

Potential vorticity and upstream control of the East Australian Current separation: a Lagrangian approach

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Abstract. The East Australian Current (EAC) is the western boundary current flowing along the east coast of Australia separating from the coast at approximately 34°S. After the separation two main pathways can be distinguished, the eastward flowing Tasman Front and the extension of the EAC

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flowing southwards. The area south of the separation latitude is eddy-rich, making the EAC region a variable and dynamic system. There have been several studies that explain the physical aspects of this separation of the EAC, addressing the importance of gradients in the wind stress curl, coastline curvature, bottom topography, forcing from westward propagating Rossby waves and potential vorticity. There is however no consensus on which process is dominant in determining the exact separation latitude and little is known of the properties of the water masses that separate at the bifurcation of the EAC. This paper presents new insights from the Lagrangian perspective, where the water masses that veer east and those that continue south are tracked in an eddy-permitting numerical model. The Lagrangian approach is used to compute the transport along the two pathways, where a 1:3 ratio between transport in the extension of the EAC and transport in the Tasman Front is found. The results show that the ‘fate’ of the particles is to first order already determined by the particles distribution within the EAC current upstream of the separation latitude, where 83% of the particles following the extension of the EAC originate from a depth between 640m and 1000m and 72% of the particles following the Tasman Front originate from the top 640m depth. The separation and pathways are controlled by the structure of the isopycnals in this region. Analysis of anomalies in potential vorticity show that in the region where the two water masses overlap, the fate of the water depends on the presence of anticyclonic eddies that push the isopycnals down and therefore enable particles to travel further south.

1. Introduction

1 The separation of the East Australian Current (EAC), the western boundary current
2 flowing southward along the east coast of Australia, plays a dominant role in the flow
3 pattern within the Tasman Sea. While transporting heat and biota from the Coral Sea
4 to the Tasman Sea, the EAC separates into an eastward current at approximately 34°S
5 known as the Tasman Front and a southward branch forming the EAC extension [e.g.,
6 *Godfrey et al.*, 1980; *Ridgway and Dunn*, 2003]. Volume transports of both pathways have
7 been previously estimated at ~ 9.7 Sv for the extension of the EAC [*Oliver and Holbrook*,
8 2014] and between -4 Sv and 18 Sv for the Tasman Front [*Sutton and Bowen*, 2014],
9 although the highly variable nature of the EAC region makes accurate estimates difficult.
10 Due to the ratio of eddy kinetic energy to mean kinetic energy of 500:1 in the EAC region
11 compared to 10:1 of the global average, the EAC current system is highly variable and
12 dynamic [e.g., *Mata et al.*, 2006; *Scharffenberg*, 2010].

13 The Tasman Front, which is the eastward flowing meander of the EAC, is a surface
14 intensified flow that is confined to the upper 800m [*Sutton and Bowen*, 2014]. The front is
15 shallower than the EAC, which itself extends to a depth below 2000m. *Sutton and Bowen*
16 [2014], using a year-long deployment of current meters over a moored array deployed south
17 of Norfolk Island, hypothesize that part of the deeper water of the EAC that does not
18 flow along the Tasman Front, forms leakage past the south of Tasmania into the Indian
19 ocean. Model studies show that this Tasman Leakage, fed by the extension of the EAC,
20 is located in the upper 1000m of the ocean and its core is centered around 100m depth

21 [*Van Sebille et al.*, 2012]. Whether this water indeed originates from the deeper part of
22 the EAC has not yet been investigated.

23 From previous studies, three main theories concerning the separation of the EAC can
24 be distinguished. First, observations of the EAC region show that the separation of the
25 EAC often takes place near Sugarloaf Point at 32.4°S, where the coastline has a strong
26 curvature [*Godfrey et al.*, 1980]. This suggests that the separation is topographically
27 controlled. Indeed, *Marchesiello and Middleton* [2000], using a vorticity balance model
28 study, find that a bend in the continental slope is the determinant factor to cause the
29 EAC to separate in combination with the forcing from baroclinic Rossby waves pinching
30 off eddies from the EAC. However, other studies argue that Rossby waves are not the
31 main players in controlling the formation of the EAC eddies and that this variability is
32 generated locally around the separation latitude [*Bowen et al.*, 2005; *Mata et al.*, 2006].

33 In contrast, *Tilburg et al.* [2001] argue that bottom topography and coastline details
34 have little effect on the separation latitude. Using numerical simulations whose complexity
35 is systematically increased, they find that the inclusion of wind forcing results in the
36 correct separation latitude, where gradients in the zonally integrated wind stress curl field
37 determine the location. Analysis of sediment cores from the Coral Sea and the Tasman
38 Sea show that during the last glacial the EAC separation took place between 23°S and 26°
39 [*Bostock et al.*, 2006]. *Bostock et al.* [2006] mention the possibility that the shift is caused
40 by a change in the wind stress curl field in the last glacial, but argue that this has not yet
41 been proven and that the separation seems to be primarily controlled by SST gradients.
42 Furthermore, *Oliver and Holbrook* [2014], using climate change simulations of the Tasman
43 Sea circulation, show that the separation latitude may shift 100 km southwards from

44 1990 to 2060. *Oliver and Holbrook* [2014] argue that the linear Sverdrup theory can not
45 explain the southward shift and that the mean location of the separation is governed by
46 baroclinic, eddy-rich dynamics. Additionally, a shift in the separation latitude suggests
47 that the dynamics of the separation latitude is not only topographically controlled.

48 Lastly, the separation of a western boundary current can also occur for reasons of
49 vorticity dynamics, even in the absence of changes in the wind stress curl, bathymetry or
50 a curvature of the coastline [*Kiss*, 2002]. Under no-slip boundary conditions the potential
51 vorticity of the viscous sublayer of the western boundary current becomes larger than the
52 potential vorticity of the interior. *Kiss* [2002] shows that the excess potential vorticity
53 can only be dissipated by an outflow separating from the coast. This theory has not yet
54 been investigated using oceanic general circulation models.

55 The different theories show the complexity of the western boundary current systems and
56 the different mechanisms that affect their separation point. Modelling a realistic western
57 boundary current separation is very sensitive to choices made for subgrid scale parameter-
58 izations and is sensitive to for example a proper representation of water mass properties,
59 bathymetry and air sea fluxes. Despite the long history of research on modelling western
60 boundary currents, there is not yet a single recipe that guarantees a correct separation of
61 all western boundary currents in a global model [*Chassignet and Marshall*, 2008].

62 This paper is one of the first attempts to investigate the upstream control and the
63 potential vorticity structure of the water masses separated at the bifurcation of the EAC
64 separately from a Lagrangian perspective. Previous studies show that the Lagrangian
65 approach is suitable in this region [e.g., *Van Sebille et al.*, 2012; *Cetina-Heredia et al.*,

2014]. An additional advantage of using a Lagrangian perspective is that, unlike an Eulerian approach, the direct connectivity between sources and sinks can be studied.

In this study, we use numerical Lagrangian float trajectories advected within a $1/4$ degree global ocean sea-ice model, which allows us to make a distinction between water flowing eastward following the Tasman Front and water continuing southwards in eddies forming the EAC extension. This will give an idea of where and how the bifurcation of the EAC is controlled. We will investigate the upstream control of the fate of the water by studying the distribution of the particles upstream and downstream of the separation latitude. Furthermore, anomalies and changes in the in-situ potential vorticity structure for the two pathways upstream and around the separation latitude is studied to show what components of the potential vorticity equation are controlling the structure of the PV anomaly and how this relates to the bifurcation of the two pathways.

The next section presents a brief description of the ocean model used, the set-up of the Lagrangian experiment and how the distinction between the pathways is made. Additionally, the calculations made to analyse the potential vorticity of the pathways are discussed. Section 3 will provide a brief validation of the ocean model, followed by the analysis of the trajectories of interest in section 4, including an examination of the potential vorticity changes at the region of the EAC separation, followed by a general discussion and summary of our main results in section 5.

2. Data and Method

2.1. The ocean circulation model

To investigate the EAC separation we have used 5-day averages of the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL) Modular Ocean Model (MOM025), which is based

87 on the ocean component of the GFDL CM2.4 and CM2.5 coupled climate models [*Farneti*
88 *et al.*, 2010; *Delworth et al.*, 2012]. MOM025 is a global ocean-sea-ice model with 50
89 levels in the vertical (with a 10m resolution in the upper 100m up to a 200m resolution in
90 the bottom layers) and a $1/4^\circ$ eddy-permitting horizontal resolution with no-slip lateral
91 boundary conditions, coupled to the GFDL Sea Ice Simulator dynamic/themodynamic
92 sea-ice model. The atmospheric state is prescribed and converted to ocean surface fluxes
93 by bulk formulae. There are no air-sea feedbacks and for the analysis a “normal year”
94 atmospheric forcing is used constructed from version 2 of the Coordinated Ocean-ice
95 Reference Experiments Normal Year Forcing (CORE-NYF) reanalysis data [*Griffies et al.*,
96 2009; *Large and Yeager*, 2009]. CORE-NYF consists of a climatological mean atmospheric
97 state at 6 hour intervals for 1 year and includes synoptic variability. However, there is no
98 interannual variability present in the forcing fields and all variability seen in the model
99 output on time scales larger than a year can therefore only be caused by internal ocean
100 processes, which are the main focus of this study. A run forced by Inter-Annual Forcing
101 (CORE-IOF) version 2.0 is used for validation as well, to see to what extent atmospheric
102 variability accounts for differences between the model run with normal year forcing and
103 observations.

2.2. Particle tracking

104 The Lagrangian particles are released every 5 days for 10 years upstream of the EAC
105 separation and advected forwards in time with a timestep of 1 hour within the 5-day aver-
106 ages of the 3D velocity field output of the ocean model, using the Connectivity Modeling
107 System [CMS v1.1, *Paris et al.*, 2013]. No horizontal or vertical diffusivity is added to the
108 particles, so the particle motion is purely advective. The particles are released at a zonal

109 transect at 26°S between 154°E and 155.5°E within the top 1000m. Since particles flowing
 110 at depths deeper than 1000m are mainly recirculated in the Tasman Sea [*Ridgway and*
 111 *Dunn, 2003*], they are not considered as part of the two pathways of interest. Particles
 112 reaching the southern end of the Australian continent, between 42.5°S and 41.5°S and
 113 between 148°E and 150°E, are defined here to form the extension of the EAC. Particles
 114 flowing through a box north of New Zealand, between 31°S and 36°S and between 173.5°E
 115 and 175°E, are defined here as taking the Tasman Front pathway (figure 1). This way, a
 116 total of 1.4×10^5 particles that follow the Extension of the EAC and 1.1×10^5 particles that
 117 follow the Tasman Front are advected for up to 4 years, to make sure that the majority
 118 of the particles following the extension of the EAC had enough time to pass the southern
 119 tip of Tasmania [*Van Sebille et al., 2012*].

2.3. Potential vorticity along the trajectories

120 The decomposition of the two pathways of interest allows us to investigate differences in
 121 anomalies in potential vorticity around and upstream of the separation latitude. Looking
 122 not only at anomalies in potential vorticity, but also at anomalies of relative vorticity and
 123 stratification will show which component is controlling the structure of the PV anomaly
 124 and how this relates to the bifurcation of the two pathways. The same approach is used to
 125 look at changes in the potential vorticity terms along the trajectories to see if and where
 126 these terms are conserved.

For all particles, and for every 5 days along their trajectories, the in-situ potential vortic-
 ity (PV) at their longitude, latitude and depth is calculated using the vertical component
 of the Ertel PV

$$q = -\frac{f + \zeta}{\rho_{ref}} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z}, \quad (1)$$

127 where q is potential vorticity, f the planetary vorticity, ζ the relative vorticity, ρ_{ref} the
128 reference density of 1035 kg/m^3 and ρ the in-situ density, where $\partial\rho/\partial z$ is a measure of
129 stratification [e.g. *Dijkstra, 2008*]. First, q , ζ and $\partial\rho/\partial z$ are calculated from the velocity
130 and density fields from the ocean model by central differencing. Then, the fields are
131 linearly interpolated over a 0.1° lon x 0.1° lat x 10m depth grid and lastly, the obtained
132 PV values are interpolated onto the location and time of the particles using a nearest-
133 neighbors search.

134 The value of stratification is negative at all times, since the water columns in the ocean
135 model used are statically stable everywhere. The planetary vorticity is negative in the
136 southern hemisphere and is in most places larger in magnitude than the relative vorticity.
137 The minus sign in equation 1 is chosen such that the potential vorticity will be negative in
138 most locations in order to match other definitions of potential vorticity. If the Richardson
139 number ($Ri = N^2/|\partial\mathbf{u}_h/\partial z|^2$, where N^2 is the vertical buoyancy gradient and \mathbf{u}_h the
140 horizontal velocity) of the flow is large, so vertical shear and horizontal density gradients
141 are small, q is conserved when following a water parcel in the absence of diabatic and
142 frictional processes.

3. Validation of the Modular Ocean Model circulation

143 The ocean components of the next generation of climate models, which will form the
144 bulk of CMIP6, will likely be eddy-permitting at a $1/4^\circ - 1/3^\circ$ horizontal resolution. This
145 means that, even though a $1/4^\circ$ model might not capture all dynamical aspects by under-
146 estimating the eddy activity, it is still important to understand the physical mechanisms
147 that are present in ocean models at this resolution. To validate the results of the model, a
148 comparison is made between the model output and observed sea surface height (SSH) from

149 the Archiving Validation and Interpretation of Satellite Oceanographic data (AVISO) by
150 investigating the mean, the variability, the location of EAC separation and the volume
151 transport. The AVISO product used provides SSH on a 0.25° by 0.25° Cartesian grid with
152 a 7-day temporal resolution from 1992 to 2010.

3.1. Mean and Variability of the Sea Surface Height

153 The mean and the standard deviation of the sea surface height are calculated from the
154 model and AVISO altimetry data (figure 2) over the entire length of the datasets (19
155 years for AVISO, 40 years for the model). The results from the model are not strongly
156 dependent on the length of the dataset chosen to analyse, since interannual variability is
157 low. The mean of the SSH is in good agreement with observations and the pathway of
158 the EAC is clearly visible (figure 2a and 2b). However, the standard deviation, which is
159 a measure for the variability or eddy activity, differs between the model and observations
160 (figure 2c and 2d). The Tasman Front in the model seems to have a very narrow band of
161 variability extending eastward at approximately 33°S , whereas in the satellite observations
162 this pathway is not as clearly visible and seems to be more broad. Furthermore, the
163 variability in the model shows only half the magnitude of the variability seen in AVISO.

164 *Van Sebille et al.* [2012] studied the same region using the Ocean Forecast for the
165 Earth Simulator (OFES), which is based on an older version of the Modular Ocean Model
166 (MOM3), but has a $1/10^\circ$ horizontal resolution. They find a good agreement in SSH
167 variability between AVISO and their model output, suggesting that the lower resolution
168 of MOM025 leads to reduced SSH variability. Furthermore, $\sim 30\%$ of the missing vari-
169 ability in the region of the EAC separation can be explained by interannual atmospheric
170 variability, comparing the model run with ‘Normal-Year’ forcing to the model run with

171 ‘Inter-Annual’ forcing (not shown). Therefore, it is likely that the underestimation in
172 variability is mainly due to the relatively low horizontal resolution in the ocean model,
173 with a smaller effect of the missing atmospheric interannual variability in the forcing.

3.2. Separation latitude of the EAC

174 In order to validate the model further, the time series of the EAC separation latitude is
175 used to compare the location and variability of separation between the model and AVISO.
176 The method of estimating the latitude at which the EAC veers eastward is based on a
177 modified version of the method described by *Cetina-Heredia et al.* [2014], where SSH
178 contours are used to find the veering point of the main current. First, the core of the
179 EAC is found upstream of the separation by selecting the maximum southward geostrophic
180 surface velocity at a 28°S transect. Second, the SSH isoline coinciding with the location
181 of the maximum velocity is followed. Third, the location at which the isoline turns more
182 than 30 degrees eastward of south is recorded as the separation latitude. This method
183 has been shown to be appropriately sensitive to both eddy detachment and reattachment,
184 which highly influence the location of separation [*Cetina-Heredia et al.*, 2014]. The chosen
185 threshold of 30 degrees might result in values of the separation latitude that are slightly
186 further to the south than in-situ observations indicate. By the time the SSH contour has
187 turned 30 degrees, its actual separation from the coast has already taken place further
188 north. However, since we use the same method for the model data and the observation
189 from satellite altimetry, this is still a good method to validate the models representation
190 of the separation.

191 The temporal average of the separation latitude over the years of data available shows
192 a clear dependance on the seasonal cycle (figure 3a). The standard deviation in the

193 separation latitude of the model is 0.5° to 1° (figure 3c), while the standard deviations
194 in the observations is much larger (figure 3b), so this cycle will not be very clear in
195 most years and only shows up in the mean. In both the model and the observations
196 the most northern separation latitude is reached in July, whereas the most southern
197 latitudes are reached between December and April. This is in agreement with the in-
198 situ observed enhanced southward flow of the EAC in summer [*Ridgway and Godfrey,*
199 1997]. Furthermore, the time series show some skewness, with a steeper slope of the EAC
200 separation retraction northward compared to the progression of the separation southwards.
201 This can be explained by the observed higher eddy kinetic energy in late summer and
202 autumn in this region, implying more eddy shedding events [*Qiu et al., 2004; Cetina*
203 *et al., 2014*] (figure 3c).

204 The cumulative probability of the time series obtained shows the underlying distribu-
205 tion of the separation latitude (figure 3b). Per degree of latitude at which the maximum
206 southward geostrophic velocity is selected, the median of the probability can shift south-
207 wards or northwards by 0.3 - 0.4° latitude. However, the shape of the function stays the
208 same. Therefore, it is possible to use this method to compare the underlying distribution
209 of both datasets.

210 From this, we can conclude that the median of the separation latitude in the model
211 agrees very well with the observations. The distribution of the modeled separation latitude
212 is however much narrower, consistent with the model's underestimation of SSH variability.
213 This, again, can be explained by the relatively low horizontal resolution in the ocean model
214 and the effect of the missing atmospheric variability in the forcing. The difference of the
215 recorded separation latitude between the model and the AVISO data is slightly larger at

216 the southern end of the distribution than at the northern end of the distribution. It is
217 likely that this skewness is caused by the observed trend in the EAC separation latitude,
218 where the current is found to separate more often at the southernmost latitudes in more
219 recent years [*Cetina-Heredia et al.*, 2014].

3.3. Volume transport in the Tasman Sea

220 The volume transport in the Tasman Sea is calculated for different sections by multi-
221 plying the normal velocity component with the grid area and integrating over the upper
222 2000m of the water column. The transport is compared to estimates derived from the
223 mean dynamic topography relative to 2000m from CSIRO Atlas of Regional Seas (CARS)
224 climatology [*Oliver and Holbrook*, 2014; *Ridgway et al.*, 2002; *Dunn and Ridgway*, 2002;
225 *Condi and Dunn*, 2006] and estimates given by *Ridgway and Godfrey* [1994] based on
226 observations of 6000 hydrological stations. The different segments are indicated by letters
227 chosen to match *Oliver and Holbrook* [2014] (figure 4).

228 At the northern boundary of the Tasman Sea, the inflow from the EAC (EF, figure 4)
229 and the flow northward across 28°S (DE) in the model are both lower than the volume
230 transport estimated from observations, indicating that the EAC strength is weaker in the
231 model than in observations. The transport across the meridional section at 173°E (DG) is
232 however overestimated. Similar to the results from the standard deviation of the SSH and
233 the findings of *Oliver and Holbrook* [2014] this suggests that the model predicts a more
234 focused eastward flow along the Tasman Front than observations do. At the southern
235 boundary of the domain, the model estimates for the narrow flow along Tasmania from
236 the EAC extension (AB) are similar to the observations. The northward transport is
237 slightly overestimated (BC).

238 The net transport out of the domain bounded by A-F (figure 4) of the ocean model
239 is 0.6 Sv compared to -0.8 Sv estimated from CARS and 2.2 Sv estimated by *Ridgway*
240 *and Godfrey* [1994]. The imbalance in the model can be explained by leakage through
241 the Cook and Bass straits and the transport taking place at depths below 2000m. The
242 imbalance for the observations are larger and of opposite sign, indicating that the observed
243 values are uncertain as well, which is partly caused by the highly variable transport in
244 this region.

245 The Lagrangian particles advected in the ocean model are used to provide a second
246 method to estimate transport. Every particle is tagged with its transport at the time of
247 release by multiplying the southward velocity with the area (0.25° lon x 10m thickness).
248 From this an estimate can be made for the proportion of water that originates from the
249 EAC and follows the Tasman Front or follows the extension of the EAC. The results show
250 that a large part ($\sim 40\%$) of the transport from the EAC is following the Tasman Front
251 pathway and only $\sim 14\%$ of the total transport is following the extension of the EAC. The
252 remainder of the transport in the EAC is carried by particles that recirculate within the
253 Tasman Sea and do not reach Tasmania or New Zealand (figure 1). This is in agreement
254 with previous estimates that show a 1:3 ratio between transport in the extension of the
255 EAC and transport in the Tasman Front [*Hill et al.*, 2011].

256

257 We conclude that, although the model does not reproduce all features of the East
258 Australian Current region as seen in observations, it shows sufficient skill to assess the
259 two pathways resulting from the EAC separation from the coast.

4. Results

4.1. Upstream control by particle distribution

260 The depth profile of the particle density distribution upstream of the separation latitude
261 at 28°S is shown in figure 5 for particles traveling southwards as part of the EAC extension
262 and for particles traveling eastwards along the Tasman Front. A clear distinction in the
263 distribution of the particles with depth between the two pathways can be observed, but
264 the zonal distribution is very similar. 83% of the particles following the extension of the
265 EAC originate from the deeper part of the EAC flow between a depth of 640m and 1000m.
266 The particles that form part of the Tasman Front, however, originate from the upper part
267 of the EAC, where 72% originates from the layer between the surface and 640m depth.
268 Shifting the chosen transect southwards or northwards upstream of the separation location
269 does not change this distribution (not shown). There are no particles in this simulation
270 that originate from a depth deeper than 700m ending up north of New Zealand while
271 following the Tasman Front, in agreement with the observed values by *Sutton and Bowen*
272 [2014]. This indicates that whether a particle follows the Tasman Front or the EAC
273 extension (the ‘fate’ of a particle) is to some extent already determined before the EAC
274 bifurcates.

275 The distribution in the water column does not change significantly following the particle
276 trajectories. The change in depth from before the bifurcation, at 27°S, to after the bifur-
277 cation, at 40°S and 160°E for the extension of the EAC and the Tasman Front particles
278 respectively, is shown in figure 6. The particles originating from 200m-600m depth, that
279 follow the extension of the EAC (figure 6a), seem to be advected upward in the water
280 column by up to 200m. Below 600m the particles do not seem to change their depth

281 significantly. The particles that follow the Tasman front show a mean shift upwards of
282 only 50m (figure 6b) and their distribution in the water column has a smaller extent than
283 the particles that follow the extension of the EAC.

284 This behavior can be explained by the outcropping of time-mean isopycnals. We note
285 the presence of isopycnal outcropping in the top 300m depth from 27°S to 40°S (dotted
286 line figure 6a). From 300m to 700m depth, the isopycnals move strongly upwards in
287 the water column, and below 700m their depth does not change. The behavior of the
288 isopycnals in this region is mainly explained by the strong gradient in temperature over
289 the transects chosen. Comparing the depth of the isopycnals between the transects at
290 27°S and 160°E along the Tasman Front, the isopycnals are slightly pushed up (dotted
291 line figure 6b), which is explained by the fact that the transect at 160°E lies poleward of
292 27°S around 34°S where the mean density is higher.

293 The results indicate that particles tend to adiabatically follow isopycnals. It seems that
294 particles following the extension of the EAC only partly follow isopycnals, as seen in the
295 differences between the curve of the particles depth change and the curve of the depth
296 change of the isopycnals (figure 6a). However, a large part of these particles might be
297 trapped in warm-core anticyclonic eddies and therefore experience a lower density than
298 the mean flow around them at the transect at 40°S. This could mean that these particles
299 do follow isopycnals, but experience a smaller upward advection than the mean density
300 surfaces show.

301 To investigate whether the displacement of the particles is due to vertical movement of
302 isopycnals or due to mixing across isopycnals, the change of the particle's density between
303 the transects (27°S to 40°S and 27°S to 160°E) is calculated (figure 7). Respectively 80%

304 and 67% of the particles density change is within a $\pm 0.2 \text{ kg/m}^3$ range from the identity
305 line for particles following the extension of the EAC and particles following the Tasman
306 Front. From this, it is clear that particles tend to follow isopycnals. Therefore, the
307 discrepancy seen in figure 6a between the curve of the particles change in depth from 27°S
308 to 40°S and the curve of the change of depth of the isopycnals can indeed be explained
309 by the fact that most of the particles in the upper 600m are travelling southwards within
310 anticyclonic eddies, and show less advection upwards than the mean isopycnal field.

4.2. Control by eddy activity

311 The number of particles crossing the transect at 28°S varies with time. For the subset
312 of particles that follow the EAC extension the largest fraction crosses the transect in
313 September (14.5 %, figure 8a) and the smallest fraction crosses the transect in May (3.8
314 %). The percentages shown are normalised for each pathway individually. Although there
315 is some variability seen in the subset of the particles that follow the Tasman Front, it does
316 not show a seasonal dependence. Therefore, less water flowing into the extension of the
317 EAC does not necessarily lead to more water following the Tasman Front and vice versa.

318 Depending on which latitude is chosen for the transect, the peak of the maximum
319 fraction of particles crossing that transect shifts to later or earlier months if the transect
320 shifts southwards or northwards respectively. This shift can be explained by the time it
321 takes particles to cover the distance from the transect at 28°S to the separation latitude.
322 The transit time from the transect at 28°S to the mean separation latitude of 33°S is
323 shown, in a cumulative sense, in figure 8b for the particles that cross 28°S in September.
324 Half of the particles arrive at 33°S within 4 months, but the distribution ranges from
325 transit times of a minimum of 22 days to transit times of more than a year. This

326 suggests that a large fraction of particles is trapped in eddies north of the mean separation
327 latitude of 33°S. Furthermore, investigation of the particles trajectories reveals that some
328 particles take a long detour away from the coast and the EAC before reaching 33°S, which
329 are not shown in figure 1. With a delay of 4 months, the arrival time at the separation
330 region of the maximum number of particles following the EAC extension is January.

331 The strong seasonal variability seen in the number of particles following the extension of
332 the EAC is likely related to the strong seasonal variability observed in the EAC separation
333 latitude (figure 3a) and the eddy activity (figure 3c). In western boundary current regions
334 the standard deviation in sea level height is mostly caused by mesoscale eddy variability
335 [Zlotnicki *et al.*, 1989; Thompson and Demirov, 2006] and can therefore be used as an
336 indicator for eddy activity. To obtain the time series of the SSH standard deviation in
337 the ocean model, a 55-day running mean is used and the result is averaged over the area
338 between 20°S and 45°S and between 150°E and 160°E.

339 The eddy activity and the variability seen in the separation latitude are highly correlated
340 (figure 3c). As discussed in section 3.2, this can be explained by the eddy shedding process,
341 where higher eddy activity implies more eddy shedding and therefore larger variability in
342 the separation latitude. The variability is high from January through to June, while the
343 separation latitude moves equatorward from its most southern excursion (figure 3a). The
344 maximum variability seems to be reached in June, which is a few weeks before the most
345 northern separation latitude is reached (figure 3). Then, the variability quickly drops down
346 to a minimum in October and starts slowly increasing from October onwards. Combining
347 this result with the transit time from 28°S to 33°S (figure 8b), it seems that the number
348 of particles ending up in the extension of the EAC is dependent on the eddy activity and

349 where the separation takes place. The results suggest that the largest transport across
350 the separation latitude takes place around January, when the eddy activity is high and
351 the EAC separates at the southern end of its range.

4.3. Control by potential vorticity

352 The future pathway of the particles seems to be mostly controlled inside the EAC by
353 the depth of the particles upstream of the separation latitude (section 4.1). However,
354 as seen in figure 5, there is an overlapping region between the surface and a depth of
355 approximately 600m where the particles can either follow the extension of the EAC or
356 the Tasman Front. This section will focus on the evolution of vorticity for both particle
357 pathways in the overlapping region at about 400m depth, where the number of particles
358 of both pathways is optimum.

359 To investigate what determines whether a particle in the overlapping region veers east-
360 ward into the Tasman Front or continues southward, anomalies of potential vorticity,
361 stratification and relative vorticity are calculated for both pathways (figure 9). Particles
362 are selected when traveling through one of the 0.1° lon x 0.1° lat grid boxes in a thin
363 depth layer between 350m and 450m depth, where the particles of both pathways are
364 evenly distributed and the density does not change significantly with depth. The values
365 shown are averages over 100 randomly selected particles at that grid point, to be sure that
366 the results are not biased by the number of particles present. All locations containing less
367 than 100 particles are not shown.

368 The resulting anomalies in the potential vorticity terms are 5-10 times smaller than the
369 values for the mean potential vorticity and $\partial\rho/\partial z$ and roughly 2 times smaller than the
370 values of the mean relative vorticity. From 33°S to 38°S , particles located close to the

371 coastline have a standard deviation of similar magnitude compared to the anomaly itself
372 at that location. This indicates that there is a high variability of vorticity in this region
373 and therefore the anomaly close to the coast south of 33°S should be interpreted carefully.

374 There is a clear difference between the two pathways in the anomalies for all the vorticity
375 terms upstream of and around the separation latitude. The potential vorticity anomaly is
376 strongly positive at the eastern side of the particle trajectories following the extension of
377 the EAC (figure 9a). In the same region, the particles following the Tasman Front show
378 a negative anomaly in potential vorticity (figure 9b). For both pathways, this region falls
379 outside the regions with a large spread in potential vorticity, and the difference observed
380 between the anomalies in q of particles following the extension of the EAC and particles
381 following the Tasman Front is therefore robust. These patterns are mainly caused by
382 the anomalies seen in the stratification (figures 9c and 9d), which indicates that layer
383 thickness variations are dominating the structure of potential vorticity.

384 Between 30°S and 32°, $\partial\rho/\partial z$ shows a positive anomaly, indicating a decrease in strati-
385 fication from the mean (figure 9c). To explain why the particles experience a reduction in
386 the stratification of the fluid, it is important to know where the pycnocline is located and
387 how eddies influence the density profile in this region. In the mean state of the density
388 profile the maximum in density changes, the pycnocline, is located at 400m depth north
389 of 32°S (not shown). From 32°S to 34°S a sharp decrease in depth of the pycnocline is
390 observed, coinciding with the outcropping of warm Coral Sea water. Since the depth of
391 our layer chosen is located at the pycnocline depth in the northern region of our domain,
392 upward or downward shifting of the pycnocline would both cause a reduction in stratifica-
393 tion. The same region shows a positive anomaly in relative vorticity (figure 9e), indicating

394 more anticyclonic behavior compared to the mean. Anticyclonic eddies have the tendency
395 to push isopycnals, and therefore the pycnocline, down. Apparently, particles flowing
396 along the EAC extension experience more anticyclonic behavior, which causes a reduction
397 in the stratification and potential vorticity around 32°S.

398 The particles that follow the Tasman Front show a negative anomaly in $\partial\rho/\partial z$, indicat-
399 ing an increase in stratification with respect to the mean state. The negative signature
400 is even stronger farther south. It is possible that this behavior is not caused by vertical
401 changes in the pycnocline, as for the particles following the EAC extension, but by a
402 horizontal shift of the outcropping region of the pycnocline. Shifting this region to the
403 south would bring the more stratified water of the pycnocline to a region of less stratified
404 water at the depth of 400m, explaining the observed anomaly in stratification. This is an
405 indication that particles following the Tasman Front are controlled by the strong horizon-
406 tal gradient in density seen in the upper 400m around 33°S, caused by the outcropping
407 of isopycnals. Particles following the Tasman Front can only reach higher latitudes when
408 this barrier is pushed southwards.

409 The anomaly in relative vorticity for particles following the Tasman Front shows a
410 positive anomaly close to the coast following the southern boundary of the particles tra-
411 jectories, but a slightly negative anomaly away from the coastline (figure 9f). Interestingly,
412 the mean state of relative vorticity shows a similar pattern with negative (cyclonic) and
413 positive (anticyclonic) regions (not shown). The cyclonic regions coincide with the regions
414 where we see a positive anomaly in relative vorticity and the anticyclonic regions coincide
415 with the regions where we see a negative anomaly in relative vorticity. This indicates
416 that particles following the Tasman Front experience a reduction in both anticyclonic and

417 cyclonic behavior compared to the mean. The reduction can be caused by either less eddy
418 activity or by a weakening of the flow.

419 Combining the results of the anomalies seen in the vorticity terms it seems that to cross
420 the barrier of strong horizontal density gradients, anticyclonic eddies play a crucial role
421 in pushing isopycnals down and transporting particles southwards.

422
423 We have seen that layer thickness variations are dominating the structure of potential
424 vorticity. However, this does not necessarily imply that potential vorticity changes along
425 particle trajectories are dominated by stratification changes. Since particles to first order
426 follow contours of constant isopycnal spacing, the contribution to Lagrangian PV change
427 from stratification is reduced. Therefore, we also compute the material derivative of
428 potential vorticity, stratification and relative vorticity along the trajectory of the particles
429 and visualize these in the same way as the anomalies of these terms (figure 10). The results
430 show the change along a trajectory over 5 days. The standard error of the mean is at
431 least one order of magnitude smaller than the calculated values (not shown), indicating
432 that the means shown are statistically different from zero.

433 The results for the particles following the extension of the EAC and the results for
434 particles following the Tasman Front show a similar pattern. It is clear that potential
435 vorticity is relatively well conserved on the offshore side of the domain. However, close
436 to the coast changes in potential vorticity are significant where an $O(1)$ change of PV can
437 take place within 50 days. Since the model has no-slip boundary conditions it is possible
438 that friction causes the PV conservation to break down in this region.

439 North of 31°S the potential vorticity is decreasing downstream at the onshore side of
440 the current and increasing downstream at the offshore side (figure 10a and b). Comparing
441 this region to the patterns seen for the temporal change in $\partial\rho/\partial z$ (figure 10c and d) and
442 relative vorticity (figure 10e and f), the changes in PV are due to changes in relative
443 vorticity, rather than changes in stratification. The relative vorticity shows a decrease in
444 ζ at the cyclonic side and an increase in ζ at the anticyclonic side, implying that both
445 cyclonic and anticyclonic behavior is increasing downstream. This is in agreement with
446 previous studies on western boundary current dynamics [*Kiss*, 2010].

447 The pattern seen in the Lagrangian changes in relative vorticity at the offshore side of
448 the domain (figure 10f), can be explained by the fact that potential vorticity is mostly
449 conserved in this region. Since $\partial\rho/\partial z$ does not show any significant changes in this region
450 as well, poleward movement requires an increase in relative vorticity and equatorward
451 movement a decrease in relative vorticity to conserve PV (see equation 1), which agrees
452 with the path the particles take and the changes in relative vorticity seen in figure 10f.

453 South of 32°S the pattern of the Lagrangian changes in potential vorticity is reversed,
454 with increasing values of potential vorticity along the coastline and decreasing values
455 offshore (figure 10a). This pattern can be explained by the changes seen in the $\partial\rho/\partial z$
456 term (figure 10c). Particles feel a stretching of isopycnals when they travel close to the
457 coast along their trajectory and a squeezing offshore. The signal follows the coastline
458 closely and the width of the region where the changes take place is about 200 km. Since
459 southward traveling eddies take exactly this route they might induce the pattern seen here.
460 Anticyclonic eddy motion is southward near the coast and northwards offshore. The cross-
461 shore component cancels out in the mean as an eddy moves south. However, the along-

462 shore component can cause an increase (decrease) in potential vorticity at the onshore
463 (offshore) side of the eddy, due to a decrease (increase) in the stratification magnitude
464 seen in figure 10c.

5. Discussion

465 In this paper we have used Lagrangian particles advected in the Modular Ocean Model
466 to investigate where and how the fate of the particles following the EAC extension and the
467 Tasman Front is controlled. We have seen that the pathway of the particles downstream
468 of the separation is to some extent already determined by the particles distribution within
469 the EAC current upstream of the separation latitude, where the surface waters follow the
470 Tasman Front and the deeper waters (till 1000m depth) follow the extension of the EAC.
471 In the region where the two water masses overlap, at 400m depth, the fate of the water
472 seems to depend on the presence of anticyclonic eddies that push the isopycnals down
473 enabling particles to travel further south.

474
475 The fact that the Tasman Front pathway is fed by water from the top 600m of the EAC
476 agrees well with the observations done by *Sutton and Bowen* [2014]. Furthermore, this
477 study shows that the water located deeper in the EAC is indeed travelling southwards
478 as hypothesized by *Sutton and Bowen* [2014]. We have seen that the particles travelling
479 southwards between 600m and 1000m depth do not really change their depth in the water
480 column, whereas particles travelling in the upper 600m are slightly advected upwards.
481 Studying the change in density of the particles between 27°S and 40°S shows that the
482 vertical displacement is due to the adiabatic behavior of the particles. Particles following

483 the Tasman Front keep their density constant by veering eastward instead of displacing
484 vertically.

485 The results of this study show that the structure of the isopycnals is dominant in split-
486 ting the two pathways. Particles travelling below 600m do not experience a strong vertical
487 change in the isopycnal which they are following and are therefore able to continue their
488 journey southwards along the eastern boundary of Australia. Particles in the upper 600m
489 however experience a strong gradient in the horizontal density field around the separation
490 latitude, due to the outcropping of isopycnals, and most of the particles are forced to
491 continue their journey eastward.

492

493 Vertical and horizontal shifts in the pycnocline could explain the anomalies seen in the
494 stratification and potential vorticity. From the results, it is also clear that layer thickness
495 variations are dominating the structure of potential vorticity in this region. The vertical
496 downward shift of the pycnocline is explained by the increased anticyclonic behavior
497 around the separation latitude in figure 9e. This could mean that anticyclonic eddies
498 are essential for transporting water across the horizontal gradient in density in the top
499 layer. The negative anomaly in the stratification for particles following the Tasman Front
500 could be explained by the southward movement of the vertical slope of the pycnocline.
501 The movement of the front is related to the separation latitude of the EAC and since time
502 series of the separation latitude show a clear seasonal cycle, one would expect a seasonal
503 signal in the number of particles moving eastwards as well. However, there is no clear
504 seasonal signal seen in the number of particles following the Tasman Front (figure 8a) and
505 further investigation is necessary to see what is causing the anomaly in stratification.

506 The fact that anticyclonic eddies play a crucial role in the transport southwards in the
507 upper layer connects well to the results seen in the seasonal dependence of the transport
508 southwards (figure 8a) in relation to the seasonal pattern seen in the eddy activity (figure
509 3c). *Cetina-Heredia et al.* [2014] have looked at the amount of southward transport that
510 takes place inside eddies and estimate that only $15.8 \pm 18.3\%$ of the transport takes place
511 within eddies. However, this is calculated with respect to the total transport southwards,
512 and not with respect to the transport taking place in the upper 600m. The transport
513 southwards originating from the upper layer of the EAC current might show a larger per-
514 centage of water being transported inside eddies as the eddies are surface-intensified.

515
516 This paper is one of the first attempts to investigate the conservation of potential
517 vorticity from a Lagrangian perspective in a general circulation ocean model. North of
518 the separation latitude, an increase in cyclonic and anticyclonic behavior is observed
519 downstream, causing the potential vorticity to decrease on the onshore, cyclonic, side of
520 the current and increase on the offshore, anticyclonic, side. This in good agreement with
521 the results found by *Kiss* [2010] that changes in PV are due to changes in relative vorticity
522 rather than changes in stratification. On the cyclonic side, the potential vorticity becomes
523 far more negative than the potential vorticity in the interior at the same latitude. This
524 supports the idea that the ‘excess’ negative vorticity has to be lost to connect the fluid
525 to the interior [*Kiss*, 2010]. In figure 10b for particles following the Tasman Front, a
526 small positive region of the Lagrangian change of potential vorticity at 153.5°E and 33°S
527 is observed, indicating the loss of negative vorticity which could be caused by the sudden
528 decrease in cyclonic behavior in this region seen in figure 10f.

529 In this study, only the vertical component of the Ertel potential vorticity equation is
530 considered. However, since we have seen that a sharp vertical slope in the pycnocline is
531 observed at the separation latitude, the horizontal component (the baroclinic term) of the
532 Ertel potential vorticity equation (given by $\boldsymbol{\omega}_h \cdot \nabla_h(-\rho/\rho_0)$, where $\boldsymbol{\omega}_h$ is the horizontal
533 component of the absolute vorticity $\boldsymbol{\omega} = f\hat{\mathbf{k}} + \nabla \times \mathbf{u}$) might not be negligible in this
534 region [Holmes *et al.*, 2014]. Indeed, Godfrey *et al.* [1980] find low Richardson numbers at
535 the separation latitude indicating that horizontal density gradients and shear might be of
536 importance. Consequently, the regions where we see non-conservation of PV in figure 10
537 could still be conserving the full potential vorticity when including the baroclinic term.

538 To assess whether friction, diabatic processes or the horizontal component of the Ertel
539 PV are causing the potential vorticity to change along a particles trajectory, the vorticity
540 balance has to be investigated. For this, an online assessment of the different potential
541 vorticity terms is necessary to ensure a closing balance and the results would benefit from
542 a higher temporal and horizontal resolution of the ocean model. A higher horizontal res-
543 olution would also result in a more realistic representation of the eddy field and a higher
544 temporal and horizontal resolution would decrease the errors made when interpolating
545 the potential vorticity fields to the particle location and moment in time.

546
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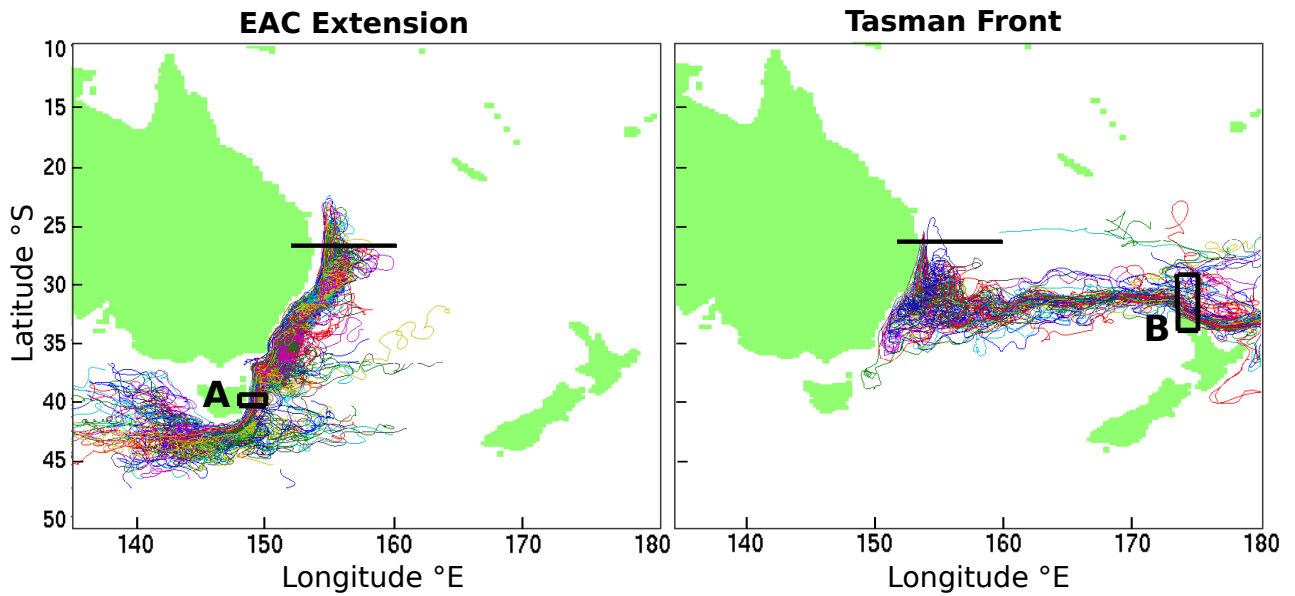


Figure 1. Subset of 80 particles, respectively, advected in the ocean model following the pathway of the extension of the EAC (left) and the pathway of the Tasman Front (right) following their release at 27°S. Particles traveling through box A (41.5°S – 42.5°S and 148°E – 150°E) are selected to form the extension of the EAC. Particles traveling through box B (31°S – 36°S and 173.5°E – 175°E) form the pathway of the Tasman Front. The black line shows the transect at 28°S which is located upstream of the separation latitude. Coloring is random.

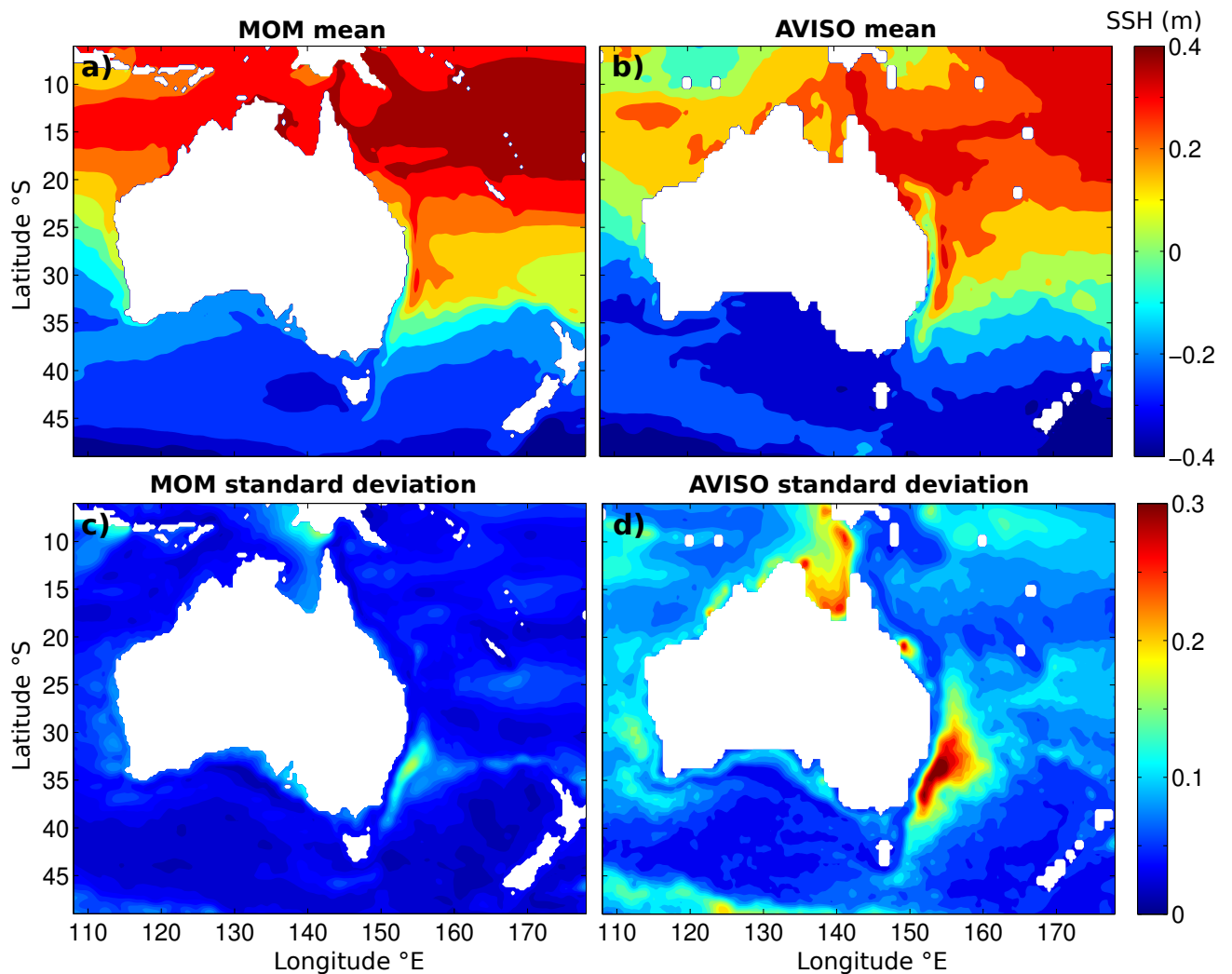


Figure 2. Mean and standard deviation of the Sea Surface Height (SSH) for the ocean model output (a,c) and for observation from AVISO satellite altimetry (b,d). The variability in SSH is strongly underestimated in the $1/4^\circ$ MOM025 model output with normal year forcing. The model output with interannual atmospheric forcing accounts for 30% of the missing variability.

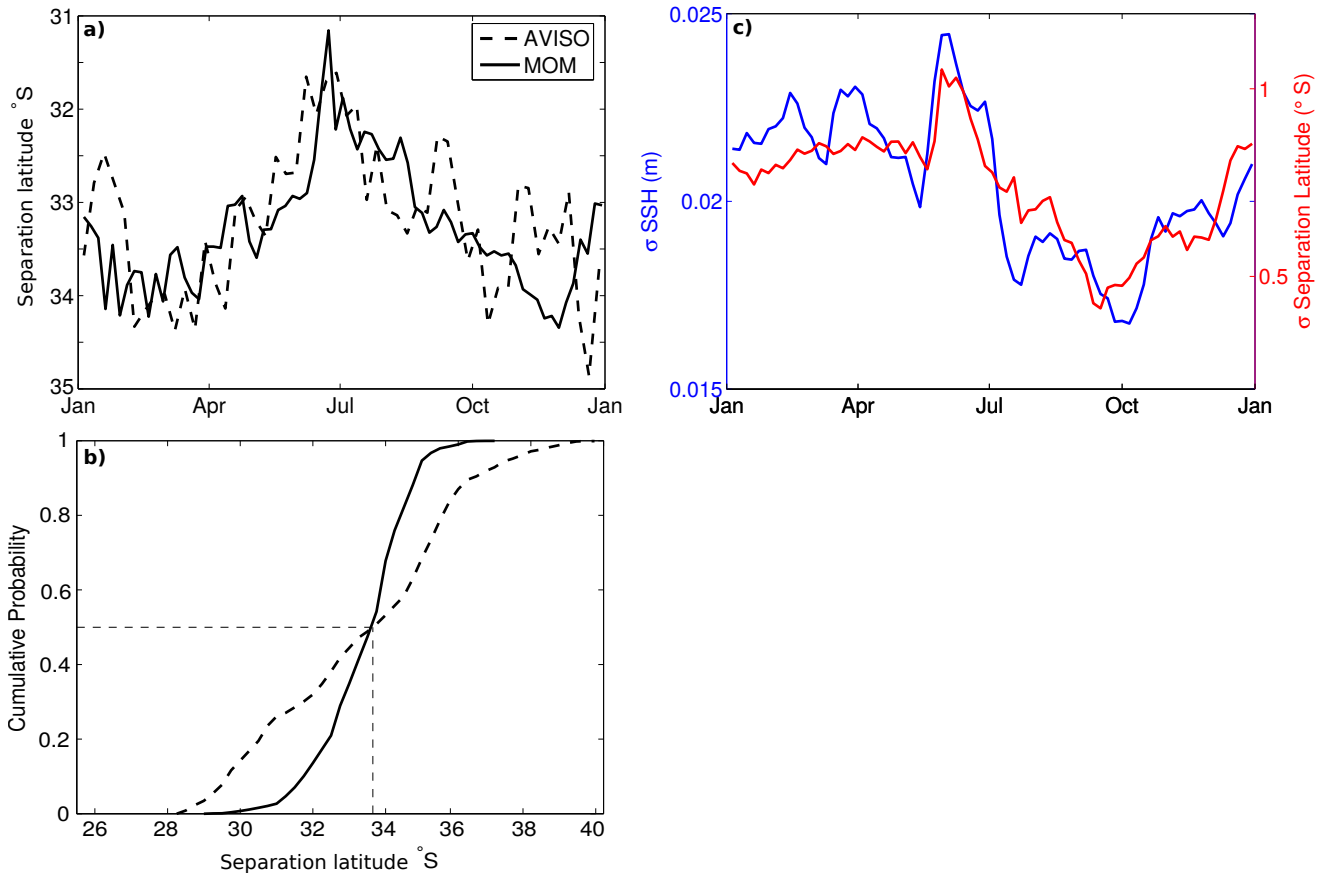


Figure 3. (a) Mean separation latitude and (b) Cumulative distribution function of the EAC separation latitude time series computed from the ocean model (solid line) and the AVISO data set (dashed line). The length of the time series used is 40 yrs and 19 yrs respectively. The median of the separation latitude of the MOM025 model output and the AVISO satellite altimetry is 33.6°S in both datasets. (c) Time series of the standard deviation of sea surface height (blue) and the separation latitude (red) of the ocean model, determined using a 55-day running mean. The average over 15 years is shown. Additionally, the standard deviation of the Sea Surface Height is averaged over the area between 20°S and 45°S and between 150°E and 160°E .

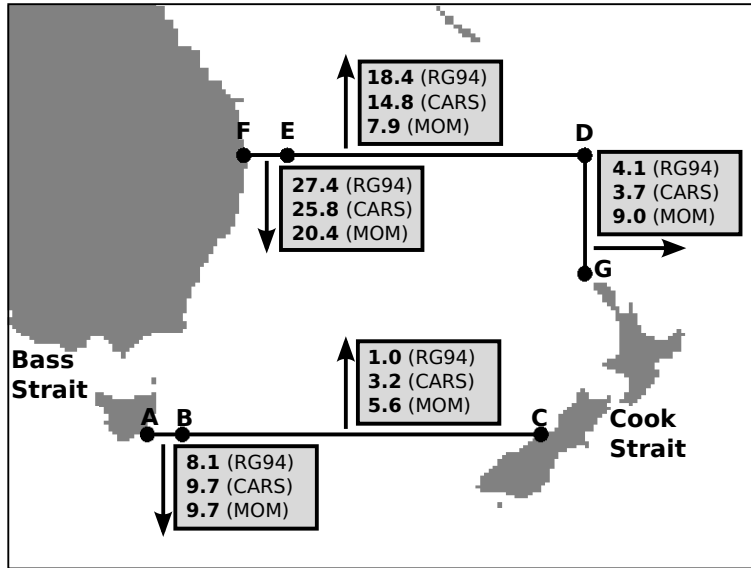


Figure 4. Mean net volume transport into and out of the Tasman Front. The numbers in the boxes indicate the transport (in Sv) in the direction of the corresponding arrow. The transports calculated by the model (MOM025) are compared to estimates from observations, *Ridgway and Godfrey* [1994] (RG94) and CARS, derived by *Oliver and Holbrook* [2014]. The sections are defined by the following locations: A (148°E, 43°S), B (150°E, 43°S), C (170.5°E, 43°S), D (173°E, 28°S), E (156°E, 28°S), F (153.5°E, 28°S) and G (173°E, 34.4°S).

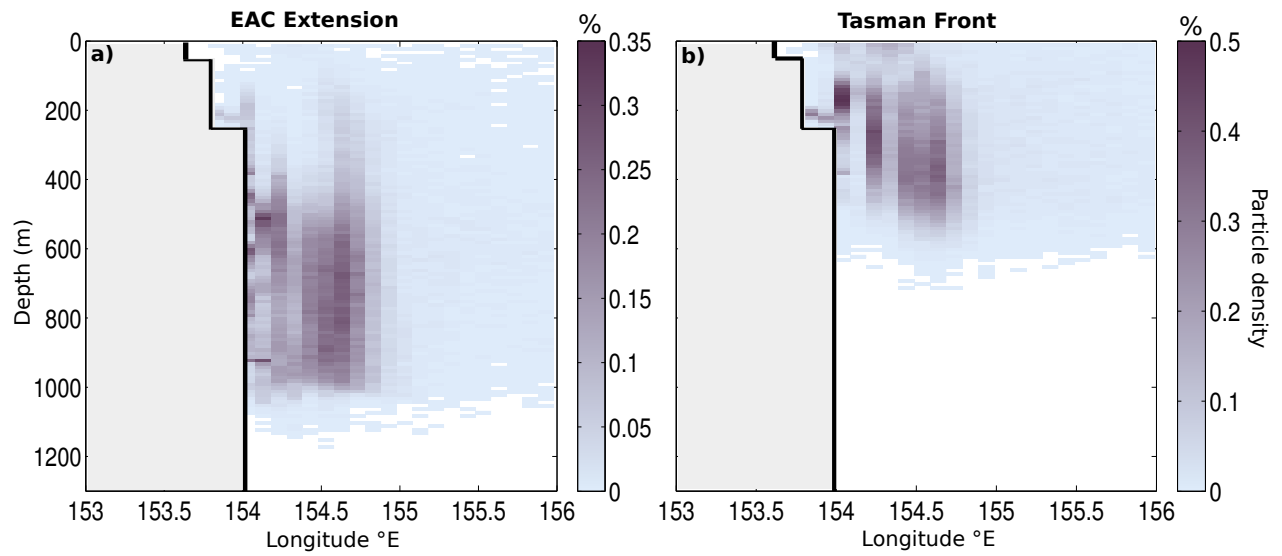


Figure 5. Depth profile at 28°S (transect shown in figure 1) upstream of the separation latitude of the particle density for particles following the extension of (a) the EAC and for (b) particles following the Tasman Front. The gray shading on the left side of the figures represents the bottom topography at this latitude.

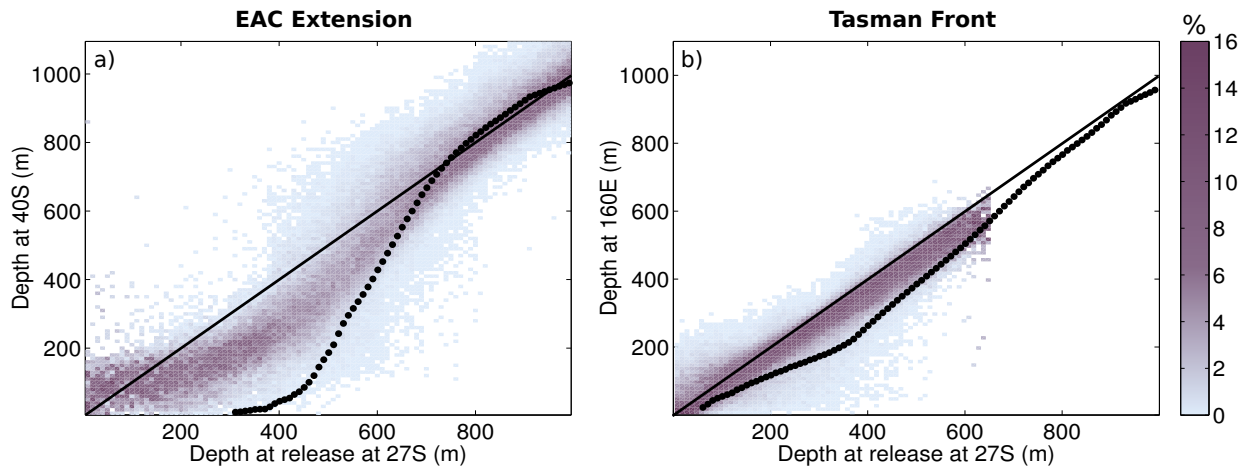


Figure 6. The distribution of the particles depth at transects after the separation (vertical axis) as a function of depth at which the particle originated from at 27°S (horizontal axis). The transects after the separation are chosen at 42°S and 160°E for the extension of the EAC and the Tasman Front, respectively. The black solid line represents $y = x$; high percentages coinciding with this line indicate that particles have not changed their depth. The distribution shown is calculated per depth interval of 10m thickness separately. The black dashed line represents the mean change in depth of isopycnals corresponding to the chosen transects.

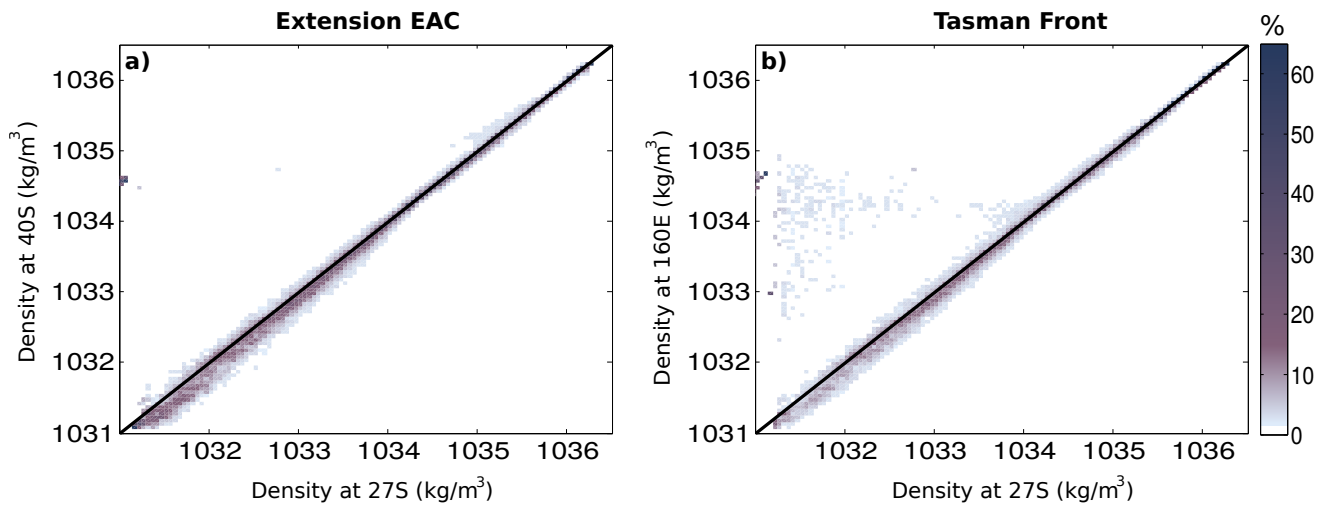


Figure 7. The distribution of the particles density at transects after the separation (vertical axis) as a function of the original density of the particle at 27°S (horizontal axis). The transects after the separation are chosen at 42°S and 160°E for the extension of the EAC and the Tasman Front, respectively. The black solid line represents $y = x$; high percentages coinciding with this line indicate that particles have not changed their density. The distribution shown is calculated per density interval of 0.05 kg/m³ separately.

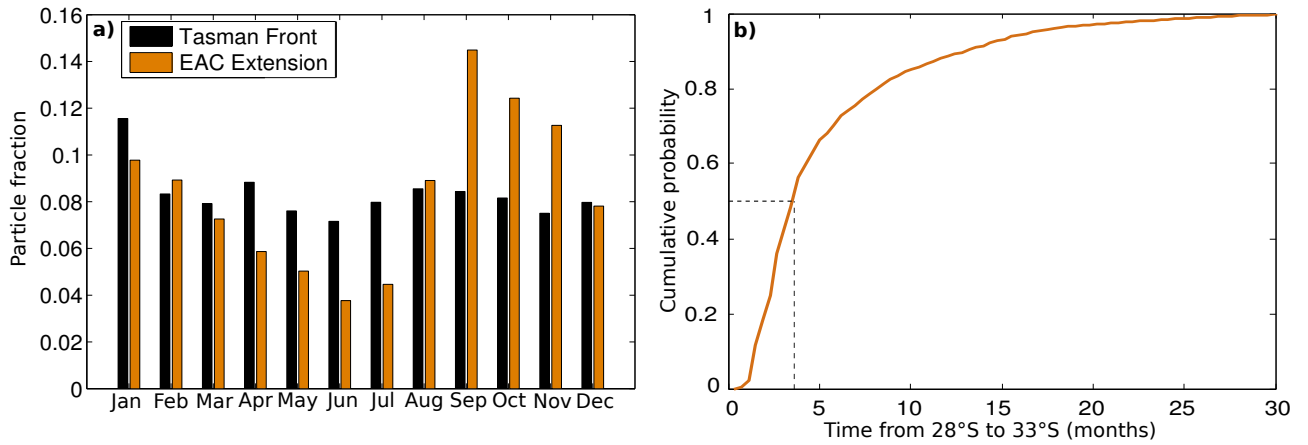


Figure 8. (a) Histogram of the time in the year when a particle crosses the transect at 28°S. The vertical axis shows the ratio between the number of particles crossing the transect in month X to the total number of particles following the specified pathway. (b) The cumulative probability of the transit time from 28°S to 33°, the mean separation latitude, for the particles following the EAC Extension crossing 28°S in September.

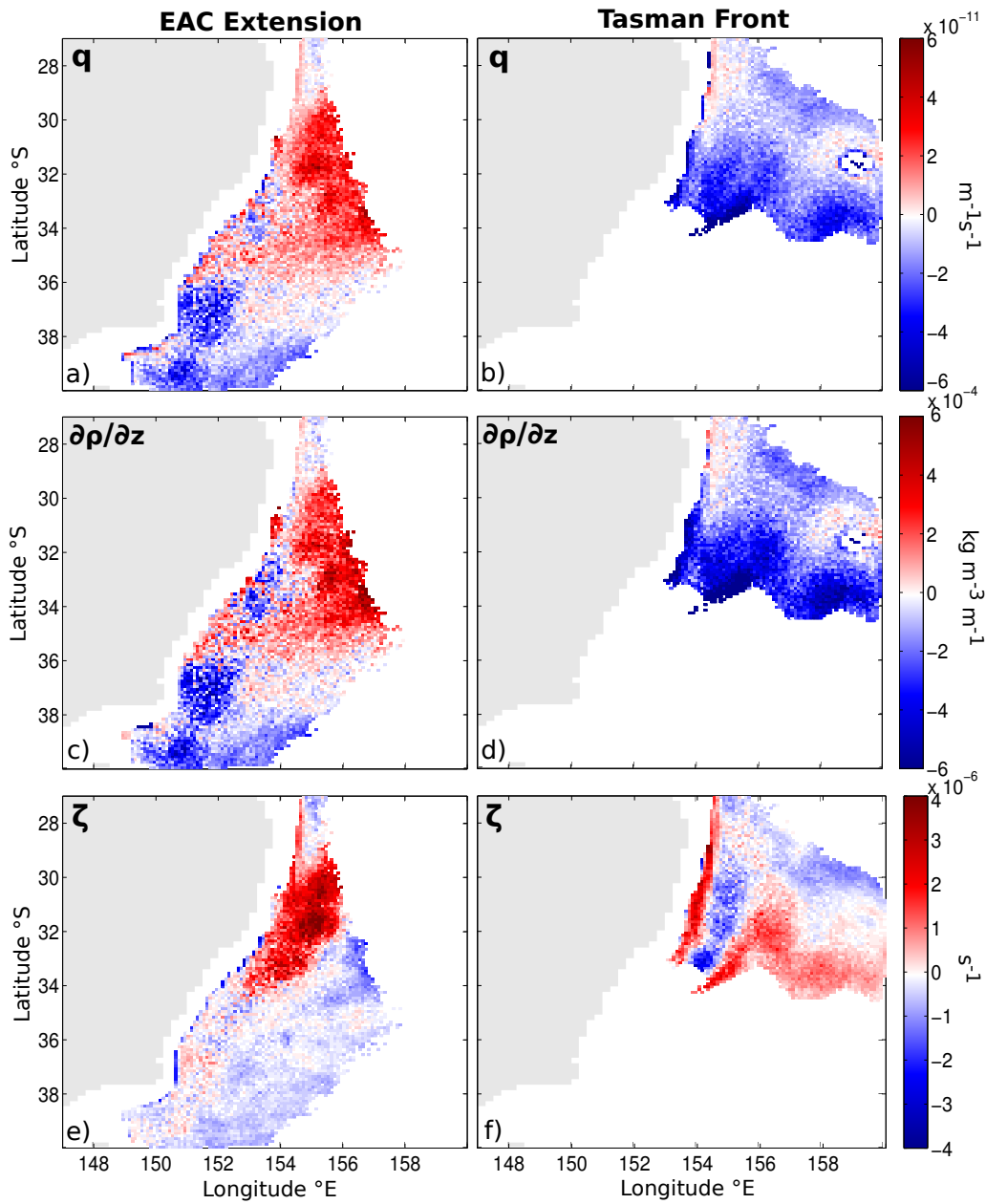


Figure 9. The anomaly for potential vorticity (q), the stratification ($\partial\rho/\partial z$) and relative vorticity (ζ) relative to the 15 year average of these terms for particles following the extension of the EAC (left column) and particles following the Tasman Front (right column). The anomalies are calculated from the mean of a random sample of 100 particles per grid box located between 350m and 450m depth where the two pathways overlap.

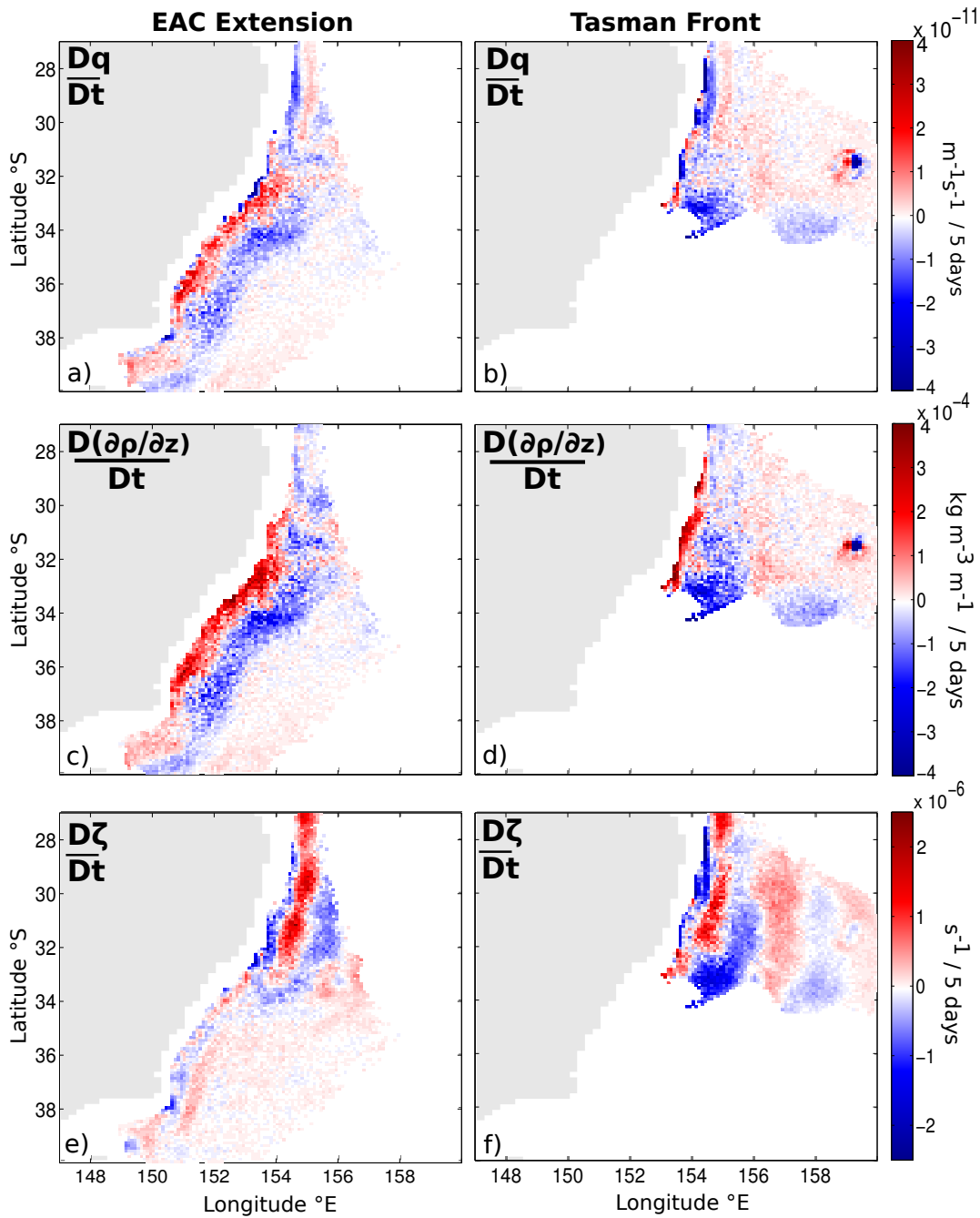


Figure 10. The material derivative of potential vorticity (q), the stratification ($\partial\rho/\partial z$) and relative vorticity (ζ) per 5 days, for particles following the extension of the EAC (left column) and particles following the Tasman Front (right column). The material derivative is calculated by using first-order differencing over a 5-day time window and is averaged over a random sample of 100 particles per grid box located between 350m and 450m depth.