

1 **Tidal contributions to shelf break dynamics in the South-western Tropical Atlantic**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Tidal currents and western boundary currents play an important role in the shelf-break/slope (SBS)
16 transition, where processes occurring at a variety of temporal and spatial scales can interact enhancing
17 biological productivity. In the southwestern tropical Atlantic (SWTA), the North Brazil Undercurrent
18 (NBUC), was previously reported to induce uplift along the slope. In this work we investigated the high
19 frequency temporal and spatial-scales of the shallow (15-59 m) along- and cross-shelf velocities in a
20 SBS transition in the SWTA. The data was obtained from the Multiple Rectangles Transect (MRT)
21 experiment, where continuous (every 2 min) measurements of currents were made crossing the shelf-
22 break repeatedly during a timeframe of 26 hours. The variability was analyzed through adaptive signal
23 analysis methods, and we investigated if the observed patterns contributed to uplift variability on a short
24 timeframe from hydrographic profiles. Results showed that tidal forcing was the main responsible for
25 the variability of the along- and cross-shelf currents in different scales. Cross-shelf patterns of
26 divergence/convergence during flood/ebb, expected from the tidal forcing, were amplified or reduced
27 by the effect of stronger or weaker along-shelf current on the slope; and flood timing for cross-shelf flow
28 was coherent with uplifted waters reaching the shelf-edge stations. Local variability of uplift intensity
29 was related to tidal forcing added to the currents of the NBUC's upper limit. While there was no stronger
30 uplift during the high tide (in relation to climatologic patterns), the decrease of the along-shelf velocity
31 during low tide, resulted in decrease of uplift. Therefore, tidal forcing appears as an important process
32 to be considered in uplift mechanisms for the western boundary system in question. Still, more
33 investigation is needed, since our dataset was limited and there are open questions about SBS dynamics
34 enhancing productivity in the SWTA.

35 **Keywords:** Uplift. Cross-shelf flows. Tides. Adaptive Signal Analysis. Western Boundary System.
36 Brazil, Northeast, Pernambuco.

37
38 **1 Introduction**

39 In the continental margin, the shelf-break is the “the line along which there is a marked increase
40 in slope at the seaward margin of a shelf” (IHO, 2019), and the continental slope is “the sloping region
41 that deepens from a shelf to the point where there is a general decrease in gradient” (IHO, 2019). An
42 example of the shelf break and slope features is shown in **Figure 1**. Together, the shelf-break/slope
43 (hereafter, SBS) mark the transition between the shallow and the deep ocean, where processes occurring
44 at a variety of temporal (hours to months) and spatial scales (meters to tens of kilometers) interact,
45 enhancing biological productivity (Huthnance, 1995; Acha et al., 2004; Genin, 2004). One of the main
46 oceanic flows interacting with SBS features are the Western Boundary Currents (WBCs). They play an
47 important role in climate (Wu et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2015; Shears and Bowen, 2017), ocean mixing (Jing
48 and Wu, 2014; Nagai et al., 2017) and complex nonlinear dynamic terms in low latitudes regions
49 (Holland, 1972; Huthnance, 1984; Nagai et al., 2017). Interaction between WBCs and topography can
50 alter water-mass characteristics towards the shelf and/or to the ocean through the generation of eddies,
51 meanders, fronts and horizontal shear (Gawarkiewicz, 1991; Huthnance, 1995; Gula et al., 2015), or by
52 driving orographic upwelling (Oke and Middleton, 2000; Roughan and Middleton 2002; Castelao,
53 2011).

54 Tidal currents also play an important role in SBS dynamics by interacting with the topography,
55 generating internal tides that can propagate along the platform or be reflected at the SBS towards the
56 ocean (Cacchione, 2002; Lamb, 2013). The processes of tidal energy dissipation when it reaches the
57 continental slope are still under investigation (Nash et al., 2007; Martini et al., 2011; Legg, 2014) but

58 internal-wave collapse on the shelf-break is known to dissipate energy and can cause the rising of the
59 thermocline or even break the stratification (Navrotsky et al., 2004; Grados et al., 2016; Nazarian and
60 Legg, 2017). Additionally, interactions between tides and internal waves can affect the background
61 current dynamics (e.g., WBCs; Davis et al., 2008; Nagai et al., 2017; Prestes et al., 2018) increasing the
62 complexity of SBS processes.

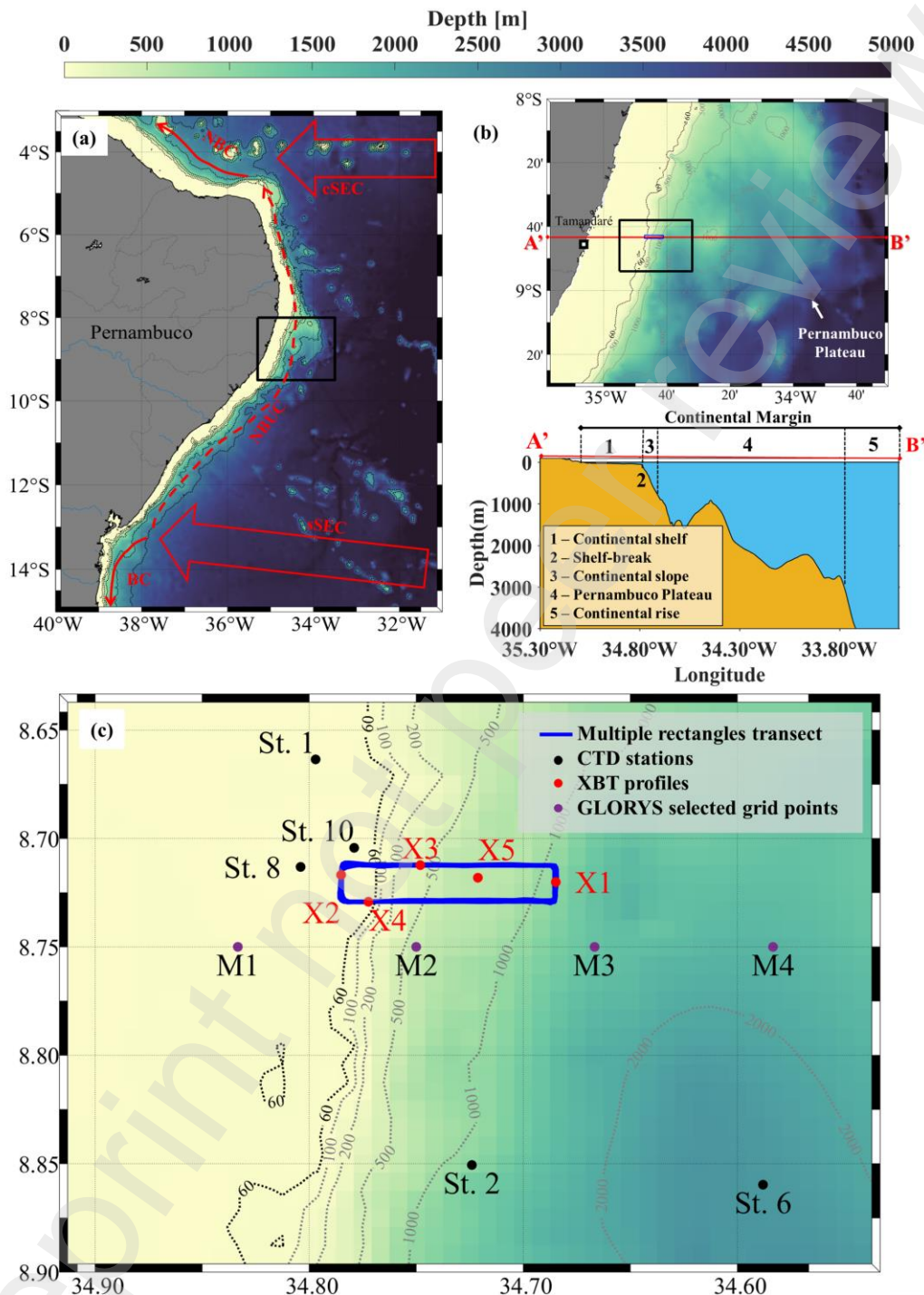
63 Western boundary current dynamics over the SBS can induce cross-shelf flows through Ekman
64 bottom transport, current separation from the shelf break (turning offshore), bottom-hugging shelf edge
65 eddies and shelf-break fronts (Brink, 2016). Even when the velocity of the cross-shelf flow is of one
66 order of magnitude smaller than the along-shelf flow (e.g., in WBCs regime), it can represent substantial
67 transport across isobaths, influencing water stratification, exchanges between open sea and shelf waters,
68 and the mixing and/or water-masses entrainment (Schaeffer et al., 2013; Brink, 2016). The cross-shelf
69 flow can carry saltier and colder waters towards the shelf, uplifting nutrients into the euphotic zone,
70 enhancing primary production (Fournier et al., 1977; Marra et al., 1990; Mizobata et al., 2008), and
71 favoring mass and energy transfer to the upper trophic levels (Schneider, 1982; Munk et al., 1995). This
72 potential cross-shelf transport can also contribute to ocean-atmosphere mass and heat fluxes, which are
73 important for weather and climate variability (Huthnance, 1995; Silva et al., 2009a; Gawarkiewicz et al.,
74 2018).

75 The complexity of the multiscale processes interacting on the SBS hampers the collection of data
76 comprehensively representing the hydrodynamics and traditional sampling design are usually not be
77 adapted enough to capture these dynamics (Brink, 2016). While ocean models and remote sensing
78 methods have been key in understanding larger scale processes (Joseph, 2014; Fox-Kemper et al., 2019)
79 there is still a need for observations at small scales (e.g., Bertrand et al., 2014; Grados et al., 2016; Lévy
80 et al., 2018) to improve the knowledge of meso- and submesoscale dynamics (Fox-Kemper et al., 2019).

81 Two important processes that can happen on the SBS are the uplift and upwelling, related to
82 slope currents dynamics along the slope feature (Matano e Palma, 2008; Aguiar et al., 2014; 2018). The
83 term uplift refers to the raising of cold water towards a certain depth, however, not reaching the surface,
84 while upwelling happens when the uplifted water outcrops, reaching the surface (Rochford, 1991). More
85 recently, a work by Silva et al. (2021) revealed uplift (instead of upwelling) along the continental slope
86 in Northeast Brazil, that they related to the North Brazil Undercurrent (NBUC) flow interaction with the
87 slope topography. The NBUC is a low latitude WBC that arises from the bifurcation of the southern
88 branch of the South Equatorial Current (sSEC) when it reaches the Brazilian coast (**Figure 1a**) (Schott
89 et al., 2002, 2005; Silva et al., 2009a; 2009b). Together with the North Brazil Current (NBC), the NBUC
90 plays an important role in the inter-hemispheric heat transport as a part of the upper south equatorial
91 limb of the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) (Schott et al., 2002; Veleda et al.,
92 2011). Still, there is a lack of information about the high frequency variability of the NBUC and how
93 tidal forcing acts on the shelf break region in the Northeastern Brazilian waters and how the tides might
94 influence the uplift on the SBS.

95 Considering the importance of the SBS in this region, the objective of the present work is to
96 describe high frequency temporal and spatial patterns of the shallow along-shelf and cross-shelf currents
97 in a shelf-break/slope transition. We investigated the dominant high frequency (period larger than 2 min
98 and lower than 26h) flow variability on the upper water column (15-59 m) and if/how the observed
99 patterns contribute to uplift variability on observed from *in situ* measurements in short timeframe. For
100 this we used data obtained from a sampling strategy first presented in Bertrand et al. (2008a), here,
101 onwards denominated Multiple Rectangles Transect (MRT). The experiment was executed in
102 Pernambuco continental margin, in Northeast Brazil. In this region, the shelf-break is found between

103 around 60 m deep (Camargo et al., 2007), the slope extends from this depth until the Pernambuco Plateau
 104 upper level (~700 m) (Zembruski et al., 1972; Coutinho, 1996) and NBUC is the main along shelf
 105 current ruling the dynamics over the slope (Hummels et al., 2015; Araujo et al., 2019; Dossa et al., 2021).
 106 In addition, regional oceanic reanalysis product provided a framework for the hydrodynamics settings
 107 in the study region, since or dataset is time and space restricted.



108 **Figure 1.** (a) Schematic representation of the general circulation of Northeast Brazil. The Zonal currents are
 109 represented by the central and southern branch of the South Equatorial Current (cSEC and sSEC) (wide red arrow);
 110 sSEC mean bifurcation position is around 13°S; Western boundary currents are represented by the superficial
 111 North Brazil Current (NBC) and Brazil Current (BC) (narrow red arrow) and sub superficial North Brazil
 112 Undercurrent (NBUC) (narrow red dashed arrow). Black box highlights the Pernambuco continental margin
 113 (PCM) and the Pernambuco Plateau (PP) showed in (b). Bottom panel in (b) shows the bottom configuration
 114 of the PCM along a cross-section (A'-B') at the same latitude of the Multiple rectangles transect (MRT). The flat
 115 bottom from the shelf (1) is interrupted at the shelf-break depth (2), around 60m, by the steep isobaths of the slope
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117 (3). The slope is in turn interrupted by the PP (4), located between the 700 and 3000m isobaths and, below this
118 depth the continental rise (5) precedes the deep ocean. The highlight (black box) in the map in (b) is the study
119 region in (c) where the MRT experiment (blue solid line) takes place. The black, red and purple dots indicate the
120 position of the CTDO stations, XBT profiles, and selected GLORYS grid points, respectively. Bottom depth for
121 this Figure was extracted from the 30" arc GEBCO data (Weatherall et al., 2015).

122 2 Materials and Methods

123 2.1 *In situ* data and processing

124 In this work, we used data from the multiple rectangles transect (MRT) experiment to study the
125 along-scale hydrodynamic variability in play in the shelf-break/slope (SBS) transition of a WBC in the
126 Southwestern Tropical Atlantic. The study area (**Figure 1a**) is inserted in the southwest tropical Atlantic,
127 where the NBUC is one of the main WBCs interacting with the SBS features (Stramma et al., 1995;
128 Schott et al., 2002, 2005; Dossa et al., 2021). The multiple rectangles transect (MRT) experiment took
129 place in a shelf-break/slope transition, where the slope inclination is interrupted by the Pernambuco
130 Plateau (**Figure 1b**) (Buarque et al., 2016). The dataset was collected in April 2017 over the northeast
131 Brazilian continental shelf-break and adjacent slope during the ABRAÇOS 2 survey (Bertrand, 2017).

132 The MRT experiment consisted in 2 by 11 km side rectangular transects (**Figure 1c**) performed
133 repeatedly for about 26 hours (from April 11th 19:17 to April 12th 20:45, UTC). Each repetition took
134 about 1h45 resulting in 15 rectangles. With this approach, we obtained a time-space varying information
135 within a daily cycle and around two semidiurnal spring-tide cycles. To demonstrate how the multiple
136 rectangles transect data acquisition works, we present a time lapse of the location and track of the ship
137 during the transect execution while the information of bottom depth and current velocity (along- and
138 cross-shelf) is acquired in Supp. Video 1.

139 Data continuously recorded during the MRT transects consisted of, sea surface temperature
140 (SST) and salinity (SSS), wind speed and direction, current velocity (zonal and meridional components),
141 and high-resolution bathymetry. Only the last two were raw and required processing for the purposes of
142 this work. We manually corrected the bathymetry was manually corrected using the Matecho software
143 (Perrot et al., 2018). The 2 min ensemble raw current velocity data was processed using the CASCADE
144 tools following Herbert et al. (2015). However, the current was not de-tided since we intended to analyze
145 its intrinsic natural variability and the adaptive method capacity to separate the tidal signal from the
146 original data. Instead, we used the predicted tidal current from the TPX09-atlas (Egbert and Erofeeva,
147 2002; Erofeeva, 2022) tidal model only to compare with observational current data after the
148 decomposition. The barotropic tidal currents and tidal amplitude were estimated from the semidiurnal
149 dominant components (M_2 , S_2 , K_2 and N_2) for each point in space and time of the MRT data.

150 After the data processing, we corrected the zonal and meridional components, for each depth
151 level, in relation to the adjacent slope orientation from the high-resolution bathymetric data. This was
152 done to obtain the real along-shelf and cross-shelf components from the observed currents. First, the
153 tangent between the two zonal transects of the MRT was calculated to obtain the angle (θ) in relation to
154 the meridional direction. Then the correction for the meridional and zonal currents was applied following
155 the system of equations below (Brink, 2016), where U and V are, respectively the zonal and meridional
156 component, and CS and AS are the resulting local cross-shelf and along-shelf components. The same
157 correction procedure was applied to obtain the cross-shelf (CS-TIDE) and along-shelf (AS-TIDE)
158 components from the tidal model prediction for comparison with the observational data.

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$$\begin{cases} CS = U \cos \theta + V \sin \theta \\ AS = -U \sin \theta + V \cos \theta \end{cases}$$

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In this work we will present only the CS and AS components averaged for the first 15-59 m and every 2 minutes observation, thereafter the CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} , respectively. Limiting this depth above the shelf-break depth (~60m) we obtain a continuous time-series to be decomposed by the adaptative method presented in the next section.

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2.2 MRT Timeseries analysis

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The Ensemble Empirical Mode decomposition (EEMD) (Wu and Huang, 2009) was applied to separate the main timescales of the current velocity components (AS_{avg} and CS_{avg}) and tidal model current velocity components (AS-TIDE and CS-TIDE). The timescales resulting from the decomposition were obtained through the python EEMD module of the PyEMD package (<https://github.com/laszukdawid/PyEMD>). The main IMFs from AS_{avg} and CS_{avg} were compared with the IMFs from tidal forcing (AS-TIDE and CS-TIDE) because the tidal forcing was relevant for the observational data variability. Additionally, since the data is changing in time and space it is expected to have spatial scales associated with the timescales observed. Therefore, the main IMFs were also used to characterize AS_{avg} and CS_{avg} variability in relation to the spatial configuration (on the shelf, shelf-break, or slope). This was achieved through the correlation obtained from Time-dependent Intrinsic Correlation (TDIC) (Chen et al., 2010; Huang and Schmitt, 2014) method with the main variability mode of bottom depth (BOT) resulting from EEMD decomposition. Applying the EEMD to the bottom depth acquired at the same time as the MRT currents allows the extraction of the larger inclination feature (shelf/shelf-break/slope) and remove the “noise” from small scale features. Additionally, the decomposition is mandatory to perform the cross-correlation of bottom depth with the current IMFs, since the TDIC works under the assumption that both signals to be correlated are IMFs. Lastly, we applied the Hilbert Transform to obtain the Hilbert Spectrum for AS_{avg} and CS_{avg} . The EEMD and the TDIC methods are reviewed in the Appendix 1. The MATLAB TDIC code we used in this work is freely available from the repository in <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.9748>.

200 3 Results and discussion

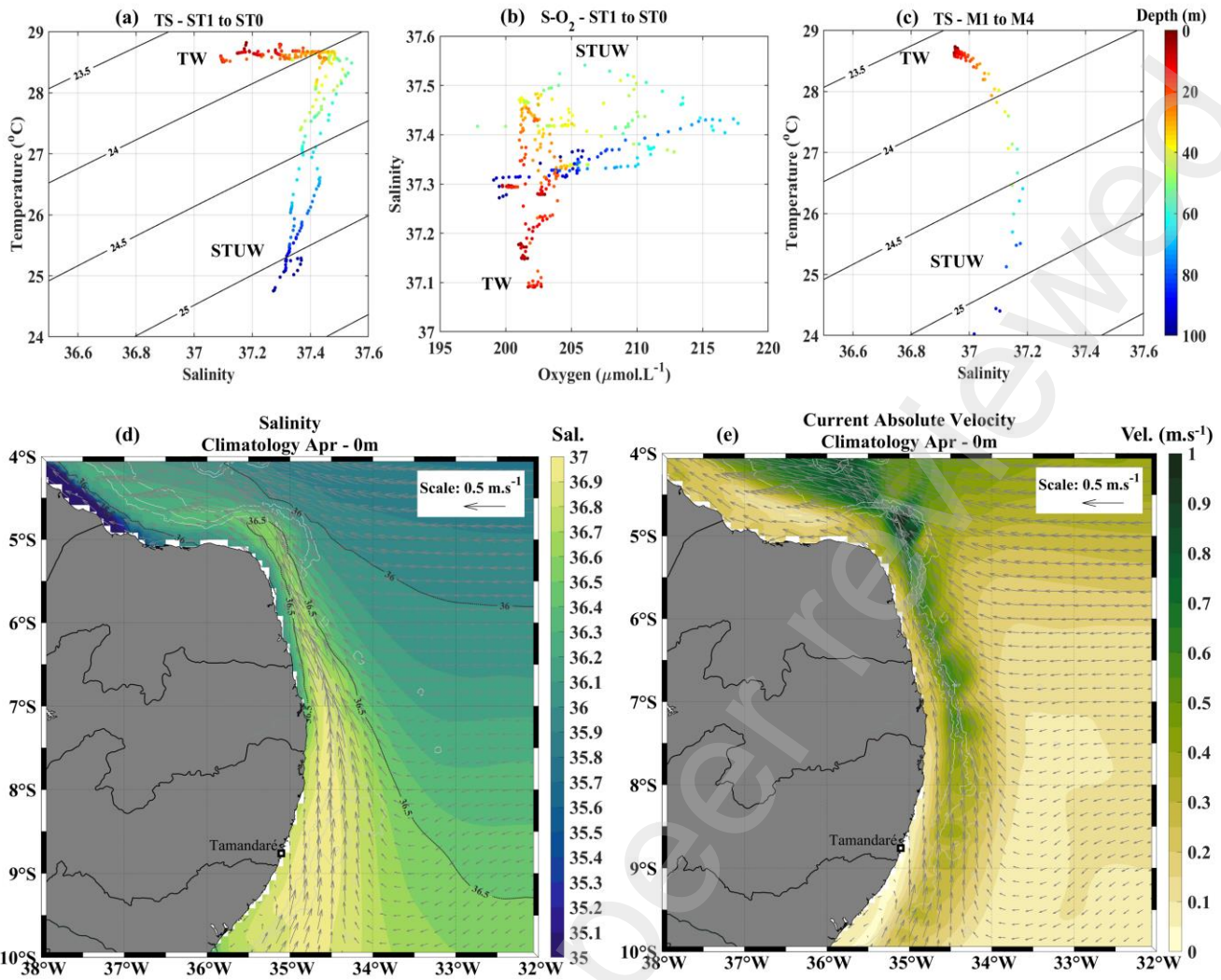
201 The results and discussion are presented considering (3.1) the hydrodynamic features depicted
202 from the CTD, XBT stations and compared with the expected climatological patterns, (3.2) the
203 circulation patterns during the MRT experiment and current variability observed from the timeseries
204 analyses and (3.3) the summary of the observed tidal contribution observed in our results.

205 3.1 Hydrodynamic setting

206 The MRT was performed in April (fall) 2017 during a full-moon high tide regime (local
207 maximum amplitude of 1 m). For the CTD stations, Temperature-Salinity (**Figure 2a**), and Salinity-O₂
208 (**Figure 2b**) diagrams, were used to assist water mass identification. In our study region at the
209 Southwestern Tropical Atlantic, the NBUC extends from the near surface down to about 1100 m (Schott
210 et al. 2005). However, as we are interested in the shallow dynamics, we restrict our observations to 100
211 m. The characteristic water masses down until this depth are the Tropical Atlantic Water (TW) follow
212 by the Subtropical Underwater (STUW) and the South Atlantic Central Water (SACW). The TW is
213 characterized by temperature higher than 25°C and $\sigma_t=23-24.5 \text{ kg.m}^{-3}$ (Urbano et al., 2008). The STUW
214 also called the Salinity Maximum Water is characterized by maximum salinity values (>36.5), σ_θ
215 slightly below 25 kg.m^{-3} and by the and high oxygen content (Stramma and England, 1999; Urbano et
216 al., 2008). The SACW presents temperatures between 10-23°C, salinity >35 and potential density
217 between 24.5-27 kg.m^{-3} (Stramma and England, 1999).

218 The water masses from the CTD stations presented characteristic consistent with the mixture of
219 the warm TW with the oxygen- and salinity-rich STUW in the first 100m (**Figure 2a,b**) agreeing with
220 the climatology. **Figure 2c** shows that close to the MRT (Lat: 8.75°S and Lon: 35.8-34.5°W) from the
221 surface to 100 m the salinity was higher than 36.5. This means that the STUW outcrops in this region,
222 transported by the NBUC that shallows as it flows to low latitudes, as shown by the salinity and current
223 velocity in **Figure 2d,e**. Below this water mass down to 500 m, we identified the South Atlantic Central
224 Water (SACW) (not shown).

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227 **Figure 2.** (a) T-S and (b) S-O₂ diagrams for CTD stations (0-100m); (c) T-S diagram for selected grid points of
228 the climatology (M1 to M4 in **Figure 1c**). Diagrams show the presence of the mixing between Atlantic Tropical
229 water (TW) and Subtropical underwater (STUW). Climatology of surface (d) salinity (e) current velocity; grey
230 arrows represent current direction.

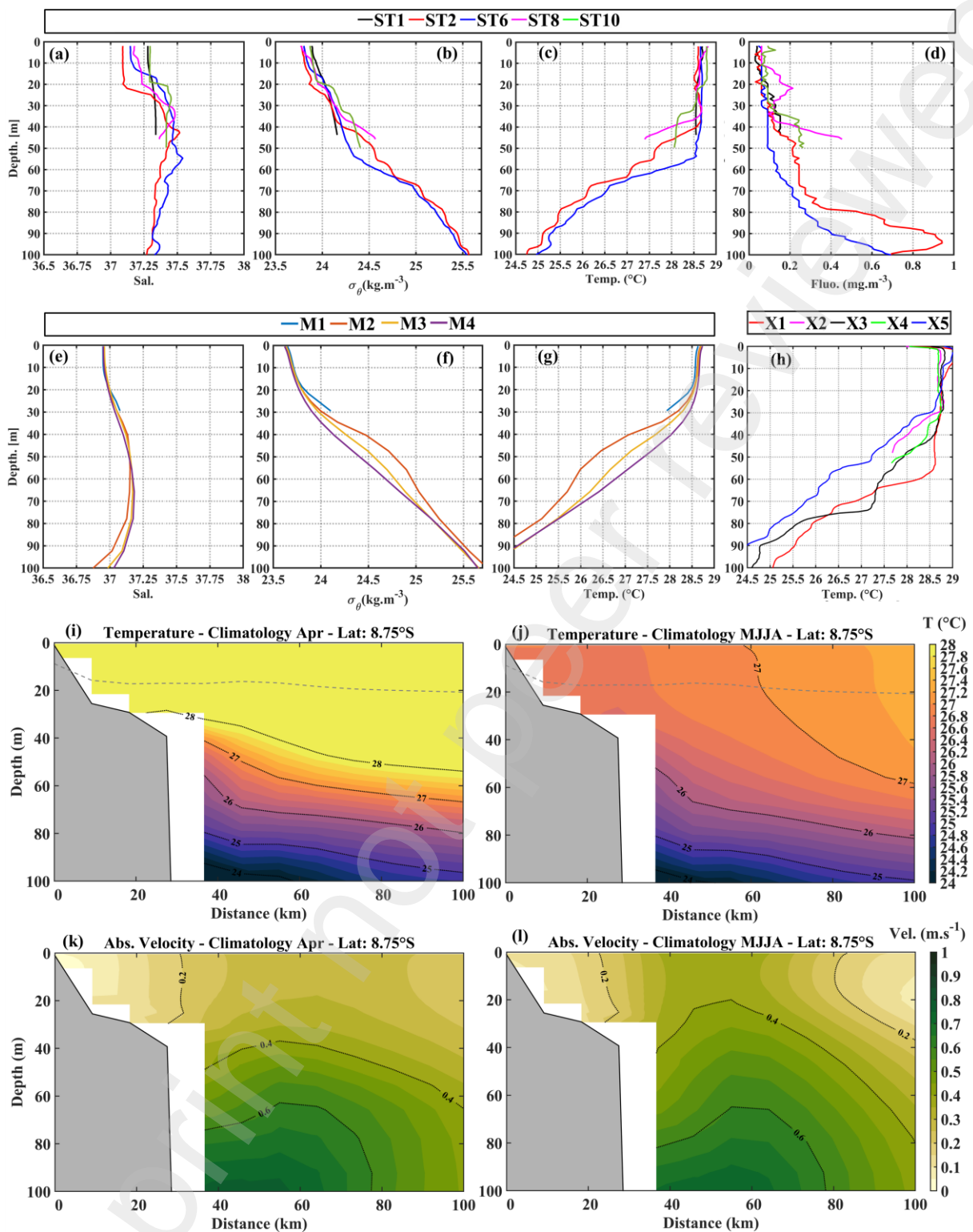
231 The thermohaline structure from CTD (**Figure 3a-d**) profiles for the first 100m (see Supp. Figure
232 S1 for complete profiles) shows that, due to the weak vertical salinity gradient (**Figure 3c**), temperature
233 controlled the density stratification of the upper layers (**Figure 3d**). In this manner, the isothermal layer
234 was equivalent to the mixed layer (ML) and the temperature profiles depicted three distinct thermal
235 patterns (**Figure 3e**):

- 236 (i) Well mixed (shallow St. 1)
- 237 (ii) Isotherm uplift (shelf stations St. 8 and St. 10 – performed just before and after the MRT,
238 respectively)
- 239 (iii) Profiles with stepwise vertical structure (shelf station St. 10; deeper stations St. 2 and 6).

240 The stations closer to the shelf break (St. 2 and St. 10) presented more pronounced thermocline
241 staircase profiles and shallower ML. As in the work by Silva et al. (2021), we also observed uplift of
242 colder waters on the slope and close to the shelf-break. In addition, the observed uplift influenced the
243 primary productivity, as indicated by the chlorophyll-a profiles (**Figure 3d**). The peak of chlorophyll-a
244 was close to 100 m in deeper stations (St. 2 and St.6), with slighter higher values (~0.9 mg.m⁻³) for St.
245 2, the station closer to the shelf-break (**Figure 3g**). In shallow stations, we did not observe the peak of

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chlorophyll-a, that remained below 0.25 mg.m^{-3} , except in St. 8, one of the stations with isotherm uplift where it reached 0.45 mg.m^{-3} .



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Figure 3. Vertical profiles of the first 100 m of (a-d) CTD stations, (e-g) selected GLORYS grid points and (a) XBT, for (a,e) salinity, (b,f) potential density anomaly, (c,g,f), temperature and (d) chlorophyll-a concentration.

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April climatology for this region shows the uplift of the isotherms adjacent to the shelf-break (Figure 3i), with no indication of this denser and colder water reaching the surface i.e., no upwelling. However, averaged temperature for the period of May to August (MJJA; Figure 3j) shows that the uplift observed in the climatology is not restricted to April. Indeed, for this period, the evidence is the uplift becomes upwelling, reaching the surface. As this uplift was previously related to the NBUC, we show

256 current velocity down to 100m for the same period (**Figure 3k**). The current presented values $\leq 0.4 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$
257 1 close to the slope in the surface, and $>0.4 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ at the shelf break depth ($\sim 60\text{m}$) increasing with depth
258 reaching values $>0.8 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ at its core (150-275 m, not shown). For the period of MJJA the upwelling
259 might be related to the swallowing of the NBUC's upper limit (**Figure 3l**).

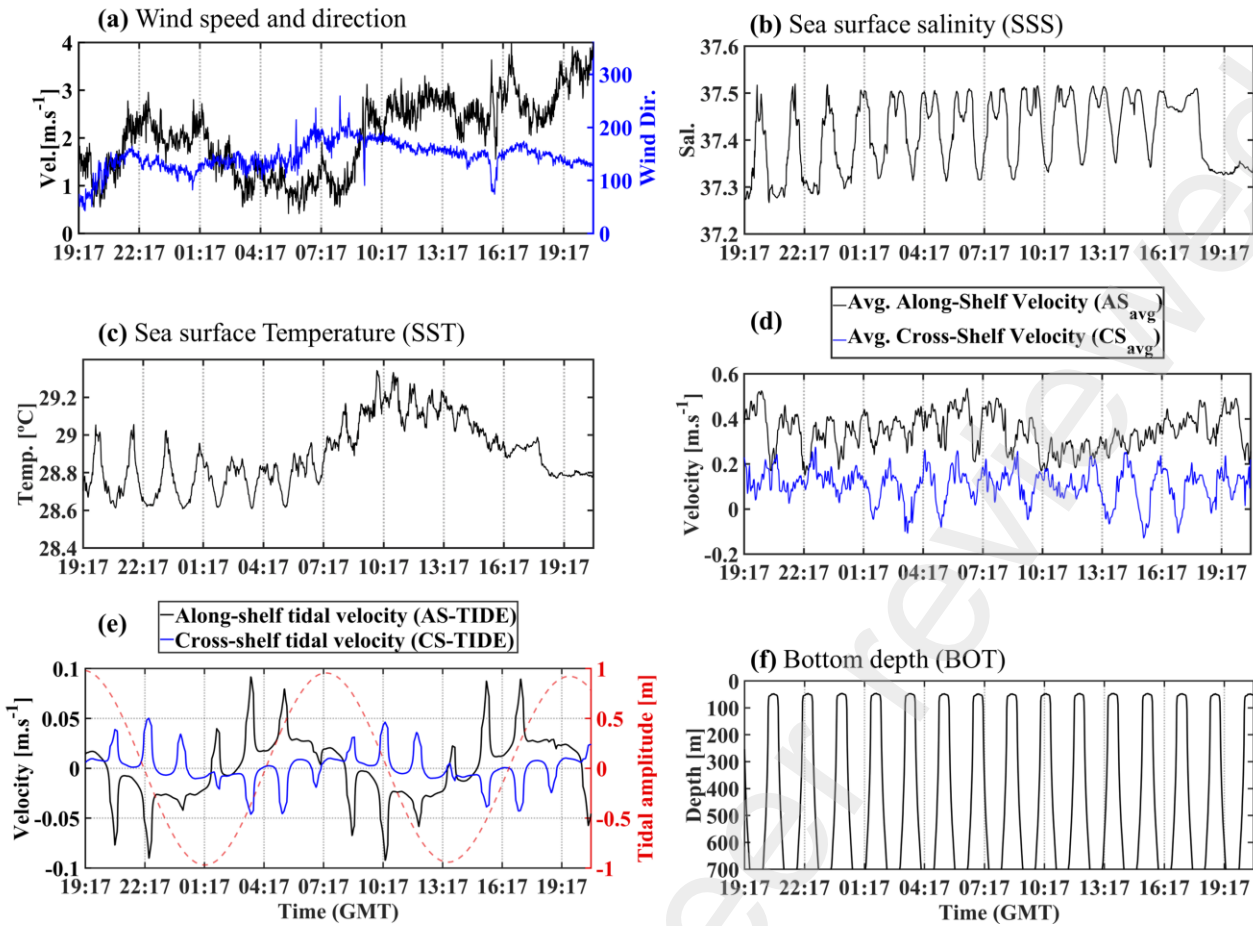
260 In **Figure 3e-g**, we also presented the thermohaline structure for selected grid points of the
261 climatology (for the locations, see **Figure 1c**). M1 is the only point on the shelf close to the shelf-break
262 and the distance from the shelf increases oceanward from M2 to M4. The salinity from our CTD stations
263 (**Figure 3a**) was higher than the climatology (**Figure 3e**). And, although we should expect higher density
264 due to the higher salinity observed in the CTD stations, the potential density anomaly observed (**Figure**
265 **3b**), agreed with the climatology (**Figure 3f**). This was due to the fact that, except for St. 2, the
266 temperature from CTD stations (**Figure 3c**) below 30 m was 0.5°C higher than the expected from the
267 climatology (**Figure 3g**).

268 Additional temperature profiles from XBT data are presented in **Figure 3h**. Particularly, one of
269 the profiles (X5), launched just after the MRT survey under high tide influence, presented a minus 2°C
270 difference in temperature when compared with the first profile (X1), performed during low tide for 60
271 m, in less than 5 km distance. Temperature values for X5 were also below all values found in the other
272 CTD profiles (**Figure 3c**) for the same depths from 30 to 100 m and agreed with the climatological
273 values (**Figure 3g**). The vertical temperature gradient was weak and the 27°C isotherm was elevated,
274 reaching almost 50 m deep.

275 The variability of temperature profiles in a small space- and timescale, mostly close to the slope,
276 was higher than expected, leading us to conclude that some shelf-break/slope process was in play.
277 Additionally, presence of uplifted water in St. 2 and St. 8, located close to the shelf-break, indicates that
278 a negative cross-shelf velocity (coast-ward) exists. In a previous work by Domingues et al. (2017) a
279 persistent cross-shelf flow towards the coast was previously reported at the region under the influence
280 of the Pernambuco Plateau orography (**Figure 1b**). However, to our knowledge, no mechanism was
281 proposed for this flow until now. In the next section we investigate the dynamic variability observed
282 during the MRT experiment to find some clues about the processes in play at the SBS transition. We
283 should add that, since we lack long term observations for this region, our inferences of why the
284 temperature was 0.5°C higher than the climatology are limited. So, we look only to the variability
285 between stations within our survey. However, we cannot discard that the interannual variability and/or
286 changes due to climatic changes might be responsible for this change.

287 **3.2 Patterns and variability during MRT experiment**

288 The MRT observational dataset used in the present work, comprises the scale of 36 hours and
289 few ($<11\text{km}$) kilometers. The wind speed was weak for the whole MRT experiment (avg. 2.05 ± 0.80
290 m.s^{-1} , **Figure 4a**) with prevailing SE-S direction (62% - 29%). Additionally, during the MRT
291 experiment, mean SSS was 37.41 ± 0.07 with an amplitude of 0.25 (**Figure 4b**) while mean SST was
292 $28.90 \pm 0.18^\circ\text{C}$ with an amplitude of 0.73°C (**Figure 4c**), with no evidence of upwelling. This means, that
293 a subsurface forcing for the uplift is more likely to be in play.



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 295 **Figure 4.** Multiple rectangles transect time series of (a) wind velocity (black solid line) and direction (blue solid
 296 line); (b) sea surface salinity; (c) sea surface temperature, (d) averaged (15-59 m) along-shelf velocity (AS_{avg} ,
 297 black solid line) and cross-shelf velocity (CS_{avg} , blue solid line); (e) cross-shelf tidal velocity (CS-TIDE, blue
 298 solid line), along-shelf tidal velocity (AS-TIDE, black solid line) and tidal amplitude (red dashed line) from the
 299 tide model TPXO9 and; (f) bottom-depth.

300 The MRT experiment revealed a time-space dependent cross-shelf velocity in subsurface (**Figure**
 301 **4d**) that can explain how the uplifted waters are being transported to the shelf. During the experiment,
 302 the cross-shelf average velocity (CS_{avg} , **Figure 4d**) fluctuated between ocean-ward, coast-ward, or null
 303 current (average: $0.11 \pm 0.07 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$, min/max $-0.13/0.28 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$). The along-shelf velocity in the first 60 m,
 304 presented high frequency oscillations but was always positive (AS_{avg} average: $0.35 \pm 0.08 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$, min/max:
 305 $0.15/0.54 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$) (**Figure 4d**). CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} velocities have important variability related to both the
 306 tidal forcing and spatial patterns (in relation to shelf-break/slope position), that will be discussed along
 307 this section.

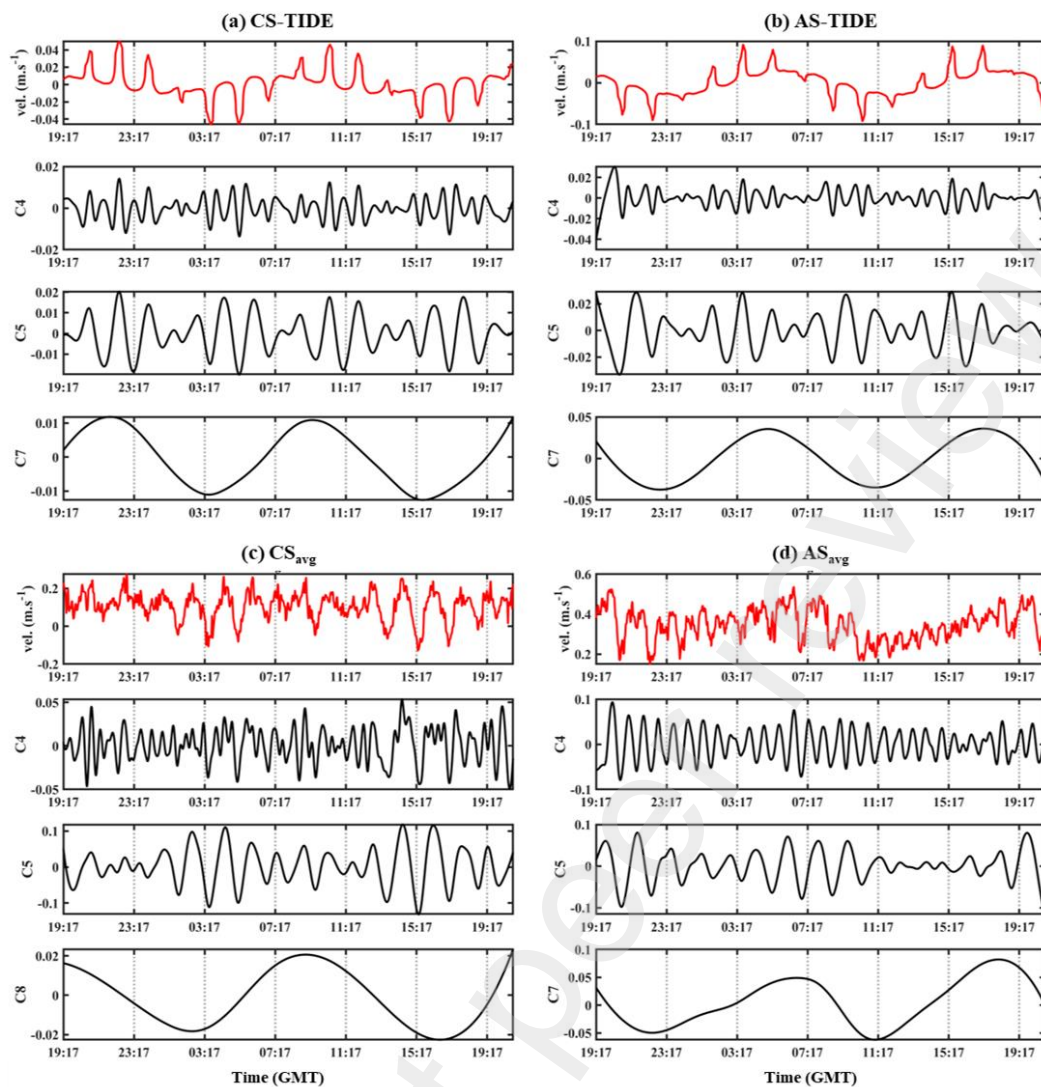
308 CS -TIDE, AS -TIDE and tidal amplitude time series predicted from the tidal model TPXO9 for
 309 the same time and location of the MRT experiment are presented in **Figure 4e**. AS -TIDE and CS -TIDE
 310 presented higher absolute velocities ($\pm 0.092 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ and $\pm 0.05 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$, respectively) associated with
 311 flood/ebb periods with opposite patterns (**Figure 4e**). Peak positive values of AS -TIDE (negative CS -
 312 TIDE) on the shelf and weak negative AS -TIDE (positive CS -TIDE) on the slope were observed during
 313 the flood while the opposite patterns were observed during the ebb. The main direction for the tidal
 314 forcing axis was the along-shelf direction, indicated by the stronger tidal current for the AS -TIDE
 315 component (**Figure 4d**). High frequency variability observed as sharp peaks in both components are the
 316 result of the change in the location (shelf/slope) as this time series was obtained from the same track
 317 (i.e., same time and coordinates) as the MRT. This variability will be discussed further ahead.

318 EEMD results depicted eight variability components for bottom depth (BOT) and CS_{avg} (C1 to
 319 C8) and seven variability components for AS_{avg} , CS-TIDE and AS-TIDE (C1 to C7). The original
 320 timeseries for CS-TIDE, AS-TIDE, CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} and their main variability modes, in terms of
 321 variance, are presented in **Figure 5a-d**. Their respective variance (%), averaged local period and
 322 maximum amplitude are presented in **Table 1**. Variability modes with variance below 5% did not
 323 significantly contribute to the total variability of the time-series and are therefore omitted on **Table 1**
 324 and **Figure 5** (see Supp. Table S1 and Figure S2 for all components obtained from EEMD). We also
 325 omitted BOT components since it presented only one main mode of variability corresponding to 93.3%
 326 of the variance (C5 with averaged period of ~1h43 min; Supp. Figure S2e). The space- and timescale for
 327 this modulation trace back the cyclic change in depth due to the MRT transect repetition shown in **Figure**
 328 **4f**, while the remaining components are representative of small-scale bottom features. The average
 329 period represented of C5 from BOT will be called here onwards as shelf-slope scale, that represents the
 330 variability related to shelf-ocean gradient.

331 **Table 1.** Variance (Var), averaged period (Period) and maximum amplitude (MA) for variability components
 332 with variance higher than 5% obtained from Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition (EEMD) of bottom depth
 333 (BOT), cross-shelf (CS-TIDE) and along-shelf (AS-TIDE) current from tidal model TPX09, averaged cross-shelf
 334 (CS_{avg}) and along-shelf (AS_{avg}) velocities observed velocities during MRT survey.

Bottom depth (BOT)							
IMF	Var (%)		Period		MA (m)		
C5	93.3		1h43 min		457		
CS-TIDE				AS-TIDE			
IMF	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)	IMF	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)
C4	12.5	55min	0.014	C4	7.9	50min	0.041
C5	39.2	1h33min	0.02	C5	20.4	1h26min	0.033
C7	44.6	12h27min	0.013	C7	68.3	12h40min	0.038
CS_{avg} velocity				AS_{avg} velocity			
IMF	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)	IMF	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)
C4	10.2	43min	0.05	C4	21.5	50min	0.09
C5	67.7	1h25min	0.13	C5	26.6	1h37min	0.08
C8	5.1	12h24min	0.02	C7	44.4	12h39min	0.07

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Figure 5. Main variability (highest variance) modes of (a) cross-shelf (CS-TIDE) and (b) along-shelf (AS-TIDE), (c) averaged cross-shelf (CS_{avg}) and (d) along-shelf (AS_{avg}) obtained through the EEMD method. The components C4, C5 and C7 were the most important for CS-TIDE, AS-TIDE and AS_{avg} , while the components C4, C5 and C8 were the main components for CS_{avg} . The original timeseries is presented for a comparison with the components as the red line on the top of (a) to (d). For the complete results of the EEMD method, see Figure S3 and S4.

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The decomposition of the tidal current extracted from the tidal model TPX09, CS-TIDE and AS-TIDE, highlighted three main variability modes C4, C5 and C7 (**Table 1**). For CS-TIDE and AS-TIDE, the most important variability scale was represented by C7 (avg. period of 12h27min and 12h40min), followed by C5 (avg. period of 1h33min and 1h26min) and C4 (avg. period of 55min and 50min). The period for C7 matches the expected period for semi-diurnal tidal forcing while the period for C5 is close to the period for the shelf-ocean scale. C4 matches the half of the period to achieve the one rectangle in the MRT experiment, however, it will not be discussed since it presented smaller variance and did not correlate with none of the observational data. The resulting patterns of both C5 and C7 will be used for a comparison with the CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} EEMD results further ahead.

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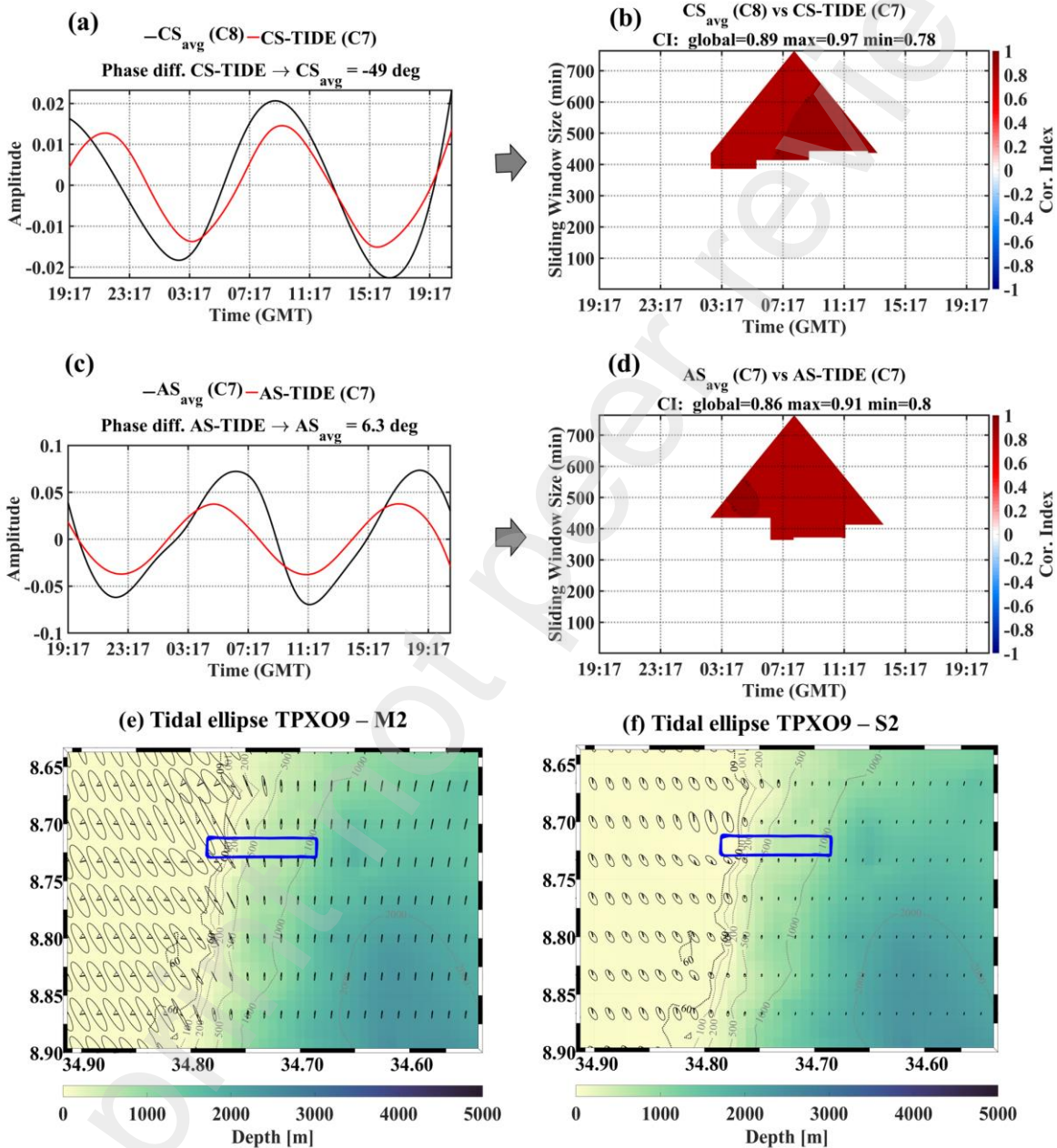
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For CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} , within our spatiotemporal framework, we depicted three main characteristic scales: (i) tidally forced variability (C7 and C8); (ii) shelf-ocean variability (C5); and (iii) shelf-break variability related to gradients that peak in the transition between the shelf and the slope. These scales are interrelated in the SBS across a variety of interacting processes, mostly due to the along-shelf dynamics and tidal forcing.

358 (i) Semi-diurnal variability (C7, C8)

359 Semi-diurnal variability was depicted in mode C8 for CS_{avg} and C7 for AS_{avg} (averaged period
360 of $\sim 12h32min$; **Table 1**) with contributions of 5.1% and 44.4%, respectively, of the total current
361 variability observed during the MRT survey. Tidal forcing was inferred by the strong correlations
362 ($CI_{global} > 0.8$) between the modeled and observed semidiurnal cross-shelf (**Figure 6a,b**) and along-shelf
363 components (**Figure 6c,d**). However, the observed cross-shelf and along-shelf amplitudes for the
364 components were larger than the estimated by the tidal current model (0.02 vs. 0.013 $m.s^{-1}$ / 0.07 vs. 0.038
365 $m.s^{-1}$, respectively; **Table 1**).



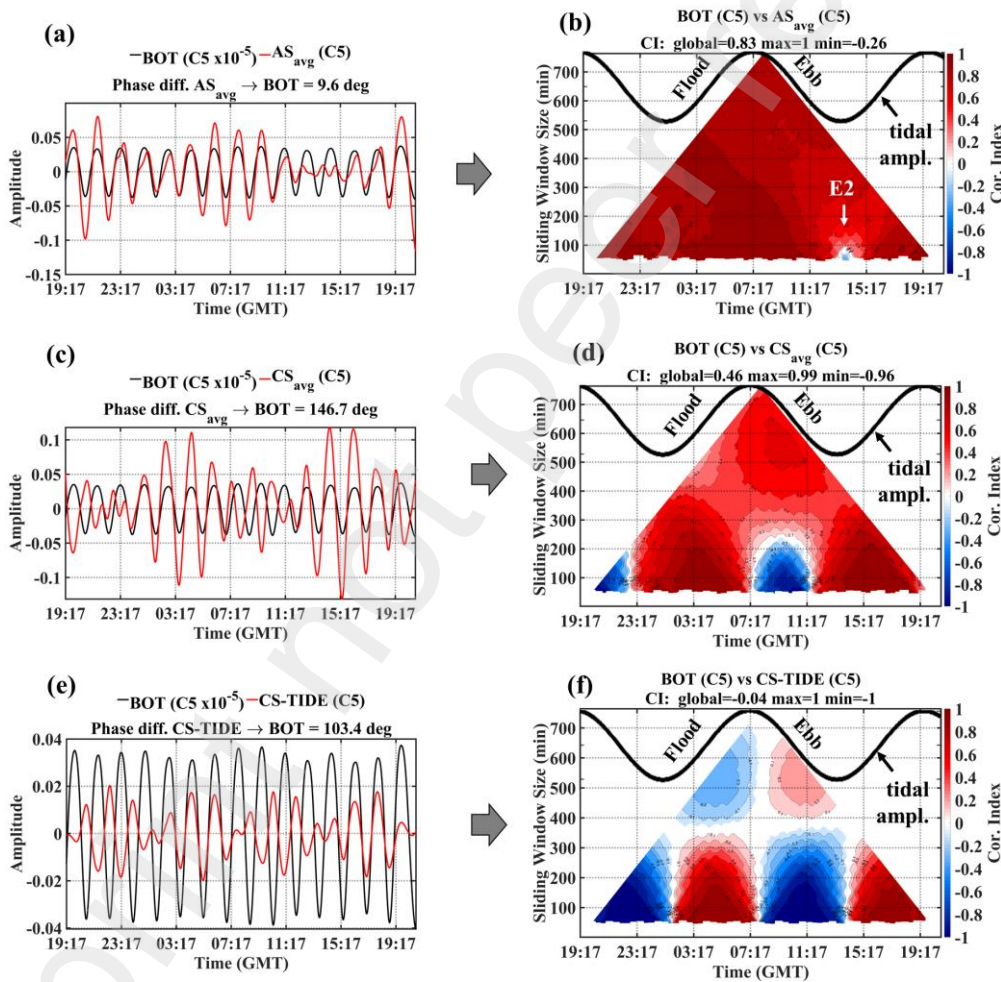
366 **Figure 6.** Intrinsic Mode Function C7 of CS-TIDE (black line) and C8 of the CS_{avg} $m.s^{-1}$ (red line) (a) and the
367 resulting Time Dependent Intrinsic Correlation (b). Intrinsic Mode Function C7 of AS-TIDE (black line) and C7
368 of the AS_{avg} $m.s^{-1}$ (red line) (c) and the resulting correlation (d). Tidal ellipses for the semidiurnal components (e)
369 M2 and (f) S2 from TPXO9. Blue rectangle represents the location of the MRT.

371 In summary, the semi-diurnal components of the IMFs, from the observed shallow currents,
372 shows that the tidal forcing is the responsible for the main variability observed in the along-shelf current,
373 while it only represents a small fraction of the variability observed for the cross-shelf current. M_2 Tidal

374 ellipses extracted from the tidal model TPXO9 (**Figure 6e,f**) shows that the main direction for tidal
 375 current in the MRT surroundings, is indeed the along-shelf direction. Additionally, those components
 376 have a period longer than the MRT scale and are therefore, independent of the measurement location
 377 (shelf or slope), which cannot be said about the higher frequency modes that will be visited in the next
 378 sections.

379 (ii) Shelf-slope variability (C5)

380 Current variability components with averaged period close to the shelf-slope scale (C5 of CS_{avg}
 381 and AS_{avg} , with period $\sim 1h31min$) are expected to be related to cross-shore features along the shelf-
 382 ocean gradient. Both observed cross-shelf and along-shelf presented timescales close to this scale,
 383 however with more contribution for the total current variability for the cross- than for the along-shelf,
 384 explaining 67.7% and 26.6% of the total variability, respectively. To investigate the shelf-slope patterns,
 385 we present superimposed of C5 from CS_{avg} and AS_{avg} and C5 from bottom-depth (**Figure 7a,c**) and the
 386 TDIC correlation between them (**Figure 7b,d**).



387
 388 **Figure 7.** Intrinsic Mode Function C5 of BOT in $m \cdot 10^{-5}$ (black line) and C5 of AS_{avg} (a), CS_{avg} (c), and CS-TIDE
 389 (e) in $m \cdot s^{-1}$ (red lines) and the respective correlations (b), (d) and (f). E2 in (b) highlight the change in correlation
 390 of the AS_{avg} with BOT. Tidal amplitude is presented at the top of the correlation results in (b), (d), (f) as reference
 391 for tidal moment (i.e., ebb/flood, low/high tide).

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 393 In the case of the along-shelf component, C5 mode was highly and mostly positively correlated
 394 with bottom-depth for almost all the survey timeframe (CI global: 0.77, max/min=1/-0.24; **Figure 7a,b**).
 395 Positive correlations between the BOT-C5 and along-shelf C5 indicate that stronger along-shelf currents

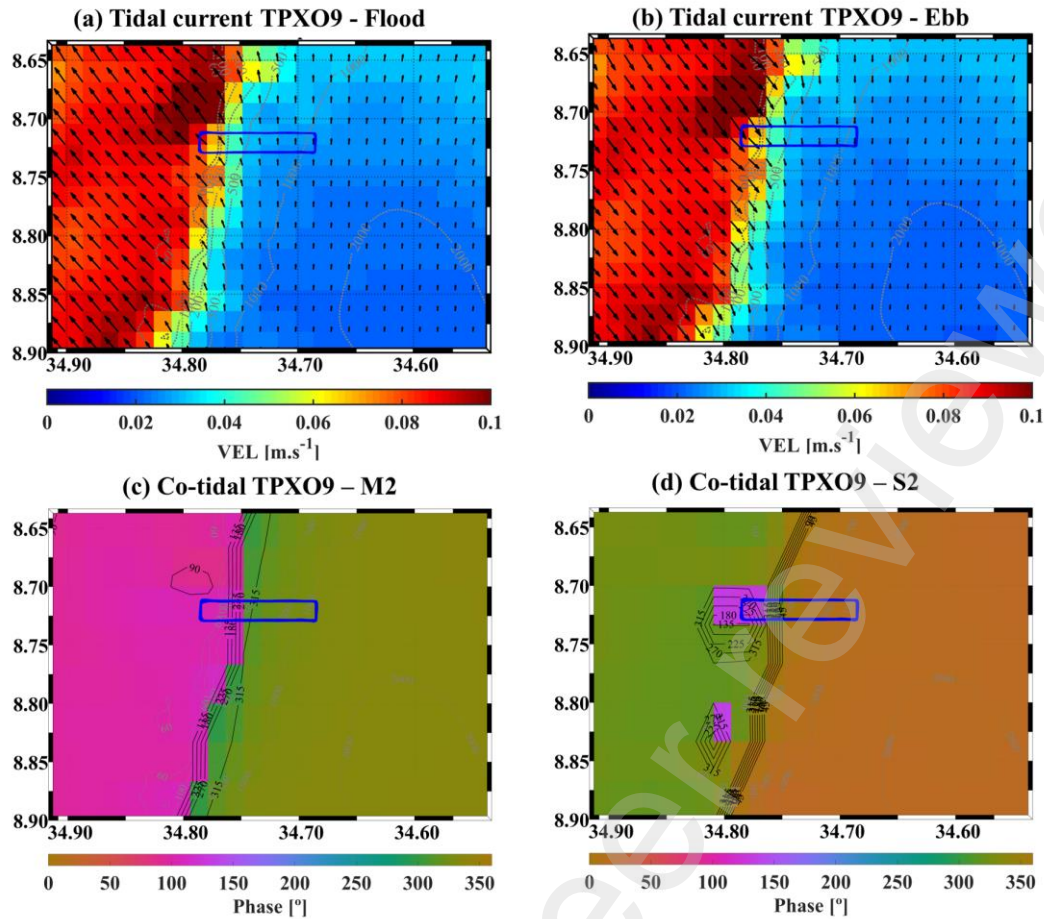
396 were observed on the slope and weaker along-shelf currents are observed on the shelf, creating therefore,
397 a stronger zonal gradient of the along-shelf current. This cross-shore gradient of the along-shelf current
398 is expected due to the NBUC acting against the slope in this region (Hummels et al., 2015; Araujo et al.,
399 2019; Dossa et al., 2021). However, the gradient seems to be increased during high tide, when compared
400 to low tide (**Figure 7a**), which implicates that tidal forcing is increasing (decreasing) the along-shelf
401 current on the slope (on the shelf) during the high tide, and the opposite happens during low tide. Indeed,
402 during the second low tide, the shelf-slope gradient in AS_{avg} reversed (see Event E2 in **Figure 7b**).

403 The correlation between the mode C5 of CS_{avg} and bottom-depth was high but oscillated between
404 in phase (maximum CI = 0.99) and out of phase (minimum CI = -0.97) (**Figure 7c,d**). Positive
405 correlations between the BOT-C5 and cross-shelf C5 indicate that positive cross-shelf currents are
406 observed on the slope and negative cross-shelf currents are observed on the shelf, creating a divergent
407 pattern. The opposite is true for negative correlations, where the positive cross-shelf current on the shelf
408 and negative on the slope simulates a convergent pattern. Correlation between CS-TIDE C5 with bottom
409 depth (**Figure 7e,f** reproduce the same patterns as CS_{avg} , which lead us to conclude that tidal forcing is
410 driving these cross-shore spatial patterns.

411 To illustrate, we present the predicted tidal current in our study region at two moments (**Figure**
412 **8c,d**) - flood and ebb, respectively - during the execution of the MRT. The results show negative values
413 of the zonal current (positive meridional current) on the shelf and positive zonal current (weakly negative
414 meridional current) on the slope during the flood and the opposite during the ebb. The co-tidal lines are
415 also presented for M2 and S2 tidal constituents for the region (**Figure 8e-f**) and they explain why the
416 tidal current have this shelf/off-shelf modulation. A large phase difference in a short distance on the
417 MRT location can be observed from the cotidal lines that are almost parallel to the shelf break and slope
418 isobaths (**Figure 8e,f**). In addition, the divergent/convergent patterns of the tidal current can be explained
419 by the major semi-axis (i.e., the maximum tidal current velocity), that is almost northwestward on the
420 shelf and northeastward on the ocean side (**Figure 6e,f**).

421 Nevertheless, the flood in the observed cross-shelf component is longer than in the tidal model
422 prediction (local positive strong correlation in **Figure 7d-f**). This asymmetry between the ebb and flood
423 is commonly observed at of narrow systems with strong tides and subjacent flows, manly in coastal
424 systems such as tidal channels and estuaries. It can be related to non-linear interactions, inertia, tidal
425 current interaction with bottom morphology, and/or the subjacent flows (e.g., Nidzieko and Ralston,
426 2012; Yoon and Woo, 2013; Guo et al., 2014; Li et al. 2016). To our knowledge tidal asymmetry was
427 not reported before for the shelf-slope transition. Although we are discussing only one mode of
428 variability, this mode represents more than 67% of the total current variability. This further highlights
429 the importance of these findings since this asymmetry can have implications for the cross-shelf transport
430 of sediments and nutrients.

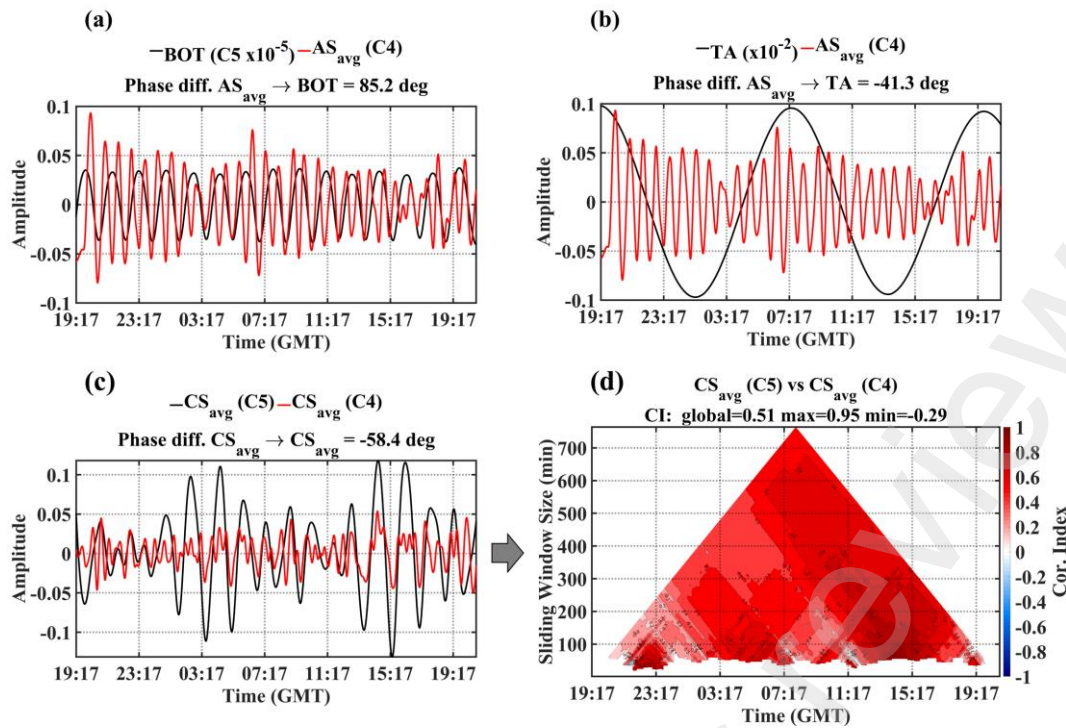
431 In addition, the cross-shelf velocity observed during the MRT experiment is one magnitude order
432 higher than the model estimates (maximum amplitude: observation/model = 0.13/0.02 $m.s^{-1}$). This
433 difference between model and observation can lead to two main inferences: (i) tidal model is highly
434 underestimating the cross-shore current or (ii) another process is acting to increase cross-shelf
435 exchanges. One evidence that points to the second option is the current horizontal gradient (i.e.,
436 horizontal shear) created by the faster along-shelf current in the oceanic side of the MRT – with
437 additional tidal contribution during the flood – and slower current at the adjacent shelf. In some
438 instances, the increased horizontal shear can lead to the generation of residual cross-shelf flow (Brink,
439 2016) that might account for the difference in model/observed cross-shelf current. We will revisit this
440 possibility in section 3.3.



441
 442 **Figure 8.** Tidal current velocity predicted from tidal model TPXO9 (Egbert and Erofeeva, 2002) at two moments
 443 – (a) flood and (b) ebb – during the execution of the multiple rectangles transect (MRT) experiment. Co-tidal
 444 (Phase) for the semidiurnal components (c) M2 and (d) S2 from TPXO9. Blue rectangle represents the location
 445 of the MRT.

446 (iii) Shelf-break variability (C4)

447 The scale of ~47 min was representative of shelf/shelf-break/slope variability, i.e., the features
 448 peak at the transition between the shallow and deeper waters. This scale was represented by the C4
 449 component and contributed for 10.2% and 21.5% of the cross- and along shelf current total variability.
 450 The high variability for the along-shelf is related to the stronger along-shelf current near the shelf-break
 451 limit. In our case, this scale evidence a stronger current in the region closest to the slope wall than on de
 452 adjacent shelf and ocean (**Figure 9a**). Interestingly, like shelf-slope scale (AS_{avg} C5), the C4 scale, was
 453 also influenced by the tide, as illustrated by the intensification of the shelf/shelf-break/slope patterns
 454 during the high tide (**Figure 9b**).



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Figure 9. Intrinsic Mode Function C4 of AS_{avg} in $m \cdot s^{-1}$ (red line) superimposed to C5 of BOT in $m \cdot 10^{-5}$ (a) and the tidal amplitude in $m \cdot 10^{-2}$ (b) (black lines). Intrinsic Mode Function C5 (black line) and C4 (red line) of CS_{avg} (c) and the resulting correlation (d).

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The cross-shelf component C4 did not present discernible shelf-break patterns. Nonetheless, TDIC results of this mode with the lower frequency mode C5 showed moments of high local correlation, mostly around 12:50 and 15:47 GMT (Figure 9c,d), when both cross-shelf C5 and C4 amplitudes were higher. The timing for this correlation matched the event E1 for the along-shelf component C5 when the shelf/ocean gradient reversed. Although we cannot be sure due to the short timeframe for the MRT transects, that might indicate non-linear interaction of the along-shelf and with cross-shelf currents through horizontal shear.

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3.3 Tidal contributions to shelf break dynamics

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As pointed by Brink (2016), little is known about the general cross-shelf flow components and mechanisms, due to their complexity and variability in time and space. During the MRT experiment, at the shelf-break/slope transition, we observed cross-shelf current alternation between shelf-ward and ocean-ward current. Figure 10a presents snapshots of the cross-shelf current during the flood (left panel) and ebb (right panel) registered during the MRT experiment. In the flood, the current was shelf-ward over the shelf but ocean-ward over the slope, creating a divergent pattern. Oppositely, during the ebb, the flow was shelf-ward over the slope and ocean-ward over the shelf and shelf-break, creating a convergent pattern. The current variability observed in those patterns was captured as the main variability component C5, of the cross-shelf current (Figure 7c).

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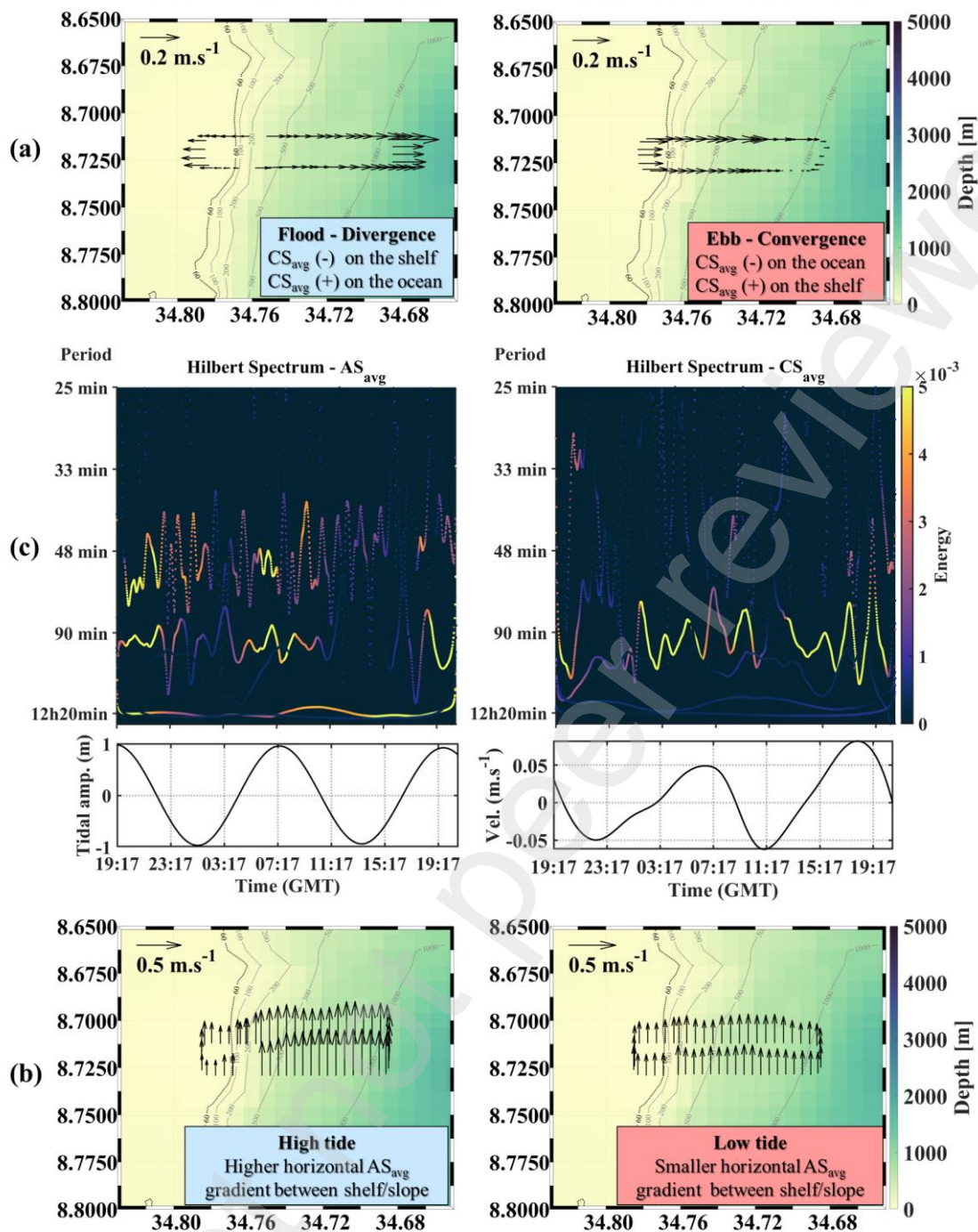
Although wind is a known driver of shelf-break dynamics (Allen, 1980; Lentz, 2001; Lentz and Chapman, 2004), when the wind is weak, as in our case, other processes be responsible for the cross-shelf patterns (Brink, 2016; Dever, 1997; Schaeffer et al., 2013). Shelf-ward transport can also be induced by IWs propagation (Pineda, 1994, Cacchione, 2002; Lamb, 2013). When analyzing the cross-shelf flow to search for IW propagation across the shelf-break in shallow layers, our results pointed to internal tidal waves (CS_{avg} mode C7). However, this component did not present significant variability

484 (<5% of variance, **Table 1**). Therefore, IW dynamics was likely not the major contributor to the cross-
485 shelf transport of the cold and salty waters that reached the shelf. Baroclinic instabilities can also create
486 cross-shelf exchanges, due to horizontal density gradient compensation in shelf-break frontal dynamics
487 (Barth et al., 1998; Cottier et al., 2005). Nevertheless, although the surface cross-shelf velocity
488 variability resemble a shelf-break front at times, sea surface temperature and salinity gradients were too
489 small (amplitude of 0.73°C for SST and 0.25 for SSS, **Figure 4b,c**) to be considered as fronts. The same
490 can be said about undersurface temperature and salinity from CTD and XBT that do not present
491 horizontal gradients as marked as those expected in frontal systems (Yanagi, 1987; Barth et al., 1998;
492 Acha et al., 2004).

493 As we commented in Section 3.2(ii), the tidal forcing is likely the main driver of these cross-
494 shelf patterns, since the same patterns were observed from the cross-shelf velocity from the tidal model
495 (CS-TIDE C5 variability, **Figure 7e**). In the tidal model, the cross-shore variability seems to arise from
496 the phase difference between the slope and the shelf-break (**Figure 8c,d**). This phase difference is known
497 to result from bottom friction over changing bathymetry (e.g., Huthnance, 1973; Stern and Shen 1976;
498 Loder, 1980; Loder and Wright 1985) or, in the absence of bottom friction, from if nonlinear effects
499 (Robinson, 1981). The tides also play a role in changing along-shelf dynamics, which can be observed
500 by the tidal influence beyond the semidiurnal component (C7), on the higher-frequency variability
501 modes (C4 and C5) registered during the MRT experiment. To illustrate the tidal influence in both,
502 along- and cross-shelf currents we present the Hilbert spectrum (HS) for the IMFs obtained by post-
503 processing the results from the EEMD for AS_{avg} and CS_{avg} (**Figure 10b**). The spectrum represents the
504 energy as the square of the amplitude in the time-frequency domain. Energy for the along-shelf velocity
505 HS peaks at high tide at different frequencies in (left panel) compared with the tidal amplitude extracted
506 from TPXO9 (left-bottom). Energy for the cross-shelf velocity (right) is higher centered around 90min
507 (i.e. at the cross-shore scale) and only decreases when the C7 component of AS_{avg} is at his minimum
508 (right-bottom). As we explained in section 3.2(i), the C7 component of the AS_{avg} is related to the semi-
509 diurnal tidal forcing.

510 The general conclusion here is that the tidal forcing increased the energy of the along-shelf
511 current across the timescales. In turn, this energy is transferred from the along-shelf current to the cross-
512 shelf component, increasing the gradients of the observed cross-shelf ebb/flood patterns (**Figure 10a**) in
513 relation to the predicted by the tidal model. Indeed, the tendency of stronger along-shelf velocity at the
514 shelf-break transition than over the surrounding shelf and oceanic waters can create zonal compensating
515 fluxes (i.e., divergence in the zonal direction) (Matano and Palma, 2008). Additionally, this might
516 explain why the cross-shelf current variability, observed during the MRT experiment was one order
517 magnitude higher than the tidal model prediction. Snapshots of the along-shelf current recorded during
518 the MRT experiment (**Figure 10c**) shows that the horizontal gradient of the current on the shelf and the
519 slope was stronger during the high tide (left panel) and weaker during low tide (right panel).

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522 **Figure 10.** (a) Hilbert Spectrum for the IMFs of AS_{avg} (from reprocessed EEMD) and Tidal amplitude extracted
 523 from TPXO9-atlas for the same period and location (left) and; Hilbert Spectrum for the IMFs of CS_{avg} (from
 524 reprocessed EEMD) and C7 from AS_{avg} (semidiurnal component) for the same period and location (right).
 525 Snapshots of the MRT current (arrows) at highlighted moments of (b) the cross-shelf current during flood/ebb
 526 (divergence/convergence), on the left and right, respectively; and (c) along-shelf current during high/low tide
 527 (high/low horizontal shear).

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529 Considering that the tides affect the dynamics in the shelf break transition in our study region,
 530 we should expect it to also affect uplift variability. The uplift in the Southwestern Tropical Atlantic
 531 region was firstly reported by Silva et al. (2021) and, although they did not propose a mechanism for
 532 such observation, it was mentioned that the NBUC was mostly likely the main forcing. The uplift can
 533 be observed by the tilting of the isotherms to shallower depths closer to the slope, as we observed from
 534 the climatology (Figure 3i) and the St. 2 in relation to St. 6 (Figure 3c). In addition, NBUC seasonality
 includes the shallowing of the upper limit of the NBUC (Figure 3k,l), which should change the

535 interaction of this current with the shelf dynamics and therefore, the intensity of the uplift. From the
536 regional context, climatology indicates stronger uplift, and tendency to upwelling in austral winter
537 (**Figure 3j**) when the NBUC is shallower and stronger (**Figure 3l**).

538 During the fall of 2017, the context of our MRT experiment, the NBUC core was shallow (Dossa
539 et al., 2021), which also allows for the interaction with coastal currents dynamics that generate uplift.
540 As we presented in this work, the tides play a role in changing the NBUC shallow dynamics, therefore,
541 we should expect this to have some implications for uplift variability in a small timescale (within a tidal
542 cycle). The uplift should increase at high tide, led by the intensification of the along-shelf velocity in
543 subsurface and decrease during low tide, with decrease of the along-shelf velocity. If indeed that is
544 the case, it should explain why, at the local scale, not all stations presented marked uplift (**Figure 3c,h**).
545 As expected, the uplift was stronger at high than low tide (see X5 at high tide vs. X1 at low tide in **Figure**
546 **3h**), however, the isotherm configuration during high tide agrees with the climatological patterns
547 (**Figure 3g,h**). This indicates that the tidal forcing during high tide is not increasing uplift in relation to
548 climatological patterns, but tidal forcing during low tide is in fact decreasing uplift.

549 Nevertheless, another important implication of the tides to uplift variability, arises from the cross-
550 shelf current patterns during the flood. During the flood, the shelf-ward flow can transport uplifted water
551 towards the shelf-break, as seems to be the case for St. 8 (**Figure 3c**), that was performed during the end
552 of the ebb period in the high tide. The uplift, followed by the periodic supply of richer waters to the
553 shelf-break region can have important implications for primary production within tidal cycles, as
554 evidenced by the increase in chlorophyll-a in St. 8 (**Figure 3d**), even with a modest associated decrease
555 in temperature. The contribution of sub superficial slope water can have implications for primary
556 productivity, as the inferior limit of the euphotic layer in the northeast Brazil can reach down to 60-90
557 m, outside the influence of major rivers flows (Macedo et al., 2009). In addition, it can have cascade
558 effects for top-predators (and fisheries) through bottom-up structuring (Bertrand, 2008b; 2014), favoring
559 the shelf-break/slope region. Indeed, despite being previously classified as oligotrophic (Ekau and
560 Knoppers, 1999; Araujo et al., 2019), Eduardo *et al.* (2018) showed that fish diversity and abundance in
561 Northeast Brazilian waters were higher than expected. They observed areas of high fish densities and
562 diversity near the shelf-break, between 30 and 60 m of depth. The cross-shelf flow contribution to the
563 transport of enriched waters towards the shelf could explain why the areas of high fish densities and
564 diversity are located close to the shelf-break. In addition to that, the turbulence generated by the
565 horizontal gradient of the along-shelf current can generate shear, that is known to mix and reorganize
566 the tracers (e.g. nutrients) and planktonic organisms in the water column (Denman and Gargett, 1983;
567 Haury et al., 1990; Bertrand et al., 2008b).

568 Finally, the interaction of the western boundary current NBUC with the tides – represented by
569 the increase of amplitude in all three main modes of the along-shelf current during high tide – and the
570 resulting cross-shelf velocity, points out to important tidal contributions to shelf-edge exchanges in this
571 region. Since the NBUC is part of the upper AMOC, these exchanges are of topical interest for global
572 fluxes, budgets and their response to climate change and human activities (Huthnance, 1995).
573 Additionally, anomalous variability in the cross-shelf exchanges, can indicate changes in dynamics of
574 the adjacent WBC (Gawarkiewicz et al., 2018; Todd et al., 2019), which justify the need for high-
575 resolution long-term observation here and in other WBC systems.

576 **4. Summary and final considerations**

577 In this work, we investigated the high-frequency variability of shelf-break/slope dynamics and
578 the influence on uplift variability in a western boundary system in the Southwestern Tropical Atlantic.
579 The western boundary current in the system was the North Brazil Undercurrent (NBUC) and the high-
580 frequency variability was depicted through adaptive signal analysis of the continuous data obtained
581 during the Multiple Rectangles Transect experiment. Additionally, in situ profiles and regional
582 climatological data provided the needed framework to give a comprehensive characterization of the
583 thermohaline structure setting and investigate uplift variability.

584 Tidal forcing was the main responsible for the observed variability of the along- and cross-shelf
585 currents. Local variability of uplift intensity was also related to tidal forcing. The tidal currents interact
586 with the subjacent flow of the NBUC, decreasing uplift during low tide. Additionally, tidal forcing
587 creates alternating divergent/convergent moments during flood/ebb; and flood timing for cross-shelf
588 flow can enhance tracer transport toward the shelf. This can have important implications for transport
589 and mixing of nutrients, and therefore primary production, within a tidal cycle. In summary, the tidal
590 forcing observed during the MRT survey seems to contribute for shelf-break/slope dynamics and uplift
591 variability in different scales. In this manner, tidal forcing appears as an important process to be
592 considered in uplift mechanisms for the western boundary system in question. The NBUC core also
593 shows seasonal vertical displacements that might affect the uplift intensity of colder waters. Therefore,
594 seasonal core depth and tidal forcing needs thus to be considered when disentangling upwelling/uplift
595 mechanisms in Northeast Brazilian waters in future research.

596 We highlight the potential of the multiple rectangles transect observing strategy together with
597 the adaptive analysis that provided novel information about the shelf-break/slope dynamics. The
598 importance of the adaptive analysis lies in the explicit consideration that relationships in natural data
599 change with time at different scales. This was exemplified in our results by the low global correlation
600 index, compared with the high correlation and anti-correlation, in smaller windows sizes between
601 bottom-depth and cross-shelf velocity. Any other stationary method would not be able to present such
602 clear correlation results.

603 In what concerns the Multiple Rectangles Transect experiment, although it is a feasible, low cost
604 – when compared with the high cost of mooring – method to obtain timeseries from oceanographic
605 variables; there are many limitations. Two of them are the short timeframe of observations and the need
606 for simultaneous water thermohaline structure, that limits the inferences in this work. From our
607 experience, we concluded that the MRT experiments should have at least 48h of duration if the aim is to
608 further investigate tidal effect on current dynamics. Additionally, it should benefit greatly from
609 underway measurements of the vertical stratification, such as those obtained through underway CTD
610 profilers. Continuous cross-shelf sections with underway CTD measurements should give a better insight
611 of the thermohaline and dynamical structure during the experiments.

612 Lastly, as the region is important for the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation,
613 investigations are still being conducted to understand and quantify the influence of the tides in the WBS
614 in the SWTA and the uplift mechanisms using high resolution modelling. And, although regions of
615 elevated bathymetric gradients are recognized as hot spots for productivity, there still need to investigate
616 how the processes observed here really contribute to enhance biological productivity on the Northeast
617 Brazilian waters, e.g., if nutrient residence time in the slope is reduce due to the high transport of the
618 along shelf current.

619 **5. Data Availability**

620 The quality controlled CTD datasets are freely available at SEANOE repository
621 (<https://doi.org/10.17882/76352>). The quality-controlled sea surface temperature and salinity, raw
622 current velocity, wind, XBT and echosounder bathymetric data obtained during the MRT experiment is
623 available through request to the LMI-TAPIOCA/IRD principal investigator (arnaud.bertrand@ird.fr).
624 CMEMS reanalysis product is freely available at the Copernicus Marine Service database
625 (<https://doi.org/10.48670/moi-00021>).

626 **Appendix 1 - Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition and Time Dependent Intrinsic** 627 **Correlation**

628 To introduce the Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition method, one must first understand
629 the Hilbert Huang Transform (HHT) and the Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD), as both methods
630 are linked to the development of the EEMD. Time-series of natural data usually present non-linear and
631 non-stationary characteristics, which are not well represented by most traditional time-series analysis
632 (e.g. Fourier Transform and wavelet) that are based on linear and/or stationary assumptions (Franzke,
633 2009; Huang and Schmitt, 2014; Kbaier et al., 2016). HHT – due to the *a posteriori* adaptive prerogative
634 – allows both non-stationarity and non-linearity of the data. The HHT can give a full energy–frequency–
635 time distribution of the data, the Hilbert spectrum, which is ideal for nonlinear and non-stationary data
636 analysis (Huang *et al.*, 1998).

637 The development of the HHT was driven by the need to describe nonlinear waves in detail and
638 its natural variations, common to nonstationary processes (Huang *et al.*, 1996; Huang *et al.*, 1998; Huang
639 and Shen, 2014). One of the typical characteristics of nonlinear processes is their intra-wave frequency
640 modulation, where the instantaneous frequency changes within one oscillation cycle (Huang *et al.*, 1998;
641 Huang and Shen, 2014). Any deformation from the simple sinusoidal form wave-profile implies the
642 intra-wave frequency modulation (Huang *et al.*, 1998). When using Fourier analysis, this intra-wave
643 frequency can only be depicted by resorting to harmonics, and they appear as “harmonic distortions”.
644 Those harmonic distortions lack physical meaning, as they are a mathematical artefact from imposing a
645 linear structure on a nonlinear system (Huang *et al.*, 1998; 1999). To reveal the physical meaning and
646 the intra-wave frequency modulations the analysis method requires the system description in terms of
647 the instantaneous frequency (IF). Physically, there is also a real need for IF in a faithful representation
648 of underlying mechanisms for data from nonstationary and nonlinear processes.

649 For non-stationary signals there are two main approaches to compute the instantaneous
650 frequency, the quadrature method, and the analytic signal method (Cohen, 1995; Huang *et al.*, 2009).
651 The first consists in directly computing the quadrature, a simple 90° shift of phase angle, and the latter
652 can be obtained through the Hilbert spectral analysis (Huang *et al.*, 2009). The Hilbert spectral analysis
653 consists in applying the Hilbert transform (HT) to compute the instantaneous frequency of signals. After
654 performing the HT, the data can be expressed in the time-frequency-energy domain. There are many
655 applications of the Hilbert spectral analysis in the literature, such as theoretical mechanics, geophysics,
656 and signal processing (Huang *et al.*, 1996). The Hilbert Huang transform, as denominated by the NASA,
657 is a combination of the Hilbert Spectral Analysis and the Empirical Mode Decomposition (Huang *et al.*,
658 1996, 1998, 1999). In this method the instantaneous frequency is computed by applying the Hilbert
659 transform to the Intrinsic Mode Functions (IMFs) resulting from the Empirical Mode Decomposition.

660 EMD is an adaptive *a posteriori* empirical analysis that accommodates the characteristics of non-
661 linear and non-stationary data to separate the coexisting variability scales in any signal or time series.
662 As well as in empirical orthogonal function (EOF) analysis, it is a decomposition of a signal into

663 functions, in this case the IMFs, which are determined from the data itself. The method is analogous to
 664 performing principal components analysis on the data, except that the EMD returns temporal projections
 665 of the functions. Each variability component from the EMD is defined as an Intrinsic Mode Function
 666 that satisfies the following conditions: (1) across the entire data set, the number of extremes and the
 667 number of points crossing zero must be equal or at most, different by one and (2) at any point in the
 668 IMF, the average value of the envelope defined using local maxima and the envelope defined using local
 669 minima is zero (Huang *et al.*, 1998).

670 We present in **Figure A1a** a generic time-series of sea surface temperature $x(t)$. The IMFs are
 671 obtained through an iterative process that begins with the identification of the local extremes (maximum
 672 and minimum) of the signal. The local maxima (minima) are connected by a spline to form the upper
 673 (lower) envelope of the function (red lines in **Figure A1b**). Then, we obtain the average function of this
 674 envelope (m_1) (blue line in **Figure A1b**). The difference between the original signal $x(t)$ and the
 675 average function of this envelope (m_1) is called the first proto mode h_1 (**Eq. A1**).

$$676 \quad h_1 = x(t) - m_1 \quad (\text{Eq. A1})$$

677 The process is repeated (sifting process) until the remaining signal meets conditions of an IMF
 678 presented above. I.e., the proto mode h_1 is treated as the data in the following iteration (**Eq. A2**).

$$679 \quad h_1 - m_{11} = h_{11} \quad (\text{Eq. A2})$$

680 After k iterations (**Eq. A3**), h_{1k} becomes the first IMF, c_1 (**Eq. A4**).

$$681 \quad h_{1(k-1)} - m_{1k} = h_{1k} \quad (\text{Eq. A3})$$

$$682 \quad c_1 = h_{1k} \quad (\text{Eq. A4})$$

683 The sifting separates the finest local mode from the data based only on the characteristic time
 684 scale. However, this can have two effects: (a) the elimination of riding waves; and (b) the smoothing of
 685 uneven amplitudes. The first is necessary for the instantaneous frequency to be meaningful, and the
 686 second is also necessary in case the neighboring wave amplitudes have too large a disparity. Nonetheless,
 687 performing sifting the process to an extreme could make the resulting IMF a pure frequency modulated
 688 signal of constant amplitude, eliminating the physically meaningful amplitude fluctuations (Huang *et*
 689 *al.*, 1998).

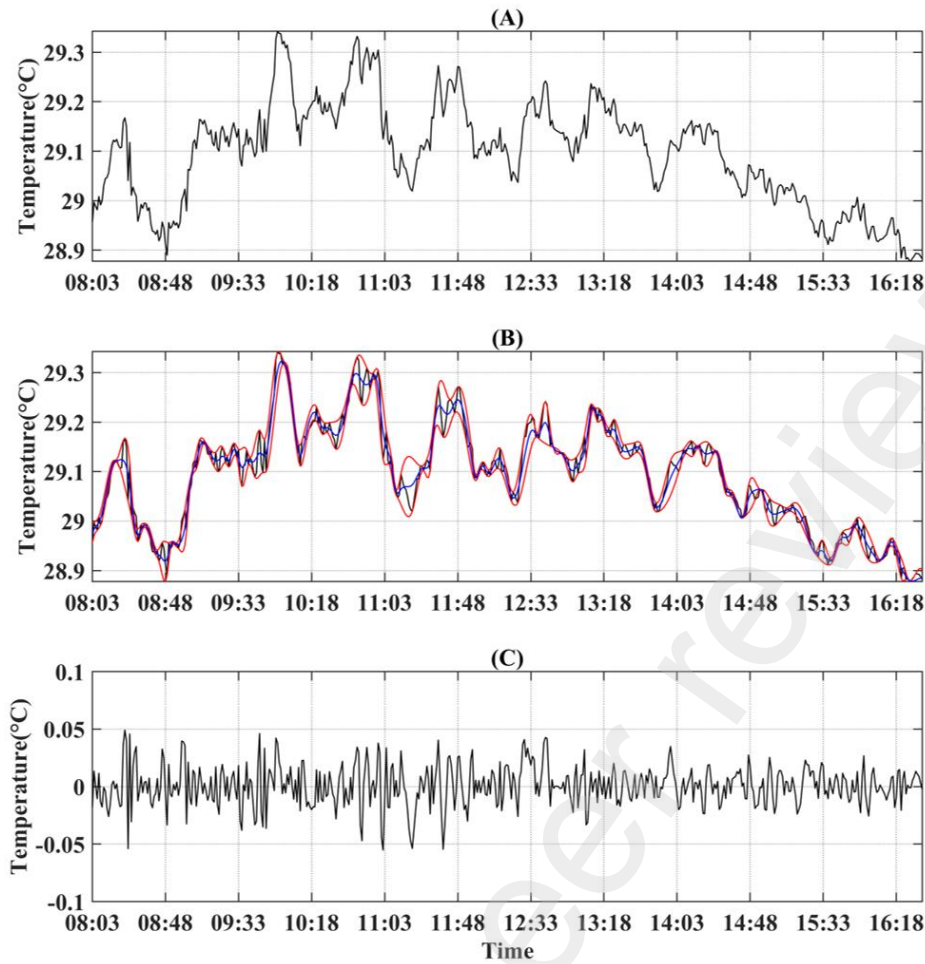


Figure A1. Illustration of the sifting processes: (A) the original data, $x(t)$; (B) the original data (black line), with the upper and lower envelopes (red lines) and the mean, m_1 (blue line); (C) h_1 , the difference between $x(t)$ and m_1 . h_1 is still not an IMF, for there are still negative local maxima and positive local minima suggesting riding waves.

To guarantee that the IMF components retain enough physical sense of both amplitude and frequency modulations, Huang *et al.* (1998) determined a criterion for the sifting process to stop. This criterion can be achieved by limiting the size of the standard deviation, SD, computed from the two consecutive sifting results, the same as the Cauchy's convergence criterion (Eq. A5). A typical value for SD can be set between 0.2 and 0.3.

$$SD = \sum_{t=0}^T \left[\frac{|h_{1(k-1)}(t) - h_{1k}(t)|^2}{h_{1(k-1)}^2(t)} \right] \quad (\text{Eq. A5})$$

After the convergence criterion is reached, c_1 should contain the finest scale or the shortest period component of the signal. We can then separate c_1 from the rest of the data by Eq. A6.

$$x(t) - c_1 = r_1 \quad (\text{Eq. A6})$$

Now r_1 is the residue that still contains information of longer period components. It is treated as the new data and subjected to the same sifting process described above. This procedure can be repeated on all the subsequent r_j , and the result is:

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$$r_1 - c_2 = r_2, \dots, r_{n-1} - c_n = r_n \quad (\text{Eq. A7})$$

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The iteration can be stopped by any of the following predetermined criteria: either (a) when the component, c_n , or the residue, r_n , becomes so small that it is less than the predetermined value of substantial consequence, or (b) when the residue, r_n , becomes a monotonic function from which no more IMFs can be extracted. Even for data with zero mean, the final residue can still be different from zero; for data with a trend, then the final residue should be that trend. By summing up **Eq. A6** and **Eq. A7**, we finally obtain **Eq. A8**. Thus, we achieved a decomposition of the data into n-empirical modes, and a residue, r_n , which can be either the mean trend or a constant.

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$$x(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i - r_n \quad (\text{Eq. A8})$$

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The **Figure A2a** shows the sea surface salinity recorded during the MRT experiment (top panel) followed by the results of the EMD decomposition in terms of the IMFs (C1 to C5) and the residue (bottom panel). The IMFs represent the different intrinsic timescales at which the original signal is modulated from the highest to the lowest frequency. The results should present a general separation of the data into locally non-overlapping time scale components. However, in this example we observe one of the major drawbacks of the EMD, that is the mode mixing, which is defined as a single IMF either consisting of signals of widely disparate scales, or a signal of a similar scale observed in different IMF components (Wu and Huang, 2009). From the MRT experiment we know that the main variability of the salinity is due to the change in the position of the measurements (shelf/slope). This is clear until 02:17, however, after this time, there are other scale processes overlapping the shelf-slope scale. That is the case for mode C3 and C4 (**Figure A2a**), there are similar scales in both modes. To reduce the mode mixing, we applied the Ensemble EMD (the EEMD) for the same time-series of sea surface salinity. The results (**Figure A2b**) show the improvement of variability modes separation, and now the shelf-slope scale was well represented in C5.

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The Ensemble EMD (EEMD) was formulated by Wu and Huang (2009) to decrease the mode mixing drawback. It is based on the EMD with the additional application of the *Noise Assisted Data Analysis* (NADA). In this method we add a white Gaussian noise $w_n(t)$ to the original data $x(t)$ as in **Eq. A9** and then decompose the noise data $x_n(t)$ with the standard EMD. We perform several (N) trials with varying noise ensembles $w_n(t)$.

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$$x_n(t) = x(t) + w_n(t) \quad (\text{Eq. A9})$$

737

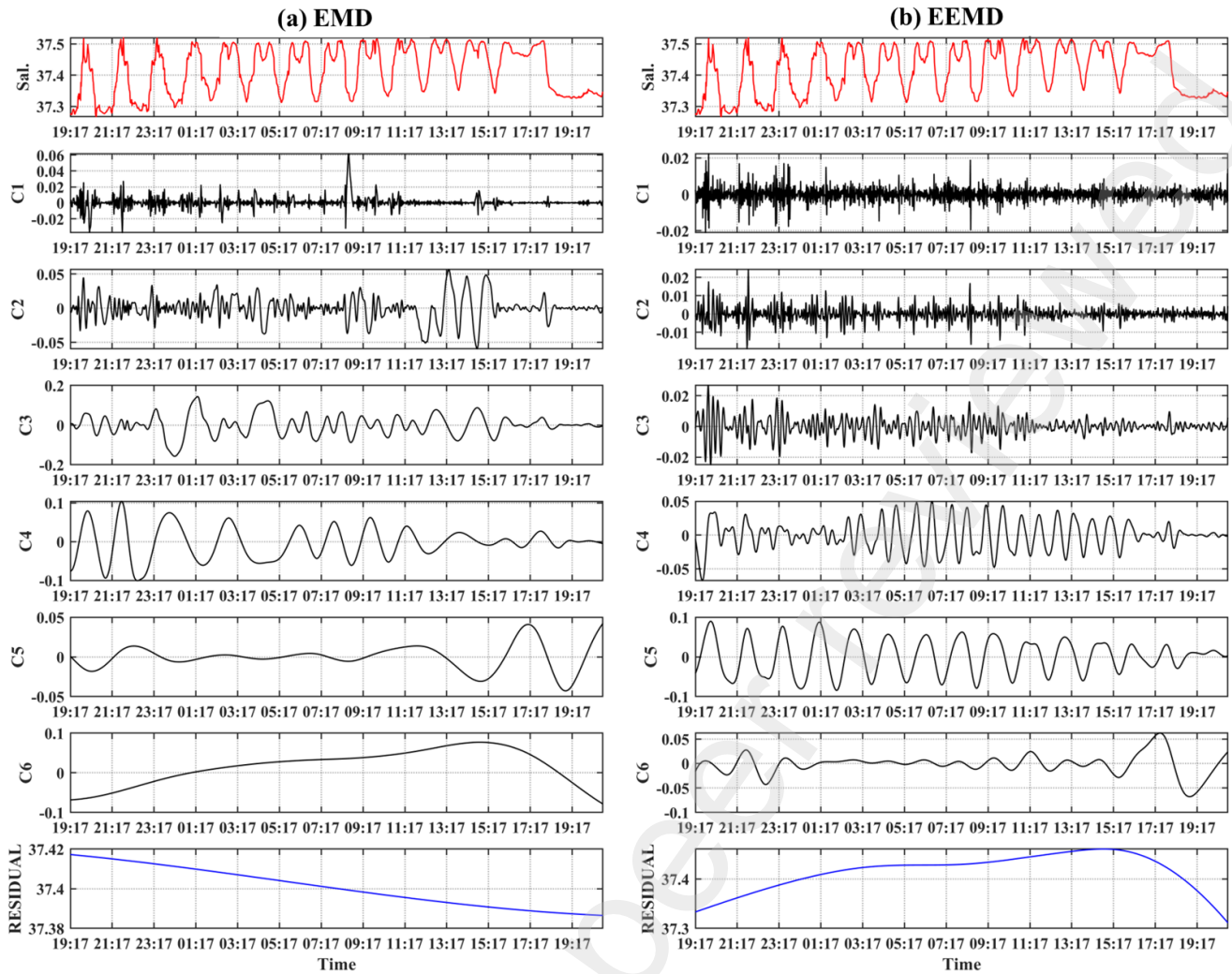
738

739

At the end of the trials, the final IMFs are the ensemble mean of the trials resulting IMFs **Eq. A10**. In this manner, with enough number of trials, statistically, the added noise cancels out in the ensemble result.

740

$$imf(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N imf_n(t) \quad (\text{Eq. A10})$$



741
742 **Figure A2.** Results from the EMD for the wind speed data series presented in **Figure A1**. At the top is the original
743 timeseries (red line), followed by the IMFs (C1 to C5) and the residual (blue line) or in this case, the trend at the
744 bottom.

745 In EEMD, the number of ensemble and the noise amplitude are the two parameters that need to
746 be prescribed. Wu and Huang (2009) recommend an ensemble number of a few hundred and a noise of
747 an amplitude that is about 0.2 standard deviation of that of the data. However, when the data is dominated
748 by high-frequency signals, the noise amplitude may be smaller, and when the data is dominated by low-
749 frequency signals, the noise amplitude may be increased.

750 After the verification that the components extracted from the EEMD are IMFs (Wu and Huang,
751 2009), the physical meaning of the decomposition can be obtained through the Hilbert spectrum. That
752 can be achieved by applying the Hilbert transform to the IMFs. For any function $x(t)$ of L^p class, its
753 Hilbert transform $y(t)$ is given by the **Eq. A11** where P is the Cauchy principal value of the singular
754 integral.

$$755 \quad y(t) = \frac{1}{\pi} P \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x(\tau)}{t - \tau} d\tau \quad (\text{Eq. A11})$$

756 With the Hilbert transform $y(t)$ of the function $x(t)$, we obtain the analytic function,

$$757 \quad z(t) = x(t) + iy(t) = a(t)e^{i\theta(t)}, \quad (\text{Eq. A12})$$

758 where $i = \sqrt{-1}$,

759
$$a(t) = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}, \quad \theta(t) = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}. \quad (\text{Eq. A13})$$

760 Here a is the instantaneous amplitude, and θ is the instantaneous phase function. The
 761 instantaneous frequency is given by the **Eq. A14**.

762
$$\omega = \frac{d\theta}{dt} \quad (\text{Eq. A14})$$

763 With both amplitude and frequency being a function of time, we can express the amplitude (or
 764 energy, the square of amplitude) in terms of a function of time and frequency, $H(\omega, t)$. The marginal
 765 spectrum can then be defined by the **Eq. A15** where $[0, T]$ is the temporal domain within which the data
 766 is defined.

767
$$h(\omega) = \int_0^T H(\omega, t) dt, \quad (\text{Eq. A15})$$

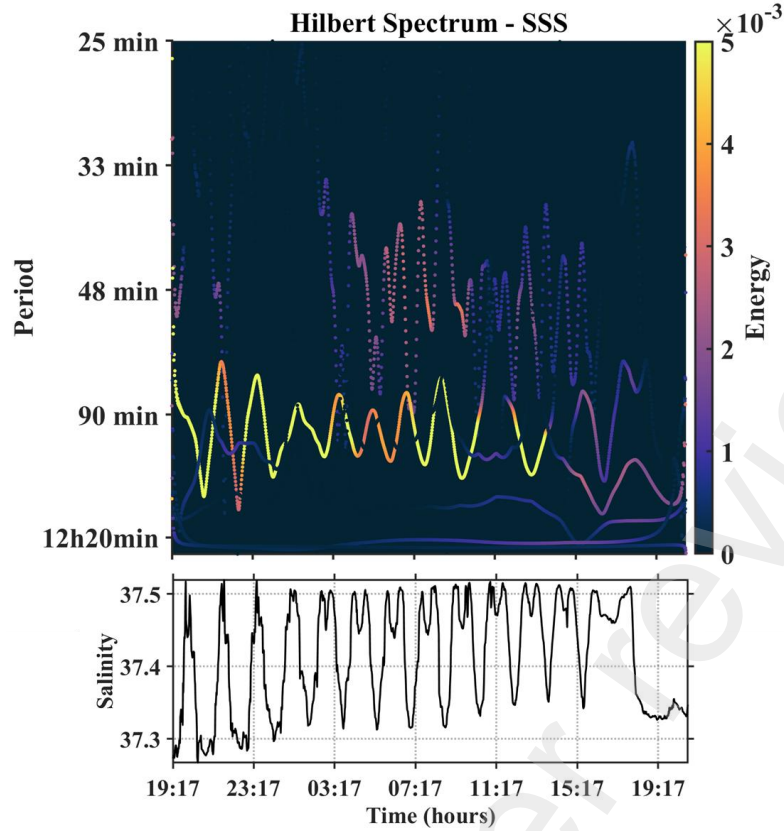
768 The marginal spectrum represents the accumulated amplitude (energy) over the entire data span
 769 in a probabilistic sense and offers a measure of the total amplitude (or energy) contribution from each
 770 frequency value, serving as an alternative spectrum expression of the data to the traditional Fourier
 771 spectrum. The Hilbert Spectrum for the IMFs extracted from the sea surface salinity timeseries is shown
 772 in **Figure A3** with the original timeseries at the bottom. From this result we verify that indeed, the higher
 773 energy (amplitude) for the timeseries is found in the lower frequency modes, mainly the shelf-slope scale
 774 around 90min.

775 Once the signal variability scales have been obtained, the next step consists of determining the
 776 forces responsible for this oscillation and/or obtaining the correlation between different variables. The
 777 problem with this is to obtain a correlation that is compatible with the type of assumption we make in
 778 EEMD. That is, a method that assumes the possibility of (i) the existence of mixtures of scales in the
 779 same signal; (ii) that the behavior of a scale can depend on time and (iii) that there are relationships that
 780 can vary with time within the same scale. Traditional correlation methods usually do not support these
 781 assumptions; therefore, Time-Dependent Intrinsic Correlation (TDIC) (Chen et al., 2010; Huang and
 782 Schmitt, 2014) emerges as a complementary tool to investigate correlations over time between two
 783 scales.

784 TDIC is based on the IMFs resulting from EMD/EEMD and has the same assumptions of non-
 785 linearity and non-stationarity of the signal. TDIC correlate over time two IMFs of different variables,
 786 with similar frequencies, on various time scales (i.e., time windows). The correlation over time is given
 787 by **Eq. A16**:

788
$$R_i(t_k^n) = \text{Corr}(c_{1i}(t_w^n), c_{2i}(t_w^n)) \quad (\text{Eq. A16})$$

789



790
791 **Figure A3.** Hilbert Spectrum of the IMFs resulting from the Empirical Mode Decomposition of sea surface
792 salinity timeseries. The colors represent the energy in terms of the square of the amplitude. The higher energy
793 (higher amplitude) in this case is concentrated in low frequency modes (longer period); with periods oscillating
794 around 90 min, corresponding to the shelf-slope scale.

795 Where c_{1i} and c_{2i} are the two IMFs investigated, t_w^n is the time window for the correlation, given
796 by **Eq. A17** and n is any real positive number. The minimum window for calculating local correlation
797 is given by **Eq. A18**, where T_{1i} e T_{2i} are the instantaneous periods of the two IMFs obtained through the
798 zero-crossing method.

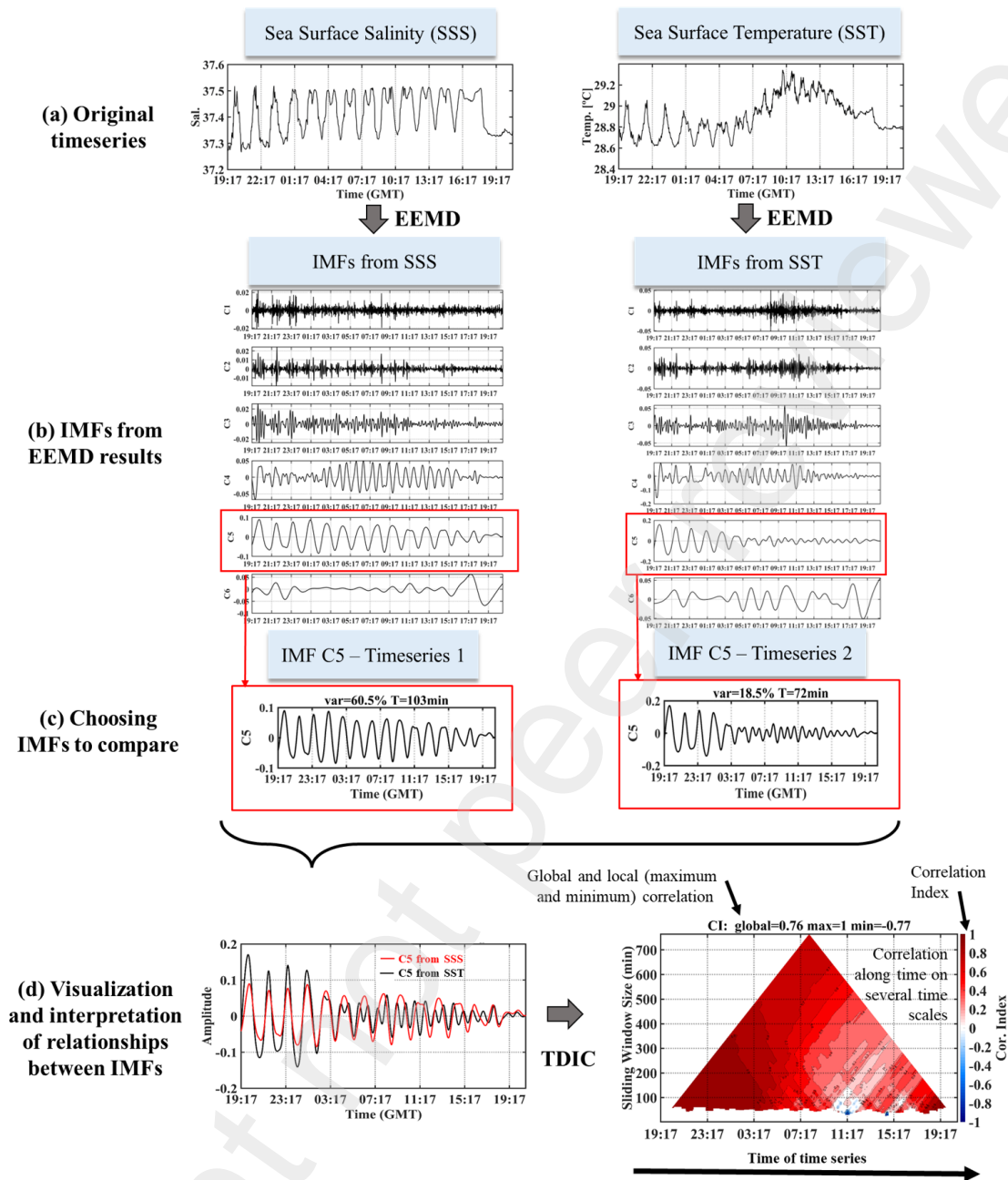
$$799 \quad t_w^n = [t_k - nt_d/2; t_k + nt_d/2] \quad (\text{Eq. A17})$$

$$800 \quad t_d = \max(T_{1i}(t_k), T_{2i}(t_k)) \quad (\text{Eq. A18})$$

801 Student's t-test is also performed to investigate whether the difference between the correlation
802 coefficient and zero is statistically significant. If the correlation does not pass the Student's t-test ($p > 0.5$),
803 a blank mask is placed in the correlation matrix. The result is a correlation matrix with statistical
804 significance over time (x-axis) for each time window used to calculate the correlation index (y-axis)
805 (Chen *et al.*, 2010). **Figure A4** presents a simplified scheme of the joint EEMD/TDIC methodology.

806 See example of two time series decomposed by the EEMD (**Figure A4a**) and the resulting IMFs
807 (**Figure A4b**). The resulting IMFs are evaluated in terms of the variance, i.e., how much of the original
808 data variability (in percentage) is explained by each IMF (e.g., in **Figure A4c**, C5 explains 60.5% of the
809 time series 1 and 18.5% of time-series 2). The result of the TDIC can be represented in two dimensions
810 (e.g., **Figure A4d** right panel), where the x-axis is the time of the time-series, and the y-axis is the time-
811 window used for the calculation of the correlation index, i.e., the timescales that range from the local
812 period (local correlations at the bottom of the triangle in **Figure A4d**) to the whole time series (global
813 correlation at the top of the triangle in **Figure A4d**). The correlation index calculated in the maximum

814 time window is equivalent to the global correlation for the entire time series in traditional correlation
 815 methods.



816
 817 **Figure A4.** Example of the methodology applied to investigate the Multiple Rectangles Transect timeseries. (a)
 818 Two timeseries are decomposed through means of the EEMD method to obtain the respective (b) variability
 819 modes (i.e., the Intrinsic Mode Functions - IMFs). (c) The C5 mode of the Timeseries 1 was chosen to be compared
 820 with the C5 from timeseries 2 as they have close frequency modulation. The correlation of the signals in (d)
 821 are presented in the TDIC results (right panel). The colors represent the correlation index, that can be positive
 822 (correlation), null (no correlation) or negative (anticorrelation). The x-axis is the time of the timeseries,
 823 and the y-axis is the window size used for the correlation calculation, from the minimum local wave period (base of the
 824 triangle) to the maximum period corresponding to the whole timeseries (i.e., global correlation at the top of the
 825 triangle).

826 Comparing the modes (Figure A4d), we observe the higher amplitude of both at the beginning
 827 of the timeseries with the same phase and decrease of amplitude and change in frequency (mostly in
 828 timeseries 2) after 3:17 GMT, that if just after the sunrise. The signals become in phase again, still with
 829 small amplitude, at the end of the time series. For this example, we observe a strong local correlation
 830 that decreases along time and increase again at the end of the time series. This decrease in correlation in

831 the middle of the time series, results in the global correlation 0.76, even though the local correlation at
832 the beginning and the end of the time series reach the maximum value of 1, revealing the importance of
833 the local correlation for this example.

834 We should point that, for correlations that are consistent (positive or negative) along the whole
835 timeseries, the relationship could be represented by a simple correlation method. However, as observed
836 from the results in section 3.2 (ii), the change in correlation of two IMFs along time can lead to low
837 global correlations, which represent the correlation obtained from traditional methods, and sometimes
838 to misleading interpretation, while TDIC can give a much more precise information about the changing
839 relationship along time.

840 **Acknowledgments**

841 We acknowledge the French oceanographic fleet for funding the at-sea survey and the officers
842 and crew of the R/V Antea for their contribution to the success of the operations during the ABRACOS
843 cruises. S.Q. thank the support of the Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico
844 (CNPq) through a PhD scholarship grant (140629/2020-3). M.A. thanks the Brazilian Research Network
845 on Global Climate Change - Rede CLIMA (FINEP-CNPq 437167/2016-0) and the Brazilian National
846 Institute of Science and Technology for Tropical Marine Environments - INCT AmbTropic
847 (CNPq/FAPESB 565054/2010-4 and 8936/2011) for their support. This work is a contribution to the
848 International Joint Laboratory TAPIOCA (www.tapioca.ird.fr) and to the TRIATLAS project, which
849 has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation program under
850 grant agreement No 817578.

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Tidal contributions to shelf break dynamics in the South-western Tropical Atlantic

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Video 1. Time lapse of the location (red dot) and track (blue line) of the ship (top panel) during the multiple rectangles transect execution and simultaneous acquisition of bottom depth (middle panel) and current velocity (along- and cross-shelf on the bottom panel) data.

Preprint not peer reviewed

Table S1. Complete table of IMFs obtained from Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition (EEMD) analysis. Values of variance (Var), averaged period (Period) and maximum amplitude (MA) are presented for IMFs of averaged cross-shelf (CS_{avg}) and along-shelf (AS_{avg}) velocities, cross-shelf (CS-TIDE) and along-shelf (AS-TIDE) current from tidal model TPXO 9 and Bottom depth (BOT). For the graphical results, see Supp. Figure S2, S3 and S4.

IMF	Bottom depth (BOT)					
	Var (%)	Period			MA (m)	
C1	<1	5 min			45	
C2	<1	8 min			45	
C3	<1	17 min			62	
C4	3.4	36 min			143	
C5	93.3	1h43 min			457	
C6	2.2	1h50 min			87	
C7	<1	4h12 min			22	
C8	<1	12h05 min			11	

IMF	CS-TIDE			AS-TIDE		
	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)
C1	<1	5min	<0.01	<1	5min	<0.01
C2	<1	10min	<0.01	<1	9min	<0.01
C3	1.5	32min	<0.01	1.2	30min	0.014
C4	12.5	55min	0.014	7.9	50min	0.041
C5	39.2	1h33min	0.020	20.4	1h26min	0.033
C6	1.8	2h06min	<0.01	1.7	2h9min	0.012
C7	44.6	12h27min	0.013	68.3	12h40min	0.038

IMF	CS _{avg} velocity			AS _{avg} velocity		
	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)	Var (%)	Period	MA (m.s ⁻¹)
C1	<1	5min	0.05	<1	6min	0.04
C2	2.9	9min	0.04	2.3	10min	0.06
C3	4.2	15min	0.05	3.3	19min	0.04
C4	10.2	43min	0.05	21.5	50min	0.09
C5	67.7	1h25min	0.12	26.6	1h37min	0.08
C6	4.8	2h33min	0.03	1.6	3h21min	0.02
C7	4.3	6h27min	0.03	44.4	12h39min	0.07
C8	5.1	12h24min	0.02	-	-	-

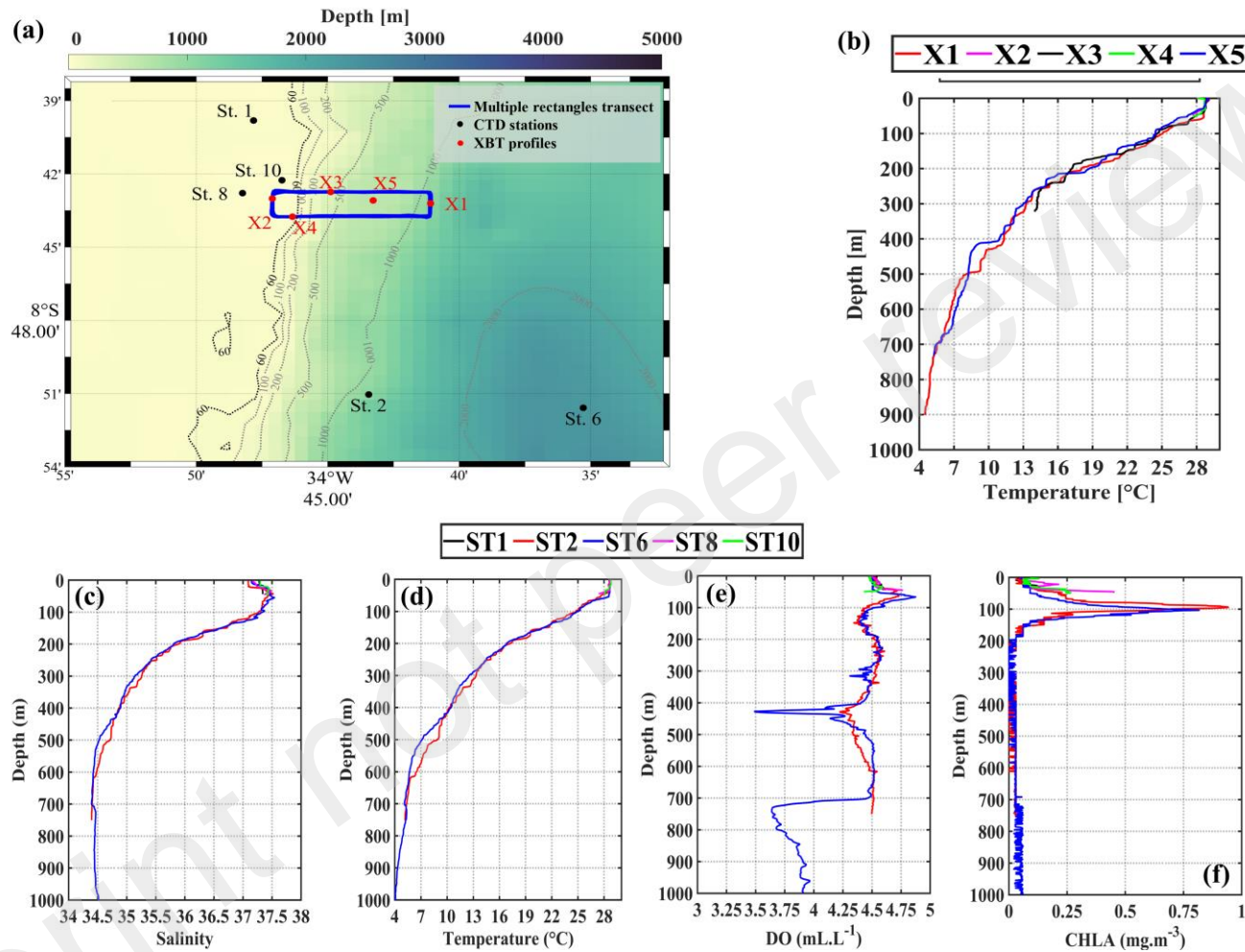


Figure S1. Location (a) of XBT (red dots) and CTD (black dots) stations in relation to the multiple rectangles transect (MRT). Vertical profiles of temperature (b) for XBTs X1 (red), X2 (magenta), X3 (black), X4 (green) and X5 (blue). Vertical profiles of salinity (c), temperature (d), dissolved oxygen (e) and chlorophyll-a concentration (f) for CTD stations ST1 (black), ST2 (red), ST6 (blue), ST8 (magenta) and ST10 (green); for XBTs X1 (red), X2 (magenta), X3 (black), X4 (green) and X5 (blue). CTDO stations were achieved on 09-04-2017 16:35, 09-04-2017 20:44, 11-04-2017 09:57, 11-04-2017 18:45 and 13-04-2017 01:16 GMT, respectively. XBTs were launched on 11-04-2017 23:16, 12-04-2017 00:09, 12-04-2017 00:27, 12-04-2017 01:41, 12-04-2017 21:10 GMT, respectively.

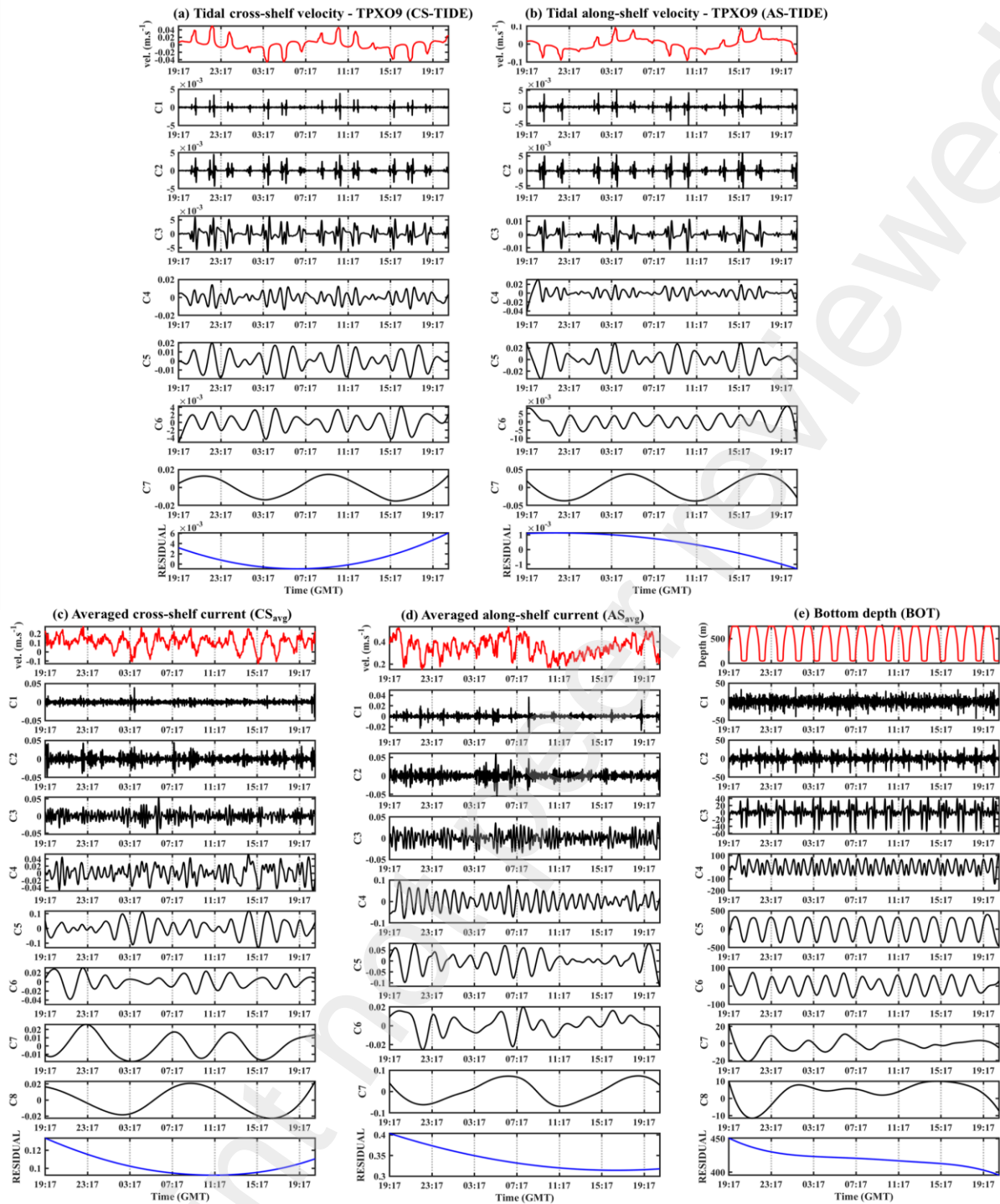


Figure S2. Ensemble Empirical Mode Decomposition results for the (a) cross-shelf tidal velocity (CS-TIDE) and (b) along-shelf tidal velocity (AS-TIDE) from the model TPX09 for the same coordinates and time of the multiple rectangles transect (MRT); (c) cross-shelf velocity (CS_{avg}) and (d) along-shelf velocity (AS_{avg}) and; (e) bottom depth during the rectangle transect (MRT) experiment. C1 to C9 represent the components of the different variability scales. The residual of the composition represents the trend for the time-series.