Elliot et al., 2002), The LSW is formed in the region of
758	Labrador Sea by deep convection during winter (Clarke & Gascard, 1983), and is typically found at
759	mid depth with $\sigma_{\theta} = -27.77 \text{ kg/m}^3$. This water mass was noted by (Wüst & Defant, 1936) <u>This water</u>
760	mass was firstly noted by (Wüst and Defant, 1936), due to its salinity minimum and later defined and
761	named by Smith et al. (1937), The LSW is formed by deep convection during the winter and is typically
762	found at depth with $\sigma_{\theta} = \sim 27.77 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ (Clarke and Gascard, 1983). Since then the character has been
763	identified as a contribution to the driving mechanism of northward heat transport in the Atlantic
764	Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) (Rhein et al., 2011), The LSW is characterized by relative
765	low salinity (lower than 34.9) and high oxygen concentration (~290 µmol/ kg) (Talley & Mccartney,
766	1982). Another important criterion of LSW is the potential density (σ_{θ}), that ranges from 27.68 to 27.88
767	kg/m ³ -(Stramma et al., 2004, Kieke et al., 2006, Clarke & Gascard, 1983, Gascard & Clarke, 1983)In
768	the large spatial scale, LSW can be considered as one water mass (Dickson & Brown, 1994), however
769	significant differences of different "vintages" of LSW exitst (Kieke et al., 2006, Stramma et al., 2004)-
770	LSW can broadly be kg ⁻¹) (Talley & Mccartney, 1982). Another important criterion of LSW is the
771	potential density (σ_{θ}), that ranges from 27.68 to 27.88 kg m ⁻³ (Clarke and Gascard, 1983; Gascard and
772	Clarke, 1983; Stramma et al., 2004; Kieke et al., 2006). In the large spatial scale, LSW can be considered
773	as one water mass (Dickson and Brown, 1994), however significant differences of different "vintages"
774	of LSW exist (Stramma et al., 2004; Kieke et al., 2006). In some references, this water mass is also
775	broadly, divided into upper Labrador Sea Water (uLSW) and classic Labrador Sea Water (cLSW) with
776	the boundary between them at potential density of 27.74 kg m ⁻³ _(Smethie & Fine, 2001, Kieke et al.,
777	2006, Kieke et al., 2007)-(Smethie and Fine, 2001, Kieke et al., 2006; 2007), The LSW is considered as
778	the main origin of the upper NADW (Talley & Mccartney, 1982, Elliot et al., 2002)-(Talley and
779	Mccartney, 1982; Elliot et al., 2002)
780	In our analysis we considerOn the basis of the above work, the formation area of LSW is selected to
781	include the Labrador Sea and Irminger Basin west of Mid Atlantic Ridge. For the purpose of our
782	analysis (the whole scale of the Atlantic Ocean) we consider LSW as one integral water mass. Although
783	the region between Labrador Sea is located in North Atlantic between the Labrador PeninsulaPenisular.
784	and Greenland, for this analysis we consider the formation region of LSW to include and parts of the
785	Irminger Basin (Figure 11). Within this geographical region we follow the definition from 5). The neutral
786	density (γ) between 27.70 to 28.10 kg m ⁻³ as well as low conservative temperature (CT < 4°C) are used
787	to define SWT of LSW (Table 2) by considering Clarke and Gascard (1983) and Stramma and England
788	(1999), defining LSW as samples with potential density (σ_{g}) between 27.68 to 27.88 kg/m ³ (Figure 11)
789	in with the depth range of 500-2000m (Elliot et al., 2002),

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90	Trademark characteristics	of LSW are relative	low salinity and high	oxygen-concentration. Figure 11
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shows the histogram of all samples that we consider to represent LSW in this analysis, The relatively

large spread in properties is indicative of the different "vintages" of LSW, in particular the bi-modal

793 distribution of density, and partly for oxygen- (Figure 8 in Supplement).

794 <u>6.2 6.2 Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW)</u>

- 795 <u>The Iceland Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW) flows close to the bottom from the Iceland Sea to the</u>
- 796 North Atlantic in the region east of Iceland, mainly through the Faroe-Bank Channel (Swift, 1984; Lacan
- 797 <u>et al., 2004; Zou et al., 2020). ISOW turn into two main branches when passing the Charlie-Gibbs</u>
- 798 <u>Fracture Zone (CGFZ), with the first one flowing through the Mid-Atlantic-Ridge, into the Irminger</u>
- basin, where it meets and mixes with DSOW (Figure 12). The other branch is transported southward
- and mixes with Northeast Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW) (Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2015), The pathway
- 801 of ISOW closely follows the Mid-Atlantic-Ridge in the Iceland Basin and is characterized by high
- <u>nutrient and low oxygen concentration.</u> The following criteria, conservative temperature between 2.2
 and 3.3 °C and absolute salinity higher than 34.95 g kg⁻¹, are used to define the SWT of ISWO, and
- neutral density higher than 28.00 kg m⁻³ is added order to distinguish ISOW from LSW in the region
- 805 west of MAR (Table 2 and Figure 9 in Supplement).

806 <u>6.3</u> Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW)

- 807 A number of water masses from the Arctic Ocean and the Nordic Seas flows through Denmark Strait 808 west of Iceland. At the sill of the Denmark Strait and during the descent into the Irminger Sea, these 809 water masses undergo intense mixing. This overflow water mass is considered as the coldest and densest 810 component of the sea water in the Northwest Atlantic Ocean and constitute a significant part of the 811 southward flowing NADW (Swift, 1980).Here we use samples from the Irminger Sea with potential 812 density higher than 27.88 kg m⁻³ (Tanhua et al., 2005) for our definition of DSOW. In addition, we 813 require the silicate concentration to be lower than 11 µmol/kg to distinguish DSOW from NEABW, 814 which has a high silicate concentration. As shown in Figure 11, Samples from the Irminger Sea (Figure 5) with neutral density higher than 28.15 kg m⁻³ (Table 2 and Figure 10 in Supplement) are used for the 815 816 definition of DSOW (Rudels et al., 2002; Tanhua et al., 2005DSOW is mostly found close to the bottom
- 817 as expected for an overflow water. In addition to the high density and low temperature, DSOW also has
- 818 high oxygen concentration (~ 290-310 µmol/kg).

819 6.3 Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW)

- 820 The Iceland Scotland Overflow Water, ISOW, flows close to the bottom from the Iceland Sca to the
- 821 North Atlantic in the region east of Iceland, mainly through the Faroe Bank Channel (Swift, 1984, Kissel
- et al., 1997). ISOW turn into two main branches when passing the Charlie Gibbs Fracture Zone (CGFZ),
- 823 with the first one flowing through the Mid Atlantic Ridge, into the Irminger basin, where it meets and
- 824 mixes with DSOW. The other branch is transported southward and mixes with Northeast Atlantic

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825 Bottom Water (NEABW) (Garcia Ibanez et al., 2015). The pathway of ISOW closely follows the Mid-

826 Atlantie Ridge in the Leeland Basin and is characterized by high nutrient and low oxygen concentration.

827 In order to safely distinguish ISOW from LSW in the region west of MAR, we define ISOW as samples

828 with salinity higher than 34.95, potential density higher than 27.83 kg/m³. Figure 11 displays our

829 characterization of ISOW in the Iceland Basin, which is consistent from the result in the literature

830 (Garcia Ibanez et al., 2015).

831 6.4—___Upper North Atlantic Deep Water (uNADW)

832 The uNADW is mainly formed by mixing of ISOW and LSW₃ and we consider this to be considered as 833 a distinct water mass just south of the Labrador Sea as this region is identified as the redefining area of 834 upper and lower NADW (Dickson & Brown, 1994). We select the (Dickson and Brown, 1994). The 835 region between latitude 40 and 50,°N, west of the MAR is selected as the formation redefining area of NADW (Figure <u>125</u>) and use the criteria of potential neutral density between 27.72 and 27.82 kg/m²85 836 and 28.05 kg m⁻³ and conservative temperature lower than 4.0 °C with depth range from 1200 to 837 838 2000m2000 m (Table 2 and Figure 11 in Supplement) are used to define the SWT of uNADW (Stramma 839 et al., 2004), As a product of mixingmixture from LSW and ISOW, the uNADW obviously inherits 840 many properties from LSW, but is also significantly influenced by the ISOW. The relative high temperature (~3.3 °C) is a significant feature of the uNADW together with relatively low oxygen (~280 841 842 umol kg⁻¹) and high nutrient concentrations, which is a universal symbol of deep water (Table 4), 843 6.5—___Lower North Atlantic Deep Water (INADW)

844 We use the The same geographic region to define is selected as the as we did for the formation area of 845 INADW (Figure 5).uNADW, In this region, the ISOW and DSOW (with some influence of , influenced 846 by LSW) will, mix with each other and form the lower portion of NADW (Stramma et al., 2004), Water 847 samples between depths of 2000 and 3000 m with potentialCT higher than ~2.5°C and neutral densities 848 between 27.7695 and 27.8828.10 kg m⁻³ are selected to define the INADW. From the data shown in 849 Figure 12, lower NADW can be found with properties more similar to ISOW compared with DSOW. 850 For instance, the values of salinity and oxygen concentration are closer to ISOW. For nutrients, the SWT of INADW have almost the same values to ISOW, but the relatively high potential temperature shows 851 852 that the impact from LSW.(Table 2 and Figure 12 in Supplement).

853 6.6—. Atlantic Distributions of Deep and Overflow Waters

The water masses dominate the <u>neutral</u> density interval 27.7<u>27.8890 – 28.10</u> kg/m³ m⁻³ in the Atlantic Ocean, Figure 13. In the area north of roughly 40_°N the overflow waters dominate the deeper layers as well, except in the eastern basin where a significant contribution from the North East Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW, section 7). Due to our definition of the water masses, three water masses dominate the region north of 40 °N in Figure 13:<u>are</u> Labrador Sea Water (LSW), Iceland-Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW) and Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW). In the region south fromof 40 °N the upper and Formatted: Font: Times

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lower NADW, considered as products from these three original overflow water masses, dominate-<u>the</u>
 deep and overflow layer (Figure 12).

862	The Labrador Sea Water (LSW) is commonly characterized as two variations, 'upper' upper' and	Formatted: Underline
863	<u>'classic'' classic''</u> although in this study we <u>seeconsider</u> this as one water mass, <u>see in the</u> discussion	
864	above. Our analysis indicates that the LSW dominatedominates the North West Atlantic Ocean in the	
865	characteristic density range. In Figure <u>1412</u> , we choose to display the $\gamma = 27.74 \cdot \sigma_g 95$ that corresponds	
866	to the lighter versionmain property of the LSW- (Kieke et al., 2006; 2007). The LSW spreads east and	
867	southward in the North Atlantic Ocean, but is less dominant in the area west of the Iberian Peninsula	
868	where the presence of <u>MOWMW</u> from the Gulf of Cadiz tends to dominate that density level. Note that	
869	although the LSW is slightly denser than the MOWMW, their density ranges do overlap. (Figure 12 and	
870	<u>13).</u>	
871	The Iceland Scotland Overflow Water (ISOW) and is mainly distributes found in the Northeast Atlantic	Formatted: Underline
872	north 40 °N between Iceland and Iberian Peninsula with core at $\frac{\sigma_{\text{ff}} = -27.88 \gamma}{\sigma_{\text{ff}} = -27.88 \gamma} = -28.05 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ m}^3$. The	
873	ISOW is also found west of Iceland, in the Irminger and Labrador Seas between the DSOW and LSW-	
874	(Figure 12 and 13).	
074	(<u>rigue 12 and 15).</u>	
875	The Denmark Strait Overflow Water (DSOW) is mainly found in the Irminger and Labrador Seas as the	Formatted: Underline
876	densest layer close to the bottom- <u>(Figure 11).</u> Our analysis indicates a weak contribution of DSOW also	
877	east of the MAR. South of the Grand Banks the DSOW is already significantly diluted and only low to	
878	moderate fractions are found. Here we consider two new water masses, upper and lower NADW in the	
879	region south of 40 °N. After passing 40 °N, upper and lower NADW, considered as independent water	
880	masses. (Figure 12 and 13),	Formatted: Font: Times New Roman
881	The After passing 40 °N, the upper and lower North Atlantic Deep Water (u/I NADW) are considered	
882	as independent water masses and dominate the most of the Atlantic Ocean in this density layer. The map	
883	in Figure 1312 shows that upper NADW uNADW covers the most area, while the INADW lower NADW	
884	is found mainly found in the west region near the Deep Western Boundary Current (DWBC), especially	
885	in South Atlantic. In the vertical view based on sections (Figure 1514), the southward transports of both	
886	upper and lower NADW can be seen until ~ 50 °S where they meets AABW in the ACC region.	Formatted: Font: Times
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000	We define the bottom waters The Bottom Waters are defined as the densest water masses that occupy	Formatted: Font: Times
889	We define the bottom waters The Bottom Waters are defined as the densest water masses that occupy the lowest layers of the water column, typically below 4000 m depth and with potential neutral densities	Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times
889	the lowest layers of the water column, typically below 4000 m depth and with potential <u>neutral</u> densities	Formatted: Font: Times
889 890	the lowest layers of the water column, typically below 4000 m depth and with potential neutral densities higher than $\frac{27.8828.10}{27.8828.10}$ kg/m ³ or a silicate concentration in excess of 80 µmol kg ⁻⁴ , m ⁻³ . These water	Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times
889 890 891	the lowest layers of the water column, typically below 4000 m depth and with <u>potentialneutral</u> densities higher than $\frac{27.8828.10}{10}$ kg/m ³ or a silicate concentration in excess of 80 µmol kg ⁻¹ , m ⁻³ . These water masses have an origin in the Southern Ocean (Figure <u>1615</u> , left) and are also characterized by their high	Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times
889 890 891 892	the lowest layers of the water column, typically below 4000 m depth and with potentialneutral densities higher than $\frac{27.8828.10}{10}$ kg/m ³ -or a silicate concentration in excess of 80 µmol kg ⁻¹ - m ⁻³ . These water masses have an origin in the Southern Ocean (Figure <u>1615</u> , left) and are also characterized by their high silicate concentration.concentrations, The Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) is the main water mass in	Formatted: Font: Times Formatted: Font: Times

(CDW) and Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) (van Heuven et al., 2011), After the formation,
AABW spreads to the north across the equator and further northwards until ~40 °N₇ (Figure 16), where
we define this water massa new SWT is redefined as North East Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW). As
being) due to the drastic change in properties (sharp decrease in silicate concentration). As the two main
sources of AABW, CDW and WSBW are confined to the Southern Ocean₇ (Figure 15, right), so they
are referred as the southern water masses and discussed in this section together with bottom waters,

901 **7.1** Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW)

915

902 Antarctic Bottom Water (AABW) is the main bottom watersymbolic Bottom Water in the Southwhole, 903 Atlantic Ocean-and is also an important bottom water mass in the North Atlantic, As one of the important 904 components in Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC), AABW spreads northward below 905 4000m depth, mainly west of Mid-Atlantic-Ridge (MAR, Figure 15, right) and plays a significant role 906 in the Thermohaline Circulation (Rhein et al., 1998, Andrié et al., 2003)-(Rhein et al., 1998; Andrié et 907 al., 2003), The origin of AABW in Atlantic section can be traced back to the Weddell Sea as a product 908 of mixing of Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) and Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) (Alvarez et al., 909 2014, Foldvik & Gammelsrod, 1988)-(Foldvik and Gammelsrod, 1988; Alvarez et al., 2014), The definition of AABW is all water samples formed south of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), 910 911 i.e. south of 63,°S in the Weddell Sea, (Figure 5), with neutral density (γ) larger than 28.27 kg m⁻³ (Weiss

- et al., 1979, Orsi et al., 1999)-(Weiss et al., 1979; Orsi et al., 1999), As an additional constraint-we define,
- AABW is defined as water samples with silicate higher than 120 μmol kg⁻¹ to distinguish AABW from
 other water masses in this region as high silicate is a trade mark characteristic property of AABW. The

main source region of AABW is the Weddell Sea. (Table 2),

In Figure 16, we can see clearly that AABW (blue points) The formation process of AABW, is a mixture 916 917 of another two original water masses, CDW and WSBW, which are referred to as southern water masses, 918 in the next section, in the formation area. This result is also Weddell Sea region, consistent with Orsi et al. (1999), and van Heuven et al. (2011), The first water mass is the CDW, with relative warm 919 920 $(\theta_{\text{temperature (CT}} > 0.4, ^{\circ}C))$ remnants from CDW, which comes), is advected with the ACC from the 921 north. The other one, which is, while the extremely cold Shelf Water ($\theta \leftarrow 1$, <u>CT < -0.7</u> °C) comes as 922 Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) from the south. As shown in (Figure 16 we find 17), AABW is 923 found from 1000m to 5500m depth. The characteristic properties of AABW are the (Figure 16 and 17) 924 with low temperature ($\frac{0}{CT}$ < 0 °C), salinity ($\frac{(SA < 34.68)}{(SA < 34.68)}$ and but high nutrient-concentration, 925 especially the high silicate, concentrations. In Figure 16 we can see a relative complex distribution of 926 potential temperature, probably due to the mixing between different water masses with quite different

927 temperatures (warm CDW and cold shelf water) that forms AABW. (Figure 13 in Supplement).

928 7.2. Northeast Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW)

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929	Northeast Atlantic Bottom Water (NEABW), also called lower Northeast Atlantic Deep Water	
930	(INEADW in Garcia Ibanez et al. (2015)),(INEADW, Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2015), is mainly found below	
931	4000m depth in the eastern basin of the North Atlantic- (Figure 5), This water mass is an extension of	
932	AABW during the way to the north, since the characteristicsproperties of AABW changeschange	
933	significantly on the slow transport north-we choose to define. A new SWT is redefined for this as a new	
934	water mass in north of the Equator, similar toas the formation redefinition of NADW south of the	
935	Labrador Sea.	\bigwedge
936	The region following region, east of the MAR and between the equator and 30 °N, i.e. before NEABW	/
937	enters the Iberian Basin, is selected as the redefining area of NEABW (Figure 16). We also use the. The	
938	criteria of water samples from a depth deeper than 4000m and potential temperature CT above	
939	1.8 °C- are also used (Table 2), In the TS diagram of NEABW (Figure 16) we can see the linear T S	\swarrow
940	relationshipin Figure 3, similar to T-S distribution between NEABW and AABW in the Weddell	V/
941	Sea, can be seen but with significantly higher potential temperatures and salinities, roughly CT and SA	$\langle \rangle \rangle$
942	of ~1.95 °C and 34.887, respectively.~35.060 g kg ⁻¹ , Most NEABW samples have a potential <u>neutral</u>	$\langle \rangle$
943	density higher than 27.8828.10 kg/m ³ m ⁻³ and NEABW is characterized by low potential temperature	\mathbf{N}
944	(0), low salinityCT and SA, but high silicate concentration- (Figure 14 in Supplement), This	
945	showsfurther suggests that NEABW originates from AABW, although most properties have been	$\langle \rangle$
946	changed significantly from the origin in the South Atlantic.	1
947	7.3 <u>, Circumploar Deep Water (CDW) / Warm Deep Water (WDW)</u>	$\langle \rangle$
948	Circumpolar Deep Water (CDW) or, as it is also called, Warm Deep Water (WDW), which has	
949	significance to the thermohaline circulation during the wind-driven upwelling in the Southern Ocean	
950	(Morrison et al., 2015), is the lighter of the two water masses that constitutes contribute to AABW-In	
951	our study, we consider formation. The production of this water mass that mixes with WSBW directly	$\langle \rangle$
952	as CDW (WDW in van Heuven et al. (2011)). CDW is a product from can be tracked to the southward	$\left(\right)$
953	flow of NADW and the large-scale mixing of several water masses in the Antarctic Circumpolar Current	$\left \right $
954	(ACC) region (van Heuven et al. 2011). The production of CDW can be tracked to the southward flow	$\mathbb{N}_{\mathbb{N}}$
955	of NADW., 2011), At about 50°S, NADW is deflected upward by AABW before reaching the ACC;	\mathbb{N}
956	(Figure 14, upper panel), this part of NADW mixes with other water masses in the ACC and forms a	$\langle \rangle$
957	new water mass. Then this water mass spreads further southward and passes the ACC. We define CDW	$\backslash \rangle$
958	as a new water massinto the ACC region, where it contacts with other water masses, including AAIW	$\backslash \rangle$
959	above and AABW below. After passing the ACC region, CDW splits into two branches at ~60 °S. The	
960		
	upper branch is upwelled and partly joint into the AAIW, while the rest spreads towards the coastal	
961	upper branch is upwelled and partly joint into the AAIW, while the rest spreads towards the coastal region, mixes with the cold fresh shelf water, sinks to the bottom and finally forms the Weddell Sea	
961 962		
	region, mixes with the cold fresh shelf water, sinks to the bottom and finally forms the Weddell Sea	

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965	In this study, the SWTs of CDW is defined by considering the water samples south of ACC, lower branch
966	and the region between 55 and 65 °S is selected as the defining formation area.
967	(Figure 5). To specifydefine SWT of CDW we(lower branch), water samples are selected water samples
968	with from depth between 200 and 1000m in thethis region east of 60°W between 55 and 65°S as the
969	core of CDW. We also placed the additional constraints of having salinity lower than 34.64 and potential
970	densityare SA higher than 27.80 kg/m ³ . The properties of CDW are shown in Figure 17.34.82 g kg ⁻¹ and
971	CT between -0.5 and 1.0 °C (Table 2), Similar to other bottom/southern SWTs, CDW is
972	characterizedalso defined by high nutrient concentrations ((silicate, phosphate and nitrate) and low
973	oxygen concentration. The potential temperature of CDW is between 0 and 1 °C while the potential
974	density is larger than 27.8 kg/m ³ , and the salinity higher than 34.63.concentrations (Figure 15 in
975	Supplement)
976	7.4 Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW)
977	The Weddell Sea Bottom Water (WSBW) is the densest water mass that takes part in the formation of
978	AABW. Similar to CDW, WSBW is also formedbottom layer. As mentioned in the Weddell Sea region,
979	relative warm water ($\sigma_{g} > 0$ °C) flows southward and above section, part of CDW from the upper branch
980	cools down to σ_g lower than <u>1°C</u> rapidly, by mixing with extremely cold shelf water that is transported
981	and sinks down to the bottom along the continental slop. WSBW is thus (Gordon, 2001). WSBW is
982	formed in the Weddell Sea basin below the depth of 3000m, before it meets and mixes with CDWAWDW.
983	Compared with CDW, its low potential. The low temperature of WSBW compared to CDW (CT = ~ -
984	0.8 °C) is a significantcharacteristic property of WSBW (van Heuven et al., 2011).(Figure 16 in
985	Supplement, van Heuven et al., 2011),
986	We follow van Heuven et al. (2011) and choose water samples in the latitudinal boundaries of 55–65 °S
987	in the Weddell Sea with pressures larger than 3000 m as the formation core area. We additionally
988	constrain our selection to samples with potential temperature lower than 0.7 °C and silicate higher than
989	105 µmol/kg. The properties of WSBW are shown in Figures 17. In addition to the physical properties,
990	such as low potential temperature and high potential density, WSBW has high nutrient concentrations,
991	but dislike CDW, Water samples in the latitudinal boundaries of 55 - 65 °S in the Weddell Sea (Figure
992	5) with pressures larger than 3000 m and CT lower than -0.7 °C and silicate higher than 105 µmol kg ⁻¹
993	are selected to define the SWT of WSBW (Table 2), following Gordon (2001) and van Heuven et al.
994	(2011).
995	WSBW has high oxygen concentration.
996	7.5—Atlantic distributionDistribution of the bottom waters and southern water masses
997	AABW and NEABW dominate the bottom layer ($\sigma_{\rm n} > 27.88\gamma > 28.10 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ m}^3$). From the aerial view
998	of the mapshorizontal distribution (Figure 18),15) it can be seen that AABW and NEABW cover the

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1000 origin but are distinguished by definingredefining a new SWT as NEABW due to the sharp reduction of 1001 silicate, which is an important signal to label bottom water masses, after passing the equator (Figure 1002 1916). The AABW is formed in the Weddell Sea region south of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current 1003 (ACC). After leaving the formation area, AABW sinks to the bottom due to the high density during the 1004 way north. After passing the ACC, AABW meets NADW and they have some suffers from water 1005 exchange from with NADW between 50 °S until and AABW reaches the equator (van Heuven et al., 1006 2011). Similar to AABW, NEABW also mainly mixed with lower NADW between equator and 40 °N. 1007 North of 40 °N, NEABW meets lower NADW with origins from ISOW (Garcia Ibanez et al., 1008 2015)Similar to AABW, NEABW also mainly contacts with lower NADW and its origin (ISOW) in the 1009 North Atlantic (Garcia-Ibanez et al., 2015).

1010 In the Weddell Sea Region, where the AABW is formed, region, distributions of two initial water masse 1011 CDW and WSBW are masse mainly reflect the formation process of AABW as displayed based on SR04 1012 sections (Figure 2017). In the zonal section across the Weddell Sea, AABW can be seen as the mixture 1013 of CDW and WSBW. The, where the core of CDW distributes in the upper 1000m and WSBW origins 1014 atfrom the surface and subductssinks along the continental slope into the bottom below 4000m. This 1015 result is consistent with (van Heuven et al., 2011). Both original water masses meet each other at depth 1016 between ~2000 and 4000m, where AABW is formed, with main core locates at ~3000m. The meridional 1017 section shows the northward outflow of AABW into the Atlantic Ocean. AABW is located between 2000 and 4000m, as a product from CDW and WSBW. After leaving Weddell Sea region, AABW is 1018 1019 considered as an independent water mass and spreads further northward as the only bottom water mass 1020 until the equator.

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1022 8. Conclusions and Discussion

1023 The characteristics of the main water masses in their formation areas are defined in a $\frac{76}{10}$ -dimensional 1024 hydro-chemical space in the Atlantic Ocean. The values of properties for these water masses formsform, 1025 the fundamental basis to investigate thetheir, transport, distribution and mixing of water masses.and 1026 referred to as SWTs, Table 4 and Figure 3 provides an overview of the properties, and the standard 1027 deviation, SWTs of all the 16 Atlantic Ocean main water masses considered in this study. Seven often 1028 measured hydro chemical and physical variables The distribution of water masses are used to 1029 characterize these main SWTs in the Atlantic Ocean. To guide the water masses descriptions, their 1030 distributions are estimated by using OMP analysis based on the GLODAPv2 data product, and 1031 preliminarily divided into four main vertical layers roughly separated by potential density in the shallow Formatted: Font: Times 1032 and concentration of silicate in the deep southern Hemisphere. based on neutral densities, Formatted: Font: Times

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1033	The upper layer, which covers the most shallow layer (typically down to about 500 m depth) of the	
1034	ocean below the mixed layer (the mixed layer is not consider in this analysis), is occupied by central	
1035	waters. Central Waters, The intermediate layer is situated between the upper layer and the deep and	
1036	overflow, layer at roughly 1000 to 2000m depth. Of the three water masses in this layer, AAIW and	
1037	SAIW are both characterized by relative low (absolute) salinity and (conservative) temperature, while	
1038	the MOW have MW contains high SSA and T.CT. The SAIW and MOW are the two main water masses	
1039	commonly found <u>MW show a Northwest-Southeast distribution</u> in the North Atlantic. In, while the	$\overline{\langle}$
1040	AAIW dominates the eastern part, MOW overflows from the Mediterranean Sea, across the Strait of	\backslash
1041	Gibraltar and spreads to the north and west. In the South Atlantic, AAIW is the dominate water mass in	\backslash
1042	this layer. After the formation in the shallow layer, AAIW sinks into intermediate depth (around 1000m)	
1043	and spreads to the north until ~ 20 layer of the region south of 30 °N-and this water mass can easily be	
1044	recognized with low salinity In the deep and overflow layer between roughly 2000 and 4000m, water	
1045	masses are found with an origin in the north Atlantic. NADW is the dominate water mass with NADW,	
1046	which contains upper and lower portions-, is recognized as the dominate water mass with a relative	
1047	complex origin from LSW, ISOW and DSOW, The bottom layer is occupied by water massesAABW	
1048	with a southern origin, defined formed by low potential temperatures, high densities and CDW and	_
1049	WSBW. After passing the equator, this water mass is redefined as NEABW due to the changes in	\leq
1050	properties (silicate-concentrations.).	
1051	Pasidas the 16 main Atlantic Ocean water masses additional water masses still evict and can be found	
1051	Besides the 16 main Atlantic Ocean water masses, additional water masses still exist and can be found in the Atlantic that cannot be explained by the mixing of any above listed original water masses. This	
1052 1053	in the Atlantic that cannot be explained by the mixing of any above listed original water masses. This	
	tends to however along to the exact has been a second exactly events, such suctors are not listed and	
	tends to happen close to the coast by local oceanographic events, such water masses are not listed and	
1054	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in	
1054 1055	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20$ °E, $30 - 34$ °S), water samples are	
1054 1055 1056	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20 ^{\circ}\text{E}$, $30 - 34 ^{\circ}\text{S}$), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = ~8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, oxygen = ~150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be	
1054 1055	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System (15 – 20 °E, 30 – 34 °S), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = \sim 8 °C, oxygen = \sim 150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be explained by the mixing of ESACW and WSACW, which are the only two possible water masses in this	
1054 1055 1056	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20 ^{\circ}\text{E}$, $30 - 34 ^{\circ}\text{S}$), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = ~8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, oxygen = ~150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be	
1054 1055 1056 1057	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System (15 – 20 °E, 30 – 34 °S), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = \sim 8 °C, oxygen = \sim 150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be explained by the mixing of ESACW and WSACW, which are the only two possible water masses in this	
1054 1055 1056 1057 1058	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20 ^{\circ}\text{E}$, $30 - 34 ^{\circ}\text{S}$), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = ~8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, oxygen = ~150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be explained by the mixing of ESACW and WSACW, which are the only two possible water masses in this region and depth, because the CT and oxygen of both water masses are higher than these values. One	
1054 1055 1056 1057 1058 1059	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20 ^{\circ}$ E, $30 - 34 ^{\circ}$ S), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = ~8 °C, oxygen = ~150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be explained by the mixing of ESACW and WSACW, which are the only two possible water masses in this region and depth, because the CT and oxygen of both water masses are higher than these values. One possible explanation is that low-oxygen water is carried by the upwelling from the lower (Flynn et al.,	
1054 1055 1056 1057 1058 1059 1060	considered as main water mass in this study and also no additional SWTs are defined. For instance, in the coastal region of Southern Benguela Upwelling System ($15 - 20 ^{\circ}$ E, $30 - 34 ^{\circ}$ S), water samples are found with low temperature and oxygen (CT = ~8 °C, oxygen = ~150 µmol kg ⁻¹). This cannot be explained by the mixing of ESACW and WSACW, which are the only two possible water masses in this region and depth, because the CT and oxygen of both water masses are higher than these values. One possible explanation is that low-oxygen water is carried by the upwelling from the lower (Flynn et al., 2020).	

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