



8 **Abstract**

9 The large-scale moistening of the atmosphere in response to increasing greenhouse gases amplifies  
10 the existing patterns of precipitation minus evaporation (P-E) which, in turn, amplifies the spatial  
11 contrast in sea surface salinity (SSS). Through a series of CO<sub>2</sub> doubling experiments, we  
12 demonstrate that surface salinification driven by the amplified dry conditions (P-E < 0), primarily  
13 in the subtropical ocean, accelerates ocean heat uptake. The salinification also drives the  
14 sequestration of upper-level heat into the deeper ocean, reducing the thermal stratification and  
15 increasing the heat uptake through a positive feedback. The change in Atlantic Meridional  
16 Overturning Circulation due to salinification plays a secondary role in heat uptake. Consistent  
17 with the heat uptake changes, the transient climate response would increase by approximately 0.4K  
18 without this process. Observed multi-decadal changes in subsurface temperature and salinity  
19 resembles those simulated, indicating that anthropogenically-forced changes in salinity are likely  
20 enhancing the ocean heat uptake.

## 21 **Main**

22           The increased concentration of atmospheric greenhouse gases has reduced the longwave  
23 cooling of the Earth’s climate system to space, resulting in planetary warming, which works to  
24 eventually bring the climate towards a new – warmer – equilibrium<sup>1</sup>. It has been estimated that  
25 over 90% of the top-of-atmosphere energy imbalance is captured by the ocean as increased ocean  
26 heat content (OHC)<sup>2,3</sup>. The resulting upper ocean warming can enhance the thermal stratification  
27 of the ocean<sup>4</sup>, and thus act to dampen mode water formation<sup>5</sup>. A recent study<sup>2</sup> summarizing  
28 observation-based OHC estimates<sup>6-11</sup> and climate model simulations from the Coupled Model  
29 Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5)<sup>12-15</sup> claims a stronger rate of ocean warming over the  
30 period of 2005-2017 (0.54-0.64 W m<sup>-2</sup>) relative to the period of 1971-2010 (0.36-0.39 W m<sup>-2</sup>).  
31 Furthermore, in both observationally constrained OHC data<sup>16</sup> and climate model simulations<sup>17</sup>, a  
32 substantial portion of increased OHC is found in tropics and subtropics (i.e., equatorward of 40°  
33 latitude). This creates a conundrum: given the stably stratified low-latitude ocean, how does the  
34 warming water get subducted to produce subtropical ocean heat uptake in spite of further  
35 stabilization from upper ocean warming<sup>4,18</sup>?

36           We propose that the amplification of the spatial pattern of sea surface salinity (SSS)<sup>19-23</sup>  
37 resulting from the enhancement of global hydrological cycle<sup>24</sup> provides an important supporting  
38 mechanism for the rate of ocean heat uptake. A robust consequence of anthropogenic warming is  
39 the increase of atmospheric moisture content controlled by the Clausius-Clapeyron (CC) relation,  
40 leading to the strengthening of the water cycle expressed as the amplification of the existing  
41 patterns of surface freshwater fluxes [precipitation minus evaporation (P – E)]<sup>24</sup>. The enhancement  
42 of P – E amplifies the mean state, that is, “dry gets drier and wet gets wetter”<sup>24</sup>. Since SSS in part  
43 reflects large-scale patterns of P – E, the enhancement of the global hydrological cycle acts to

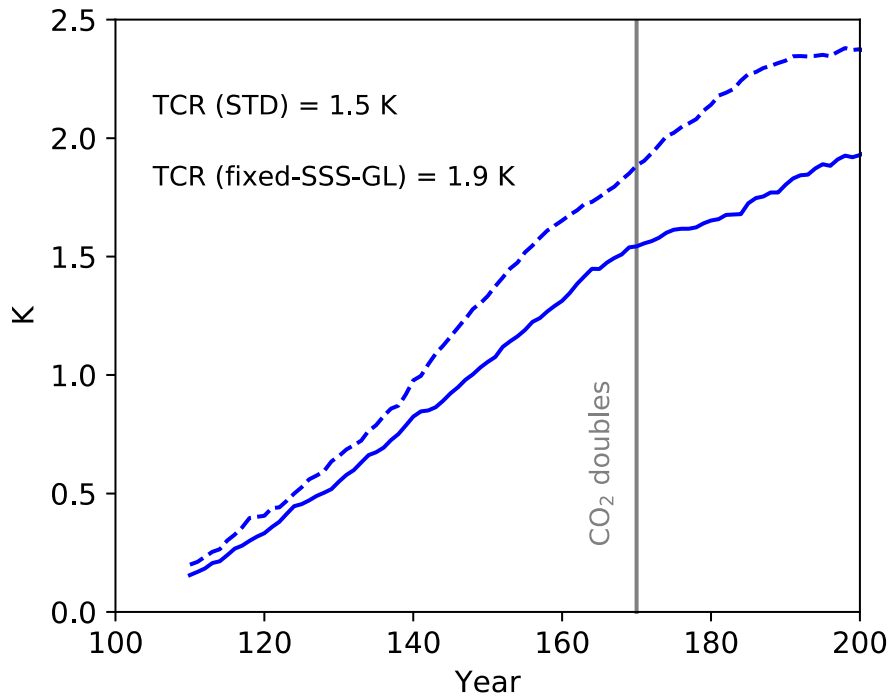
44 amplify patterns of SSS: “fresh gets fresher and salty gets saltier”<sup>19,20,25,26</sup>. Analyses of long-term  
45 observations of SSS have revealed that the spatial changes of SSS largely resemble the  
46 climatological SSS distribution<sup>19</sup>. We hypothesize that salinification of the subtropical surface  
47 ocean provides an important buoyancy sink that helps compensate the stabilizing impact of upper  
48 ocean warming and enhance low-latitude heat uptake, and thus the enhancement of the  
49 hydrological cycle moderates the transient climate change.

50 In this study, we quantify the impact of the sea surface salinification on ocean heat uptake  
51 and transient climate warming using a global coupled ocean-atmosphere climate model [the  
52 Forecast-oriented Low Ocean Resolution version of the Coupled Model version 2.5 (FLOR)]  
53 developed at the Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory<sup>17,27</sup>. We conduct a suite of transient CO<sub>2</sub>  
54 doubling experiments in which the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is increased by 1% per year  
55 until doubling. The experiments include a baseline run using the standard configuration of FLOR  
56 (labelled as STD) and a perturbation run using a modified FLOR in which the SSS is nudged to  
57 the seasonally-varying control climatology from the STD run on global scales (labelled as fixed-  
58 SSS-GL see Methods for details). Differences in CO<sub>2</sub> response between these two configurations  
59 highlight the influences of SSS changes on transient climate warming.

60 Compared to the STD version, the fixed-SSS-GL version shows a greater increase of global  
61 mean surface temperature with a larger transient climate response (TCR) by 0.4 K, highlighting  
62 the role of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced SSS changes in reducing the rate of surface warming in response to CO<sub>2</sub>  
63 doubling (Fig. 1). The mean difference (0.002 K) in annual global mean surface temperature  
64 between the 100-year STD and fixed-SSS-GL control runs is three orders of magnitude smaller  
65 than the difference in TCR, suggesting the relatively small climatological effect of fixing SSS on

66 unforced simulations of surface temperature (See Supplementary Text 1 and Supplementary Fig.  
67 1 for details).

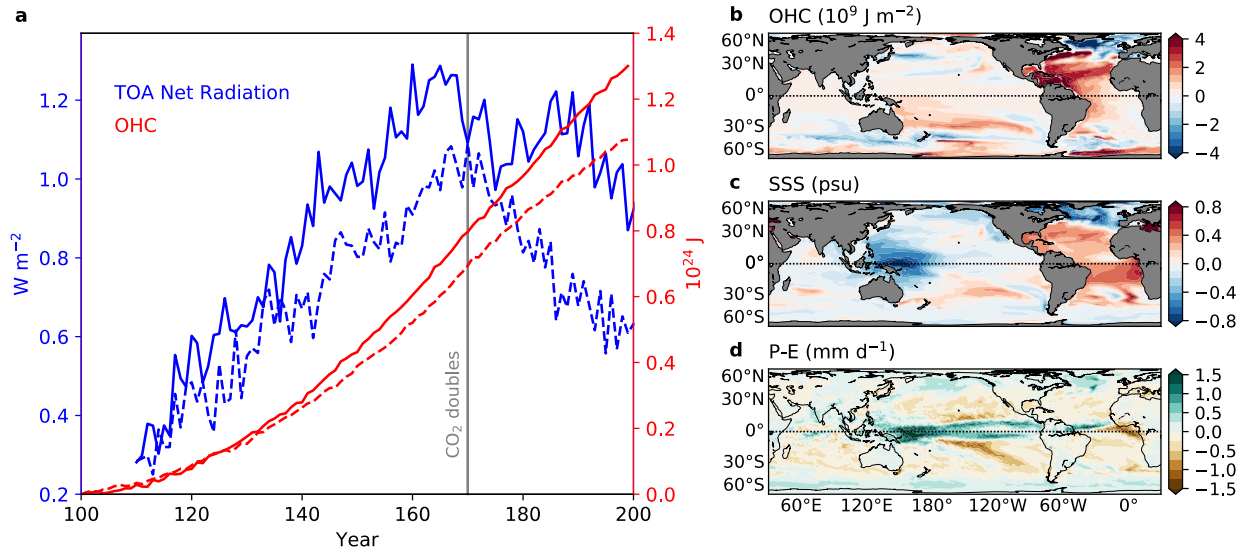
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69

70 Fig. 1. **Response of surface temperature to transient CO<sub>2</sub> forcing.** Time series of global mean  
71 surface temperature changes (°C) in response to a 1% annual increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration for the  
72 STD (solid line) and fixed-SSS-GL (dashed line) version. Data are plotted as 20-year running  
73 mean.

74



75

76 **Fig. 2. Impact of fixed SSS on the response of OHC and TOA net radiation to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing.**

77 **a**, Annual series of changes in TOA net radiation (W m<sup>-2</sup>; blue) and OHC (10<sup>24</sup> J; red) in response

78 to a 1% annual increase in CO<sub>2</sub> for the STD (solid line) and fixed-SSS-GL (dashed line) version.

79 The grey line indicates year 170 when the CO<sub>2</sub> doubles. The TOA net radiation is plotted as 10-

80 year running mean. **b**, Difference in the response of OHC (10<sup>9</sup> J m<sup>-2</sup>) to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling between the

81 STD and fixed-SSS-GL version. The response is computed using years 161-180 from the CO<sub>2</sub> run

82 while years 101-200 from the control run. **c**, The same as **b**, but for difference in the response of

83 sea surface salinity (SSS; psu). **d**, The response of P – E (mm d<sup>-1</sup>) pattern to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling for the

84 STD version.

85

86 The greater surface warming in the fixed-SSS-GL experiment relative to the STD run,

87 given the similar climate feedback parameter (-1.6 and -1.5 W m<sup>-2</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> for the STD and fixed-SSS-

88 GL version, respectively; see Methods, Supplementary Text 2 and Supplementary Fig. 2 for

89 details), should result in a larger radiative response of the climate system. Based on the top-of-

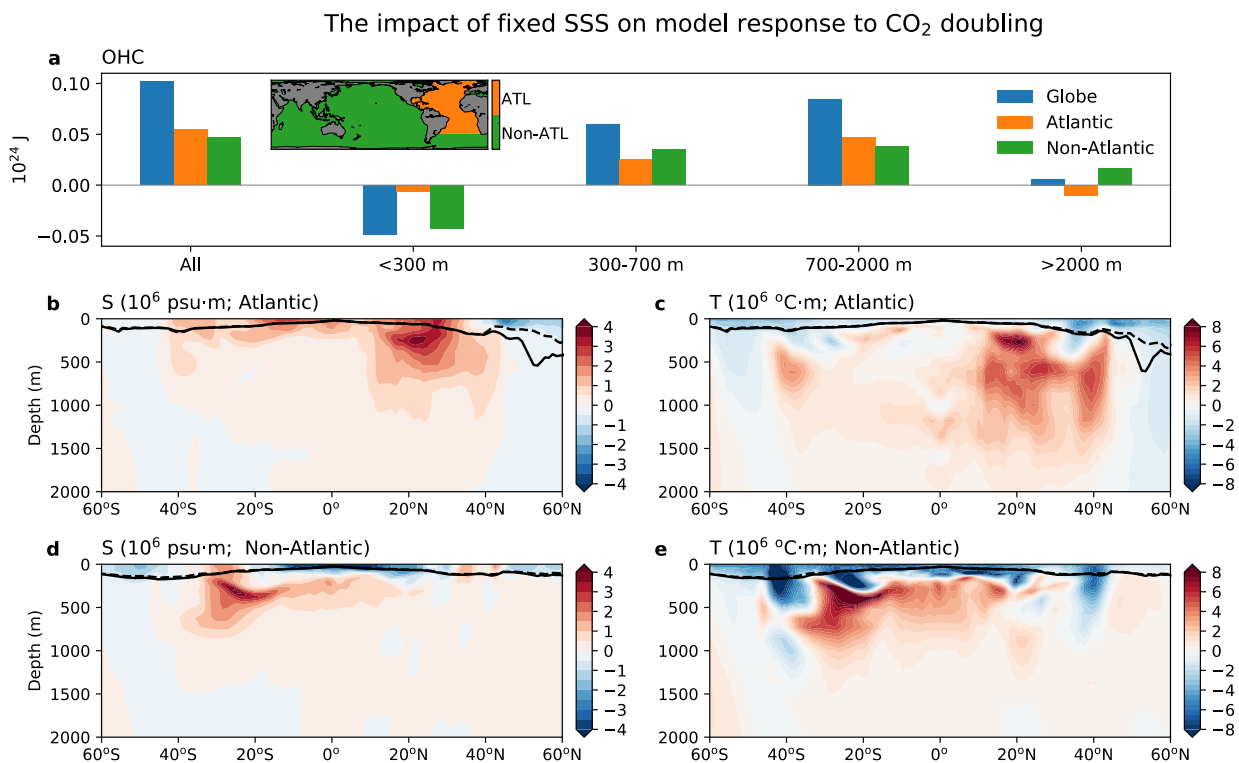
90 atmosphere (TOA) energy balance [ $R(t) = Q(t) + \lambda\Delta T(t)$  where R is the net radiation at the TOA,

91 Q is the radiative forcing,  $\lambda$  is the climate feedback parameter,  $\Delta T$  is the surface warming and t is  
92 time], a lower radiative imbalance at the TOA occurs when SSS is fixed given the same CO<sub>2</sub>-  
93 induced radiative forcing (Fig. 2a). This indicates the fixed-SSS-GL version has a much lower  
94 ocean heat uptake efficiency<sup>28,29</sup>, defined as the ratio of net radiation at the TOA to the global  
95 surface temperature increase. Consistently, the fixed-SSS-GL experiment shows a smaller increase  
96 of OHC in comparison with the STD experiment (Fig. 2a). Similar to global mean surface  
97 temperature, there is a relatively small effect of fixing SSS on control simulations of net radiation  
98 at the TOA and OHC (see Supplementary Text 1 and Supplementary Fig. 3 for details).

99 The STD version shows a greater increase of ocean heat uptake in response to the CO<sub>2</sub>  
100 forcing, relative to the fixed-SSS-GL version (Fig. 2b). The greatest increase occurs in the tropical  
101 and subtropical Atlantic Ocean and secondly in the subtropical South Pacific (Fig. 2b), broadly  
102 mirroring regions where SSS shows the largest increase<sup>30</sup> (Fig. 2c). The results support our  
103 hypothesis on the role of sea surface salinification in enhancing heat penetration into the deeper  
104 ocean by reduced density stratification resulting from upper-ocean warming. In response to the  
105 CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, the fixed-SSS-GL run shows a greater heat-equivalent buoyancy flux than the STD  
106 run, which is partially attributed to freshwater flux (Supplementary Fig. 4), further demonstrating  
107 the role of surface salinification in enhancing the buoyancy sink. The spatial distribution of SSS  
108 change in response to the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing (Fig. 2c) is broadly consistent with the change in P-E (Fig.  
109 2d) strongly tied to the mean state (Supplementary Fig. 5), echoing the impact of the amplified  
110 water cycle on surface salinity changes<sup>19–21,24</sup>.

111 However, we notice regions with mismatch between the OHC and SSS. First, the extension  
112 of the positive OHC anomaly in the subtropical southeastern Pacific to the western Pacific  
113 convective region (Fig. 2b) is not seen in the SSS pattern (Fig. 2c). This mismatch is primarily

114 driven by the climatological oceanic transport toward the convective zone (Supplementary Fig.  
 115 6a-c); the change in ocean circulation is secondary (Supplementary Fig. 6d-f). Second, the  
 116 enhanced OHC anomaly in the subtropical North Atlantic over South Atlantic is not observed in  
 117 the SSS. The underlying reason will be addressed later in the discussion of the impact of ocean  
 118 circulation.



119  
 120 **Fig. 3. Impact of fixed SSS on the model response to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling.** **a**, Difference in the  
 121 response of OHC (10<sup>24</sup> J) to transient CO<sub>2</sub> doubling between the STD and fixed-SSS-GL version  
 122 as a function of ocean depth. The response is computed using years 161-180 from the CO<sub>2</sub> run  
 123 while years 101-200 from the control run. The inset figure indicates the area of Atlantic and non-  
 124 Atlantic Ocean for computing total OHC. **b-c**, Difference in the response of zonal-integral **b** ocean  
 125 salinity (10<sup>6</sup> psu·m; color) and **c** ocean temperature (10<sup>6</sup> °C·m; color) between the STD and fixed-  
 126 SSS-GL version in the Atlantic using the same period as **a**. **d-e**, Same as in **b-c**, but for non-

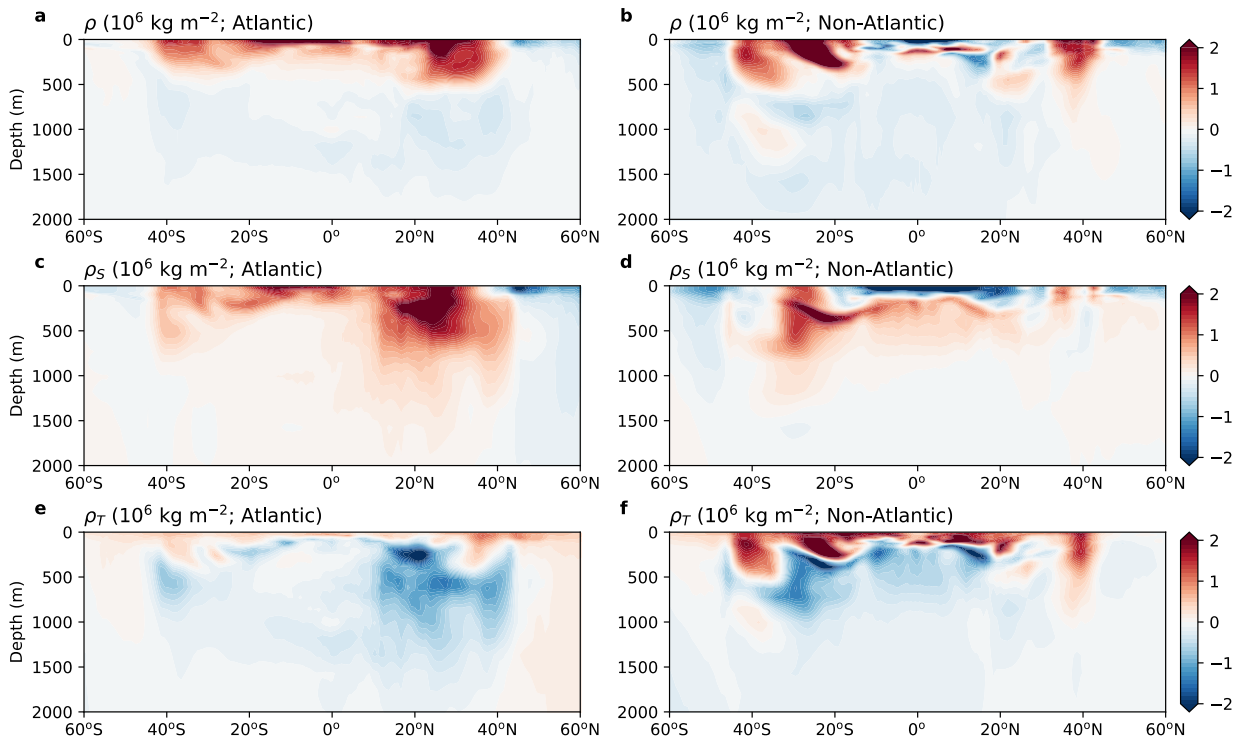


127 Atlantic Ocean. Black lines in **b-d** indicate winter mixed layer depth (mld; m) from control runs  
128 (solid) and CO<sub>2</sub> runs (dashed), respectively. The mld is defined as the depth where the density  
129 difference with respect to the surface level is greater than or equal to 0.03 kg m<sup>-3</sup>. The mld in **b, d**  
130 are from the STD version while the mld in **c, e** are from the fixed-SSS-GL version.

131

132 Relative to the fixed-SSS-GL version, the STD version exhibits deeper warming (Fig. 3a):  
133 reduced increase of heating within the upper 300 m, in agreement with the reduced increase of  
134 surface temperature (Fig. 1). The downward shift of OHC arising from SSS changes is further  
135 evident in the zonally-integrated subsurface temperature in response to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling (Fig. 3c, e).  
136 It is worth noting that, relative to the zonal mean, the zonal integral provides a more relevant  
137 measure to compare tropics and subpolar regions by taking into account the difference in area per  
138 unit latitude at different latitudes related to both the convergence of meridians and differences in  
139 land mass. The Atlantic Ocean accounts for 54% of all heat increase, and its greatest salinity-  
140 induced increase of subsurface temperature occurs in the northern subtropics where the increase  
141 of subsurface salinity also reaches its peak (Fig. 3b, c). For ocean basins other than the Atlantic,  
142 there is also correspondence between the positive anomaly of subsurface temperature and salinity  
143 as shown in the southern subtropics (Fig. 3d, e), primarily in the Pacific Ocean (Supplementary  
144 Fig. 7b-c). Although the Indian Ocean shows a much smaller magnitude than the Pacific, the  
145 positive salinity anomaly (e.g., around 20°S) corresponds with upper-level cooling and deeper  
146 ocean warming (Supplementary Fig. 7d-e). These results suggest the important role of increased  
147 subsurface salinity in the subtropical ocean driven by surface salinification in modulating the  
148 vertical distribution of heat through accelerated heat uptake. A consequence of heat sequestration  
149 from the upper level to deeper ocean is the decrease in the upper-level thermal stratification (Fig.

150 4e-f), which further increases the heat uptake through a positive feedback. The less thermal  
 151 stratification in the fixed-SSS-GL run relative to the STD run makes a considerable contribution  
 152 to the total difference in the upper ocean stratification (Fig. 4a-b), highlighting the important role  
 153 of this feedback in amplifying the salinification-driven reduction in stratification (Fig. 4c-d).



154  
 155 **Figure. 4. Impact of fixed SSS on the response of ocean stratification to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling. a-b,**  
 156 **Difference in the response of zonal-integral ocean density ( $10^6 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ ) between the STD and fixed-**  
 157 **SSS-GL version for Atlantic and non-Atlantic Ocean, respectively. The response is computed**  
 158 **using years 161-180 from the CO<sub>2</sub> run while years 101-200 from the control run. c-d, Same as a-**  
 159 **b, but for the contribution of salinity to the difference in density change. e-f, Same as a-b, but for**  
 160 **the contribution of temperature to the difference in density change.**

161  
 162 The wind-driven turbulent mixing in the upper layers seems to play a less important role  
 163 in the difference in OHC response between the two versions: 1) the mixed layer depth in winter

164 shows insignificant difference between the two versions of FLOR in the subtropical ocean; 2) most  
165 of the extra heat sink is sequestered deeper than the mixed layer depth (Fig. 3c, e). The  
166 intermediate layer (700-2000 m) sequesters more heat than other layers (Fig. 3a), in part driven by  
167 increased heat penetration associated with the positive salinity anomaly (Fig. 3b, d). The  
168 confinement of this salinity anomaly within the upper 1000 m (Fig. 3b, d) implies other  
169 mechanisms, as will be discussed later, are needed to cause the extra heat increase in the lower  
170 portion of the intermediate layer.

171         Given the importance of the ocean circulation in driving heat transports and related  
172 temperature changes, we further investigated the role of the ocean circulation. Weakening of the  
173 Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) in response to greenhouse gas forcing, as  
174 seen in a number of previous studies<sup>32-34</sup>, is seen in the idealized CO<sub>2</sub> doubling experiments with  
175 FLOR (Supplementary Fig. 8). The fixed-SSS-GL version produces a less weakening of the  
176 AMOC relative to the STD run, probably due to the suppression of the subpolar freshening by  
177 climatological SSS nudging<sup>33</sup>. The greater AMOC weakening in the STD version results in a  
178 reduced northward transport of warm water toward the subpolar North Atlantic and thus more heat  
179 storage in the subtropics than the fixed-SS-GL version, which helps explain why the enhanced  
180 OHC anomaly in the North Atlantic (Fig. 2c) is not seen in SSS (Fig. 2d).

181         The impact of the difference in the AMOC change is further explored by another set of  
182 experiments that only nudge SSS in the subtropical Atlantic (labelled as fixed-SSS-subAtl;  
183 Supplementary Fig. 9) to allow subpolar freshening. The fixed-SSS-subAtl version produces a  
184 similar AMOC weakening relative to the STD run, allowing us to distinguish the relative role of  
185 the AMOC and salinification on OHC changes. In response to the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing, the STD version  
186 shows a greater increase of OHC by  $4.1 \times 10^{22}$  J relative to the fixed-SSS-subAtl version in the

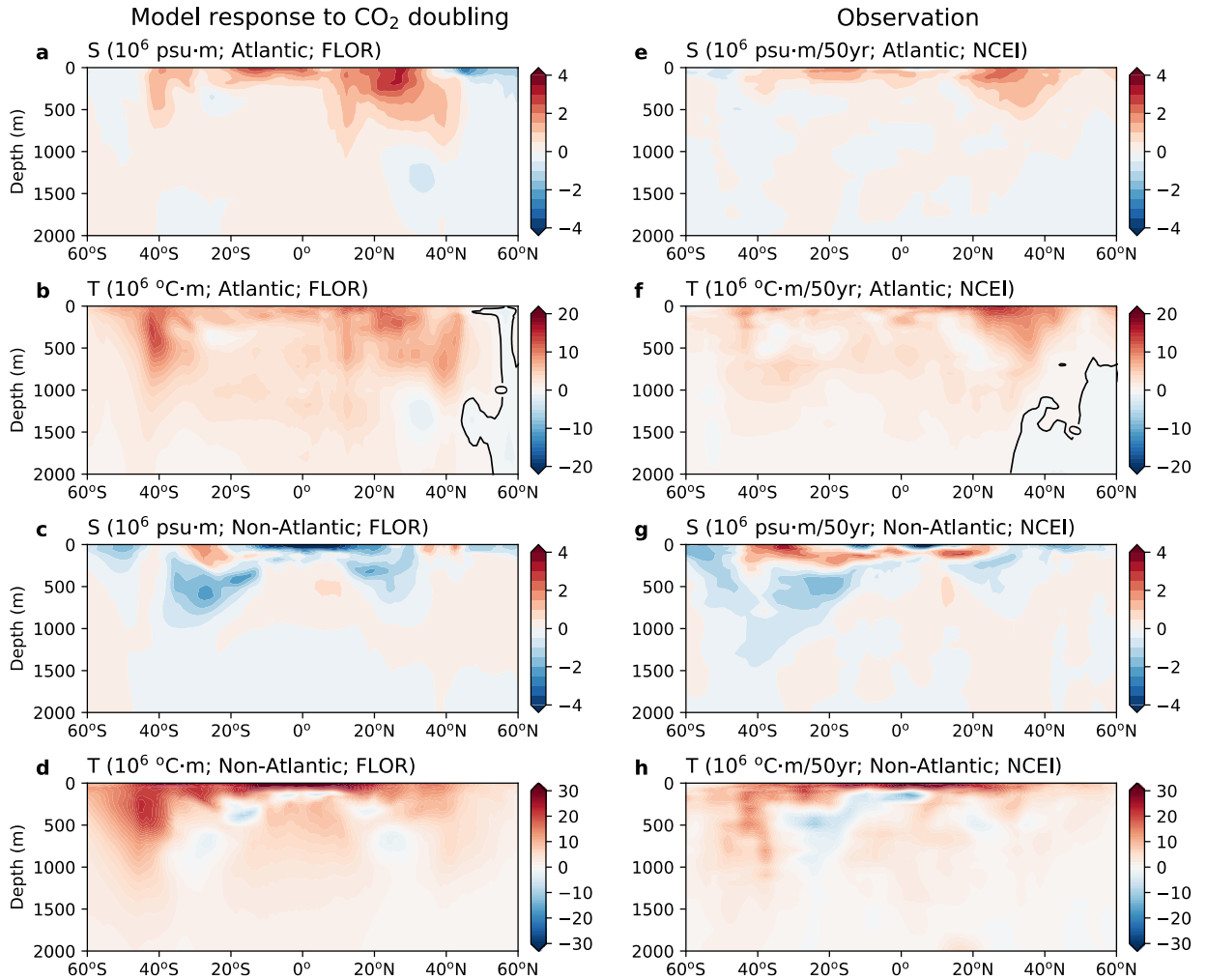
187 Atlantic Ocean (Supplementary Fig. 10a). This accounts for 74% of that relative to the fixed-SSS-  
188 GL version, resulting from the competition between a greater OHC increase in subpolar Atlantic  
189 and a smaller OHC increase at lower latitudes (Supplementary Fig. 11 versus Fig. 2b). This  
190 meridional difference in OHC increase is partially attributed to the difference in AMOC weakening  
191 between the fixed-SSS-subAtl and fixed-SSS-GL version. On the other hand, the greater  
192 weakening of the AMOC in the fixed-SSS-subAtl than the fixed-SSS-GL version causes increased  
193 salinity at lower latitudes due to reduced northward transport (Supplementary Fig. 12) and thus  
194 enhances ocean heat uptake. The heat anomaly between the STD and fixed-SSS-subAtl version in  
195 the subtropical North Atlantic overlaps with the positive salt anomaly (Supplementary Fig. 10b-  
196 c), further implying the key role of salinification in accelerating heat uptake. In addition, the heat  
197 anomaly is primarily sequestered in the upper ocean ( $< 700$  m) (Supplementary Fig. 10c), in  
198 contrast to the intermediate level (700-2000 m) for the heat anomaly between the STD and fixed-  
199 SSS-GL version (Fig. 3). These results suggest the role of ocean circulation in heat sequestration  
200 below the upper ocean for the following reasons. First, the enhanced northward transport of salty  
201 water in the fixed-SSS-GL version relative to the fixed-SSS-subAtl experiment due to less AMOC  
202 weakening could lead to decreased salt in the subtropics (Supplementary Fig. 12) and thus reduced  
203 heat sink to deeper levels. Second, the enhanced southward import of North Atlantic Deep Water  
204 in the fixed-SSS-GL version could transport more subpolar cold water to the intermediate level in  
205 the subtropics, resulting in less warming than the other two experiments.

206        Besides fixed-SSS-subAtl, we conducted another set of experiments that partially nudged  
207 SSS in non-Atlantic ocean basins (labelled as fixed-SSS-nonAtl; Supplementary Fig. 13). The  
208 fixed-SSS-nonAtl version shows a lesser weakening of the AMOC than the fixed-SSS-subAtl  
209 version, probably due to the subtropical Atlantic salinification driven by enhanced hydrological

210 drying (Fig. 2d). The sea water with enhanced salinity moves northward, leading to a lower ocean  
211 stratification in the subpolar region and a stronger AMOC. However, the weakening of the AMOC  
212 in the fixed-SSS-nonAtl version is closer to the STD version than the fixed-SSS-GL version,  
213 resulting in reduced impact from the AMOC on OHC changes (Supplementary Fig. 8). Outside of  
214 the Atlantic, the fixed-SSS-nonAtl version exhibits similar changes of OHC and subsurface  
215 temperature (Supplementary Fig. 14a, e) to the fixed-SSS-GL version (Fig. 3a, e), which is  
216 dominated by the Pacific Ocean (Supplementary Fig. 15a, e). The correspondence between salinity  
217 and temperature in the subtropics further demonstrates the important role of salinification in  
218 enhancing ocean heat uptake.

219 We compare the simulated model response with observations to explore the impact of  
220 increased CO<sub>2</sub> on the current climate change. The linear trend of SSS from an observational data  
221 set spanning the period of 1968-2017 from National Centers for Environmental Information  
222 (NCEI)<sup>16</sup> resembles the spatial pattern of SSS change seen in the idealized FLOR experiments  
223 (Supplementary Fig. 16a), a resemblance that is robust across different observationally-based  
224 ocean salinity data sets (Supplementary Fig. 16b-d), suggesting the emergent signal of human-  
225 induced forcing in shaping the observed changes of ocean salinity, as identified by a number of  
226 recent studies<sup>22,30,31</sup>. The similarity is not seen in the subpolar North Atlantic where SSS shows an  
227 increase in FLOR while decrease in observations. The underlying reason will be discussed later.

228 Similar to SSS, the simulated response of ocean subsurface temperature and salinity to the  
229 idealized CO<sub>2</sub> forcing from the STD version also resembles many key features in the linear trend  
230 of observations spanning the period of 1968-2017 (Fig. 5), implying the likely emergent signal of  
231 human-induced forcing in driving the temperature and salinity changes<sup>22,30,31,35</sup>. This similarity is  
232 broadly robust across data sets (Supplementary Figs. 17-19).



233

234 Fig. 5. **Comparison between FLOR model experiments and observations.** **a-b**, Change in  
 235 zonal-integral **a** ocean subsurface salinity ( $10^6$  psu·m; color) and **b** ocean temperature ( $10^6$  °C·m;  
 236 color) in response to transient  $\text{CO}_2$  doubling in the Atlantic Ocean for the STD runs. **c-d**, Same as  
 237 in **a-b**, but for non-Atlantic Ocean. The response is computed using years 161-180 from the  $\text{CO}_2$   
 238 run while years 101-200 from the control run. **e-h**, Same as in **a-d**, but the linear trend of ocean  
 239 salinity ( $10^6$  psu·m/50yr) and temperature ( $10^6$  °C·m/50yr) from the NCEI data over the period of  
 240 1968-2017. The trend is tuned by the ratio of  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration at  $\text{CO}_2$  doubling in FLOR to that  
 241 in 2017 from observations.

242

243 In the Atlantic Ocean, both the STD simulations and in situ data show a positive salt  
244 anomaly (Fig. 5a, e) overlapped with the heat anomaly (Fig. 5b, f) in the subtropics which, as  
245 demonstrated in the FLOR experiments, is primarily driven by subtropical surface salinification  
246 associated with intensified hydrological cycle. Similar to SSS (Fig. 2c versus Supplementary Fig.  
247 16), a major difference lies in the subpolar North Atlantic where the decrease of subsurface salinity  
248 and temperature in FLOR, especially in the upper ocean, is less clear in observations, primarily  
249 driven by their difference in AMOC changes. AMOC weakening in response to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing in the  
250 standard FLOR experiment (Supplementary Fig. 8) is not seen in the past few decades due to  
251 strong decadal variability<sup>36,37</sup>, although recent studies employing proxy data claimed the century-  
252 scale weakening of the AMOC<sup>38,39</sup>.

253 For ocean basins other than the Atlantic, both the STD simulations and observations show  
254 decreased salinity in the upper ocean extending to 1000 m in subtropics (Fig. 5c, g), broadly  
255 overlapping with the regions with cooling (Fig. 5d, h). Although the surface salinification in the  
256 south subtropics from the STD version does not exceed the rate of freshening beneath (Fig. 5c), it  
257 leads to more salt and heat penetration into deeper layers than the fixed-SSS-GL version in which  
258 the surface salinification is suppressed (Fig. 3d-e). The 40°-50°S zone of the Southern Ocean  
259 shows substantial warming (Fig. 5b, d), which is claimed in a recent work<sup>40</sup> to result from the  
260 northward heat transport associated with the Antarctic Circumpolar Current.

261 In this study, we highlight the previously overlooked role of subtropical salinification-  
262 driven by the enhanced water cycle<sup>19-24</sup> in response to greenhouse warming -in accelerating the  
263 rate of ocean heat uptake and thus moderating transient climate warming. By a set of climate model  
264 experiments we find that the largest enhancement in ocean heat uptake occurs in the subtropical  
265 South Pacific and the tropical and subtropical Atlantic Ocean, where SSS shows the greatest

266 increase. The results also highlight the role of salinification in modulating the vertical distribution  
267 of subsurface temperature by sequestering upper-level heat to deeper ocean, which could lead to  
268 reduced thermal stratification and further enhance ocean heat uptake through a positive feedback.  
269 Without the surface salinification, the FLOR experiments suggest that the TCR could increase by  
270 0.4 K, close to the standard deviation of TCR from the CMIP6 models<sup>41</sup>. This suggests that the  
271 multi-model spread in transient climate sensitivity may be partially traced to their spread in  
272 simulating ocean salinity. The increasing emergence of the anthropogenic signal in the ocean water  
273 masses<sup>35</sup> raises the need for future research of the competing mechanism between upper ocean  
274 warming and subtropical salinification in ocean stratification, which is critical for improved  
275 understanding of past and future ocean heat uptake and transient climate change.

276



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## 376 **Method**

377 Model experiments.

378 We use the Forecast-oriented Low Ocean Resolution model (FLOR)<sup>27,42</sup> developed at  
379 Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory (GFDL). FLOR has a horizontal resolution of  
380 approximately 50 km for the atmosphere and land components developed from GFDL Coupled  
381 Model (CM) version 2.5 and a coarser ( $\sim 1^\circ$ ) resolution for the oceanic and sea ice components  
382 from GFDL CM version 2.1. We use the FLOR model to conduct a set of fully-coupled  
383 experiments. The first experiment is labeled as a standard control simulation in which the radiative  
384 forcing and land use/land cover is maintained as the level of year 1990 for 200 years. The first 100  
385 years were treated as model spin-up and discarded from further analyses. Beside the standard  
386 control simulation, we also carried out three control experiment in which the sea surface salinity  
387 (SSS) of the fully-coupled model is “nudged” to the climatological SSS over the global ocean  
388 (labeled as fixed-SSS-GL), the subtropical Atlantic Ocean (Supplementary Fig. 9; labeled as fixed-  
389 SSS-subAtl) and non-Atlantic ocean basins (Supplementary Fig. 13; labeled as fixed-SSS-nonAtl),  
390 respectively, using model year 101 in the standard control simulation for the initial condition.  
391 Corresponding to each standard control simulation, we conducted a perturbation experiment in  
392 which the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was increased at a rate of 1% per year until doubling  
393 from year 101 (i.e., 100 years after model initialization), and was then held fixed. For each  
394 experiment, the climate response to CO<sub>2</sub> doubling is computed as difference between model year  
395 161-180 from the perturbation run and model year 101-200 from the control run.

396 Radiative feedback computations.

397 We use the radiative kernel method<sup>43</sup> to calculate the transient radiative feedbacks for the  
398 CO<sub>2</sub> stabilization period (i.e., year 161-180). The radiative kernel for a feedback variable  $x$  is

399 defined as  $K^x = \partial R / \partial x$ , in which  $R$  is the net top-of-atmosphere (TOA) flux, and  $x$  is an individual  
 400 radiative state variable (e.g., temperature, water vapor, clouds, or surface albedo). The radiative  
 401 kernel is derived from *CloudSat/CALIPSO* measurements<sup>44,45</sup>.

402 Ocean heat content analysis.

403 The ocean heat content is computed as follows:

$$404 \quad OHC = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \int_{y_1}^{y_2} \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \rho C_p T dx dy dz \quad (1)$$

405 in which  $\rho$  is the density of sea water,  $C_p$  is the specific heat capacity,  $T$  is the temperature,  $x_1$  and  
 406  $x_2$  denote the western and eastern boundaries of the ocean,  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  denote the southern and  
 407 northern boundaries, and  $z_1$  and  $z_2$  denote the range of the ocean depth.

408 Surface buoyancy flux analysis.

409 The surface buoyancy flux ( $B$ ) is composed of contributions from both heat ( $B_H$ ) and freshwater  
 410 flux ( $B_{FW}$ )<sup>46</sup>:

$$411 \quad B = B_H + B_{FW} = \frac{g}{\rho_0} [(\alpha Q_H / c_p) + \rho_0 \beta S (P - E + R)] \quad (2)$$

412 in which  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration,  $\rho_0$  is a reference density,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the thermal  
 413 expansion and saline contraction coefficients, respectively,  $c_p$  is the specific heat capacity of  
 414 seawater,  $S$  is the sea surface salinity,  $Q_H$  is the air-sea heat flux ( $\text{W m}^{-2}$ ),  $P$  is precipitation,  $E$  is  
 415 evaporation, and  $R$  is runoff into the ocean. For a more convenient comparison, both the buoyancy  
 416 and freshwater flux are expressed as heat-equivalent flux, denoted as  $Q_B$  and  $Q_{FW}$ , respectively<sup>46</sup>.

417 The heat-equivalent buoyancy flux is:

$$418 \quad Q_B = Q_H + Q_{FW} = \frac{\rho_0 c_p}{g \alpha} B \quad (3)$$

419 and the heat-equivalent freshwater flux is:

$$420 \quad Q_{FW} = \frac{\rho_0 c_p}{g \alpha} B_{FW} \quad (4)$$

421 Ocean density analysis.

422 We decompose the response of ocean density to CO<sub>2</sub> forcing ( $\Delta\rho$ ) by computing the relative  
423 contributions from both salinity ( $\Delta\rho_S$ ) and temperature ( $\Delta\rho_T$ ):

$$424 \quad \Delta\rho = \rho_{CO_2} - \rho \quad (5)$$

$$425 \quad \Delta\rho_S = \beta\Delta S\rho - \rho \quad (6)$$

$$426 \quad \Delta\rho_T = -\alpha\Delta T\rho - \rho \quad (7)$$

427 in which  $\rho_{CO_2}$  is the ocean density from years 161-180 in the CO<sub>2</sub> run,  $\rho$  is the ocean density from  
428 years 101-200 in the control run,  $\Delta S$  and  $\Delta T$  are the response of salinity and temperature to CO<sub>2</sub>  
429 doubling, respectively,  $\beta$  is the haline contraction coefficient, and  $\alpha$  is the thermal expansion  
430 coefficient.

431 Ocean salinity and temperature data.

432 We use four gridded data sets of ocean salinity and temperature for the period of 1968-  
433 2017. The first three data sets constructed based on in situ measurements are National Centers for  
434 Environmental Information (NCEI), United States<sup>16</sup>, Japan Meteorological Agency (JMA), Japan<sup>6</sup>  
435 and Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), China<sup>7,47</sup>. We also use an ocean reanalysis product  
436 from Ocean Reanalysis System 4 (ORAS4)<sup>48</sup> that constrains the model simulations with in situ  
437 measurements. The linear trend of ocean salinity and temperature spanning from 1968 to 2017 is  
438 computed using an ordinary least-square linear fit and then multiplied by 50 to represent changes.  
439 Before comparing the trend to FLOR-simulated change, we tuned it roughly by the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub>  
440 concentration at CO<sub>2</sub> doubling in FLOR (708 ppm) to that in 2017 (407 ppm) from observations.  
441 By extrapolating the trend, we focus on the linear component of the response of subsurface salinity  
442 and temperature to the CO<sub>2</sub> forcing. It is worth noting that linearity is an important component of  
443 the changing trend of observed CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Supplementary Fig. 20).



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462 **Data availability**

463 The NCEI ocean salinity and temperature data is available at  
464 [https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/3M\\_HEAT\\_CONTENT/](https://www.nodc.noaa.gov/OC5/3M_HEAT_CONTENT/). The JMA data is available at  
465 <https://climate.mri-jma.go.jp/pub/ocean/ts/v7.3/>. The IAP data is available at  
466 <http://159.226.119.60/cheng/>. The ORAS4 data is available at [ftp://ftp-icdc.cen.uni-](ftp://ftp-icdc.cen.uni-hamburg.de/EASYInit/ORA-S4/)  
467 [hamburg.de/EASYInit/ORA-S4/](ftp://ftp-icdc.cen.uni-hamburg.de/EASYInit/ORA-S4/). The processed data for graphics from the four data sets and  
468 FLOR model outputs are available at tigrass-web at Princeton University ([http://tigrass-](http://tigrass-web.princeton.edu/~maofeng/SSS_OHU_TCR/data/)  
469 [web.princeton.edu/~maofeng/SSS\\_OHU\\_TCR/data/](http://tigrass-web.princeton.edu/~maofeng/SSS_OHU_TCR/data/)).

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471 **Code availability**

472 The climate model used in this study is GFDL FLOR with code available at the NOAA/GFDL  
473 website (<https://www.gfdl.noaa.gov/cm2-5-and-flor/>). All graphics are produced using Python  
474 version 3.6 (<https://www.python.org/downloads/release/python-360/>). The Python scripts are  
475 available at [https://github.com/maofeng2012/SSS\\_OHC\\_TCR](https://github.com/maofeng2012/SSS_OHC_TCR) (10.5281/zenodo.4599609).

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479 **Acknowledgements**

480 This work was supported by Award 80NSSC20K0879 from the National Aeronautics and Space  
481 Administration and Award DE-SC0021333 from the U.S. Department of Energy. The simulations  
482 presented in this paper were performed on computational resources managed and supported by  
483 Princeton Research Computing at Princeton University.

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487

488 **Author contributions**

489 B.S., G.V. and M.L. designed the research; G.V., M.L. and W.Y. performed the simulations;  
490 M.L. and B.Z. performed the analysis; M.L. wrote the draft; and all the authors contributed to the  
491 interpretation of the results and the writing of the paper.

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493 **Competing interests**

494 The authors declare no competing financial interests.