

1 Attribution of changes in winds over the
2 Southern Ocean from 1950 to 2100

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1 Abstract

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3 Strong near-surface westerly winds drive the Southern Ocean circulation and play a key role in
4 setting regional and global climate. In the latter half of the 20th century, depletion of stratospheric ozone
5 over Antarctica has caused these winds to accelerate and move polewards, particularly in austral summer.
6 However, the future evolution of these winds remains uncertain. We use reanalysis data and the UK
7 Earth System Model (UKESM1), with full atmospheric chemistry, to assess the drivers of winds over the
8 recent past and coming century. We first characterize the wind mean state, distribution, and trends over
9 1980-2019 in the most commonly used atmospheric reanalyses (ERA5, JRA3Q, MERRA2, and NCEP-
10 NCAR) to gain insight into observed wind behaviour in the past. We show that while the representation
11 of the mean wind is similar among reanalyses, MERRA2 and NCEP-NCAR show stronger wind
12 acceleration trends that persist year-round, while JRA3Q and ERA5 show weaker acceleration, primarily
13 in austral summer. Using an observational Southern Annular Mode (SAM) index, we show that the
14 weaker, summer-focused trends of JRA3Q and ERA5 are likely more realistic. UKESM1 represents
15 historical trends in winds accurately compared to ERA5, and is within the range of other CMIP6 models
16 for wind and SAM trends over the historical period. Targeted simulations with UKESM1 show, ozone
17 depletion is overwhelmingly responsible for the wind acceleration observed in 1980-2020, primarily in
18 austral summer. The effect of ozone depletion on wind speeds peaks in 1980-2000, when it is roughly
19 double that for the entire 40-year period. Ozone recovery is then associated with a slowdown of winds
20 from 2000 to 2050. Beyond 2050, the ozone effect becomes minimal and winds accelerate primarily due
21 to greenhouse gas induced warming, with this trend more evenly distributed across seasons.
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23 1. Introduction

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25 Strong near-surface westerly winds are a dominant feature of the midlatitude atmospheric
26 circulation over the Southern Ocean, driving the Antarctic Circumpolar Current (ACC), the largest ocean
27 current on Earth. The ACC is an important control on the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation
28 (AMOC; J. Marshall & Speer, 2012) and plays a fundamental role in controlling Southern Ocean heat
29 (Huguenin et al., 2022) and carbon uptake (Le Quéré et al., 2007).

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30 Over the last four decades, substantial changes in the Southern Hemisphere wind regime have
31 been seen in both reanalyses and observations. Chiefly, the wind jet (i.e., the location of the strongest
32 westerly winds) has intensified and moved poleward (Swart & Fyfe, 2012), with substantial longitudinal
33 variation (Goyal et al., 2021; Waugh et al., 2020). These changes are manifested in significant trends in
34 the Southern Annular Mode (SAM; Fogt & Marshall, 2020).

- Deleted: (Huguenin et al., 2022) and carbon uptake (Le Quéré et al., 2007).
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36 The observed changes in southern hemisphere winds over the latter half of the 20th century have
37 been linked to the depletion of stratospheric ozone, particularly the Antarctic ozone hole (Thompson &
38 Solomon, 2002). The absorption of incoming solar UV radiation by ozone warms the stratosphere, so
39 ozone depletion leads to a relative stratospheric cooling. This cooling strengthens the north-south
40 temperature gradient, which in turn enhances the vertical wind shear and deepens the polar vortex,

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1 especially in austral spring and summer (for an overview, see, e.g. [Previdi & Polvani, 2014](#); [Thompson et](#)
2 [al., 2011](#)). This acceleration results in an overall strengthening and poleward shift of Southern Ocean
3 winds throughout the troposphere, particularly in austral summer (DJF), with an accompanying shift
4 towards a more positive index of the SAM, the principal mode of atmospheric variability in the region ([G.](#)
5 [J. Marshall, 2003](#); [Swart & Fyfe, 2012](#); [Thompson et al., 2011](#)).

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7 Substantial modeling efforts have sought to understand the relative contributions of ozone
8 depletion versus greenhouse gas forcing to the observed Southern Hemisphere wind changes. Past work,
9 using several generations of CMIP (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project) and CCMi (Chemistry-
10 Climate Model Initiative) models, has shown the recent Southern Hemisphere atmospheric circulation
11 changes are primarily attributable to stratospheric ozone depletion (e.g. S. Son et al., 2009; S.-W. Son et
12 al., 2018). However, inter-model spread is often large, and the quantitative responses of the winds and
13 other atmospheric responses differ substantially between models (e.g. Gerber & Son, 2014). For example,
14 the poleward migration of the westerly jet tends to be stronger in models whose mean jet position is
15 biased toward lower latitudes (S. -W. Son et al., 2010). The representation of ozone also plays a role in
16 the character of the atmospheric response. For example, CMIP5 models with interactive ozone have a
17 larger spread in the historical and future changes in jet position than those with prescribed ozone (Eyring
18 et al., 2013). Simultaneously, CMIP6 models with interactive ozone tend to have a stronger role for ozone
19 in the SAM strengthening than models with prescribed ozone (Morgenstern, 2021). Together, these
20 results highlight the importance of correctly representing ozone loss and recovery for capturing
21 circulation changes.

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¶ These changes in the Southern Hemisphere wind regime are likely to have multiple downstream effects on

22
23 Ozone-driven shifts in the jet stream and wind intensification are expected to reverse as Southern
24 Hemisphere ozone recovers (Polvani et al., 2011; Solomon et al., 2017). However, this recovery will be
25 simultaneously opposed by greenhouse gas-driven warming, which acts in the opposite direction
26 (Arblaster et al., 2011; McLandress et al., 2011; Zambri et al., 2021). The future evolution of the overall
27 wind patterns thus depends on which forcing dominates. Barnes et al. (2014) showed that ozone recovery
28 delays the effect of greenhouse gas driven climate change on multiple Southern Hemisphere climate
29 indicators, including the position of the jet stream, and that the historical ozone-driven circulation changes
30 are larger than those projected to the end of the twenty-first century. Other studies observe that under
31 ozone recovery, the westerly jet that had previously moved poleward in response to ozone depletion
32 remains largely stationary, as the effects of ozone recovery are opposed by greenhouse gas forcing
33 (Gerber & Son, 2014; S. -W. Son et al., 2010).

34
35 Considering trends in the SAM index, which can be taken as a proxy for wind speed, over the
36 period ozone recovery is expected (~2000–2050) Simpkins and Karpechko (2012) show the effects of
37 greenhouse gas forcing, pushing the SAM index to be more positive, opposes ozone recovery acting to
38 make the SAM more negative. In the latter half of the century, they show that the evolution of the SAM is
39 sensitive to the magnitude of greenhouse gas emissions. This sensitivity of atmospheric circulation
40 features to the strength of greenhouse gas emissions is seen in multiple studies (e.g. Eyring et al., 2013,
41 Barnes et al., 2014), highlighting that uncertainties in both future emissions and model response play a
42 role in the uncertainty in future atmospheric circulation changes.

Deleted: the regional and global climate, and have thus attracted substantial research. However,

1 In this paper, we examine both recent changes in the Southern Ocean winds in reanalysis products
2 and quantify the relative contribution of stratospheric ozone depletion and rising greenhouse gas (GHG)
3 concentrations in driving these changes. While the general trends in the Southern Ocean winds are well
4 understood, differences in the representation of wind trends exist between reanalysis products. These may
5 translate into differences in ocean responses when global ocean models are forced by different reanalyses
6 (Friedlingstein et al., 2023; Tsujino et al., 2020) or have implications for energy production, as wind
7 energy infrastructure depends on accurate estimates of regional wind state (Gualtieri, 2022). Furthermore,
8 most studies to date have focused on the mean trend in the wind jet and omitted variability and extreme
9 winds, which are disproportionately important for a number of ocean and climate processes, for example
10 in rapid sea-ice loss (Jena et al., 2022), ice shelf calving events (Francis et al., 2020), and air-sea CO₂
11 exchange (Gu et al., 2021).

12
13 We first intercompare a suite of the most commonly used reanalysis products over the period
14 1980-2020, assessing the wind climatology and wind speed frequency distribution, as well as time trends
15 in the mean wind speed, in extreme wind speeds, the position and variability of the wind jet, and the SAM
16 index. Our general aim is to determine which reanalyses are most suitable for wind applications in the
17 Southern Ocean, for example for forcing offline ocean models.

18
19 In the second part of the paper, we assess the representation of the winds from the UK Earth
20 System Model (UKESM1) and then use this model to attribute relative drivers of historical and future
21 Southern Ocean winds. We first evaluate the UKESM1 wind and SAM representation against the
22 reanalyses and then compare wind speeds, SAM, and total column ozone (TCO) in UKESM1 to other
23 CMIP6 models that include interactive atmospheric chemistry and have relevant output available. We
24 have two main applications in mind. First, we want to understand how suitable UKESM1 is for studying
25 the wider climate effects of changes in the wind distribution. For example, we recently used UKESM1 to
26 study the role of wind changes in modifying the uptake of carbon dioxide by the Southern Ocean,
27 (Jarníková et al., 2025); here we aim to provide an evaluation of the robustness of the wind changes
28 reported there. Second, we want to understand to what extent this model can be used to attribute the
29 relative contribution of ozone and greenhouse gases to past and future changes in the wind distribution.

30
31 Finally, following this evaluation, we attribute the relative drivers of historical changes in
32 Southern Ocean winds and project their future evolution through to the end of the century. To do this, we
33 perform a set of experiments with UKESM1 covering the period 1950-2100, modifying the surface
34 mixing ratios of Ozone Depleting Substances (ODS) to generate two stratospheric ozone scenarios (one
35 with essentially no ozone loss and a second with historically accurate ozone evolution, i.e. Antarctic
36 ozone depletion, followed by a subsequent recovery). These two ozone scenarios are each combined with
37 two CMIP6 SSP (Shared Socioeconomic Pathway) scenarios that represent a high and low GHG emission
38 scenario. The resulting four simulations, covering 1950 to 2100, allow us to assess both past and future
39 wind speed changes over the Southern Ocean and attribute these changes to one or both of ozone and
40 greenhouse gas forcing.

41 2. Methods

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1 2.1 Selection of reanalyses and previous evaluation

2 Meteorological reanalyses provide a gridded estimate of the complete atmospheric state by
3 assimilating satellite and in-situ observations within a numerical weather prediction model. A large
4 number of global atmospheric reanalysis products are available (see <https://reanalyses.org/> for an
5 overview). Reanalyses are commonly used in climate monitoring and policy applications, as well as in
6 fundamental research more broadly. For example, global and regional carbon cycle models are often
7 forced by reanalysis products (Friedlingstein et al., 2023), so any differences between reanalyses may
8 influence such studies.

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10 We use a subset of the latest generation of products that are commonly used in earth system
11 research: ERA5, JRA3Q and MERRA2. We also include the older, but still commonly used, NCEP-
12 NCAR reanalysis (R1), as a comparison. The main characteristics of these reanalyses are given in Table
13 1. We initially also analyzed NCEP-DOE2, an update of R1, but ultimately excluded it because of
14 anomalously large wind speed biases relative to the other four products. Spuriously high winds in NCEP-
15 DOE2 have been noted previously. For example, Lucio-Eceiza et al. (2019) found that NCEP-DOE2 has
16 worse performance than its predecessor R1 in estimating surface wind speeds in the North Atlantic, while
17 Dong et al. (2020) found it had markedly worst performance in estimating Antarctic Ice Sheet winds
18 compared to five other contemporary products.

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19
20 Here we briefly survey some existing assessments of our chosen reanalyses and their
21 predecessors, focusing on the Antarctic and Southern Ocean. Though a number of past studies have
22 evaluated reanalysis winds in the Southern Ocean, the extent of past evaluation in the near-Antarctic
23 region remains relatively limited because of the sparsity of available in-situ measurements (Caton
24 Harrison et al., 2022; Jones et al., 2016).

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26 Broadly, most analysis found ERA5 performed better than, or as well as, other products when
27 evaluated against in-situ observations. Li et al. (2013) found that ERA-Interim (a predecessor to ERA5)
28 generally had a low bias in 10m wind speed compared to in-situ shipboard observations across the entire
29 Southern Ocean (0.06 m s^{-1} , as compared to a high bias of 1.37 m s^{-1} for NCEP-DOE (the predecessor to
30 NCEP-DOE2). When Jones et al. (2016) evaluated the ERA-Interim, JRA-55 (predecessor to JRA3Q),
31 and MERRA1 (predecessor to MERRA2) reanalyses against research vessel observations, radiosonde
32 automatic weather station (AWS) measurements, and radiosondes in the Amundsen sea, the group found
33 JRA-55 had the smallest wind speed biases compared to AWS and research vessel observations, while
34 ERA-Interim showed lowest biases compared to radiosonde profiles. Overall, Jones et al. showed that all
35 three products represented open-ocean wind speeds reasonably against observations. Caton Harrison et al.
36 (2022) found ERA5 slightly outperformed JRA-55 and MERRA2 winds in an analysis against coastal
37 station and Advanced Scatterometer (ASCAT) measurements, though performance was similar between
38 reanalyses. Similarly, Dong et al. (2020) found ERA5 outperformed MERRA2, ERA-Interim, and JRA-
39 55 against 56 meteorological stations over the Antarctic Ice Sheet. Li, Jones, and Caton Harrison all note
40 that all reanalysis products overestimate in-situ winds at low-wind speed conditions ($<4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) and
41 underestimate them at high-wind conditions ($>25 \text{ m s}^{-1}$).
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1 A global intercomparison of near-surface winds that included ERA5, MERRA2, R1, and JRA-55
2 (a predecessor of JRA3Q) found ERA5 substantially outperformed the other reanalyses in reproducing in-
3 situ observations from (land-based) tall tower platforms (Ramon et al., 2019). Based on these findings
4 and the studies outlined above, we treat ERA5 as our benchmark reanalysis, following other Southern
5 Ocean wind studies (e.g. Goyal et al., 2021).

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6 2.2 Spatiotemporal standardization

7
8 We account for differing spatial and temporal resolution when comparing reanalysis products, 10-
9 m wind speed calculated from u and v components at hourly resolution and then averaged to daily
10 resolution is typically higher than wind speed calculated from the same u and v components that have
11 been first averaged to daily resolution. We therefore average all u and v components to daily resolution
12 before deriving wind speed. For similar reasons, we interpolate all three fields (u-component, v-
13 component, and wind speed) to a standard 1°x1° grid using the cdo package (Schulzweida, 2023). We are
14 interested primarily in the mean state, trends, and extremes of the open-ocean circumpolar winds. As the
15 wind jet is typically found between 48°S and 54°S (Swart & Fyfe, 2012), we focus our analysis on the
16 open water winds in the region 40°S to 60°S.
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18 Annual and seasonal means are reported by first calculating area-weighted daily mean wind
19 speeds from the 1°x1° gridded product for the region 40°S to 60°S, then calculating the seasonal mean
20 from these daily means. To calculate extreme high (low) wind speeds, we first calculate the daily
21 weighted 95th (5th) percentile of winds from the 1°x1° product over 40°S to 60°S, then take the weighted
22 average of all cells above (below) this percentile. The seasonal extreme winds are then the average of
23 these daily extreme winds for each season in each year. We calculate linear decadal trends in mean and
24 extreme winds from annual and seasonal values for the time periods 1980-2019 and 1980-1999, testing
25 for significance at the 5% level using the Wald test (Wald, 1943). We calculate the interannual variability
26 (IAV) of each reanalysis from the annual (seasonal) means as the unbiased standard deviation of the time
27 series, expressed as a percentage of the mean wind speed. When calculating the frequency distribution of
28 wind speeds, we consider the full time series of area-weighted, daily mean open water wind speeds from
29 the 1°x1° gridded product for the region 40°S to 60°S, using 100 evenly spaced bins between 0 and 20 m
30 s⁻¹.
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32 We use the 1°x1° gridded products to calculate the wind jet position. At each longitude, for each
33 day, we record the jet position as the location of the maximum of the u-component of the 10-meter wind
34 speed between 30°S and 70°S, following Bracegirdle et al. (2013). We then use this daily wind jet
35 position at each longitude to calculate the zonal average and the seasonal average.
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37 We consider a forty-year time period (Jan 1, 1980 – Dec 31, 2019), available for all considered
38 reanalyses; prior to 1979, satellite measurements are limited. We further separately consider the first half
39 of the time period (1980-1999), which corresponds to the period of maximum Antarctic ozone loss
40 (Solomon et al., 2017), and which is expected to drive wind speed increases and a poleward shift of the
41 westerly jet.
42

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2.3 SAM index

In each reanalysis, we calculate and then evaluate the SAM index at monthly resolution against the observational SAM index (G. J. Marshall, 2003). Following Velasquez-Jimenez and Abram (2024), the “natural”, or non-normalized, SAM index is calculated as:

$$\text{SAM} = P^*_{40^\circ \text{S}} - P^*_{65^\circ \text{S}},$$

where $P^*_{40^\circ \text{S}}$ and $P^*_{65^\circ \text{S}}$ are the zonal MSLP anomalies at 40°S and 65°S , respectively, relative to the time period 1980-2019.

In the observational SAM index, these MSLP anomalies are calculated from the mean of six station records near each of the two latitudes for which good long-term records exist. In the reanalysis SAM index we simply use the zonal mean at both latitudes, as in Gong and Wang (1999). We use the zonal mean rather than subsampling the reanalysis to the six station locations to maintain consistency with standard reanalysis-based SAM calculations (e.g. Morgenstern, 2021) and to avoid sampling biases introduced by point-location extractions from gridded fields. The zonal mean better represents the large-scale circulation patterns that define the SAM, whereas point samples can be influenced by local topographic effects and sub-grid-scale processes that are not fully resolved in reanalysis products.

Unlike the Marshall and Gong and Wang indices, the natural SAM index presented here is not normalized by dividing by the reference interval standard deviation. It is therefore not dimensionless and given in units of hPa. This approach has the advantage of making the trends and magnitude of the index less sensitive to sampling frequency.

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2.4 Modelled Ozone Depletion

We perform simulations with UKESM1 to quantify the relative contribution of ozone depletion and greenhouse gas induced warming on the wind field trends. UKESM is a well-established earth system model (ESM, Sellar et al., 2020; Yool et al., 2021) based on the HadGEM3-GC3.1 coupled physical atmosphere-ocean model (Kuhlbrodt et al., 2018). We refer readers to these articles for a general evaluation of UKESM1, and only highlight here components of the model that are central to our work. The atmospheric component of UKESM1 is the Global Atmosphere 7.1 (GA7.1) science configuration of the Unified Model (Walters et al., 2019), with horizontal resolution of approximately 135 km ($1.25^\circ \times 1.875^\circ$), 85 vertical levels and a model top located at 85 km altitude. Unusually for a CMIP6 model (Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6; Eyring et al., 2016), UKESM1 simulates full atmosphere ozone chemistry through the U.K. Chemistry and Aerosols (UKCA) model (Archibald et al., 2020; Mulcahy et al., 2018), interactively coupled to the model’s physics and dynamics. Ozone is therefore prognostic, with its evolution dependent on, and influencing, the simulated atmospheric thermal, dynamical and chemical states (Keeble et al., 2021).

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1 The ability of UKESM1 to simulate the historical and future evolution of ozone has been
2 discussed in Keeble et al. (2021), Morgenstern et al. (2022) and Zeng et al., (2022), while representation
3 of the SAM in CMIP6 models (including UKESM1) has been analysed by Morgenstern (2021).
4 UKESM1 overestimates the observed global mean total column ozone (TCO) over the period 1980 to
5 2015, with this overestimation reduced over the Antarctic region (60°S to 90°S). In addition, UKESM1
6 has a stronger negative TCO trend globally than observed, with this overestimate also reduced for the
7 60°S to 90°S region. The bias in UKESM1 trends in TCO (discussed further in section 3.3) should be
8 kept in mind when the impact of ozone depletion and recovery on surface winds is discussed.

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10 2.5 CMIP6 model intercomparison

11 To contextualize UKESM1 results, we report trends in the winds and the SAM index, as well as
12 in total column ozone (TCO), for other CMIP6 models with interactive chemistry for which SAM, TCO,
13 and (at least) daily-resolution wind fields are available (Table 2). Spatiotemporal standardization and
14 SAM index calculation is performed as described in sections 2.2 and 2.3. For the intercomparison of the
15 subset of CMIP6 models, we use the historical run for the period 1980-2014 and the SSP 3-7.0 run for the
16 period 2015-2019. We calculate trends in SAM, 10-m wind speed, and total column ozone (TCO) for the
17 band 70°S- 90°S, for 1980-1999 and 1980-2019. We compare CMIP6 TCO trends to an observational
18 dataset (Bodeker et al., 2021). For this intercomparison, to maintain consistency in method, only one
19 ensemble member of each model, including UKESM1, is used.

20 2.6 Experimental Design

21 Morgenstern (2020), Revell et al. (2022) and Zeng et al., (2022) emphasize that to simulate
22 forced trends in Southern Ocean winds models need to interactively simulate ozone chemistry, GHGs and
23 ODS. This is to capture multiple interactions between GHGs (e.g. CO₂, CH₄, N₂O), ozone, and their
24 combined impact on model dynamics. Prescribing an externally generated ozone field risks it being
25 chemically inconsistent with other time-evolving GHGs (Zeng et al., 2022), and potentially be offset with
26 respect to the model thermodynamical fields (Morgenstern, 2020). Morgenstern (2020) shows that the
27 CMIP6 DAMIP (Detection and Attribution Model Intercomparison Project) experiments (Gillett et al.,
28 2016); *hist-GHG* (historical GHG forcings with all other forcings pre-industrial) and *hist-stratO3*
29 (prescribed historical ozone and all other forcings pre-industrial) do not combine to give the (forced) time
30 evolution of the SAM index seen in full historical simulations. This is due to feedbacks between the time-
31 varying GHGs and ozone leading to a different impact on model dynamics compared to the combination
32 of the two individual drivers. This feedback is captured in models that run with interactive chemistry.

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33
34 Motivated by these studies, we use UKESM1 with interactive chemistry to study the role of
35 stratospheric ozone loss and recovery on Southern Ocean winds. We control the evolution of stratospheric
36 ozone in UKESM1 by modifying surface mixing ratios of ozone depleting substances (ODS, e.g.
37 chlorofluorocarbons and hydrochlorofluorocarbons), which play a central role in driving stratospheric ozone
38 loss (Farman et al., 1985; Solomon et al., 1986). We perform simulations for 1950 to 2100 using two
39 ODS surface mixing ratio scenarios: (i) ODS use the standard CMIP6 surface mixing ratios (historical
40 followed by a projection), and (ii) ODS are fixed at 1950 values. We refer to these two experiments as

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1 OZONE-HIST and OZONE-1950. OZONE-HIST results in ozone loss from approximately 1970 to 2000,
2 followed by a slow recovery through to 2100 (Keeble et al. 2021, Fig. 7). OZONE-1950 minimizes
3 stratospheric ozone loss throughout the simulation as only trace amounts of ODS, emitted or produced in
4 the atmosphere before 1950, are available for ozone destruction in the stratosphere. The two ODS
5 scenarios are combined with two CMIP6 SSP scenarios (SSP 3-7.0 and SSP 1-2.6; Gidden et al., 2019)
6 that represent a high and low GHG emission scenario.

7
8 This configuration results in four experiments that allow us to isolate the effects of simulated
9 stratospheric ozone and GHG on wind trends; see Table 3 for a summary. Following McLandress et al.
10 (2011), we assume that ozone-driven trends (resulting from the different ODS surface mixing ratios) and
11 GHG-driven trends are additive; that is, the OZONE-HIST run demonstrates a linear addition of ODS-
12 driven trends and GHG-driven trends, so [OZONE-HIST – OZONE-1950] will isolate the ODS-driven
13 trend, while any trends in the OZONE-1950 runs are due to GHG emissions alone. We acknowledge the
14 potential for some non-linear interactions that may weaken this assumption but suggest to first order it is a
15 reasonable approximation for attributing the primary differences identified either to ODS or GHG
16 differences in the respective experiments.

17
18 For each UKESM1 experiment, we run three ensemble members, each branched in 1850 from the
19 CMIP6 UKESM1 piControl following the procedure for generating initial conditions outlined in section 4
20 of Sellar et al., (2020). With respect to means and trends, we report the ensemble mean value, calculated
21 at daily 1°x1° resolution. When reporting extreme values, interannual variability, jet position, and
22 standard deviation in the jet position, we calculate them for each ensemble member separately and give
23 the mean of these calculations.

24 3. Results

25 3.1 Reanalysis Intercomparison

26 3.1.1 Wind climatology and distribution evaluation

27
28 We intercompare the reanalyses both to identify their utility for applications such as forcing
29 ocean-only models, and to provide a baseline against which to evaluate the UKESM1 historical
30 simulation. All the reanalysis products feature a prominent band of high winds between 40°S and 60°S,
31 with intensification over the Indian Sector (Fig. 1). R1 strongly underestimates wind speeds at high
32 latitudes near the continent relative to the 1980-2019 ERA5 climatology but shows a less clear difference
33 over the mid-latitude (40°S and 60° S) open ocean that varies zonally and averages to near-zero (Table 4).
34 MERRA2 agrees with ERA5 at high latitudes, but is evenly low compared to ERA5 over the open ocean.
35 JRA3Q is generally higher than ERA5 (Fig. 1).

36
37 The reanalysis products generally agree when considering only open-ocean winds between 40°S
38 and 60°S. Most reanalyses are relatively similar to ERA5, ranging from a difference of -0.20 m s⁻¹
39 (MERRA2) to ±0.28 m s⁻¹ (JRA3Q) for annual-average winds. In comparison, NCEP-DOE2, excluded

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1 from this analysis for high bias, has a bias of $\pm 1.31 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for yearly-averaged winds in the same region.
2 Interannual variability (IAV) is relatively consistent but varies somewhat between reanalyses, ranging
3 from 1.2% in ERA5 to 2.4%, or roughly double, in R1 (Supplementary Table S1). No strong seasonal
4 differences in interannual variability are seen in any reanalysis.

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5
6 The frequency distribution of the daily winds is remarkably similar between the reanalyses (Fig.
7 2, Supplementary Table S2), with differences mostly visible at the tails of the distribution. ERA5 has the
8 lowest 'low' (5th percentile) winds, and R1 has anomalously high "low" winds (0.44 m s^{-1} higher than
9 ERA5). The other reanalyses have 'low' winds only slightly ($\sim 0.1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) higher than ERA5. There is
10 more spread at the high end of the distribution, where ERA5 sits in the middle of the reanalysis set and
11 year-round differences from ERA5 range from -0.35 m s^{-1} (MERRA2) to 0.59 m s^{-1} (JRA3Q).

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12 3.1.2 Wind speed trends

13
14 Trends in open-ocean wind speed differ between the reanalyses much more than the
15 climatological mean fields (Fig. 2a-b, Fig. 3, Table 5). JRA3Q and ERA5 behave similarly over the whole
16 time period (1980-2019), having a statistically significant year-round mean trend of $\sim 0.04 \text{ m s}^{-1} \text{ dec}^{-1}$ that
17 is slightly stronger in austral summer and autumn and not statistically significant in winter (JJA) and
18 spring (SON). In contrast, R1 and MERRA2 have much stronger trends $\sim 3.5\text{x}$ and $\sim 2.5\text{x}$ the magnitude
19 of the ERA5 annual mean trend, respectively. The seasonality in these two reanalyses is also very
20 different from ERA5, with relatively strong, statistically significant trends persisting year round. Trends
21 in R1 and MERRA2 are also statistically significant over a much larger area of the Southern Ocean, as
22 well as in the JJA season (Fig. 3).

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23
24 Summer (DJF) mean wind speed trends in the period of maximum ozone depletion (1980-1999)
25 are approximately double those for the full time period in all reanalyses (Fig. 2, Table 5). Trends in the
26 extreme winds follow a similar pattern to the mean winds, with R1 and MERRA2 trends much stronger
27 than those of JRA3Q and ERA5 (Fig. 2, e-h)). Trends in extreme winds are not systematically stronger
28 than trends in mean winds and are less likely to be statistically significant.

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30 3.1.3 Jet position and poleward trend

31
32 The annual average zonal mean wind jet sits at 52.1°S in ERA5 and is similar between products,
33 ranging from 51.6°S (R1) to 52.3°S (JRA3Q) (Fig. 4, Sup. Table S3). The jet position exhibits a
34 substantial seasonal cycle, being at its most southerly location in austral autumn and most northerly
35 location in austral spring. All reanalyses represent this seasonal cycle in the jet position, which ranges in
36 amplitude (of the seasonal averages) from $\sim 1.6^\circ$ (MERRA2) to $\sim 2.4^\circ$ (R1). Interannual variability of the
37 mean jet position over the time period 1980-2019 is comparable between reanalyses – the standard
38 deviation of the zonal mean ranges from 0.8° (MERRA2) to 0.9° (R1). The zonally-varying standard
39 deviation of the jet position (shown in Fig. 4 only for ERA5, for clarity) is also comparable. The strongest
40 poleward trend in the wind jet occurs in austral summer and autumn, and is much stronger ($1.8\text{x} - 3.8\text{x}$)
41 during the period of maximum ozone depletion (1980-1999) than over the whole time period (Sup. S4).

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1 Trends in the position of the jet are not always statistically significant in the reanalyses because of the
2 large interannual variability.
3

4 3.1.4 SAM index

5
6 The timeseries of the station-based SAM index (see Methods) provides a possible observational
7 constraint on the accuracy of the reanalysis products. The SAM indices derived from reanalyses exhibit a
8 high temporal coherence with the observational SAM index, with some deviations – for example in
9 JRA3Q during 2005-2010 (Fig. 5). The trend in the SAM index has a seasonal character both in the
10 observations and in the reanalyses. It is strongest in austral summer (DJF) and autumn (MAM), and
11 typically much weaker and not statistically significant in the other seasons (Fig. 5, [Sup. Table S5](#)). The
12 observational trend is much stronger in the period of maximum ozone loss than in the whole time period
13 (factor of ~3x), which is reflected in the reanalyses (factor of ~2.3-3.6x).
14

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15 In all seasons, the trend in the SAM index in the reanalyses correlates tightly with the trend in the
16 estimated wind speed ($r=0.72-0.93$, $p<0.05$). Because the wind acceleration is mechanistically linked to
17 the trend in the SAM, evaluating the accuracy of the reanalysis-derived SAM indices against the
18 observational index [may](#) provide a constraint on the accuracy of reanalyzed wind speed trends; i.e. a trend
19 in the SAM should result in a trend in the wind speed. Notably, this observational SAM constraint
20 suggests that the strong trends in the R1 and MERRA2 reanalyses in austral winter and spring over the
21 period of maximum ozone depletion may be spurious, as they are accompanied by strong SAM index
22 trends that are not present in the observations (Fig. 5, panels d) and e)). Additionally, in autumn, the
23 ERA5 and JRA3Q time series appear to underestimate the SAM trend during 1980-1999, while R1 and
24 MERRA2 overestimate it over the course of the whole time series, suggesting possible corresponding
25 overestimations/underestimations of the respective wind trends. In summer, the observational constraint
26 appears to have less power, as the reanalyses show a variety of wind speed trends while all representing
27 the SAM relatively accurately (Fig. 5b).
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29 3.1.5 Reanalysis intercomparison summary

30
31 [All](#) four reanalyses show relative coherence in mean wind speed climatology, distribution, jet
32 position and jet seasonal cycle. Moderate differences in extreme winds, interannual variability and jet
33 latitudinal trend are observed. Reanalyses tend to exhibit systematic biases in capturing the tails of the
34 observational wind distribution (i.e., they overestimate extremely low winds and overestimate extremely
35 high winds relative to observations; see summary of previous in-situ evaluation in Methods). Thus, it is
36 plausible that ERA5, which has the lowest extreme low winds, is the best representation of the low tail of
37 the distribution, while JRA3Q may be the best at representing high winds.
38

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39 The most important differences between the reanalysis products are in the representation of the
40 wind speed trends over the time period 1980-2019. R1 and MERRA2 have considerably stronger trends
41 than ERA5 and JRA3Q, and moreover these trends persist year round. To evaluate which trends seem

1 more plausible, we consider an observational constraint in the form of the observational SAM index. R1
2 and MERRA2 appear to overestimate SAM index trends, especially in austral winter and spring,
3 suggesting that their strong wind trends in these time periods may be spurious. This provides additional
4 rationale for using ERA5 as the baseline reanalysis against which to evaluate the UKESM1 model at
5 southern high latitudes.

6 3.2 UKESM1 evaluation against reanalyses

7

8 We next evaluate the main Southern Ocean wind features in UKESM1 against our default
9 reanalysis, ERA5, to assess the model's suitability for answering scientific questions related to changing
10 wind patterns in this region. The UKESM1 model has an overall year-average positive bias of $\sim 0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$
11 relative to the ERA5 climatology in the band between 40°S and 60°S (Fig. 1), which does not vary
12 substantially by season (Table 4). UKESM1 underestimates winds at high latitudes compared to ERA5
13 while showing the strongest positive bias over the mid-latitude open ocean. However, on average, the
14 UKESM1 distribution is similar to that of ERA5, though slightly shifted towards higher winds than the
15 reanalyses in the middle of the distribution (Fig. 2). Extreme low (5th percentile) winds are nearly
16 identical to ERA5 values, while the highest winds are somewhat higher ($\sim 0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, ST2).
17 Interannual variability in UKESM1 is comparable to that of ERA5, with an average ratio of 0.8
18 (IAV_{UKESM1}/IAV_{ERA5}) for annual values (ST1).

19

20 UKESM1 has similar decadal trends in wind speed to ERA5, with strongest acceleration in
21 austral summer (0.04 and $0.06 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ dec}^{-1}$ for UKESM1 and ERA5, respectively, over 1980-2019, as
22 compared to 0.11 and $0.14 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ dec}^{-1}$ over 1980-1999; Table 5). The general pattern of significant wind
23 trend strength peaking in austral summer is consistent between the model and ERA5. Spatial patterns
24 (significant acceleration occurring mostly in the 40 - 60°S band, and more visible in austral summer, Fig.
25 3), are also reproduced by the model.

26

27 The UKESM1 jet position is similar to that of ERA5 (Fig. 4, ST3) and accurately captures the
28 observed seasonal cycle in position (most southerly in MAM, most northerly in SON). The majority of
29 the temporal variability in jet location is a result of natural variability (as opposed to from a forced signal,
30 such as ozone depletion). We would therefore not expect a free running model like UKESM1 to capture
31 the temporal evolution of this variability. (We would, however, expect the model to capture any
32 externally forced, longer-term trends.) The magnitude of variability in the jet location is comparable
33 between UKESM1 and ERA5, as seen in the zonally-varying standard deviation for 1980-2019 (Fig. 4).
34 The UKESM1 trends in the poleward position of the jet are much stronger than in the reanalyses over the
35 whole time period ($\sim 1.8\times$ ERA5 in the annual mean, $\sim 1.7\times$ ERA5 in the DJF mean, Sup. Table S4), a
36 feature that is amplified in the period of maximum ozone loss (1980-1999, ST4). This feature is likely due
37 to Antarctic ozone loss being higher in UKESM1 than observed (Keeble et al., 2021, and section 3.3 of
38 this paper).

39

40 The variability and trend in the SAM index is comparable to that of ERA5 and observations (Fig.
41 5, Sup. Table S5). As in the case with the jet position, UKESM1 does not reproduce the time variation in
42 the SAM index seen in the reanalyses because of the significant role played by natural variability. Trends

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1 in the SAM index during 1980-1999 are much (up to ~3x) stronger than those during 1980-2019, both in
2 the ERA5 reanalysis and in UKESM1. Similar to ERA5 and JRA3Q, in both time periods, UKESM1 has
3 strongest, most significant SAM trends during DJF and MAM, accompanied by stronger wind
4 acceleration in those seasons (Fig. 5). In particular, UKESM1 accurately captures the SAM trend in DJF,
5 including the differential trends between the full period and the shorter 1980-1999 period. This
6 differential response is less accurately captured in MAM, although the SAM trend for the full period is
7 well simulated.

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9 Overall, the UKESM1 Southern Ocean wind climatology and distribution, including extremes, as
10 well as decadal trends wind speeds and the SAM index, are remarkably consistent with that of ERA5;
11 however, mean wind speeds are somewhat higher in the model. The mean jet position is also reproduced,
12 though UKESM1 demonstrates stronger poleward movement than all reanalyses.

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13 3.3 UKESM1 in the context of CMIP6 models with interactive 14 chemistry

15 The CMIP6 models with interactive ozone show substantial spread (~1 m/s) in their
16 representation of the mean wind speed over the Southern Ocean (Fig. 6 a-c)). All models, except GISS-
17 E2-1-G, overestimate the climatological mean wind speed with respect to ERA5, with UKESM1 within
18 the spread of other models. Agreement across the models in wind speed trends is also generally weak.
19 Most models (except MRI-ESM2-0) show larger DJF trends for 1980-1999 than 1980-2019, with
20 GFDL_ESM4 and UKESM1 being notably accurate for both time periods. Furthermore, all models
21 except UKESM1 underestimate the JJA wind speed trend during 1980-1999, though trends in this season
22 are not expected to be strongly forced by ozone trends. UKESM1 performs well in capturing wind trends
23 compared to other CMIP6 models, reproducing relatively well the wind speed trends seen in ERA5, for
24 DJF and JJA, for both time periods considered, including differences between the two periods.

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26 On average, the models overestimate TCO depletion (for the area 70°S- 90°S), though with
27 considerable inter-model variation: MRI-ESM2-0 underestimates depletion, GFDL-ESM4 and CNRM-
28 ESM2-1 are quite accurate, while UKESM1 and GISS-E2-1-G substantially overestimate ozone loss
29 across all seasons and time periods (Fig. 6 lower panels, Fig. S1). Though stronger ozone depletion is
30 expected to correlate with larger wind speed trends, this relationship holds only partially in austral
31 summer. GISS-E2-1-G substantially overestimates ozone depletion in 1980-1999 but fails to produce a
32 correspondingly strong wind speed trend, even in summer. Similarly, CNRM-ESM2-1 reasonably
33 captures the observed ozone loss but underestimates wind speed trends. GFDL-ESM4 best matches both
34 metrics in austral summer but not winter. While the strongest ozone loss typically occurs in austral spring
35 (SON), inter-model TCO trends and their relationship with wind speed trends are consistent whether wind
36 speed trends in DJF are plotted relative to TCO trends in SON or DJF (Fig. S2). To maintain consistency
37 with the rest of this study, we therefore present only DJF results in Figure 6.

39 UKESM1 overestimates ozone depletion, primarily in the 1980-1999 period, but accurately
40 reproduces the ERA5 wind speed trends for both periods, suggesting the dynamical link between
41 Antarctic ozone loss and near-surface westerlies is weaker in UKESM1 than in reality. The weak TCO-
42 wind relationship across models in austral winter (JJA) for 1980-1999 indicates observed wind increases

1 during this period are likely not ozone-driven. As in the reanalyses (Fig. 5), SAM trends correlate
2 strongly with wind speed trends across CMIP6 models (Fig. S3), due to the mechanistic link between
3 these metrics. While acknowledging recent trends in Antarctic TCO are larger than observed in
4 UKESM1, our analysis of wind speed and SAM trends, and the implied response to ozone forcing,
5 suggests UKESM1 is suitable for studying (and attributing) past and future changes in Southern Ocean
6 winds, and by extension the drivers of changes in Southern ocean carbon uptake, as carried out in our
7 earlier study (Jarníková et al., 2025).

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9 3.4 Attribution of wind speed trends to GHG and ozone forcing with 10 UKESM1

11 Finally, we use UKESM1 to attribute past, and potential future, changes in the Southern Ocean
12 wind regimes to either stratospheric ozone changes or greenhouse gas forcing. We do this by combining
13 two ODS scenarios (ODS-HIST and ODS-1950) with two CMIP6 emission scenarios: SSP 1-2.6 and SSP
14 3-7.0 for the period 1950 to 2100 (see Methods). For each experiment, we show all three model ensemble
15 members, as well as the ensemble mean.

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17 Over the full time period, winds increase in all seasons and scenarios (Fig. 7). The most
18 prominent feature in the time series is a sharp increase in wind speeds in the scenario with historical
19 ozone depletion (OZONE-HIST), approximately during 1980-2000, occurring predominantly in austral
20 summer (DJF) and to a lesser extent in austral spring (SON; Fig. 7). During the same time period, we
21 observe no wind increase in the scenario without ozone depletion – in fact, a minor decrease is seen (Fig.
22 7, Sup. Table S6). We first partition the attribution of the observed historical wind changes to greenhouse
23 gas emissions and ozone forcing, comparing them with those seen in ERA5, and then consider potential
24 changes over the 21st century, again attributing changes to ozone forcing and/or greenhouse gas
25 emissions.

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27 UKESM1 exhibits the same positive relationship between the trend in the SAM index and wind
28 speed that was seen in the reanalyses. Wind acceleration (deceleration) corresponds to a positive
29 (negative trend) in the SAM index in all ensemble members of the two experiments over the historical
30 period (Fig. 8). Though absolute wind speeds are higher in UKESM1 than in ERA5, the magnitude of the
31 trends in the SAM index and wind speeds, for both periods, are very similar in both datasets for all
32 seasons (Fig. 8, Table 5), suggesting the forced signal of ozone depletion in UKESM1 captures real-world
33 dynamics.

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35 The key role of ozone in driving the historical SAM and wind speed changes becomes further
36 apparent when comparing the OZONE-HIST and OZONE-1950 runs: all three ensemble members of the
37 OZONE-1950 experiment show a much weaker wind speed trend over the whole time period (Fig. 8,
38 filled green squares) and a negative trend over the period of maximum ozone depletion (empty green
39 squares). Meanwhile, the OZONE-HIST runs (black squares) agree with both ERA5 and the
40 observational SAM index over both the whole time period (filled black squares) and the period of
41 maximum ozone depletion (empty black squares), with the differential response in DJF between these two
42 periods, in both the SAM index and wind speeds, particularly well captured.

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1
2 The general congruence of the historical UKESM1 runs with ERA5 suggests that UKESM1
3 captures both the sensitivity of the wind and SAM response to the time-varying trend in the ozone
4 forcing, as well as the seasonality of this response. Both wind and SAM trends are stronger over the
5 period of maximum ozone depletion than over the full time period, and changes in the austral summer
6 mean are larger than in the annual mean, with minimal changes in austral winter.

7
8 We next attribute the wind changes throughout the whole simulation period 1950-2100 to either
9 ozone or GHG forcing, subdividing the time series into three 50-year periods. In the latter half of the 20th
10 century (1950-1999; Table 6), winds accelerated in all seasons but most strongly in DJF, followed by
11 SON. This acceleration was driven entirely by ozone loss; winds actually slowed down slightly over
12 1950-2000 in the OZONE-1950 run, in all seasons except SON (Table 6).

13
14 In the first half of the 21st century (2000-2049), in the realistic (ODS-HIST) runs, winds stay
15 approximately constant in most seasons in both SSP scenarios, though they increase substantially in
16 austral winter (Table 6). This lack of trend is due to the (accelerating) GHG effect countering the
17 (decelerating) ozone recovery effect, which can be seen when decomposing the overall signal into the two
18 forcing factors (Table 6). Though the acceleration due to GHG is stronger under the higher-emissions
19 (SSP 3-7.0) scenario, the effect of ozone recovery is also stronger under this scenario and the two effects
20 cancel out (Table 6). The sensitivity of ozone recovery to SSP pathway reflects the interaction of other
21 GHGs (e.g. CH₄ and N₂O) with ozone chemistry. SSP 3-7.0 has higher CH₄ concentrations in the future
22 than SSP 1-2.6, and UKESM1 has a significant ozone response to increasing CH₄ (see figure 14 in Zeng
23 et al., 2022). Ozone recovery will therefore be accelerated in SSP 3-7.0 relative to SSP 1-2.6, with a
24 concomitant stronger forcing of surface winds. The overall acceleration seen in austral winter (JJA) is a
25 result of the different seasonalities of the two forcing factors: while ozone depletion and recovery is
26 predominantly a summer phenomenon, these simulations show that GHG-driven wind increase is
27 strongest in winter, resulting in an unbalanced GHG forcing of wind trends during austral winter. Using a
28 regression analysis of CMIP6 simulations, Morgenstern (2021) finds a similar seasonality in CO₂ forcing
29 of the SAM. Simpkins and Karpechko (2012) also see this strong winter increase in the SAM, which is
30 related to the winds, also concluding that the difference is due to the lack of ozone recovery in winter.

31
32 Finally, in the latter half of the 21st century (2050-2099), the simulations show a difference in
33 wind trends based on GHG emission level. Under SSP 1-2.6 with historical ozone recovery, wind speed
34 stagnates in all seasons, while under SSP 3-7.0, winds accelerate in austral winter and spring, both with
35 and without ozone depletion (Fig. 7). However, these trends are typically not statistically significant, due
36 to large interannual variability. Analogous results were found by Simpkins and Karpechko (2012), who
37 noted the dependence of SAM trends on emissions scenario and also noted the lack of statistical
38 significance.

40 4. Discussion and Conclusions

41

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1 The main aims of this work were to evaluate the representation of recent-past Southern Ocean
 2 winds in the most commonly used contemporary reanalysis products, in a free-running Earth system
 3 model (UKESM1) and other CMIP6 models with interactive ozone, and finally to use UKESM1 to
 4 attribute the drivers of changes in winds over the recent past and through to 2100. The initial
 5 intercomparison of the reanalyses shows that, while the general features of the Southern Ocean winds
 6 (mean, distribution, jet location, and extremes) are relatively congruent, the reanalyses vary considerably
 7 in wind speed trends. In all reanalyses, trends are strongest in the period of maximum ozone depletion
 8 (1980-1999), and comparatively strongest in austral summer, consistent with the existing understanding
 9 of surface wind forcing by ozone loss, which is primarily a summer phenomenon. However, trends in
 10 MERRA2 and R1 are comparatively much stronger and tend to persist year-round, while trends in ERA5
 11 and JRA3Q are weaker and concentrated in austral summer.

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 13 We assess which trend representation is more realistic using a novel observational constraint: we
 14 compare trends in the observational SAM index to their representation in the reanalyses, and then relate
 15 them to wind speed trends. Because a positive (negative) SAM index trend is mechanistically linked to a
 16 positive (negative) wind trend, performance in one metric can provide information about performance in
 17 the other. Applying this constraint suggests the large winter trends seen in winter and spring in the
 18 MERRA2 and R1 reanalyses may be spurious, as they are accompanied by strong SAM trends not seen in
 19 the observational record. Spuriously large trends in the R1 reanalysis were also observed by Morgenstern
 20 (2021); here we suggest that this problem persists in MERRA2. Thus, we conclude that ERA5 and
 21 JRA3Q are best suited for studies of wind and SAM changes in this region, as well as for forcing ocean
 22 models.

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 24 UKESM1 winds and SAM index evaluate well against our baseline reanalysis (ERA5). Notably,
 25 UKESM1 performs well in reproducing the intensity distribution of daily wind speeds seen in ERA5,
 26 including the high wind speed tail of the distribution, though the overall mean of the distribution is
 27 somewhat higher in UKESM1 ($\sim 0.3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$). UKESM1 also reproduces the ERA5 historical decadal trends
 28 in both wind speed and the SAM index, including the differential response between the 1980-2000 period
 29 and the full 40 year period, indicating a realistic sensitivity of winds to ozone changes. The seasonality of
 30 the SAM and wind speed trends is also well reproduced, with strongest trends in austral summer.
 31 However, the poleward progression of the jet latitude is stronger in UKESM1 than in any of the
 32 reanalyses, somewhat in contrast to the correctly reproduced behaviour of the other metrics.

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 34 We find that UKESM1 represents wind trends well relative to similar CMIP6 models with
 35 interactive chemistry (section 3.3), but highlight again that the accurate wind speed trends in UKESM1
 36 are realized in combination with too strong ozone decline, particularly in the period 1980-1990. We note
 37 that the relationship between TCO depletion and wind trends in the CMIP6 models holds only partially in
 38 austral summer. No relationship is observable in austral winter, consistent with the understood low role of
 39 ozone in forcing wind changes in this season.

40
 41 Using future projections made with UKESM1, with and without ozone depletion, we attribute the
 42 observed changes to the relative influence of ozone depletion and greenhouse gas emissions, both
 43 historically over 1980-2020 and as projected by the model to the end of the 21st century. The UKESM1
 44 simulations show the observed acceleration of winds in the latter half of the 20th century is entirely

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1 attributable to ozone depletion. In the first half of the 21st century, summer winds stagnate, as the
2 decrease of wind speeds due to ozone recovery competes with wind speed increase due to GHG
3 emissions. In contrast, wind speeds increase in austral winter and spring, as the GHG effect outcompetes
4 the ozone recovery effect, which is predominantly a summer phenomenon. In the latter half of the 21st
5 century, a more clear bifurcation between wind speed trends under the low and high SSP scenario is
6 visible, especially in austral winter and spring. Winds accelerate more under the high SSP scenario, while
7 stagnating under the low SSP scenario. In this time period, the role of ozone recovery is minor.

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9 We show that ozone depletion overwhelmingly drove the observed summer wind acceleration in
10 the latter half of the 20th century, and we expect this trend to reverse in the first half of the 21st century.
11 By the second half of the 21st century, greenhouse gas loading is the main factor driving wind changes,
12 with more emissions leading to more acceleration, but it is strongly active only in austral winter and
13 spring. Thus, we demonstrate a shift in the dynamical controls on the wind behaviour over the Southern
14 Ocean from ozone in the latter half of the 20th century to greenhouse gas emissions in the latter half of
15 the 21st century. ▽

16
17 This control shift is consistent with the general understanding. As in Barnes et al. (2014), we find
18 historical wind speed trends due to ozone depletion are stronger than greenhouse gas driven trends seen in
19 the twenty first century. Similar to Barnes et al (2014), Gerber and Son (2014), McLandress et al.
20 (2011), and Simpkins and Karpechko (2012), we observe a cancellation of effects in the first half of the
21 twenty first century, as ozone recovery competes with greenhouse gas emissions, leading to only weak
22 wind trends in this period. We also reproduce the dependence of future trends on greenhouse gas emission
23 strength seen in Simpkins and Karpechko (2012) and other studies. Our work, focusing on near-surface
24 winds, extends this understanding by providing an estimate of the changing wind trends in response to the
25 shift in dominant forcing. We do this using an Earth system model (UKESM1), with full-atmosphere
26 interactive chemistry, allowing a large set of interactions and feedbacks to be simulated; chemically
27 between a range of GHGs and stratospheric ozone, between both sets of gases and atmospheric dynamics,
28 and between the atmosphere and the underlying ocean and sea ice. The ability of UKESM1 to represent
29 these interactions, and how they shape surface winds over the Southern Ocean, was validated against both
30 reanalyses and an observational SAM index and further contextualized against other CMIP6 models with
31 interactive ozone chemistry. Our analysis suggests UKESM1 is suitable for investigating links between
32 ozone loss and recovery, GHG scenarios, and Southern Ocean uptake of heat and carbon.
33

Deleted: This control shift is consistent with the general understanding; Polvani et al. (2011), Arblaster et al. (2011), McLandress et al (2011), Solomon et al (2017), and others discuss this decreasing importance of ozone to atmospheric circulation as the ozone hole heals. Our work here, which focuses on the near-surface winds, extends this understanding by providing a constrained estimate of the changing wind trends in response to this shift, based on a model with interactive chemistry whose past performance is validated against both reanalyses and the observational SAM index.

Deleted: To first order, a future increase in wind intensity due to GHG loading would act to strengthen the meridional overturning circulation and the ACC, both of which may support increased heat uptake by the Southern Ocean (Morrison et al., 2015). However, the magnitude of the overturning and ACC responses to changes in wind intensity is disputed, and depends on the magnitude of eddy compensation and the role of buoyancy forcing (e.g. Morrison et al. 2011, Bishop et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2020). Recent work has even suggested a strong slowdown of the ACC in response to GHG emissions, driven by increased surface freshening from the melt of ice shelves around Antarctica (Sohail et al., 2025). The ultimate effect of GHG loading on the circulation of the Southern Ocean remains an open question, implying uncertainty in heat uptake. In contrast, the rate of future Southern Ocean carbon uptake may be relatively insensitive to potential changes in regional circulation as the surface-depth gradient in ocean carbon diminishes and may instead be dominated by temperature changes (Jarniková et al., 2025).

1 Code and data availability

2 Code and data are provided on DRYAD: xx. For convenience, analysis code is also at
3 <https://github.com/tjarnikova/windEval>.

5 Author contribution

6 Conceptualization: T.J., C.J., and C.L.Q. Methodology: C.J., T.J., S.R., and C.L.Q. Investigation: T.J.
7 Visualization: T.J. Funding acquisition: C.L.Q. and C.J. Project administration: C.L.Q. Supervision: C.J.
8 and C.L.Q. Writing—original draft: T.J. Formal analysis: T.J. Software: T.J. and S.R. Data curation: T.J.
9 Validation: T.J., S.R., and C.L.Q. Writing—review and editing: C.J., T.J., and C.L.Q.

10 Competing interests

11 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

12 Acknowledgements

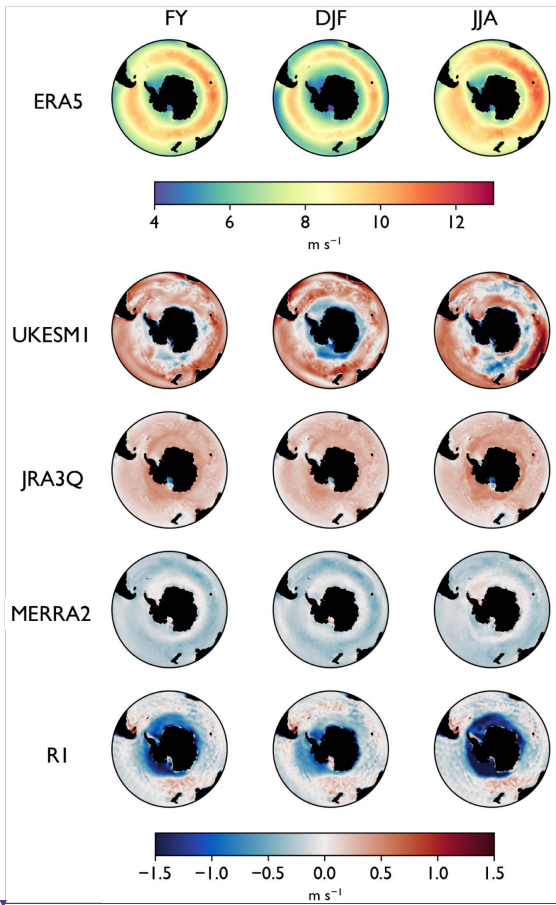
13 We thank all people who contributed to the development of the UKESM1 model and the atmospheric
14 reanalyses used in this analysis, and the Research and Specialist Computing Support service of the High
15 Performance Computing Cluster at the University of East Anglia. [We would like to thank Bodeker](#)
16 [Scientific, funded by the New Zealand Deep South National Science Challenge, for providing the](#)
17 [combined NIWA-BS total column ozone database and James Keeble \(University of Lancaster\) for advice](#)
18 [on using this data set.](#)
19

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21 U. K. Natural Environment Research Council CELOS project (grant NE/T01086X/1) (CJ, CLQ)
22 U. K. Natural Environment Research Council TerraFIRMA: Future Impacts, Risks and Mitigation
23 Actions in a changing Earth System project, (grant NE/W004895/1) (CJ, SR)
24 U.K. Royal Society (grant RSRP\R\241002) (CLQ)
25

1 **Figures**

3 **Fig. 1**



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Fig. 1: Climatological wind speed for 1980-2019. For ERA5, the climatological wind speed for the full year and austral summer (DJF) and winter (JJA) is shown. For the other 3 reanalyses and UKESM1, differences from ERA5 are shown as [product x - ERA5]; i.e. positive (red) values indicate higher winds than ERA5. See also Table 2.

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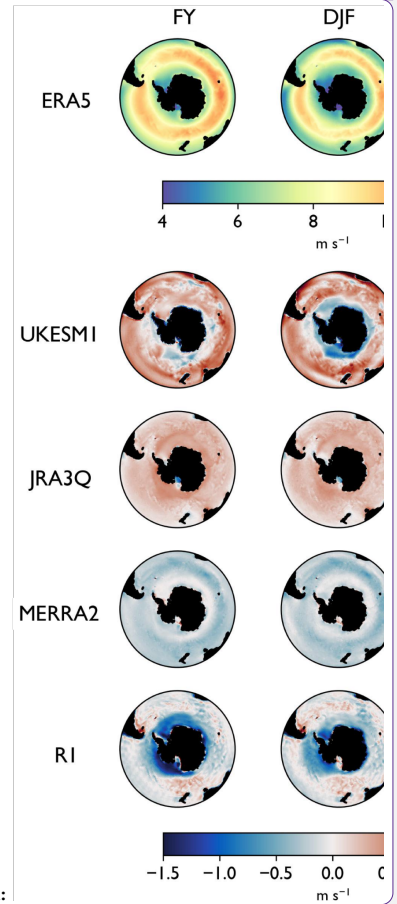
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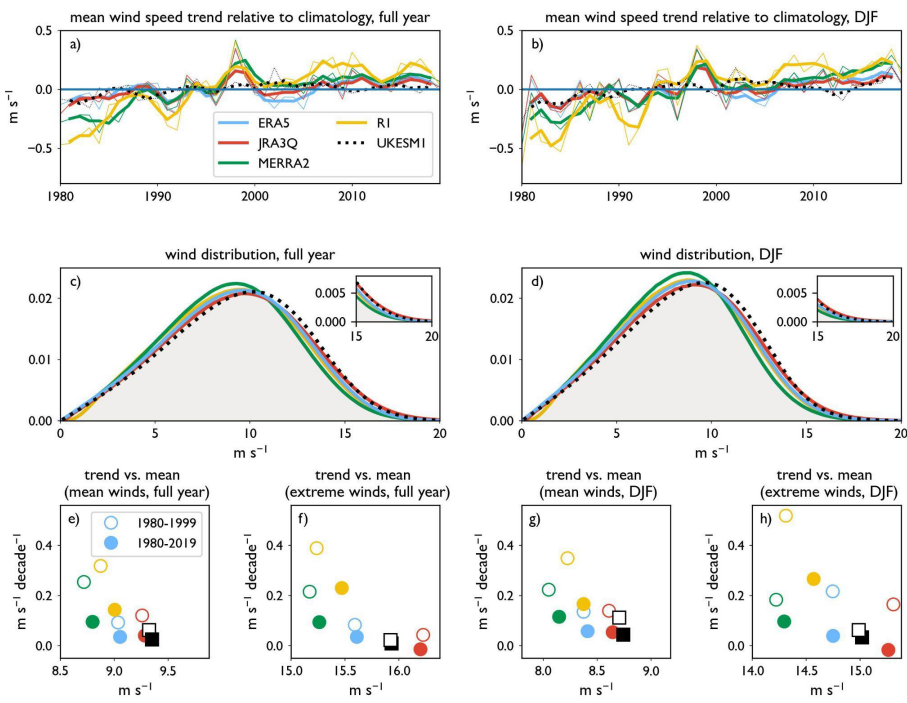
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1 **Fig. 2.**



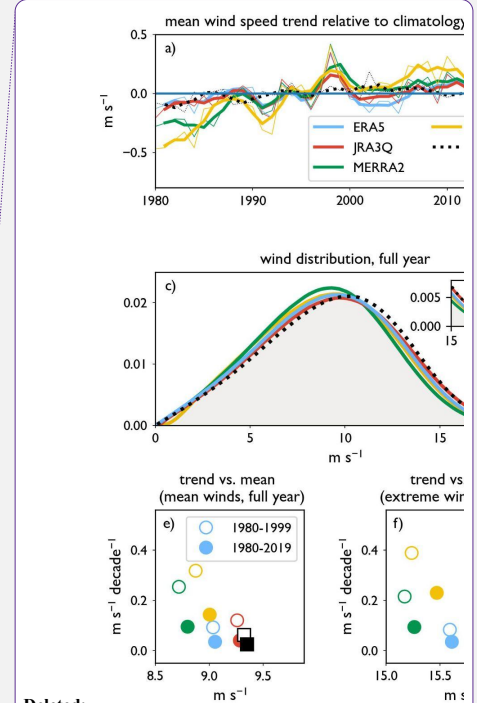
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4 **Fig. 2: Summary statistics for wind distributions in four reanalysis products and UKESM1.** a-b): mean
 5 10-m wind speed trends relative to climatology for a) full year and b) DJF only. Thick lines have been
 6 smoothed by a three-point running filter. c-d): windspeed frequency distribution (100 bins, 0-20 m s⁻¹)
 7 for c) full year and d) DJF, with high tails shown in inset. e-h) Trends in mean and extreme winds for full
 8 year and DJF vs. climatological means, with colours the same as in panel a). Filled symbols represent
 9 1980-2019, while open symbols represent 1980-1999; circles represent reanalyses while squares
 10 represent UKESM1. Colours from panel a) are repeated throughout the figure. Summary statistics shown
 11 in panels e)-h) are also given in Tables 4 and 5. All figure statistics are calculated for daily winds at
 12 1°x1° resolution, 40°S- 60°S.

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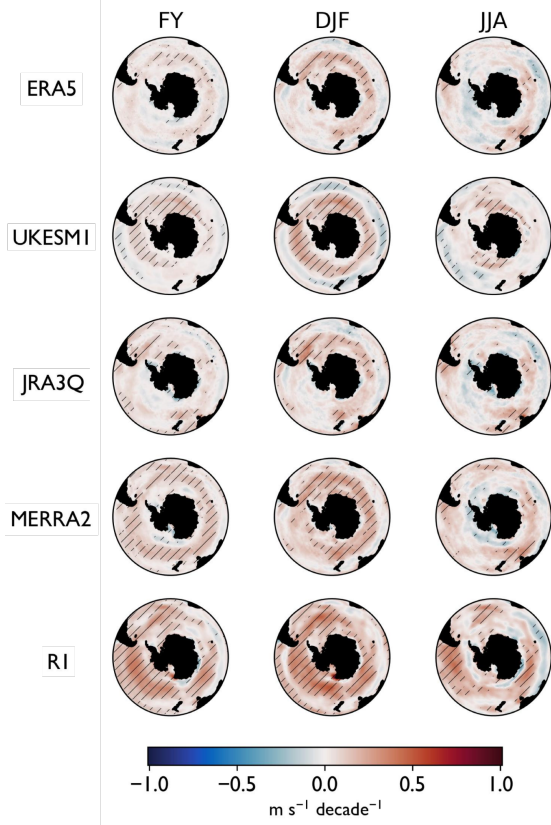
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1 Fig. 3.



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3 Fig. 3: Decadal trends in 10-m wind speed (1980-2019). Hatching shows trends significant at the 95%
4 confidence level. See also Table 5.
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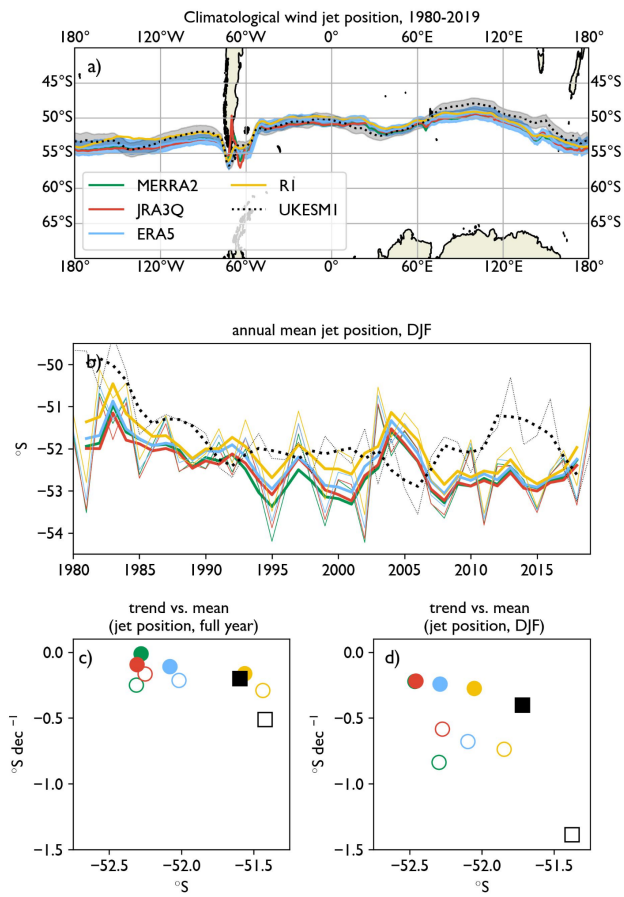
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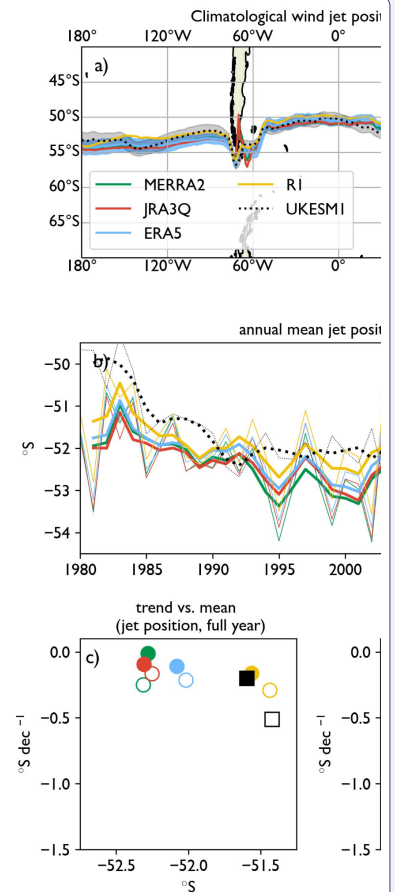
1 Fig. 4



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3 **Fig. 4: Summary statistics for the wind jet.** The wind jet is calculated as the location of the maximum of
 4 the u-component of the 10-m wind speed between 30°S and 70°S (see Methods). a) the climatological
 5 mean annual jet position, with one standard deviation of the annual mean shown for ERA5 and UKESMI.
 6 b) The zonal mean of the austral summer jet position. Thick lines indicate smoothing by a 3-point
 7 running mean filter. c-d) Trends in the annual (c) and summer (d) jet position mean vs. climatological
 8 means. Colours from panel a) are repeated throughout the figure. See also Sup. Tables [ST3](#) and [ST4](#).

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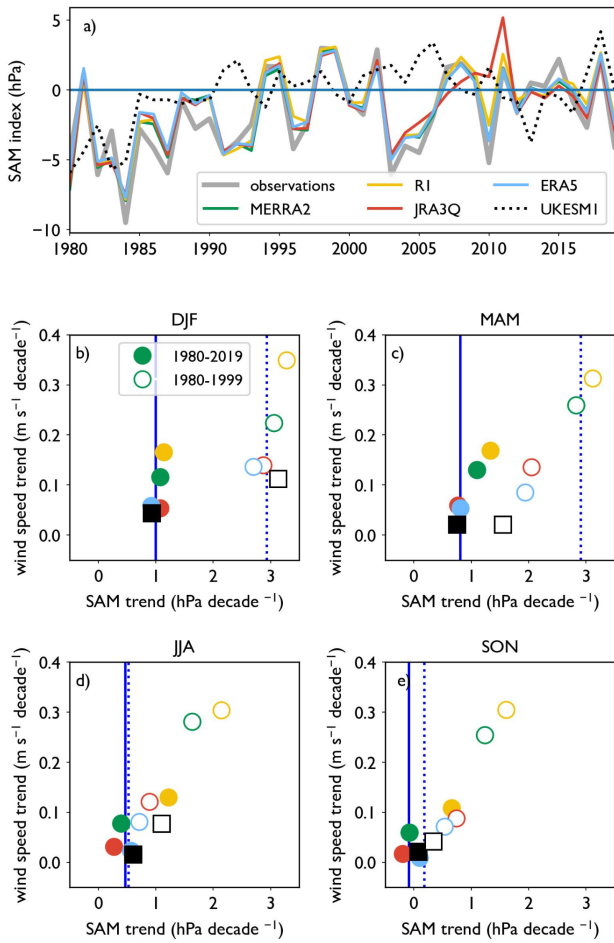
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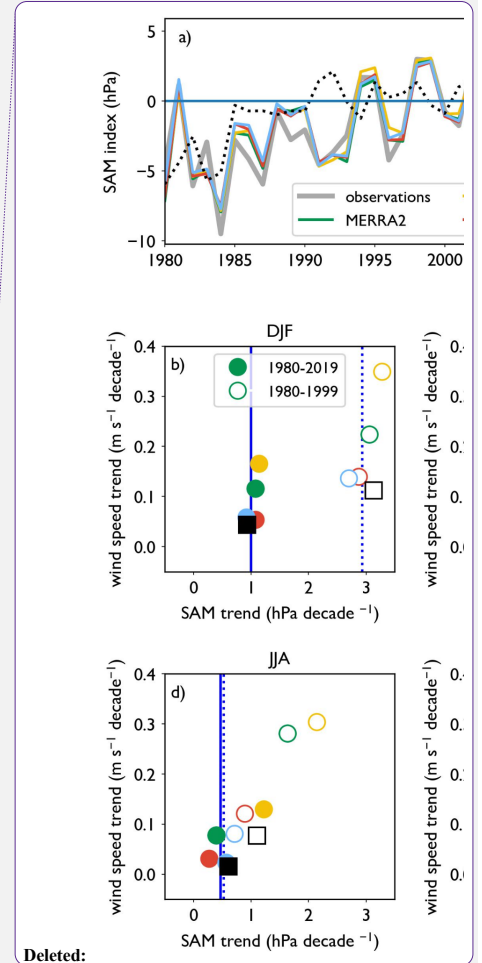
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1 **Fig. 5.**



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3 **Fig. 5: Summary statistics for the SAM index.** a) Timeseries of the austral summer (DJF) SAM index. To
4 highlight coherence of interannual variability, no running-mean filter has been applied. b-e) Trends
5 in the wind speed vs trends in the SAM index, subdivided by season. Filled symbols represent 1980-2019,
6 while open symbols represent 1980-1999. Vertical lines show the observational SAM index (full line
7 represents 1980-2019, dotted line represents 1980-1999). Colours from panel a) are repeated throughout
8 the figure. See also Sup. Table S5.
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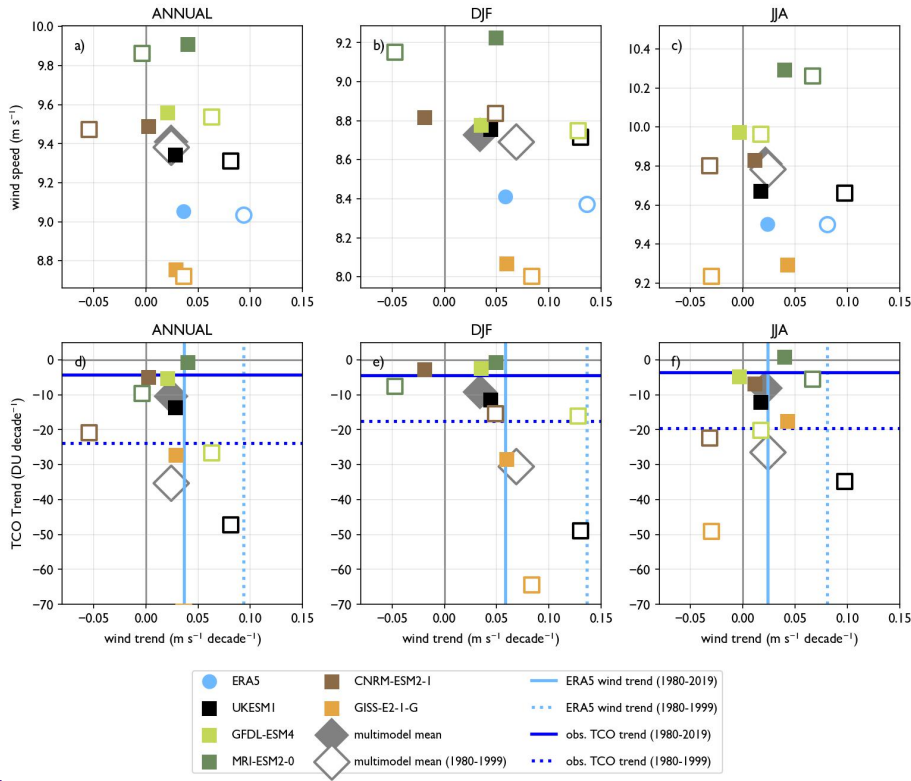


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1 Fig. 6

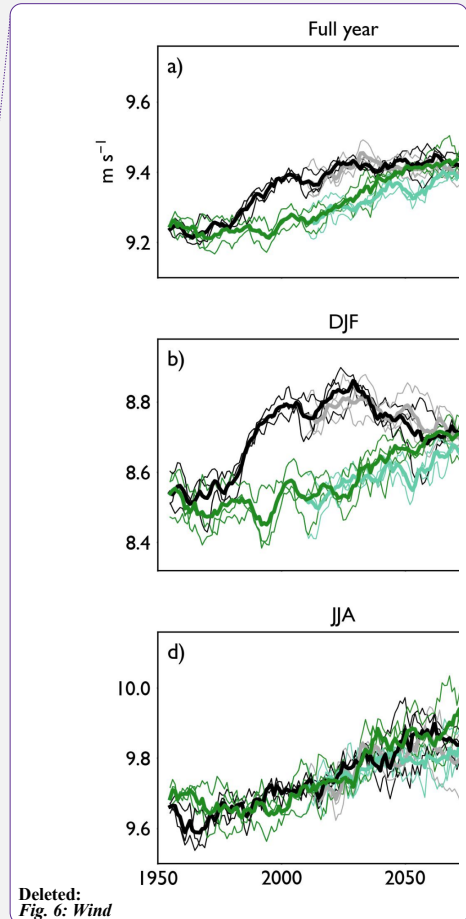


2

3 **Fig. 6: 10-m wind speed, decadal wind speed trend, and decadal TCO trend (70°S- 90°S) for CMIP**
 4 **models with interactive chemistry. For each model, one ensemble member is used (see Table 2).**

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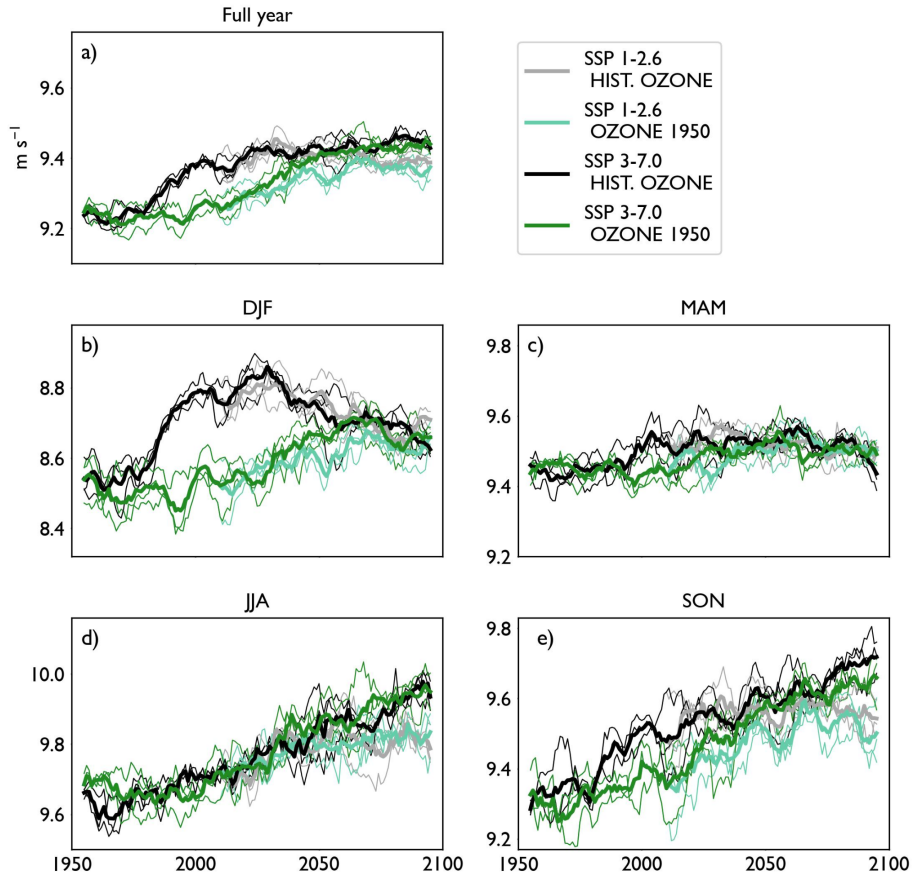
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Fig. 6: Wind

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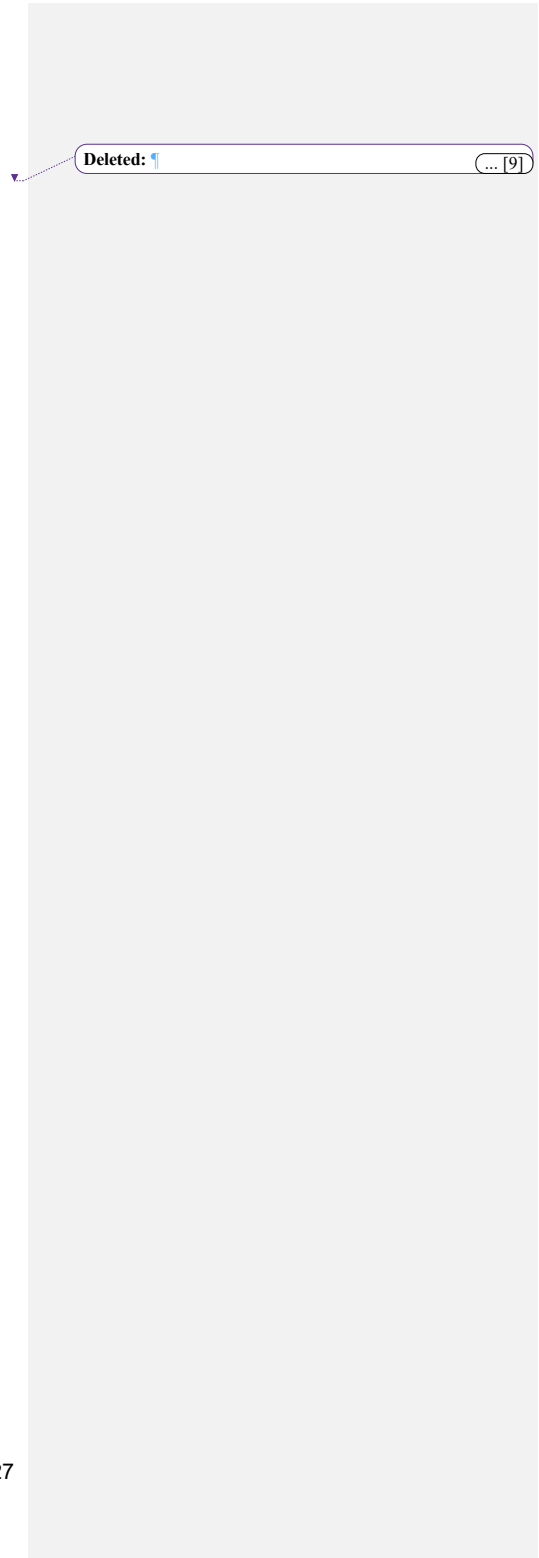
2 [Fig. 7](#)



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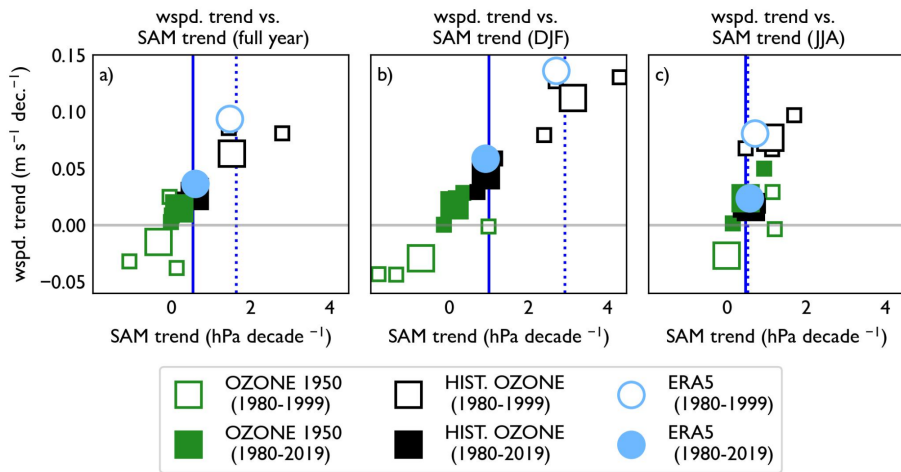
4 **Fig. 7: 10-m wind speed evolution from 1950 to 2100 in the OZONE-1950 and OZONE-HIST**
5 **experiments. a) Full year, b-e): seasonally subdivided means. All means are calculated for daily winds at**
6 **1°x1° resolution, 40°S- 60°S. For each experiment, three ensemble members are shown, with the**
7 **ensemble mean shown in bold. All lines are smoothed with a 10-year running filter. See also Table 6Table**
8 **4.**

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1 Fig. 8

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4 **Fig. 8: Trends in mean wind speed vs. trends in the SAM index for the OZONE-1950 and OZONE-**
 5 **HIST experiments.** ERA5 is shown for comparison (blue circles), and the observational SAM index is
 6 shown as vertical lines (full for 1980-2019, dotted for 1980-1999). For the OZONE-1950 and OZONE-
 7 HIST experiments, individual ensemble members are shown as smaller squares, while the ensemble mean
 8 is shown as a larger square. As in Figs. 2,4, and 5, filled symbols represent 1980-2019, while open
 9 symbols represent 1980-1999.

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2 Tables

3 Table 1

<u>Name</u>	<u>ERA5</u>	<u>JRA3Q</u>	<u>MERRA2</u>	<u>R1 (NCEP-NCAR)</u>
<u>Institution</u>	<u>ECMWF</u>	<u>JMA</u>	<u>NASA GMAO</u>	<u>NOAA/NCEP and NCAR</u>
<u>Period coverage</u>	<u>1940 to present</u>	<u>1947 to present</u>	<u>1980 to present</u>	<u>1948 to present</u>
<u>Time resolution</u>	<u>1-hr</u>	<u>6-hr</u>	<u>1-hr</u>	<u>6-hr</u>
<u>Horizontal grid (lat. × lon.)</u>	<u>0.25° × 0.25°</u>	<u>0.37° × 0.37°</u>	<u>0.5° × 0.625°</u>	<u>1.875° × 2°</u>
<u>Reference</u>	<u>Hersbach et al., 2020</u>	<u>Kosaka et al., 2024</u>	<u>Molod et al., 2015</u>	<u>Kalnay et al., 1996</u>

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5 Table 1: Basic characteristics of the reanalysis products used.

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1 Table 2

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<u>Model</u>	<u>Reference</u>
<u>UKESM1-0-LL</u>	<u>Sellar et al., 2019</u>
<u>CNRM-ESM2-1</u>	<u>S��f��rian et al., 2019</u>
<u>GISS-E2-1-G</u>	<u>Kelley et al., 2020</u>
<u>MRI-ESM2-0</u>	<u>Yukimoto, Kawai, et al., 2019</u>
<u>GFDL-ESM4</u>	<u>Dunne et al., 2020</u>

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4 *Table 2: CMIP6 models with interactive chemistry used in the intercomparison. Only models with both*
5 *interactive chemistry and 10-m wind fields available at (at least) daily resolution are used. One ensemble*
6 *member is used per model.*

1 Table 3

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<u>Experiment</u>	<u>Ozone forcing</u>	<u>GHG forcing</u>
<u>OZONE-HIST SSP 1-2.6</u>	<u>Standard CMIP-6 surface mixing ratios for ODS (historical to 2015, followed by specific SSP pathway projection) (Meinshausen et al., 2017)</u>	<u>SSP 1-2.6 (Gidden et al., 2019)</u>
<u>OZONE-HIST SSP 3-7.0</u>	<u>as above</u>	<u>SSP 3-7.0 (Gidden et al., 2019)</u>
<u>OZONE-1950 SSP 1-2.6</u>	<u>ODS surface mixing ratios fixed at 1950 values from 1950 onwards</u>	<u>SSP 1-2.6 (Gidden et al., 2019)</u>
<u>OZONE-1950 SSP 3-7.0</u>	<u>as above</u>	<u>SSP 3-7.0 (Gidden et al., 2019)</u>

4
5 Table 3: Summary of experiments with description of ozone and GHG forcing.

1 Table 4

<u>climatological 10-m wind speed, m s⁻¹, 1980-2019</u>					
	<u>ERA5</u>	<u>R1</u>	<u>MERRA2</u>	<u>JRA3Q</u>	<u>UKESM1</u>
<u>full year</u>	<u>9.05</u>	<u>-0.05</u>	<u>-0.20</u>	<u>0.28</u>	<u>0.30</u>
<u>DJF</u>	<u>8.41</u>	<u>-0.04</u>	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>0.27</u>	<u>0.33</u>
<u>MAM</u>	<u>9.13</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.28</u>	<u>0.24</u>	<u>0.36</u>
<u>JJA</u>	<u>9.5</u>	<u>-0.08</u>	<u>-0.13</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.19</u>
<u>SON</u>	<u>9.16</u>	<u>-0.07</u>	<u>-0.18</u>	<u>0.31</u>	<u>0.32</u>

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3 *Table 4: Climatological 10-m wind speed (1980-2019). Seasonally subdivided open-ocean wind speed*
4 *between 40°S and 60° S for ERA5 , and differences from ERA5 for the other reanalyses and UKESM1.*

5

1 Table 5

trend in 10-m wind speed, m s ⁻¹ decade ⁻¹ , 1980-2019					
	<u>ERA5</u>	<u>R1</u>	<u>MERRA2</u>	<u>JRA3Q</u>	<u>UKESM1</u>
<u>full year</u>	0.04	0.14	0.10	0.04	0.03
<u>DJF</u>	0.06	0.17	0.12	0.05	0.04
<u>MAM</u>	0.05	0.17	0.13	0.06	0.02
<u>JJA</u>	<u>0.02</u>	0.13	0.08	<u>0.03</u>	<u>0.02</u>
<u>SON</u>	<u>0.01</u>	0.11	0.06	<u>0.02</u>	<u>0.02</u>
trend in 10-m wind speed, m s ⁻¹ decade ⁻¹ , 1980-1999					
<u>full year</u>	0.09	0.32	0.26	0.12	0.06
<u>DJF</u>	0.14	0.35	0.22	0.14	0.11
<u>MAM</u>	<u>0.09</u>	0.31	0.26	0.14	<u>0.02</u>
<u>JJA</u>	<u>0.08</u>	0.30	0.28	<u>0.12</u>	0.08
<u>SON</u>	<u>0.07</u>	0.31	0.25	<u>0.09</u>	<u>0.04</u>

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3 Table 5: Decadal trends in 10-m wind speed. Seasonally subdivided trends in open-ocean wind speed
4 between 40°S and 60° S are shown for 1980-2019 and 1980-1999. Trends significant at the 5% level are
5 given in bold.

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1 Table 6 - attribution 1950-2099
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1950-1999	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only
FY	0.03	-0.01	0.04
DJF	0.06	-0.02	0.07
MAM	0.01	0.00	0.01
JJA	0.02	-0.01	0.03
SON	0.04	0.01	0.03

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	SSP 1-2.6			SSP 3-7.0		
2000-2049	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only
FY	0.01	0.02	-0.01	0.01	0.03	-0.02
DJF	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.03
MAM	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.02
JJA	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.03	0.04	-0.01
SON	0.02	0.03	-0.01	0.02	0.04	-0.02

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	SSP 1-2.6			SSP 3-7.0		
2050-2099	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only
FY	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00

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DJF	-0.02	0.01	-0.03	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
MAM	0.00	-0.01	0.00	-0.02	-0.01	-0.01
JJA	-0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.02	0.02	0.00
SON	0.00	0.01	-0.01	0.03	0.02	0.01

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Table 6: Attribution of 10-m wind trends ($m s^{-1} dec^{-1}$) to GHG and ozone forcing in three 50-year time-periods in the UKESM1 model runs. Values for GHG + ozone refer to the ensemble mean trend of the OZONE-HIST run, while the GHG only column refers to the OZONE-1950 run. The effect of ozone only is then obtained by subtracting OZONE-1950 from OZONE-HIST. Statistically significant trends are given in bold.

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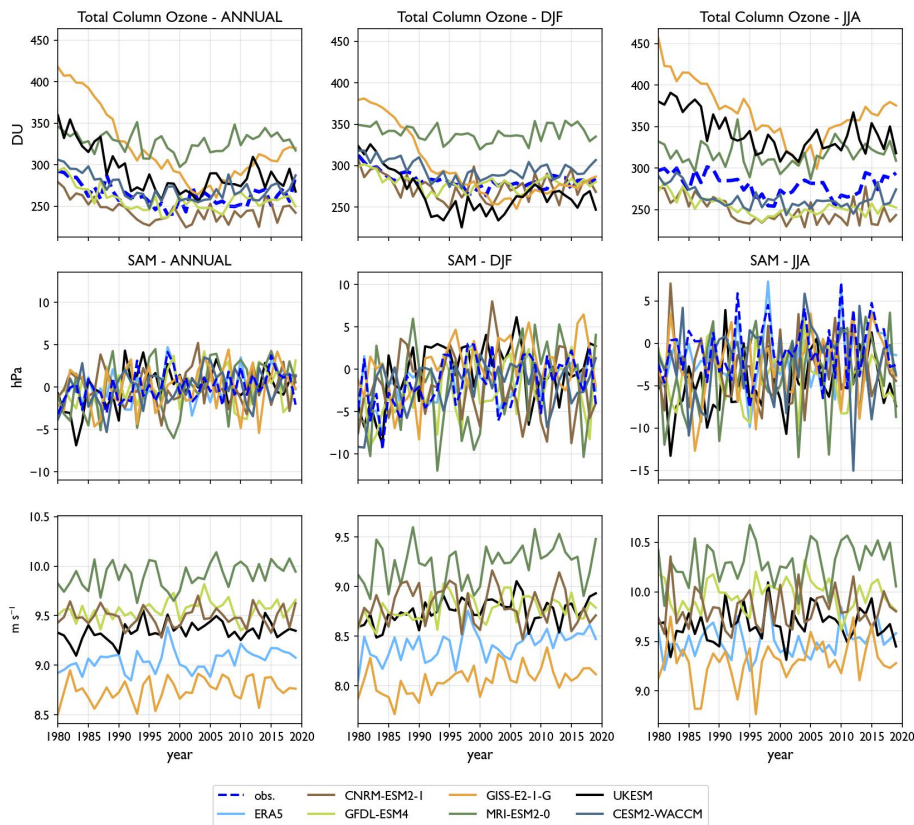
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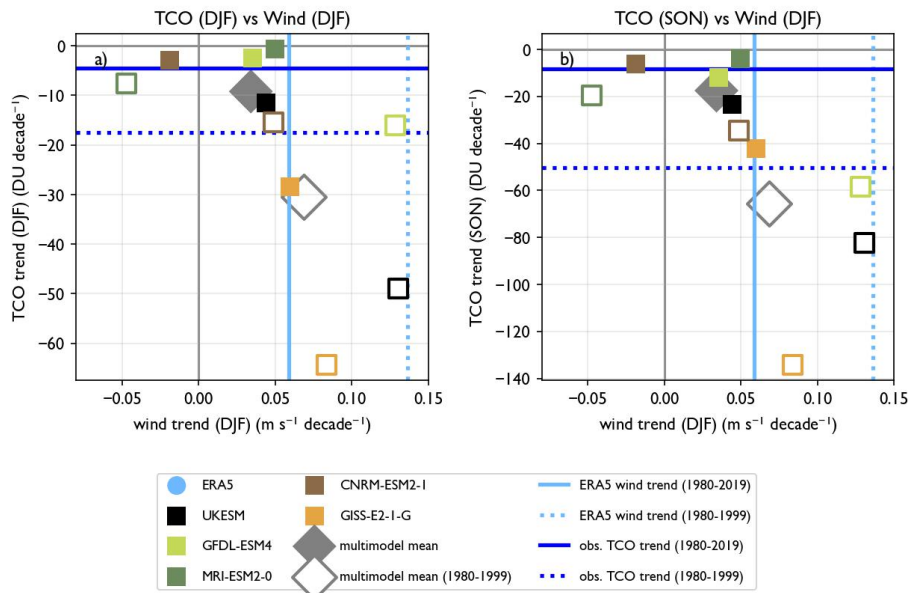
1 Supplementary Figures

2 Fig. S1



4 Fig. S1: Timeseries of Total Column Ozone (TCO) for 70-90°S, SAM index, and 10-m wind speed (40-
5 60°S) for CMIP6 models with interactive chemistry. Relevant observations and reanalyses are shown as
6 follows: the Bodecker observational TCO is shown in dashed blue in the top row. The Marshall station-
7 based SAM index is shown in dashed blue in the middle row, and the ERA5 wind speed is shown in light
8 blue in the bottom row.

1 Fig. S2



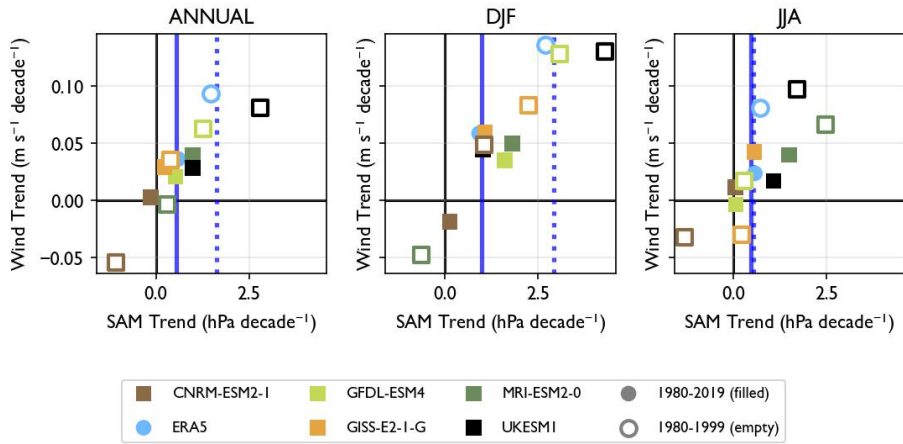
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3 Fig. S2: Trends in TCO (DJF and SON) vs. trends in 10-m winds in DJF. Though maximum ozone
 4 depletion is seen in SON, inter-model TCO trends and their relationship with wind speed trends are
 5 consistent whether wind speed trends in DJF are plotted relative to TCO trends in SON or DJF.

6

1 Fig. S3

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3

4 Fig. S3: Trends in 10-m winds vs SAM trends for CMIP6 models with interactive chemistry and ERA5.

5 See also Fig. 5. For this intercomparison, one ensemble member is used for each model, including

6 UKESM1, so SAM trends here are somewhat higher than in the ensemble mean shown in Fig. 5.

7

1 Supplementary Tables

2 Table S1

3

interannual variability (% of climatological mean wind speed)					
	ERA5	NCEP-NCAR	MERRA	JRA3Q	UKESM
full year	1.18	2.42	1.80	1.13	1.00
DJF	1.67	3.05	2.20	1.58	1.53
MAM	1.35	2.74	2.23	1.42	1.39
JJA	1.72	2.69	2.20	1.69	1.63
SON	1.94	2.84	2.07	1.76	1.72

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5 ***Table S1: Interannual variability (IAV) of mean open-ocean wind speed between 40°S and 60°S for***
6 ***1980-2019. IAV calculated as the unbiased standard deviation of the timeseries normalized by its mean,***
7 ***shown in percent of the mean climatological wind speed.***

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1 Table S2

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extreme low 10-m winds (m s ⁻¹): weighted average of lowest 5% of daily values					
	ERA5	R1	MERRA2	JRA3Q	UKESM1
full year	2.04	0.44	0.07	0.13	0.00
DJF	1.87	0.42	0.07	0.14	0.00
MAM	2.03	0.47	0.07	0.12	0.01
JJA	2.16	0.46	0.08	0.13	-0.01
SON	2.09	0.42	0.07	0.14	-0.02
extreme high 10-m winds (m s ⁻¹): weighted average of highest 95% of daily values					
	ERA5	R1	MERRA2	JRA3Q	UKESM1
full year	15.61	-0.14	-0.35	0.59	0.32
DJF	14.75	-0.18	-0.45	0.51	0.27
MAM	15.76	-0.11	-0.42	0.57	0.31
JJA	16.23	-0.12	-0.19	0.67	0.36
SON	15.68	-0.15	-0.33	0.61	0.37

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4 **Table S2: High and low tails of the wind distribution.** Tails given in m s⁻¹ for ERA5 and as a bias in m s⁻¹
5 for the remaining products. To calculate extreme winds, we calculate the daily weighted 95th (5th)
6 percentile of winds from the 1°x1° gridded product, then take the weighted average of all cells above
7 (below) this percentile. For any season, the seasonal extreme winds are then the average of these daily
8 extreme winds.
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1 Table S3

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climatological jet position (°S), 1980-2019					
	ERA5	R1	MERRA2	JRA3Q	UKESM1
full year	-52.1	0.5	-0.2	-0.2	0.5
DJF	-52.3	0.2	-0.2	-0.2	0.6
MAM	-52.7	0.2	-0.1	-0.2	0.3
JJA	-52.3	0.8	-0.3	-0.3	0.2
SON	-51	0.8	-0.2	-0.3	0.9

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Table S3: Seasonally-subdivided climatological jet position. Absolute position is given for ERA5, and differences from ERA5 are given for the other reanalyses and UKESM1 (positive numbers indicate a less southerly jet position).

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1 Table S4

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trends in jet position (°S dec ⁻¹), 1980-2019					
	ERA5	R1	MERRA2	JRA3Q	UKESM1
full year	-0.11	-0.16	-0.01	-0.09	-0.2
DJF	-0.24	-0.27	-0.22	-0.22	-0.4
MAM	-0.13	-0.24	-0.12	-0.14	-0.23
JJA	-0.01	-0.02	0.19	0.04	0.1
SON	-0.05	-0.11	0.11	-0.05	-0.27
trends in jet position (°S dec ⁻¹), 1980-1999					
full year	-0.21	-0.29	-0.25	-0.17	-0.51
DJF	-0.68	-0.74	-0.84	-0.58	-1.39
MAM	-0.6	-0.78	-0.67	-0.56	-0.63
JJA	0.02	0.07	0.08	0.09	0.13
SON	0.4	0.28	0.42	0.38	-0.16

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4 *Table S4: Seasonally-subdivided trends in climatological jet position. Trends significant at the 5% level*
 5 *are given in bold.*

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1 Table S5

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	trends in SAM index (hPa dec ⁻¹), 1980-2019					
	observations	ERA5	R1	MERRA	JRA3Q	UKESM
full year	0.55	0.6	1.09	0.62	0.48	0.59
DJF	1	0.92	1.14	1.08	1.07	0.93
MAM	0.81	0.81	1.33	1.1	0.77	0.75
JJA	0.47	0.57	1.22	0.39	0.27	0.61
SON	-0.09	0.1	0.66	-0.08	-0.2	0.08
	trends in SAM index (hPa dec ⁻¹), 1980-1999					
	observations	ERA5	R1	MERRA	JRA3Q	UKESM
full year	1.64	1.47	2.54	2.19	1.64	1.53
DJF	2.93	2.7	3.28	3.06	2.87	3.13
MAM	2.91	1.94	3.11	2.82	2.05	1.54
JJA	0.52	0.71	2.14	1.64	0.89	1.1
SON	0.18	0.53	1.61	1.23	0.74	0.34

3

4 Table S5: *Seasonally-subdivided trends in the natural SAM index. Trends significant at the 5% level*
 5 *are given in bold.*

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1 Table S6

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	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only
1980-1999			
FY	0.06	-0.01	0.08
DJF	0.11	-0.03	0.14
MAM	0.02	-0.05	0.07
JJA	0.08	-0.03	0.10
SON	0.04	0.05	-0.01

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	GHG + ozone	GHG only	ozone only
1980-2019			
FY	0.03	0.01	0.01
DJF	0.04	0.02	0.03
MAM	0.02	-0.01	0.03
JJA	0.02	0.02	-0.01
SON	0.02	0.02	0.00

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5 Table S6: Attribution of wind trends ($m s^{-1} dec^{-1}$) to GHG and ozone forcing for 1980-1999 and 1980-
6 2019 in the UKESM1 model runs. Values for GHG + ozone refer to the ensemble mean trend of the
7 OZONE-HIST run, while the GHG only column refers to the OZONE-1950 run. The effect of ozone only
8 is then obtained by subtracting OZONE-1950 from OZONE-HIST. Statistically significant trends are
9 given in bold.

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