1	Surface predictor of overturning circulation and heat content change in
2	the subpolar North Atlantic
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13	Abstract. The Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation (AMOC) impacts ocean and atmosphere
14	temperatures on a wide range of temporal and spatial scales. Here we use observational data sets to
15	validate model-based inferences on the usefulness of thermodynamics theory in reconstructing AMOC
16	variability at low-frequency, and further build on this reconstruction to provide prediction of the near-
17	future (2019-2022) North Atlantic state. An easily-observed surface quantity – the rate of warm to cold
18	transformation of water masses at high latitudes – is found to lead the observed AMOC at 45°N by 5-6
19	years and to drive its 1993-2010 decline and its ongoing recovery, with suggestive prediction of extreme
20	intensities for the early 2020's. We further demonstrate that AMOC variability drove a bi-decadal
21	warming-to-cooling reversal in the subpolar North Atlantic before triggering a recent return to warming
22	conditions that should prevail at least until 2021. Overall, this mechanistic approach of AMOC variability
23	and its impact on ocean temperature brings new keys for understanding and predicting climatic conditions
24	in the North Atlantic and beyond.

# 25 **1. Introduction**

26 The north-eastward meandering flow of the North Atlantic Current (NAC) dominates the upper-ocean

circulation of the northern North Atlantic (Krauss, 1986). It transports relatively warm waters that release 27 heat to the atmosphere as they flow around the Subpolar Gyre (SPG) and the Nordic Seas, ultimately 28 forming North Atlantic Deep Water that propagates in the deep layers via upper and deep western 29 boundary currents (DWBC) and dispersive interior pathways (Bower et al., 2009; Lherminier et al., 2010, 30 see Figure S1 for domain boundaries and bathymetric features). On top of sequestering physical and 31 biogeochemical properties in the deep seas, the warm-to-cold conversion of water masses and the 32 meridional overturning circulation associated with it drives a significant meridional heat transport. Its 33 variability is thought to be a major cause of temperature and ocean heat content (OHC) shifts in the upper 34 layer of the northern North Atlantic, with important ramification for ocean-atmosphere interactions and 35 large-scale climate variability (Bryden et al., 2014; Robson et al., 2017). In particular, the most recent 36 reversal of climatic trends in the north Atlantic SPG since 2005 (warming to cooling) has been attributed 37 in numerical models to a decadal weakening of the ocean meridional heat transport across the southern 38 boundary of the SPG (Piecuch et al., 2017; Robson et al., 2016). The recent return of intense ocean-to-39 atmosphere heat loss (and associated deep convection) since the mid 2010's (Josey et al., 2018; 40 Yashayaev and Loder, 2017) is now suggestive of an ongoing or approaching re-intensification of the 41 circulation and, consequently, a shift to warming condition in the SPG. Overall, the need for a continuous 42 monitoring of the top-to-bottom current field in the SPG has appeared critical to capture the many 43 components of this warm-to-cold transformation. In 2014, international efforts led to the implementation 44 of an in situ mooring array aimed to fulfil such a need – the Overturning in the Subpolar North Atlantic 45 Program (OSNAP; Lozier et al., 2017). 46

In the commonly-used depth space (z), the AMOC<sub>z</sub> streamfunction helps to simplify the complex threedimensional velocity field of the North Atlantic into a northward flow of *about* 16 Sv (1 Sv =  $10^6$  m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) in the upper 0-1000 m or so and a compensating southward flow at depth, connected vertically by the net sinking of surface waters at high latitudes (Buckley and Marshall, 2016; Wunsch, 2002). However, if one is interested in OHC and the dynamics of buoyancy redistribution in the ocean, an estimator of the circulation in density-space ( $\sigma$ ) must be preferred, which we will note AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> hereafter. Such an estimator allows to fully capture transformation of light water masses into denser ones at high latitudes, along both the vertical overturning and horizontal gyre circulations (Lherminier et al., 2010; Pickart and
Spall, 2007).

In the absence of diapycnal mixing, the diapycnal volume fluxes associated with the AMOC $_{\sigma}$  at a given 56 latitude must relate to air-sea exchanges of buoyancy within isopycnal outcrops north of this latitude 57 (Figure 1). This thermodynamic balance between the AMOC $_{\sigma}$  and its surface-forced component (noted 58 SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> hereafter), theorized by Walin (1982) and much later verified with numerical models (Grist et al., 59 2010; Marsh, 2000), suggests key monitoring and predictive skill of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>. This was particularly 60 evidenced in low-resolution coupled climate models, which hold a significant lagged relationship between 61 high latitude surface forcing and overturning circulation at the southern exit of the SPG (Grist et al., 62 2009). In a follow-up paper, Grist et al. (2014) estimated the surface-forced component of the AMOC in 63 several atmospheric reanalyses and highlighted their overall consistency in the SPG. An independent 64 validation of those surface indices with observation-based time series of the interior circulation is 65 however, still missing. Moreover, the potential of such proxy-based reconstruction of the AMOC for 66 predicting OHC variability and new climatic reversal in the coming years remains to be shown. 67

The primary purposes of the present study are (1) to validate with observational data the predictive skill of surface-forced water mass transformation for AMOC variability, and (2) to assess the causal link between AMOC variability and decadal OHC changes in the SPG and perform near-future prediction of those quantities. Regional variability will also be documented, with details on the capability of the *in situ* OSNAP array in monitoring the basin-wide AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the observational data sets and the methodology used to compute  $AMOC_{\sigma}$ ,  $SFOC_{\sigma}$ , and OHC. Section 3 gathers the main results of the study and Section 4 summarizes and discusses them.

76 2. Materials and Methods

### 77 **2.1. Data**

Monthly gridded potential temperature ( $\theta$ ) and practical salinity (S) profiles from four *in situ* 78 hydrographic datasets were used. Details on those data sets (EN4, CORA, ISHII and ARMOR3D) are 79 provide in Table S1. For each product and at each grid point, the  $\theta$  and S profiles were interpolated to a 80 regular 20 db vertical spacing. Using the TEOS-10 Gibbs-SeaWater (GSW) toolbox, practical salinity 81 was converted to absolute salinity, potential temperature to conservative temperature, and  $\sigma_0$  and  $\sigma_1$ 82 (potential density relative to sea-surface and 1000 m, respectively) were computed. Air-sea heat fluxes 83 (radiative and turbulent) and freshwater fluxes (evaporation and precipitation) are obtained from three 84 atmospheric reanalyses (NCEP2, ERA-I and CERES, see Table S1). Absolute dynamic topography and 85 associated surface meridional geostrophic velocities are obtained from the AVISO platform 86 (https://www.aviso.altimetry.fr/en/data.html) and combine sea-level anomalies from multi-mission 87 satellite altimeters and mean dynamic topography from GOCE, GRACE, altimetry and in situ data 88 (https://www.aviso.altimetry.fr/en/data/products/auxiliary-products/mdt.html). 89

The various integrated quantities derived from those data products (such as ocean heat content of overturning stream functions - see description below in Section 2.2 and 2.3) were then combined into ensemble mean over the period (1993-2017 for altimetry-related quantities, 1985-2017 otherwise), with associated ensemble standard errors computed as  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N-1}}$ , where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation and N = 4 the number of data products used in the mean. This error captures the spread induced by the different methods used as of today to interpolate sparse in situ observations. Further notes on statistical analysis of the reported results (correlation, trend error) are provided in Supplementary Information.

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## **2.2.** Computation of AMOC $_{\sigma}$ , MHT $_{\sigma}$ and associated OHC

The 0-2000 m absolute meridional velocities v at 45°N are derived by referencing *in situ* estimates of the geostrophic thermal-wind currents with altimetry-derived sea-surface geostrophic velocities, following previously-published methodologies (Gourcuff et al., 2011; Mercier et al., 2015; Sarafanov et al., 2012). The latitude 45°N represents the southern geographic boundary of the SPG with the bulk of the light-todense transformation associated with the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> occurring north of it (see Section 3.1). Moreover, the thermohaline fronts (and the resulting relative velocities) at 45°N are relatively well defined in ocean analysis products due to good data coverage, notably at the western boundary. This latitudinal band is therefore chosen as our reference line for computing a realistic AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and undertaking its subsequent mechanistic analysis.

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108 The AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> stream function is obtained by integrating *v* zonally and vertically above each  $\sigma_1$  surface 109 (spaced by  $\delta\sigma = 0.025$  kg m<sup>-3</sup>). The maximum value of the resulting stream function at the density level 110  $\sigma_m$  writes as:

111 
$$AMOC_{\sigma m} = \int_{x} \int_{\sigma < \sigma m} v dx dz$$

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We restrict such calculation to the 0-2000 m layer as not all products contain data below that depth<sup>1</sup>. This threshold is nonetheless deep enough to capture the level of maximum transformation at 45°N, as well as its variability. The AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>-driven heat transport is estimated as in Mercier et al. (2015):

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117 
$$MHT_{\sigma} = \rho_0 C_p AMOC_{\sigma m} \Delta \theta$$

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119 where  $\rho_0 = 1025$  kg m<sup>-3</sup>,  $C_p = 4000$  J kg<sup>-1</sup> °C<sup>-1</sup> and  $\Delta \theta$  is the temperature difference between the upper 120 and lower limbs of the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (i.e. the area-weighted average temperature of water lighter than  $\sigma_m$  minus 121 the area-weighted average temperature of water heavier than  $\sigma_m$ ). Note that  $\Delta \theta$  was computed from the 122 EN4.2.0 product that provides full-depth temperature profiles. The change in ocean heat content north of 123 45°N driven by  $MHT_{\sigma}$  is then estimated as:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is due to the fact that the main source of recent in situ data is the Argo array of profiling floats (Riser et al., 2016) providing quality controlled temperature and salinity data for the upper 2000m only.

124 
$$OHC(t)_{MHT\sigma} = \int_{t_0}^t (MHT(t)_{\sigma} - \overline{MHT_{\sigma}}) dt$$

where *t* is a given year and the overbar refers to a temporal average over the period 1996 – 2013. This reference period is assumed to represent a climatological equilibrium state around which  $MHT_{\sigma}$  fluctuates, so that positive (negative) anomalies in  $MHT_{\sigma}$  result in warming (cooling) north of 45°N. As shown in Section 3.3, this assumption yields high and significant correlation between  $OHC_{MHT\sigma}$  and the observed OHC in the SPG.

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### 131 **2.3.** Computation of $SFOC_{\sigma}$ .

The surface-forced component of the overturning streamfunction SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> was computed following common practice and methodologies (Marsh, 2000). For each month and each isopycnal  $\sigma$  (spaced by  $\delta\sigma$  $= 0.05 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ), SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> is computed as the diapycnal convergence of the diapycnal volume flux driven by surface density flux wherever  $\sigma$  outcrops north of a given coast-to-coast section:

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137 
$$SFOC(\sigma^*) = \frac{1}{\delta\sigma} \iint \left[ -\frac{\alpha Q}{C_p} + \beta \frac{S}{1-S}(E-P) \right] \Pi(\sigma) dx dy$$

138 where

139 
$$\Pi(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ for } \sigma - \frac{\delta\sigma}{2} < \sigma < \sigma + \frac{\delta\sigma}{2} \\ 0 \text{ elsewhere} \end{cases}$$

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The quantity within brackets is the local surface density flux,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the thermal expansion and haline contraction coefficients,  $C_p$  is specific heat capacity of sea water (4000 J kg<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>), Q the net surface heat flux, E the evaporation rate, and P the precipitation rate. Following Marsh (2000), monthly fields of surface temperature (for density computation) and Q are used herein while monthly climatology values for surface salinity S and E - P are used to avoid introducing punctual spurious surface density anomalies due to poor salinity sampling (especially in the early historical record), notably near continental margin and seasonally-covered ice-covered areas. We note here that the air-sea buoyancy flux in the SPG, and therefore SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>, is largely controlled by its thermal component (Marsh, 2000). When for a given month (usually during summer),  $\sigma$  does not outcrop north of 45°N, SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> is set to zero. Annual averages are then obtained for 1985-2017. Even if SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> is a surface integral statement, maps of transformation rates can be obtained by accumulating the integrand over outcrops (Brambilla et al., 2008; Maze et al., 2009), as shown later in Section 3.1.

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In order to directly relate  $SFOC_{\sigma}$  and  $AMOC_{\sigma}$ , we rely on the assumption of water mass steadiness in the 154 SPG, meaning that the net accumulation of volume within isopycnal layers is considered to be negligible 155 in front of the import of light water to be transformed and the export of dense water after transformation 156 (Marsh, 2000). To verify this hypothesis, we compute  $\frac{dV_{\sigma}}{dt}$ , the yearly local change in the volume of 157 discrete isopycnal layer (in Sv), where  $V_{\sigma}$  is evaluated on January 1<sup>st</sup> of each year. Averaging this term 158 north of 45°N and summing below the density level of maximum SFOC<sub>5</sub> yields an evaluation of water 159 mass steadiness during each year. As discussed later, this term can be intermittently important but does 160 not dominate the decadal variability, so that a direct link emerges between SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> on those 161 relatively long-time scales. 162



**Figure 1.** Schematic of the relationship between meridional overturning circulation at latitude  $\phi$  and isopycnal surface  $\sigma$  – the AMOC( $\phi, \sigma$ ) – and its surface-forced component – the SFOC( $\phi, \sigma$ ). Arrows show the progressive transformation of waters across increasing density surfaces balanced by buoyancy loss at the air-sea interface and meridional import and export. After Marsh (2000).

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### 165 **3. Results**

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# 3.1. The time-mean AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>

167 The time-mean depth-longitude field of meridional velocity at 45°N (Figure 2A) is dominated by a western boundary current system in good quantitative agreement with direct current estimates carried out 168 in the region (Mertens et al., 2014; Toole et al., 2017). This current system includes the southward-169 flowing Labrador Current (LC) adjacent to the slope above 800 m (16 Sv), the upper part of the 170 southward-flowing DWBC circa 47°W with increasing velocities with depth (13 Sv), and the surface-171 intensified northward-flowing NAC (53 Sv) with its recirculation east of 45°W (28 Sv). Meridional 172 velocities are significantly weaker further east in the gyre interior. Integrating zonally the volume 173 transport above discrete  $\sigma_1$ -surfaces yields the (partial) AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> stream function at 45°N, which reaches 174 a time-mean maximum value of 14.3  $\pm$  1.4 Sv at  $\sigma_1$  = 32.15 (Figure 2B; see also Figure S2A for the 175 AMOC $_{\sigma}$  stream function of each individual product). A similar calculation in depth space yields the 176 (partial) AMOC<sub>z</sub> stream function at 45°N, which reaches a time-mean maximum value of  $9 \pm 0.4$  Sv at 177 700 m depth (Figure S2B). Therefore, about 60% of the maximum diapycnal volume flux above 2000 m 178 depth at 45°N is associated with a net downwelling in the vertical plane, the remainder being due to dense 179

180 waters returning at the same depth as that of the inflowing light waters within the horizontal gyre

181 circulation.



**Figure 2.** Meridional velocity and transport at 45°N (AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>). (A) Top: The 1993-2017 mean longitudedepth velocity field (in m s<sup>-1</sup>) at 45°N. The  $\sigma_1$  = 32.15 isopycnal across which the maximum diapycnal flux occurs is shown in black. Bottom: The depth-integrated (0-2000 m) zonally cumulated transport (in Sv) at 45°N, with labels as follow: LC (Labrador Current), DWBC (Deep Western Boundary Current), NAC (North Atlantic Current) and RECIRC (NAC recirculation). Shading indicates the ensemble standard error. (B). The mean AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> streamfunction at 45°N (in Sv). Shading indicates the ensemble standard error. The blue dashed line at  $\sigma_1$  = 32.15 depicts the maximum transformation rate.

The surface-forced component of the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (noted SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>) shows a maximum time-mean value of 182  $15.4 \pm 1.8$  Sv at  $\sigma_0 = 27.4$  (or  $\sigma_1 \approx 32$ ), which reflects a light-to-dense flux that primarily occurs along the 183 NAC path in the eastern SPG south of Reykjanes Ridge and to a lesser extent along the western SPG 184 boundary (Labrador Sea), along the Norwegian margins (Figure 3). This pattern is consistent with recent 185 mooring-based analysis of the diapycnal overturning in the SPG showing a relatively minor contribution 186 of the Labrador Sea to the basin-wide maximum transformation rates (Lozier et al., 2019). This is because 187 the density level of maximum transformation in the Labrador Sea is well below the density level of the 188 basin-wide AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (or SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>). The spatial distribution of the surface-forced diapycnal volume flux 189 within the domain is inferred by evaluating  $SFOC_{\sigma}$  at two additional key sections: the international 190 Canada-Greenland-Scotland OSNAP and the Greenland-Iceland-Scotland (GIS) sills. The SFOC<sub>o</sub>OSNAP 191

and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub><sup>GIS</sup> stream functions respectively show a maximum transformation rate of 11.2 ± 1.3 Sv at  $\sigma_0$ 192 = 27.52 and 5.4 Sv  $\pm$  0.4 Sv at  $\sigma_0$  = 27.77, in good agreement with independent *in situ* calculations of the 193 maximum overturning across the OSNAP line and overflow transport estimates at the GIS (Hansen and 194 Østerhus, 2000; Li et al., 2017). Altogether, the three estimates of SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> across 45°N, OSNAP, and GIS, 195 describe the expected decrease in intensity and increase in density of the maximum transformation rate 196 197 as one progress northward. We note that the density level of the maximum SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 45°N is slightly lighter than the density level of the maximum AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 45°N. This is because SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> cannot account 198 for the positive transformation rate due to the entrainment-driven mixing of the subpolar mode waters 199 with the denser overflow waters in the vicinity of the GIS sills. However, the analysis of numerical 200 simulations shows that such a mixing contribution does not largely affect interannual and decadal 201 202 variability (Marsh et al., 2005), our primary purpose here.

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Figure 3. The surface-forced transformation north of 45°N (SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>). (A) The 1993-2017 time-mean transormation map across the isopycnal surface  $\sigma_0 = 27.4$  (in Sv m<sup>-2</sup>), across which the maximum transformation rate north of 45°N occurs. (B) The mean SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> streamfunction (in Sv) at 45°N (red), at the OSNAP line (green) and at the GIS sills (yellow). See 5A) for section locations. Shading indicates the ensemble standard error. The dashed lines depict the density levels of maximum surface-forced transformation rate north for each domain. As the computation was made using  $\sigma_0$  the corresponding surface  $\sigma_1$  values are shown on the

right-hand side y-axis. The surface integral of the diapycnal volume flux shown in (A) yields the maximum transformation rate through  $\sigma_0 = 27.4 : 15.4 \pm 1.8$  Sv.

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## 3.2. The variability of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>

The maximum AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> time series, displayed as raw and 7-year low-pass filtered annual anomalies in 207 Figure 4A (blue lines), shows an apparent 8-year period variability embedded in a linear decrease during 208 1993-2010 of -0.24  $\pm$  0.05 Sv yr<sup>-1</sup> and a subsequent intensification during 2010-2017 of 0.91  $\pm$  0.19 Sv 209 yr<sup>-1</sup>. Those changes are largely advective (Figure S4), indicating minor impact of volume (or  $\sigma_{\rm m}$ ) 210 variability on the AMOC intensity. Volume redistribution associated with the formation history of 211 intermediate water masses in the Labrador and Irminger seas can be important but they remain restricted 212 to the lower limb of the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (not shown). We note that the AMOC<sub>Z</sub> shares a similar variability with 213 AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> but of weaker amplitude, indicating an important contribution of the horizontal circulation 214 (versus vertical overturning) to the diapycnal volume flux variability at 45°N (Figure S4). The gyre 215 contribution to AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> variability at 45°N is also inferred from an independent mooring-based 216 observation of the (400m-bottom) DWBC intensity at 53°N (Zantopp et al., 2017). Although the shortness 217 of the time series (10 years) only allows a suggestive independent validation, the DWBC variability is 218 found to consistently lead the 2004-2010 weakening and the 2010-2014 intensification of the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 219 45°N by 3 years (Figure S4). 220

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The second independent validation of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> bears the mechanistic explanation of its variability. While the maximums of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> hardly correlate at high frequency, a striking correspondence between their low-pass filtered variability is found, with the largest correlation obtained when the former lags the latter by 5-6 years (0.94 at the 99% confidence level), in line with typical advective time scales in the SPG (Bersch et al., 2007) (Figure 4A – see also Supplementary Materials for details on smoothing and correlation). Therefore, observational data confirm that surface-forced water mass transformation represents a dominant driver as well as an easily-derived proxy of low-frequency AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> changes across the southern exit of the SPG. Departure from an exact match between AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> relate to the influence of the remaining terms in the volume budget equation, namely diapycnal mixing and volume storage within the SPG interior. As shown in Figure S5, the latter can be non-negligible on interannual time scale but exhibits minor decadal variability.

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The 5-year time lag between AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> time series enables prediction of near-future AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> 234 variability. Here, the low-frequency strengthening of the meridional circulation observed since 2010 is 235 found to continue at a similar rate until 2022 while reaching extreme intensities in 2019 and 2020 similar 236 to those observed in the early 1990's. Those extreme events reflect harsh atmospheric winter conditions 237 238 in the SPG in 2014 and 2015 (North Atlantic Oscillation strongly positive) associated with large oceanto-atmosphere heat transfer (Josey et al., 2018). As discussed in the next section, this most recent positive 239 trend in AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> intensity and its predicted persistence until the early 2020's may substantially increase 240 OHC in the SPG in the coming years. 241



**Figure 4. The AMOC**<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>. (A) Annual anomalies in the maximum AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (blue) and the maximum SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> (red) at 45°N (in Sv), with the latter shifted 5 years forward (lag of maximum correlation). The reference (time-mean) period is 1996-2013. Thick lines show 7-year low-pass filtered time series. The right-hand side axis

displays the corresponding heat transport anomalies. The original time line for SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> is given in the top x-axis. (B) The 7-year low-pass filtered time series of anomalies in the maximum SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 45°N (red – shifted 5 years forward), the maximum SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at the OSNAP line (green – shifted 4 years forward) decomposed into contributions from the eastern (thin) and western (dashed) basins, and the maximum SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at the GIS sills (yellow – shifted 3 years forward). Shading indicates the ensemble standard errors for each variable.

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The decadal variability in the maximum SFOC $_{\sigma}$  at 45°N has minor contribution from the Nordic Seas and 244 is effectively captured by SFOC $_{\sigma}^{OSNAP}$ , although the contribution from regions south of the OSNAP line 245 appears important during its most recent intensification since 2010 (Figure 4B). The variability in SFOC $_{\sigma}$ 246 is dominated by changes in the rate of water mass transformation in the eastern SPG basins, in line with 247 recent mooring-based estimates of the AMOC $_{\sigma}$  across the OSNAP line (Lozier et al., 2019). The 248 successive 1-year lag between SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 45°N, SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at OSNAP and SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at GIS reflects the 249 progressive northward spreading of transformation anomalies across surface of increasing density (see 250 Figure 3B). 251

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#### 253

### **3.3.** The variability of OHC and its 5-year prediction

The lagged correlation between surface-forced water mass transformation and the overturning circulation 254 has important ramifications for the monitoring of past, present and future fluctuations of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> but 255 does not inform on its role in driving decadal OHC variability in the SPG. To infer such a role, the 256 AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>-driven meridional heat transport at 45°N – noted MHT<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> hereafter – is computed from the 257 maximum AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> index (Figure 4A) and the temperature difference between the upper and lower 258 AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> limbs at 45°N (see Section 2.2). The time-mean MHT<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> at 45°N during 1993-2017 reaches 0.43 259  $\pm$  0.04 PW and is balanced by an ocean-to-atmosphere heat transfer of 0.21  $\pm$  0.04 PW, a small long-term 260 change in OHC within the SPG domain of  $0.014 \pm 0.002$  PW, and a northward ocean heat transport across 261 the GIS sills estimated as a residual as 0.20 PW (consistent with independent estimates, Curry et al., 2011; 262 Hansen et al., 2015; Hansen & Østerhus, 2000). 263

The cumulated anomalies of  $MHT_{\sigma}$  referenced to the time-window 1996-2013 show high correlation with 265 the observed OHC within the 0-1000 m layer of the SPG (10°W-70°W; 45°N-65°N, Figure 5). In 266 particular, both the 1993-2006 warming and the 2006-2013 cooling of the region are well explained by 267 the contribution of MHT<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> variability at 45°N (r = 0.87 at the 99% confidence level for 1993-2013). This 268 is consistent with previous model-based inferences that the AMOC $_{\sigma}$  is a primary driver of decadal 269 temperature changes in the upper SPG (Desbruyères et al., 2015; Grist et al., 2010; Robson et al., 2016). 270 This causal relationship is however not verified during 2013-2015, where  $MHT_{\sigma}$  induces a warming of 271 the SPG whereas *in situ* observations indicate that OHC continued to decrease. This apparent discrepancy 272 reflects the strong air-sea heat flux anomaly that drove a sharp cooling of the upper SPG during those 273 years - the so-called "Cold blob" (Duchez et al., 2016; Josey et al., 2018). From 2015, atmospheric 274 conditions were back to "normal" and the  $MHT_{\sigma}$ -driven warming of the SPG could begin. 275



**Figure 5. OHC variability.** Detrended anomalies in OHC within the upper SPG (0-1000 m;  $10^{\circ}W-70^{\circ}W$ ;  $45^{\circ}N-65^{\circ}N$ , black, in J) and MHT<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>-driven OHC anomalies north of  $45^{\circ}N$  (blue, in J). Shading indicates the ensemble standard errors for each variable. The SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>-driven OHC prediction for 2017-2022 is shown in red, with its associated error based on the historical predictive skills of SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub>. The green patch indicates the "cold blob" era driven by extreme air-sea flux events (Josey et al., 2018).

We finally make use of the remarkable 5-year lead of  $SFOC_{\sigma}$  onto  $AMOC_{\sigma}$  (Figure 4A) to make a 278 suggestive prediction of AMOC $_{\sigma}$ -driven OHC changes between 2017 and 2022. Annually-averaged 279 anomalies of SFOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> are scaled by the actual interannual variance of AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and converted into an 280 anomalous heat transport relative to 1996-2013 with associated OHC anomalies as previously shown. To 281 make the prediction, we simply anchor the resulting 2017-2022 time series to the last observed OHC 282 value of 2017 (red line, Figure 5). An uncertainty is added on the prediction based on the skill of  $SFOC_{\sigma}$ 283 in predicting the historical 1993-2017 OHC (red shading in Figure 5). This uncertainty is the prediction 284 error  $\in_{lag}$  from the  $N_{lag}$ -year time series, with lag = 1 to 5 years: 285

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$$\epsilon_{lag} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N_{lag}}} \sum \left\{ (OHC^{y+lag} - OHC^{y}) - (OHC_{SFOC\sigma}^{y+lag} - (OHC_{SFOC\sigma}^{y})) \right\}^2$$

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Owing to the ongoing intensification of the AMOC<sub> $\sigma$ </sub> and its presumed persistence until 2019/2020 (Figure 4A), and under the (hypothesized) absence of extreme air-sea heat flux events in the near-future, the present analysis predicts a rapid OHC surge of  $1.03 \pm 0.57 \ 10^{22}$  J between 2017 and 2021 (Figure 5).

292

#### **4.** Conclusions

In this paper we have provided observationally-based evidence of a tight causal relationship between low 294 frequency changes in the rate of surface-forced water mass transformation in the eastern SPG, the 295 variability of the overturning circulation at 45°N, and ocean heat content trends in the SPG. The 5-year 296 delay between surface property changes in the SPG and downstream circulation changes suggests good 297 skills for short-term predictability in the region from the sole use of ocean surface and air-sea interface 298 measurements. Here, a strong intensification of the overturning and associated heat transport from 2010 299 is found to persist until the early 2020's, driving a new significant reversal of climatic condition in the 300 SPG as temperature rapidly rise from their last minimum of 2017. The extreme winters of 2014 and 2015 301 appear as key drivers of those recent and upcoming changes in the SPG. They are found to be responsible 302 for rapidly cooling the upper ocean while feeding a 5-year delayed intensification of the overturning 303

through increased light-to-dense transformation, leading eventually to a sharp warming of the domain. 304 We note that the series of oceanic events described herein, from surface-forced water mass transformation 305 to meridional circulation and heat content changes, are only suggestively presented as a forced response 306 to atmospheric variability. Understanding the extent to which they may belong to a more complex loop 307 308 of coupled ocean-atmosphere interactions is beyond the scope of the present study. Finally, the present analysis confirms the suitability of the international mooring-based OSNAP array for capturing the bulk 309 of interannual and decadal circulation changes driven by air-sea buoyancy exchanges in the whole 310 subpolar area. 311

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