

1

2

*Paleoceanography*

3

Supporting Information for

4

**The Mechanistic Role of the Central American Seaway in a GFDL Earth System Model. Part  
1: Impacts on Global Ocean Mean State and Circulation**

5

6

Lori T. Sentman<sup>1</sup>, John P. Dunne<sup>1</sup>, Ronald J. Stouffer<sup>1</sup>, John P. Krasting<sup>1</sup>, J. R. Toggweiler<sup>1</sup>, and  
7 Anthony J. Broccoli<sup>2</sup>

7

8

<sup>1</sup>National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration/Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, Princeton, New Jersey

9

<sup>2</sup>Department of Environmental Sciences and Institute for Earth, Ocean, and Atmospheric Sciences, Rutgers, The  
10 State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, New Jersey.

10

11

**12 Contents of this file**

13

14

Text S1

15

Figures S1 to S8

16

17

**18 Introduction**

19

The following supporting information contains text and figures which support the main article.

20

Text S1 includes extended GFDL-ESM2G model information relevant for the main article.

21

Figures S1 and S2a show published (Bell et al., 2015) paleoclimate oxygen (**S1**) and carbon (**S2a**)

22

isotope proxy data from various Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) sites before and after the

23

Central American Seaway shoaling and closure, supporting the motivation for this study. Figure

24

S2b shows ODP site locations referenced in Figure S2a. Figure S3 shows published

25

paleogeography reconstructions of Central America (Kirby and MacFadden, 2005; Haug et al.,

26

2004) supporting this study's experiment design. Figure S4 shows GFDL-ESM2G global average

27

upper 2000-m ocean temperature time series for the four seaway simulations showing quasi-

28 equilibrium. Figure S5 shows the vertically integrated ocean current changes with the  
29 progression of the seaway shoaling and closure. Figure S6 illustrates the sea surface height  
30 anomaly (relative to the global mean) for GFDL-ESM2G driving the net water mass transport  
31 from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Figure S7 shows the zonal mean ocean heat and salt transport  
32 in GFDL-ESM2G. Figure S8 illustrates the GFDL-ESM2G precipitation rate minus evaporation  
33 rate difference between the three seaway experiments and the CLOSED simulation, supporting  
34 the local hydrological response in the ocean mean state.

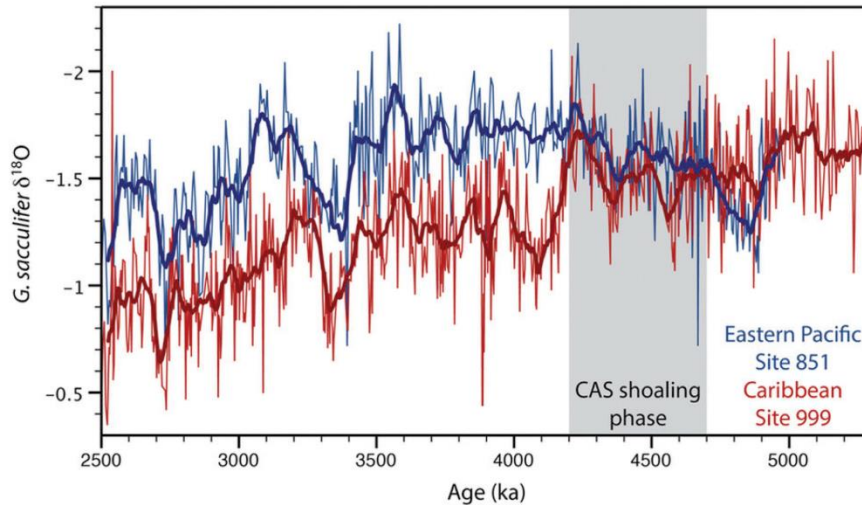
35

### 36 **Text S1. Extended model description of GFDL-ESM2G**

37 The atmosphere component, AM2, uses a 2° latitude x 2.5° longitude horizontal grid and 24  
38 vertical levels and is similar to the component used the GFDL CM2.1 climate model (Delworth  
39 et al., 2006). The land model, LM3.0 (Milly et al., 2014), exchanges water, energy and CO<sub>2</sub>  
40 between the land and atmosphere, and includes interactive, dynamic vegetation capable of  
41 simulating ecosystem dynamics in response to climate (Shevliakova et al., 2009). The ocean  
42 biogeochemical and ecological component is Tracers of Ocean Phytoplankton with Allometric  
43 Zooplankton code version 2.0 (TOPAZ2; Dunne et al., 2013). Atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> tracer was  
44 restored annually and globally to the 1860 reference value of 286 ppm<sub>v</sub> (i.e., a concentration-  
45 driven configuration) allowing realistic diurnal and seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> variability over land and  
46 reduced atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> drift during the model spin-up. The ocean component uses an  
47 isopycnal vertical coordinate with a 1° horizontal grid increasing to 1/3° meridionally at the  
48 equator, tripolar above 65°N, and 63 vertical levels, including two mixed layers (Hallberg, 2003;  
49 Thompson et al., 2003), two buffer layers, and 59 interior layers. To avoid excessively deep  
50 mixed layer depths (Hallberg, 2003), sub-mesoscale eddy-driven restratification of the mixed

51 layer is parameterized after Fox-Kemper et al. (2011). The model uses Simmons et al. (2004)  
52 baroclinic tide mixing. The model uses the areal depth average of high-resolution bathymetry  
53 with the full sill depth and represents explicit exchanges across 14 straits.

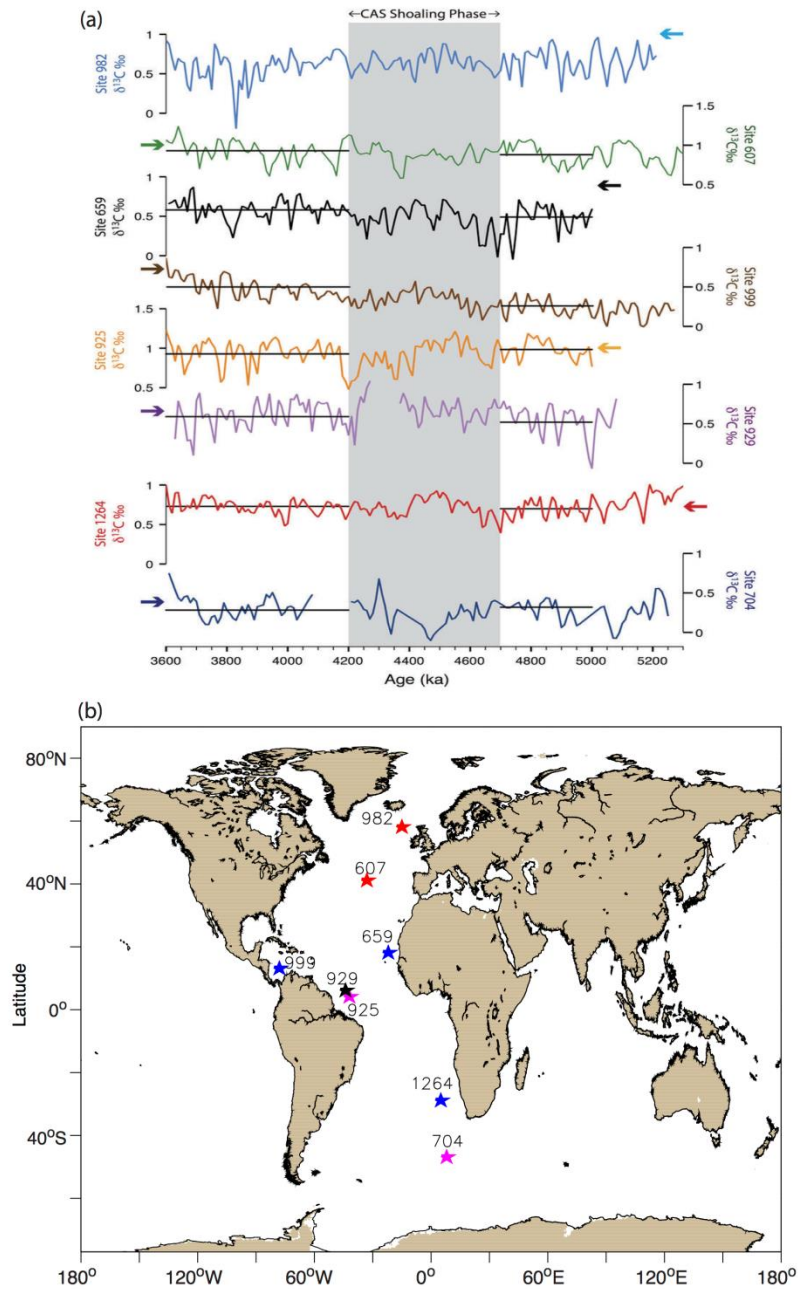
54



55

56 **Figure S1.** Comparison of surface water (planktic) oxygen isotope records (‰ vs Vienna Pee  
 57 Dee Belemnite) from the Caribbean (ODP Site 999 (12°44'N, 78°44'W, Colombian basin; water  
 58 depth 2828 m; Haug and Tiedemann, 1998) and the eastern Pacific (ODP site 851; 2°46'N,  
 59 110°34'W, water depth 3760 m; Cannariato and Ravelo, 1997) for 2.2-5.3 Ma showing an  
 60 increased gradient between ~4.7-4.2 Ma attributed to a major shoaling phase of the CAS (grey  
 61 shading), reprinted from "Atlantic Deep-water Response to the Early Pliocene Shoaling of the  
 62 Central American Seaway" by Bell et al. (2015) licensed under [CC-BY-4.0](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). Bold lines represent  
 63 50 kyr running averages (Haug et al., 2001; Figure 2A).

64



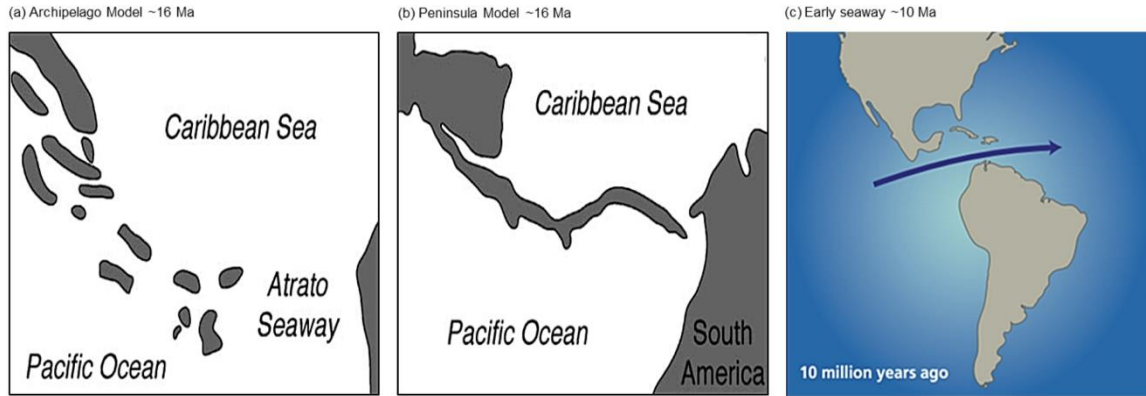
65

66 **Figure S2. (a)** Time series of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  data (‰ vs Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite) from various Atlantic  
 67 ODP sites, reprinted from "Atlantic Deep-water Response to the Early Pliocene Shoaling of the  
 68 Central American Seaway" by Bell et al. (2015) licensed under [CC-BY-4.0](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/). Horizontal black lines  
 69 show average  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values for the time slice intervals prior to (5.0-4.7 Ma) and after (4.2-3.6 Ma)

70 CAS shoaling. Arrows indicate approximate modern  $\delta_{13}\text{C}$  values at each site. (b) Locations of  
71 Atlantic ODP sites from (a) represented by stars.

72

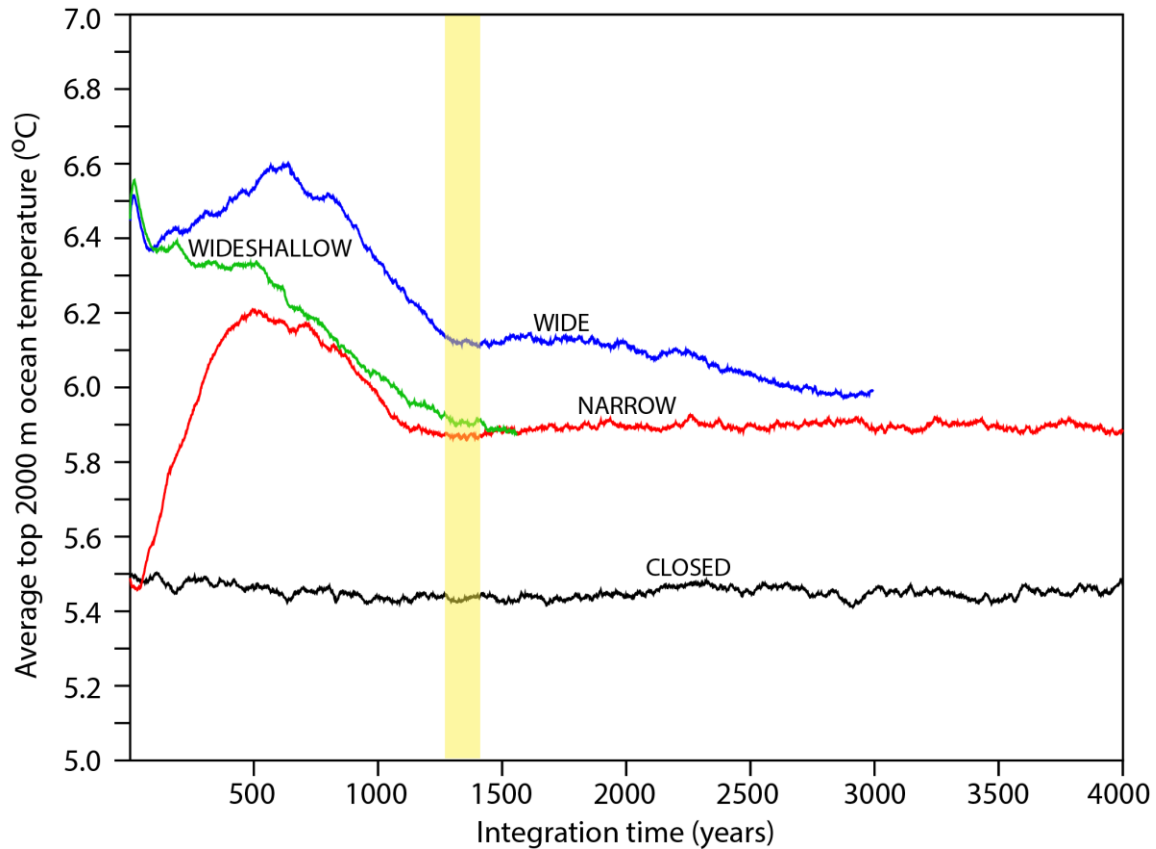
73



74

75 **Figure S3.** Paleogeography reconstructions of Central America in the mid-Miocene before the  
 76 Isthmus of Panama; **(a)** archipelago model (Coates and Obando, 1996) reprinted from (Kirby  
 77 and MacFadden, 2005) with permission from Elsevier<sup>1</sup>, **(b)** peninsula model (Whitmore and  
 78 Stewart, 1965) reprinted from (Kirby and MacFadden, 2005) with permission from Elsevier<sup>1</sup>, and  
 79 **(c)** early seaway model similar to previous climate model studies, republished with permission  
 80 of *Oceanus Magazine*, from How the Isthmus of Panama put ice in the Arctic, G. H. Haug and L.  
 81 D. Keigwin, 42, 2, 2004; permission conveyed through Copyright Clearance Center, Inc.  
 82 Emergent land is represented by gray **(a)** and **(b)** and tan **(c)**. Timing and structure of the  
 83 paleogeography is uncertain (Kirby and MacFadden, 2005). <sup>1</sup>(a) and (b) reprinted from  
 84 (*Palaeogeography, Palaeoclimatology, Palaeoecology*, M.X. Kirby and B. MacFadden. "Was  
 85 southern Central America an archipelago or a peninsula in the middle Miocene? A test using  
 86 land-mammal body size", Vol. 228, No. 3-4, p. 193–202, 2005, Copyright Elsevier) with  
 87 permission from Elsevier.

88

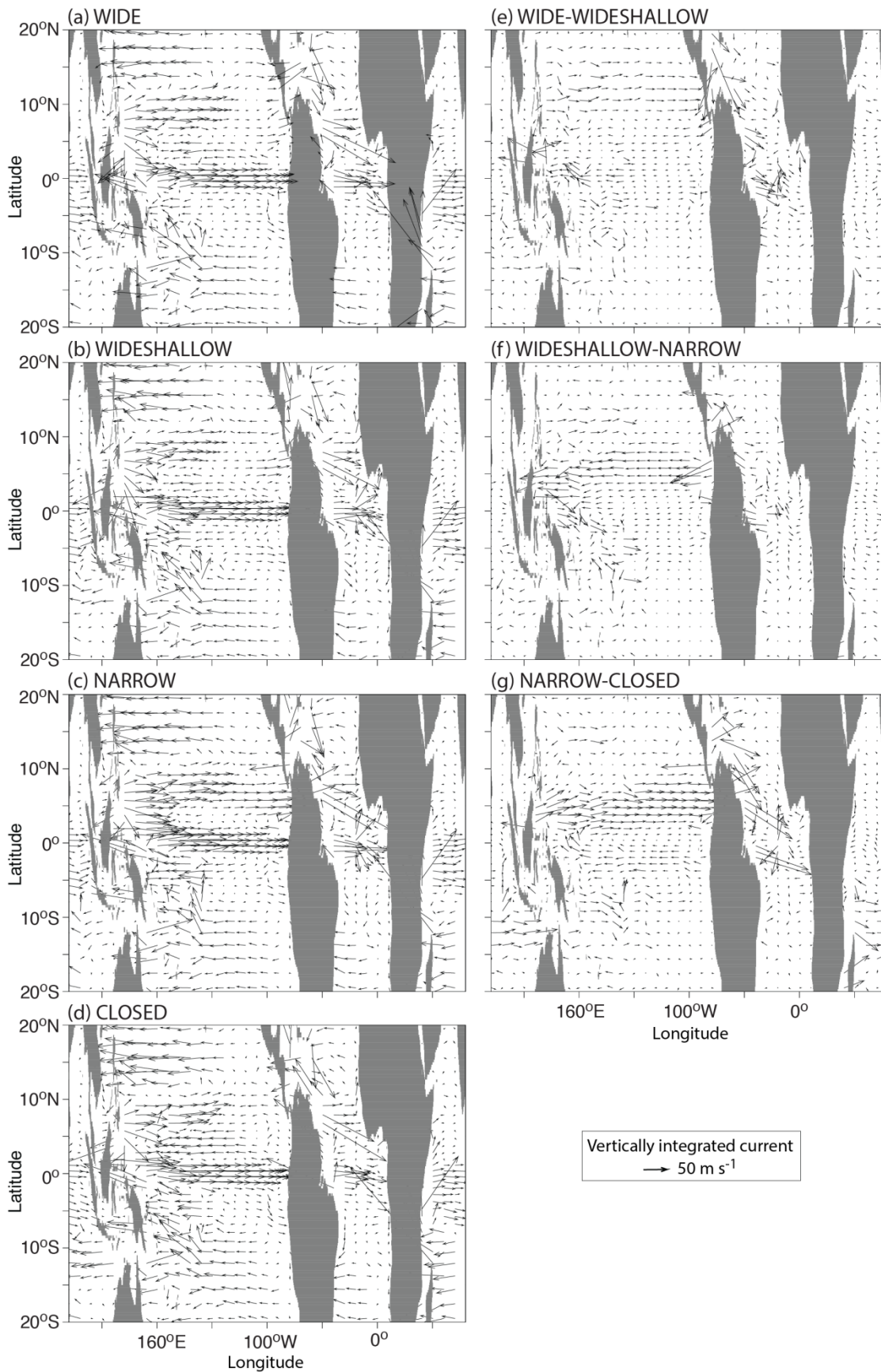


90

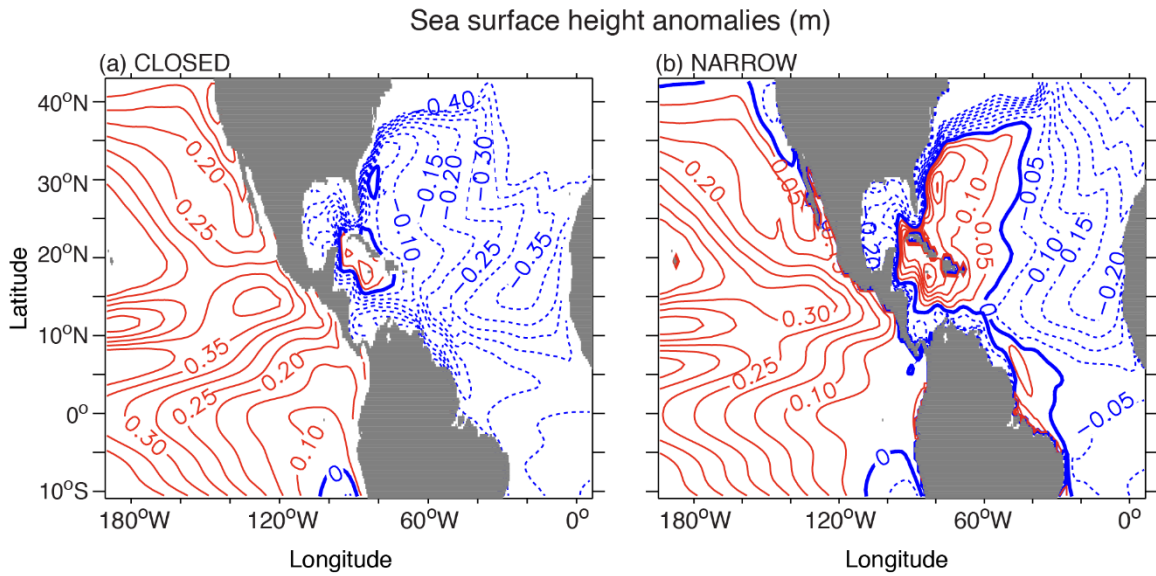
91 **Figure S4.** GFDL-ESM2G global average upper 2000-m ocean temperature (°C) for the  
 92 CLOSED (black), NARROW (red), WIDESHALLOW (green), and WIDE (blue) seaway simulations  
 93 for model integration years 1-4,000. The yellow shading represents the 100-year analysis period  
 94 (1301-1400) mainly used in this study (except for the maximum Atlantic Meridional Overturning  
 95 Circulation analysis). The wide seaway experiments (e.g., WIDE and WIDESHALLOW) began  
 96 with a warmer global integrated ocean and average surface air temperature than the NARROW  
 97 seaway experiment because more land grid cells were replaced with warm, tropical ocean grid  
 98 cells than in the NARROW seaway. The global average upper 2000-m ocean temperature for  
 99 the WIDESHALLOW seaway converges toward the NARROW simulation faster than the WIDE  
 100 simulation that was initialized with additional warm ocean grid cells. The NARROW and WIDE



101 simulations were integrated longer than our spin-up and analysis periods to assess the  
102 convergence rate. The WIDE simulation converges toward the NARROW simulation at a rate of  
103 approximately  $0.1^{\circ}\text{C} / 1000$  years, requiring an additional 1000 integration years for near-  
104 convergence.  
105



107 **Figure S5.** GFDL-ESM2G 100-year annual average vertically integrated full-depth current ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ;  
108 vectors) from  $20^{\circ}\text{N}$  to  $20^{\circ}\text{S}$  for **(a)** WIDE, **(b)** WIDESHALLOW, **(c)** NARROW, **(d)** CLOSED, and  
109 the time progression of the gradual shoaling and closure of the seaway: **(e)** WIDE-  
110 WIDESHALLOW, **(f)** WIDESHALLOW-NARROW, and **(g)** NARROW-CLOSED differences.



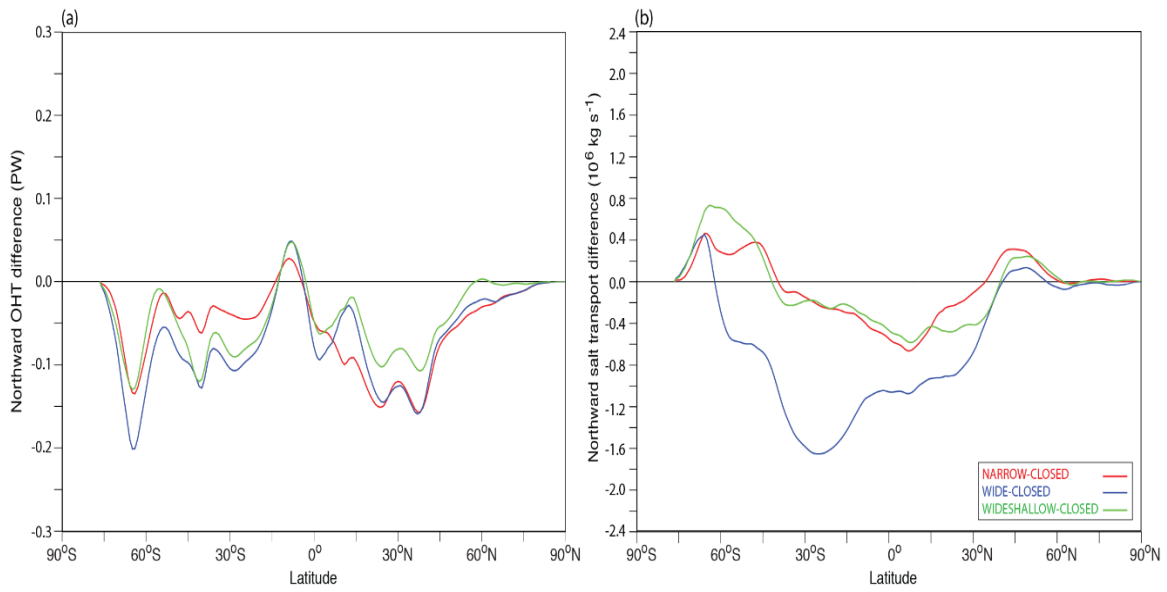
111

112 **Figure S6.** GFDL-ESM2G sea surface height (SSH) anomalies (m) relative to the global mean  
 113 for the **(a) CLOSED** and **(b) NARROW** seaway simulations. Red (blue) contours indicate positive  
 114 (negative) SSH anomalies. SSH anomalies for WIDESHALLOW and WIDE at steady-state were  
 115 similar to NARROW but were not included in this analysis because these experiments were  
 116 initialized differently with respect to SSH.

117

118

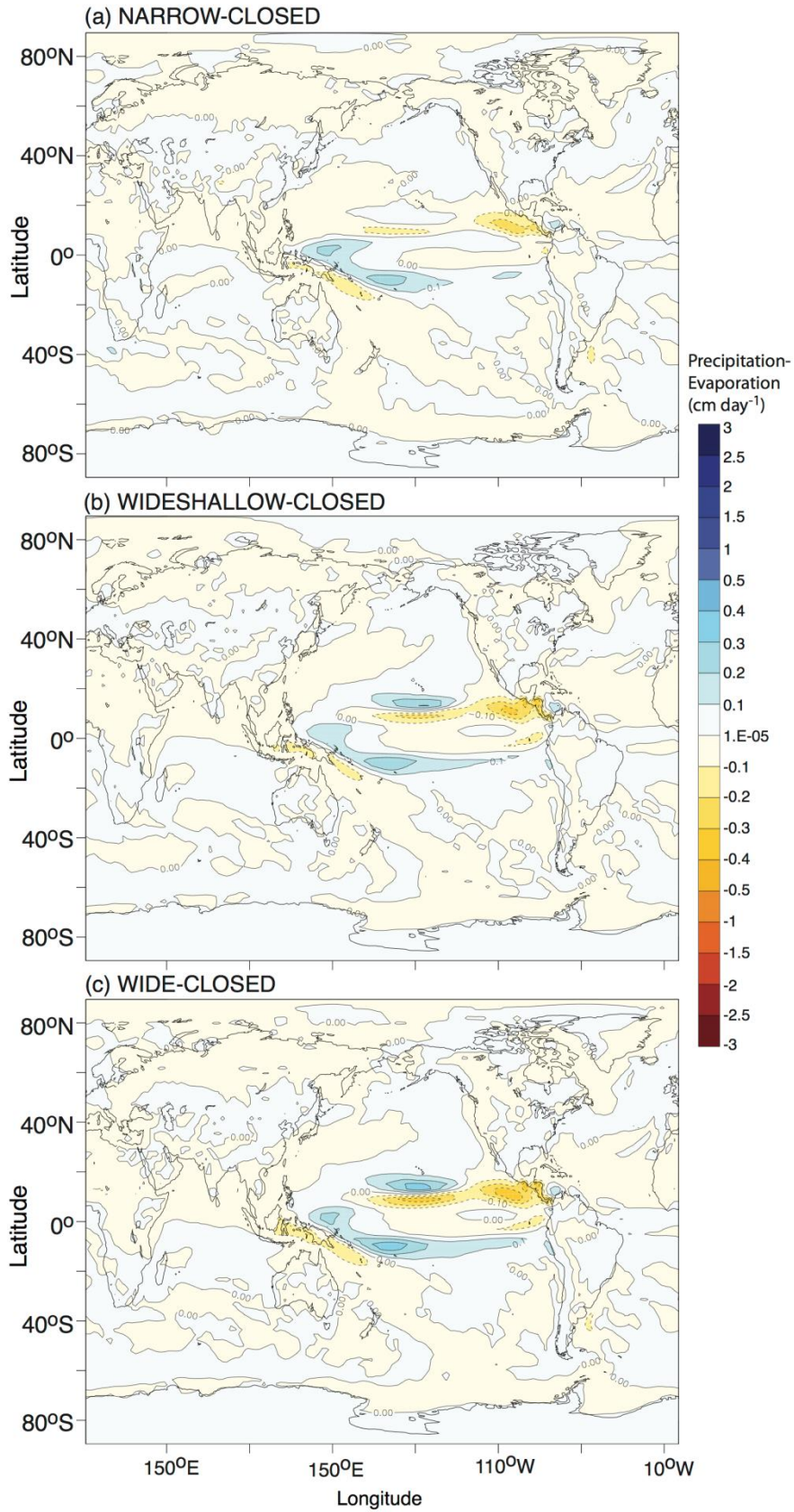
119



120

121 **Figure S7.** GFDL-ESM2G 100-year annual average NARROW (red), WIDE (blue), and  
122 WIDESHALLOW (green) minus CLOSED northward **(a)** ocean heat transport (PW) and  
123 **(b)** salt transport ( $10^6 \text{ kg s}^{-1}$ ) difference.

124



126 **Figure S8.** GFDL-ESM2G 100-year annual average precipitation rate minus evaporation rate  
127 (cm day<sup>-1</sup>) for **(a)** NARROW-CLOSED, **(b)** WIDESHALLOW-CLOSED, and **(c)** WIDE-CLOSED.  
128 Positive (negative) values represent increased surface moisture (drying) with a CAS.